From saboteurs to allies: The role of children and youth in teacher candidates'

development of classroom management

by

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Abstract

How do children and youth in the classroom impact on the development of student teachers' classroom management skills during the teaching practicum? This study approached the problem through the sociology of childhood/youth, using a human development framework, and asked children and youth what role they believe they play in the formation of classroom management skills for teaching candidates. Utilizing a phenomenological method, this study sought to discover the perspectives of children and youth, and student teachers themselves, as classroom management developed.

Until now, the role that children and youth play in the development of classroom management for student teachers has largely been ignored. Through a series of observations, focus groups, student teacher questionnaires, and narratives, a portrait emerged of children and youth as active agents in the development of student teachers' classroom management skills. The key findings indicate that children and youth utilize their agentic status to communicate their needs to student teachers verbally, physically, and through behaviour. A new model of student teaching emerged, suggesting a teaching quadrad where children and youth in the classroom are recognized as playing a role equal to or more significant than that of associate teachers or faculty in the development of classroom management for student teachers.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine how children and youth in the classroom have an impact on the development of student teachers' classroom management skills during the teaching practicum. The perspectives of children and youth in the classroom, the experiences of student teachers during their placements, and the observations of the researcher are drawn upon to answer this question.

This study addressed the following research questions: How can children and youth in the classroom be observed to affect the development of classroom management for student teachers? What role do children and youth believe they play in the development of classroom management skills for student teachers? How do children and youth demonstrate agency in their efforts to communicate classroom management needs to student teachers? Finally, do student teachers believe the children and youth in their classrooms impact the development of classroom management skills during the practicum—and if so, are student teachers able to shift their focus away from their own teaching long enough to realize what the children and youth in their classrooms are telling them?

Much has been written about classroom management from the perspectives of teachers and researchers (e.g., Fuller, 1969; Hammerness, 2011; Hollingsworth, 1989; F. Jones, 2000;Kounin, 1970; Smith & Laslett, 1993).The literature indicates that student teachers rely heavily on their own beliefs (Clark, 1988; Leavy, McSorley, & Bote, 2007; Richardson, 1996) to inform their classroom management approach. Associate teachers

(Beck & Kosnik, 2002; Cherian, 2007; Murray-Harvey, Silins, & Saebel, 1999), university professors (Borko & Mayfield, 1995; Richardson-Koehler, 1988), and courses (Hammerness, 2011; M. G. Jones& Vesilind, 1996; van Tartwijk & Hammerness, 2011) also contribute to the development of classroom management skills in teaching candidates.

From a classroom management viewpoint, the voices of children are largely absent from the literature. Several authors, including Veenman (1984), Smith and Laslett (1993), M. G. Jones and Vesilind (1996), and Blumenfeld-Jones (1996), have hinted that children and youth might influence student teacher development. More specifically, Jones and Vesilind (1996) explained that extended teaching time with the same group of students makes it possible for student teachers to reorganize pedagogical knowledge. They suggested that students in the classroom offer material for the cognitive reconstruction process.

This research utilizes the sociology of childhood/youth, a human development theoretical framework, and a descriptive phenomenology design and method to examine the experiences of student teachers and the children and youth in their classrooms as student teachers develop classroom management skills. This framework acknowledges that children and youth's social relationships and cultures are worthy of study in their own right and not only in relation to the adults around them.

Utilizing the sociology of childhood/youth and a human development framework means that the authentic voices of children and youth are included in this study. This approach acknowledges that children and youth's social relationships and cultures are worthy of study in their own right and not only in relation to the adults around them

(Tilleczek, 2011. From a human development viewpoint, the experiences of children and youth are complex in nature and best viewed from an interdisciplinary perspective.

Phenomenology seeks to produce an accurate description of aspects of human experience (Ehrich, 2005).From a phenomenological viewpoint, there is no universal truth; everyone has different experiences (Ehrich, 2005). Each individual has unique experiences, attitudes, beliefs, and values. Thus, from a phenomenological viewpoint, each individual's experience is taken exactly as presented (Ehrich, 2005). In this study, then, the experiences of student teachers and the children and youth were accepted exactly as they are described. These experiences demonstrate how children and youth affect the development of student teachers' classroom management skills during the teaching practicum. By examining the role children and youth play, and considering their perspectives, this study represents a departure from existing literature.

Significance of the Study

Classroom management has too often been portrayed as a one-size-fits-all practice. Although several authors acknowledged that a classroom can include certain types of students (Wolfgang, 1999), they usually have not acknowledged how one child can change the entire dynamic of the classroom. For this reason, classroom management is not just an educational problem. It is an interdisciplinary problem affected by human development factors such as family income, social status, education, employment, working conditions, physical environment, biological and genetic endowment, and cultural and social environments. As parents, we learn that each child needs to be

parented differently; as teachers we need also to recognize that each child needs to be managed differently.

For too long, children and youth have not been given a voice in the classroom. According to Tilleczek's (2011) complex cultural nesting approach, the classroom is one of the places in which children and youth experience belonging in the world. If we agree that children and youth have agency in the classroom, then we must also accept that they have an ability to influence how they are taught.

Until now, prior beliefs, associate teachers, and faculty and courses during the Bachelor of Education have been thought to be the dominant factors influencing the development of classroom management for teaching candidates (Beck & Kosnik, 2002; Borko & Mayfield, 1995; Clark, 1988; Hollingsworth, 1989; M. G. Jones & Vesilind, 1996; Leavy et al., 2007; MacKinnon, 1989; Richardson, 1996). What has been completely disregarded is the fact that children and youth play as important a role in influencing the development of classroom management for student teachers as prior beliefs, courses, faculty, and/or associate teachers do—possibly even a *more* important role.

In this study, I have examined the phenomenon of classroom management through the lived experiences of the children and youth and their student teachers. I have observed how children and youth communicate their classroom management needs to teaching candidates. In addition, I have asked children and youth what they believe about their role in helping the student teachers learn classroom management. Finally, I have delved into the narratives of student teachers to determine their perspectives on the

impact that children and youth have on the student teacher's classroom management development.

Bracketing

Before beginning the study, I had to examine my role in the research. Morrow (2005, p. 254) described bracketing as "making one's implicit assumptions and biases overt to self and others" as standard in phenomenology.

During my Bachelor of Education, I never really understood what my professor was trying to teach us in our classroom management class. When I would ask him a question, every response seemed to be "well, it depends." I remember saying something like "Yes, of course everything 'depends,' but is there nothing you can tell us for certain?" I felt as if I really didn't learn anything in that class, but I was confident that as a former adult educator and the mother of two, I would be able to figure it out. After all, I had a big voice and could be scary when I wanted to.

It was the first day of my second teaching placement. Although I had received a pass on my first placement, I was disappointed with the feedback from my associate. He said I was doing well, but was not very strong in the area of classroom management. What I thought was kindness and patience, he interpreted as an inability to take control of the classroom.

As I walked into my new classroom, I was determined to be more forceful with the students and gain their respect early in the placement. The class started with individual reading, and each child was instructed to take out their book and read silently at his or her desk. I walked around the desks and each child was reading or at least looking at a book, except for one young man. He was sitting at his desk with his head on

his arms. I told him to get his book out, and I walked away and continued to demonstrate proximity by circulating around the classroom. When I had made the rounds, I returned to his desk and told him to get out his book and start reading. On my third round, I told him to get out his book immediately and I stood at his desk expecting him to comply, but he did not.

Soon after, the period had ended and we moved on to another subject. The next time I looked over in the young man's direction, I saw my associate teacher standing near him and talking with the special education teacher. The next thing I knew, the special education teacher was escorting the young man out of the classroom.

The associate teacher then explained to me that this young man had Oppositional Defiant Disorder, and when a teacher gave him directions in a direct manner with no opportunity for choices, he would "shut down," becoming uncooperative for the remainder of the day.

I felt sick. In attempting to demonstrate my authority, I had caused extra work for the associate and the special education teacher, and set back the young man's progress who knows how far.

At the time, I didn't make much sense of what had occurred, but after years of reflection, this incident stands out as the one that taught me how complex classroom management was and how important it was to get to know the children and youth in the class before deciding on a classroom management strategy.

This incident, in part, has inspired this research. My experiences as a parent have also had a huge impact on my interest in classroom management. I came to parenting fairly late in life and had plenty of time to read parenting books and try to make sense of

them. When my children arrived, I thought I knew how I was going to approach parenting.

What I did not know, however, was that each child needs to be parented in his or her own way; much like classroom management, there is no one approach that works for all. In order to learn how to parent a child, you really need to know that child, observe his or her reactions to your efforts, engage in reflection, and make changes. This is much like the experience of classroom management; in order to determine the best approach to a classroom, a teacher has to get to know each individual, watch the child's reactions to classroom management efforts, and adjust accordingly.

This study examines how children and youth show us (teachers and student teachers) how to manage the classroom—although perhaps the word *manage* is out of touch with such an approach, which makes efforts to learn from children and youth in the classroom.

Before beginning my research, I thought there was a good likelihood that children and youth were trying to communicate to student teachers what kind of classroom management approaches they would respond to best. I thought it was unlikely that the student teachers in this study would be aware of the efforts of children and youth and even less likely that they would reflect and adjust their efforts as a result.

By reflecting on my own experiences as a teacher and as a parent, I bracketed my expectations of this research and attempted to let the meaning emerge from the data. In addition to bracketing, I decided to create a hypothesis to bracket my beliefs about what the outcome of this study would be.

As any parent will tell you, children teach you how they want and need to be parented. For this reason, books on parenting can only provide so much direction. What works for a parent's first-born child might have the opposite effect on the next child. So too is it with classroom management. The classroom is a complex place where dynamics can shift from day to day; what works in one class may not work in another. By observing, listening, and reflecting on their experiences, student teachers can learn much about classroom management from the children and youth in their classroom. My hypothesis is that student teachers will not be able to recognize when or how children and youth are attempting to communicate their classroom management needs.

Context

Who and what influences the development of classroom management skills in student teachers? What is the experience of managing a classroom and the children and youth within it? How is classroom management understood and acted upon by student teachers? Current research indicates that prior experiences (Borko & Mayfield, 1995; Clark, 1988; Leavy et al., 2007;Richardson, 1996), associate teachers (Hollingsworth, 1989; MacKinnon, 1989), university supervisors, and education classes (Beck & Kosnik, 2002; M. G. Jones & Vesilind, 1996) all play roles in the development of classroom management skills for teaching candidates.

Is it possible that children and youth in the classroom also play a role in helping or hindering student teachers as they learn classroom management? M. G. Jones and Vesilind (1996) recognized that time spent with children in the classroom impacts the beliefs of student teachers about teaching, while Leavy, McSorley, and Bote (2007) made reference to a growing awareness of the central role played by the child in the classroom.

This study followed a phenomenological mode of inquiry to illuminate the lived experiences of student teachers and the children and youth in their classrooms as student teachers developed classroom management skills. Phenomenology, simply stated, is "an analysis of the way in which things or experiences show themselves" (Sanders, 1982, p. 354). This methodology and the pertinent literature will be reviewed and discussed in detail in this paper.

Chapter 2: Phenomenology and Classroom Management

Literature Review

The Practicum: Where Student Teaching Occurs

The practicum provides an opportunity for student teachers to practice teach while under the supervision of an experienced teacher (Ontario College of Teachers Act, 1996). Most teacher education programs rely on a combination of in-class theory with in-classroom practice (Korthagen & Kessels, 1999). In the Province of Ontario, Bachelor of Education programs are governed by the Ontario College of Teachers in Regulations 347/02 and 184/97. These regulations require that all Bachelor of Education programs provide teaching candidates with not less than 40 days of practice teaching in schools or other situations that utilize the Ontario Curriculum. In addition to this requirement, an experienced teacher must supervise practice teaching blocks and a faculty advisor must be appointed to each student teacher.

According to Guyton and McIntyre (1990), teachers consistently rate student teaching as the single most beneficial component of their preparation programs. Many others, including Campbell-Evans and Maloney (1995), D'Rozario and Wong (1996), and Murray-Harvey, Silins, and Saebel (1999), have identified the practicum as the most important learning experience in a student teacher's preparation. McDevitt (1996, p. 91) stated that "From the time of normal school at the turn of the century to that of 5th year

graduate programs of the 1990's, field experiences have been the most important component of teacher preparation programs and the subject of much critical scrutiny."

The practicum provides student teachers with the opportunity to make meaning of the theory they have been exposed to in class. According to Borko and Mayfield (1995), student teachers learn best by doing, through experience, practice, and making mistakes. The practicum is their opportunity to do this while they have a mentoring associate teacher to support and guide them. In many ways, the practicum is a cognitive apprenticeship that requires observation, action, and thought (Zeichner & Liston, 1996).

Along with this powerful learning opportunity comes stress. MacDonald (1992) and Murray-Harvey et al. (1999) reported that student teachers find the practicum to be the most stressful part of their teacher preparation. According to Murray-Harvey et al., this stress affects behaviour, reduces classroom effectiveness, and sabotages the learning environment.

The practicum is pivotal in student teacher development. It can be a time of great growth and development for teaching candidates; however, the significance of the practicum can result in stress, which may in turn stifle student teacher development.

Defining Classroom Management

Good classroom management encourages respect and creates an environment where learning can occur (Burden, 2006). There are many definitions of classroom management. According to Burden, "Classroom management involves teacher actions to create a learning environment that encourages positive social interaction, active engagement in learning, and self-motivation" (p. 4). Smith and Laslett (1993) suggested that classroom management combines mutual respect between teacher and students, as

well as mediation, modification, and monitoring in teaching and learning. F. Jones (2000) explained that classroom management simultaneously combines key elements of instruction, motivation, and discipline. Evertson, Emmer, and Worsham (2006) indicated that classroom management involves fostering student accountability and a learning environment.

Evertson et al. (2006) suggested that good teaching occurs when students are engaged and inappropriate behaviour is discouraged. They explained that, in an effectively managed classroom, there is minimal confusion; opportunities for student learning are maximized, and patterns, routines, and guidelines or rules are clear. Evertson et al. referred to Kounin's (1970) activity flow, whereby teachers multitask in order to keep all students engaged. Engagement prevents misbehaviour because students are interested in what they are doing. Conversely, boredom or frustration increase the likelihood of inappropriate behaviour (Ontario Ministry of Education, 1994). According to Evertson et al., classroom management presents many challenges, including managing movement, maintaining group focus, and managing improper behaviour. Managing movement involves keeping the lesson moving and structuring useful transitions between activities. Maintaining group focus relates to engaging the whole class and encouraging accountability and participation. Evertson et al. suggested that most inappropriate behaviour can be managed with gentle signals, including eye contact, a reminder, asking the student what he or she should be doing, or simply saying, "stop."

Smith and Laslett (1993) explained that classroom management is different from control because it emphasizes teaching and learning as complimentary activities. They suggested classroom management relies on clear rules, desired behaviours, and teacher

authority to maintain classroom order. Similarly, Marzano, Gaddy, Foseid, Foseid, and Marzano (2005) stressed that rules give students the structure they need and create a safe and predictable environment. Although there are times when a teacher must exert authority, good classroom management relies on students and teachers working together (Smith & Laslett, 1993). Marzano et al. divided classroom management into four categories: management, mediation, modification, and monitoring. Management consists of organizing and presenting the lesson. Mediation involves providing individual counselling and guidance, as required. Modification involves applying learning theory to programs that help to shape and change behaviour, while monitoring includes checking the effectiveness of practices (Marzano et al., 2005).

Most classroom management systems rely on an escalating pattern of consequences, which begin with non-verbal signals, progress to warnings, and end in the ultimate deterrent, school suspension or expulsion (Sarason, 1996; Marzano et al., 2005). For students who are not engaged in learning, suspension or expulsion is not the ultimate deterrent. Instead, it provides a break from an environment they do not enjoy or find valuable. As a result, schools have begun to think twice before sending a child home (Skiba & Peterson, 2000).

Not all authors on the subject of classroom management believe that children need to be managed. Blumenfeld-Jones (1996) referred to classroom management or classroom discipline as "patriarchal moral systems focused on hyper-individuality" (p. 5). She suggests that in disciplining a child for misbehaving, the teacher separates the child from the group, positioning the child as someone who does not belong. This in turn

increases feelings of alienation on the child's part, making it less likely that he or she will want to participate in the classroom.

For Blumenfeld-Jones (1996), traditional systems of classroom discipline rely on the teacher being the most important person in the classroom. Everyone else in the classroom is merely reacting to the actions of the teacher. Blumenfeld-Jones proposed that instead, authority in the classroom should be shared and that the classroom should be a place where students hold significant roles. Similarly, F. Jones (2000) found that students do better both academically and socially when they are both comfortable and relaxed in the classroom.

Many educators use the terms *discipline* and *management* interchangeably. However, Laut (1999) explained how discipline and management differ: discipline is reactive in nature, whereas management is proactive. Management attempts to create an environment where students are engaged in learning and inappropriate behaviour decreases that engagement. Marzano et al. (2005) utilized the word *discipline* when referring to some type of punishment.

Blumenfeld-Jones (1996) suggested that all classroom management systems are predicated on the belief that children chose to behave inappropriately and that they can control such behaviour if they wish. This is not always the case. Children with Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), Attention Deficit Disorder (ADD), Learning Disabilities (LD), Fetal Alcohol Spectrum Disorder or developmental delays may lack the ability to recognize social cues that enable them to react in an appropriate manner (Bigelow, 2006). Moreover, acts of resistance to poor teaching may be the purpose of

some of this behaviour from children (Burden, 2006). This kind of explanation requires a more reflective practice on the part of the educator.

As the literature agrees, the purpose of classroom management is to create a safe predictable learning environment. A good classroom management system incorporates well-planned lessons that discourage misbehaviour and maintain group focus. Such a system relies on teacher monitoring (Smith & Laslett, 1993) and student engagement (Burden, 2006).

Classroom Management Styles

Classroom management styles vary from teacher to teacher and from school to school. No one model works successfully all the time or with all children (Wolfgang, 1999). Burden (2006) outlined several styles of classroom management and categorizes them on a continuum from low control to high control. A low-control classroom is one in which the students set the rules and determine the management of the classroom. A high-control classroom is one where the teacher controls the management of the classroom and carefully monitors behaviour. F. Jones (2000) argued that students respond to a style somewhere between low control and high control.

Wolfgang and Glickman (1986) suggested that teachers fall into one of three classroom management styles: non-interventionists (low control), interventionists, and interactionists. They found that non-interventionist teachers were more likely to engage in relationship building and listening while interventionists or teachers who used a high-control classroom management style relied on rules, rewards, and punishment in order to produce the desired behaviour. Interactionists or moderate-control teachers were more likely to engage in confronting and contracting as a part of their management style. In a

later work, Wolfgang (1999) grouped classroom theories into four broad categories of response: relationship-listening, confronting-contracting, rules-and-consequences, and coercive-legalistic approaches. Consistent with Burden (2006), each approach relies on an escalating scale of teacher control at the expense of student autonomy.

Martin and Baldwin (1993) based their study of classroom management styles on Wolfgang and Glickman's (1986) continuum, but also incorporated two other measurements. Martin and Baldwin found that novice teachers were more interventionist than teachers with three or more years of experience and that secondary teachers were more interventionist than elementary teachers. Teachers who were more interventionist were also more conservative in their values although their beliefs about students did not differ from teachers who were less interventionist. They found that more experienced teachers who adopted an interactionist classroom style also demonstrated a good sense of self and a high internal locus of control. Perhaps this sense of self permitted the experienced teachers to be more flexible in their classroom management style?

In most Bachelor of Education programs in Ontario, students complete a classroom management inventory that provides some insight into their classroom management style. At Laurentian University's School of Education in Sudbury, Kearney's (2008) Classroom Management Profile is used at the beginning of the professional year. Students respond to 12 classroom management situations in order to determine their dominant style of classroom management. The four styles are authoritarian, authoritative, laissez-faire, and indifferent. The authoritarian teacher relies on firm limits and control. This could also be described as a high-control style of classroom management. The authoritative teacher establishes limits and exerts control but

simultaneously encourages independence in the classroom. The laissez-faire teacher is indifferent, places few demands on students, and prioritizes feelings over control. The indifferent teacher is not engaged with students or learning and does not try to manage the classroom environment. Although this profile is an oversimplification of classroom management style, it does motivate students to begin to think about their own style and what kind of teacher they hope to become.

In 1980, Anyon found that the environment in which a teacher was teaching also greatly affected classroom management style. Also key in Anyon's (1980) research was awareness that social class affected not only what children were taught, but also how they were taught, what behaviour was expected of them, and their relationship with their teachers. She discovered that, in working-class schools, students were often taught through rote learning, a more passive form of instruction. Students were expected to copy the teacher's notes and follow directions. In middle-class schools, more emphasis was placed on obtaining the right answer. Creativity was not encouraged and most lessons were taught based on a textbook. In the most affluent schools, Anyon observed increased family engagement and emphasis on creativity. In these schools, learning was fun and interactive. Learning was viewed as an opportunity to develop one's intellectual powers, and students were encouraged to have opinions and think critically about their place as global citizens. Following up on Anyon's research, Brint (1998) suggested that parents support such class-structured teaching environments because of their own school experiences. Tilleczek (2011) contended that, in some ways, schools hold young people back and reproduce the inequities that exist in society. She explains that too many youth

feel unwelcome in schools at a time in their lives when education is crucial to their human and societal development.

Anyon (1980) suggested that the school environment largely replicates the class order in society. The education system encourages children to stay within their social class by developing intellectual abilities that depend on either an external or an internal locus of control. Those with an external locus of control depend on others to motivate them and are less likely to assume leadership roles in society. This is similar to Bourdieu's (1990) social reproduction theory, which suggests that education is the dominant group's means of maintaining the social order.

The literature therefore suggests the existence of a continuum of classroom management styles ranging from low control to high control. No one style of classroom management works in every classroom. The style chosen or practised by a teacher may be influenced by the socio-economic status of the student body, the personality of the teacher, the grade level being taught, and the amount of experience a teacher has.

Classroom Management: Challenges and Tensions

For most student teachers, classroom management is the most difficult aspect of teaching to master (Housego, 1990; Veenman, 1984). Joram and Gabriele (1998) reported that classroom management is the main concern of student teachers. Clark and Lampert (1986) estimated that teachers are required to make decisions every two minutes while teaching. They must continually adapt lessons based on students' reactions:

> The teacher encounters a host of interrelated and competing decision situations
> both while planning and during teaching. There are no perfect or optimal

solutions to these decisions. A gain for one student or in one subject matter may
mean a foregone opportunity for others. (p. 28)

Darling-Hammond (1997) explained that "there are no prepackaged set of steps or
lessons that will secure understanding for every learner in the same way" (p. 12).
Shulman (1984; cited in Clark, 1988) has characterized the task environment as more
complex than that faced by a physician in a diagnostic examination. F. Jones (2000)
stated that classroom management is more complex than child-rearing: "We are
attempting to rear a room full of other people's children, simultaneously teaching them
academic skills and the basics of civilization" (p. 160). Referring to many attempts to
simplify classroom management, he added, "Yet, people keep looking for the answer in a
'one-liner'" (p. 160).

Hollingsworth (1989) considered task awareness to be an indicator of growth in
classroom management ability. In order to demonstrate task awareness, the student
teachers in her study were required to show some recognition that the same lesson would
have different learning effects on different children. Only 5 of the 14 student teachers in
Hollingsworth's study reached this level. She concluded that there may be a sequential
order in which learning occurs and that it may be best to recognize this and not require
student teachers to think about all aspects of teaching at once. Although some knowledge
of course content and pedagogy is required to teach, as Hollingsworth observed, without
some classroom management ability it is impossible to teach at all: "Learning to manage a
classroom does not occur in isolation within teacher education programs—which may
account for part of its difficulty. It occurs simultaneously and, in fact, reflectively with
learning to teach school subjects and becoming aware of pupil's comprehension" (p.

177). Hollingsworth also found that gaining students' cooperation was necessary to reduce the complexity of teaching and to allow the teacher to concentrate on the subject matter. Only after the teacher has the cooperation of students can he or she focus on the subject matter.

Hollingsworth (1989) found that student teachers in her study needed to become aware of their initial beliefs and at the same time look to the associate teacher and/or university supervisor as role models. They also needed to recognize that they had something worth teaching and demand student cooperation. This growth in learning classroom management is illustrated in Hollingsworth's (1989) Model of Learning General Classroom Management (see Figure A1 in Appendix A).

It takes time for this kind of awareness to develop. Fuller's (1969) classic study discovered that student teachers begin their practice teaching with concerns largely related to their own performance. More recent research (Marso & Pigge, 1997) confirmed Fuller's findings. This makes sense in light of the fact that teaching candidates are judged on their performance. Fuller observed that with continued experience, student teachers' concerns began to shift from self to other. Thus, with more experience, student teachers became less anxious about their abilities and are more able to focus on the students and their learning. Leavy et al. (2007) also suggested that although teacher education may have a "sleeper effect" (a term coined by Featherstone, 1993), much of the knowledge acquired in teacher education programs becomes meaningful only with teaching experience. As a result, it may take a teacher several years to understand and appreciate the theory he or she was exposed to during teacher training.

Classroom management is a skill slow to develop in student teachers. It is a complex process whereby student teachers must continually assess the dynamics of their classroom and make choices. In order for student teachers to begin to be concerned with student learning, they must first develop confidence in their teaching abilities.

Classroom Management Influences: Prior Beliefs

Student teachers have well-formulated beliefs about teaching and learning prior to beginning their teacher training, as Clark (1988), Richardson (1996), and Leavy et al. (2007) observed. These same authors acknowledged that much of a teacher's classroom management style will be grounded in his or her beliefs about children and learning, and thus these beliefs will influence how teacher candidates teach. Bruner (1996) stated, "once we recognize that a teacher's conception of a learner shapes that instruction he or she employs, and then equipping teachers (or parents) with the best theory of the child's mind becomes crucial" (p. 49). This is especially true when examining the role of prior beliefs in classroom management.

Teachers' beliefs are often not well thought out: These beliefs come "from many sources, rules of thumb, generalizations drawn from personal experience, beliefs, values, biases, and prejudices" (Clark, 1988, p. 6). As Clarke (1988) observed, "These preconceptions are formed from thousands of hours of observation of teachers, good and bad, over the previous fifteen or so years" (p. 7). Consistently, Richardson (1996, cited in Leavy et al., 2007), found that teachers' beliefs are derived from personal experiences, school experiences, and teacher education. Leavy et al. (2007) suggested that the attitudes held on entry to pre-service training programs greatly influence what student teachers learn and have a significant impact on their classroom practices. Leavy et al. proposed

that one of the goals of teacher education should be to transform naïve, undeveloped beliefs into informed ideas through examination of such beliefs.

In their examination of pre-service teachers' beliefs, Leavy et al. (2007) found that at the beginning of their teaching experiences, 49% of participants held behaviourist beliefs about teaching, learning and children, while 24% were of a constructivist nature, 18% were self-referential, and 9% were situative. Those with behaviourist beliefs viewed teaching and learning as a process of individual growth through the acquisition of new knowledge. Those with constructivist beliefs viewed children as active in achieving conceptual coherence, such that teachers should play a coaching role in their learning. The students with situative beliefs about teaching and learning believed that knowledge is made meaningful through context and activities, while self-referential beliefs reflected participants' personal beliefs about teaching, based on their experiences. Leavy et al. (2007) also noted that it is not surprising that many teaching candidates would begin with a behaviourist viewpoint that focuses on themselves as teachers and not on the children they are teaching. This finding is consistent with Fuller's (1969) early study, which indicated that student teachers are most concerned with themselves early in their teaching experience and only later begin to develop concerns about student learning.

After student teachers progressed through the semester and gained experience, Leavy et al. (2007) observed an increase in constructivist beliefs. They suggested that part of these findings may be related to a growing awareness of the central role of the child in the classroom; as one participant said,

> I see now that before I student taught I never thought about having to help
> children learn and understand the material, I sort of thought that learning

happened automatically. Now I see that one of the biggest jobs of a teacher is

setting up things . . . or learning experiences that help a kid make their own sense

of things. (p. 10)

Hollingsworth (1989) suggested that "Teacher education programs are traditionally

designed in a manner that capitalizes on pre-existing knowledge of what schools and

classrooms are like, thereby ensuring that pre-service teachers turn out to be very much

like the existing teaching force" (p. 162). She argued that increased emphasis should be

placed on how students learn; however, she made no mention of getting to know the

students as individuals. This is consistent with Weisner and Salkend (2004), who stated

that most teaching candidates will teach based on how they were taught or will teach in

the same manner as their associate teacher.

Prior beliefs thus serve as a type of filter through which new knowledge is

understood (Hollingsworth, 1989). In her study, Hollingsworth (1989) observed that

general managerial routines needed to be in place before subject-specific content and

pedagogy could become the focus of a student teacher's attention. In addition, managerial

and academic routines were required before teachers could actively focus on students'

learning from academic tasks in the classroom. This is illustrated in Hollingsworth's

Model of Learning to Teach (see Figure B1 in Appendix B). Thus, as Leavy et al. (2007)

argued, "Teacher educators can no longer be concerned with imparting knowledge about

teaching, rather, teacher education must provide avenues for student teachers to

understand the values, attitudes and beliefs that they bring to pre-service teacher

education and then to plot and monitor their own professional growth" (p. 13).

Student teachers enter teaching programs with beliefs about teaching that are based on observations and relate to their own experiences. In order for growth to occur during the teaching experience, some examination and modification of pre-existing beliefs must occur.

Classroom Management Influences: Associate Teachers

Bachelor of Education programs in Ontario rely on associate teachers to provide the practical part of a teacher's preparation. Inviting a teaching candidate into their classroom is risky for associates who have no knowledge of the strength or weaknesses that student may possess.

In Ontario, student teachers must complete 40 days of practice teaching in an associate teacher's classroom in order to graduate with a Bachelor of Education. The selection of associate teachers is strictly governed by the Ontario College of Teachers. Under Regulation 347/02, associate teachers must have at least two years of teaching experience, be a "good role model" to teaching candidates, and be a member in good standing with the Ontario College of Teachers. A member in good standing is one who has paid his or her annual dues and whose membership has not been revoked for violating the standards of practice for teachers in Ontario.

Cherian (2007) reported that having a caring associate teacher is one of the most significant aspects affecting a student teacher. Similarly, Beck and Kosnik (2002) discovered that the friendliness or emotional support of an associate teacher cannot be overestimated. A welcoming, approachable, and flexible associate made the student teachers feel more at ease. Beck and Kosnik also suggested that a caring associate is one who provides emotional support and is conscious of the power differential in the

relationship between teaching candidate and associate. Student teachers are in many ways reliant on the benevolence of the associate teacher. Student teachers depend on the associate to create a welcoming environment, share knowledge, and guide them through the rough patches. All the while, student teachers are keenly aware that they are walking a fine line between established routines and trying out some of the theories they have learned in class. According to Murray-Harvey et al. (1999), a good relationship with the associate can be an effective resource in dealing with stress.

In their work with teaching candidates during the practicum, Beck and Kosnick (2002) found that student teachers in their study desired respect from their associates and a collaborative relationship that included working together to plan lessons and identify resources. Student teachers expressed a desire for associates who were strong teachers and could act as role models. When it came to delivery of the lessons, however, student teachers preferred to teach on their own with minimal intervention from their associate. Student teachers expressed a strong need for high-quality feedback that identified both strengths and areas where growth was needed.

According to Kornick (1989), cooperating teachers take on student teachers for a variety of reasons. Many feel a sense of professional obligation and see the opportunity as a chance to revitalize their teaching. Others look forward to company in the classroom. C. Morin, (2008) stated, "It is an absolute pleasure to be able to share one's knowledge, ideas and expertise," and she suggested that "Working with a teacher candidate also allows one to analyze oneself, with the ultimate goal of improving our own teaching as we observe the teacher candidate" (p. 2).

Sometimes associate teachers agree to take a student teacher into their classroom but have reservations. Graham (1997) referred to her experiences as an associate teacher as both the most rewarding and most difficult professional relationship of her career. If the teaching candidate is unable to communicate key concepts to students during her teaching, the associate will need to re-teach the material before moving on to more complex concepts. This can be extremely risky in their final placement, when student teachers are responsible for 100% of the teaching. Koerner (1992) found that having a student teacher in the classroom resulted in an interruption of instruction, displacement of the teacher from the central position in the classroom, disruption of the classroom routine, and a shifting of the teacher's time and energy away from students and towards the student teacher.

Beck and Kosnik (2002) referenced the work of Cole and Sorrill (1992), who stressed that associates must volunteer for their role willingly and not be coerced into it. In order to be effective, associate teachers need to be good role models to teaching candidates and well-grounded in their own teaching. Cameron-Jones (1997) suggested that associate teachers must strike a fine balance between providing support for the student teacher but also challenging him or her.

The role of the cooperating or associate teacher is one that comes with inherent power. Santoro (1999) described the practicum as "a place where relationships of power are negotiated, established, maintained and broken down" (p. 31). In many ways, the associate teacher has the career of the student teacher in his or her hands. If all goes well between the two individuals, the student receives a good evaluation. If the placement does not go well and the student receives a poor evaluation from the associate teacher, his

or her chances of landing a job may be significantly lessened. Clifton (1979) described

this as a marginal situation in which the student teacher's greatest concern is survival of

the practicum. At its worst, the practicum can disintegrate to a situation where the

associate teacher is powerful, competent, assertive, and strong, and the student teacher is

the exact opposite: powerless, incompetent, submissive, and weak (Turnbull, 2005).

According to Tennant (1991), the political and emotional tensions between a student

teacher and the associate are found in all adult relationships. However, when these

tensions become negative, they can inhibit a student teacher's growth.

Ritchie, Rigano, and Lowry (2000) suggested that the power differential between

the associate and the teaching candidate is based on experience. Student teachers may

have established themselves in other aspects of life, but they do not possess the

experience in a classroom that the associate has. The same authors point out that a well-

developed personal identity is helpful in becoming a successful teacher.

Although an unsuccessful placement is not uncommon, few students actually

receive failing grades. Graham (1997) reported that tensions between the associate and

student teacher most often arise from philosophical differences regarding the roles of

teacher and different tolerance levels for uncertainty. There are very few right answers in

teaching, and when the associate and student are mismatched in their tolerance of

uncertainty, tension can result.

Sudzina, Giebelhaus, and Coolican (1997) explained that there are three basic

reasons that student teachers fail a practicum. Poor communication, unrealistic

expectations, and a conflict in teaching styles between the associate and the student are

the most common reasons for failure. Unsuccessful placements are often the result of

poor communication or a miscommunication between the student teacher and the associate. This lack of communication inhibits the formation of a good relationship between the associate and the student teacher.

Although a significant difference in teaching styles between the associate and the student teacher can result in failure, conversely it can also result in the greatest growth. Hollingsworth (1989) suggested that this type of situation can be a great opportunity for growth if the student chose to reflect on it. According to MacKinnon (1989), most teachers follow the lead of their associate teacher and attempt to mimic his or her teaching style in order to avoid receiving a poor evaluation. Although few students actually fail, many practicum experiences are difficult and stress-filled experiences when the associate and the student teacher are not well matched.

Associate teachers play an instrumental part in preparing new teachers. Allowing teaching candidates into their classrooms exposes associate teachers to risk and criticism. When associates and student teachers are mismatched, the practicum experience can be difficult for all involved.

Classroom Management Influences: University Classes and Faculty

The university prepares student teachers for their practicum by exposing them to classroom management theory. Classroom management is an aspect considered so significant that an entire course is usually devoted to the subject. During the practicum, student teacher supervisors are often the same individuals who teach theory classes.

Koerner (1992) found that most associate teachers felt unprepared for their role and unsupported by the university. Associates begin the experience wanting to be equal partners with the university in preparing the student. Instead, by allowing a student

teacher into their classroom, associates find themselves under increased scrutiny. Not only is the student critiquing their teaching, but students may also share their critiques with the university supervisor. Many associates found it ironic that by agreeing to this increased responsibility, they become fodder for discussion at the university (Koerner, 1992).

According to Beck and Kosnik (2002), many associate teachers believe supervising faculty are too easy on teaching candidates. However, Beck and Kosnik suggested that excessive stress during the practicum can inhibit learning and keep student teachers from experimenting and developing a progressive philosophy of learning. For this reason, many supervising faculty take on the role of mentor to student teachers. While they are still responsible for the evaluation of the teaching candidate, their primary objective is to encourage growth.

Nonetheless, the desire of associate teachers and university supervisors to maximize comfort and minimize risks may limit student teacher growth during the practicum (Borko & Mayfield, 1995). Richardson-Koehler (1988) suggested that the role of university supervisor in placements is extremely awkward and clinical in nature. Associates reported that university supervisors visited their classrooms too infrequently and never developed a real understanding of the students' abilities (Borko & Mayfield, 1995). Borko and Mayfield argued that the role of the university supervisor needs to be reconceptualized as one of helping associate teachers become teacher educators. However, university supervisors do not have the time to develop a relationship with the associate or the student teacher and, as a result, are often seen as outsiders.

The relationship between the student teacher, cooperating teacher, and university supervisor is sometimes referred to as the teaching triad (Griffin, 1989; Veal & Rikard, 1998); Griffin (1989) described the teaching triad as remaining relatively stable over many years while Ritchie, Rigano, and Lowry (2000) observed that the university supervisor holds the dominant power on issues of placement and assessment. Veal and Rikard (1998) described two different hierarchical triads in their study. They referred to one as the institutional triad made up of the university supervisor, the cooperating teacher, and the student teacher. In this triad, the university supervisor holds the dominant power. When the university supervisor is not present, a new triad emerges, which Veal and Rikard referred to as the functional triad. The functional triad is made up of the cooperating teacher, the student teacher, and pupils in the classroom. Veal and Rikard explained that in this triad the pupil holds the least power, and when the university supervisor is present, pupils are no longer a part of the triad. The authors did not elaborate further on the role of the pupils in this triad.

M. G. Jones and Vesilind (1996) discovered that the influence of the university was dominant at the beginning of student teaching, but decreased as students gained experience. At the midpoint in their teaching experience, then, students begin to see their own experiences as more significant than the influence of the university.

Although learning about classroom management is regarded as critical to student teacher success, it is often ignored by teacher education programs (van Tartwijk & Hammerness, 2011; Veenman, 1984). In 2011, van Tartwijk and Hammerness found that less than half of the teacher preparation programs in New York City had any coursework on classroom management. They suggested that this may be partly due to the fact that

classroom management is such a misunderstood subject. Confusion exists around how classroom management should be taught. Is it a technical skill that can be learned in the classroom or should it be linked to the practicum (van Tartwijk & Hammerness, 2011)? Much of what happens in these courses focuses on discipline, according to Wubbels (2011). As a result, Wubbels noted, *classroom management* is a term that has fallen out of favour and has recently been replaced with concepts such as *building and sustaining caring communities* or *motivating through extrinsic rewards and inner motivation*.

The teaching triad is a relationship of shifting power between the university supervisor, the associate teacher, and the student teacher. Associate teachers often feel marginalized in the teaching triad, and feel that many university supervisors do not spend enough time in the student teacher's classroom to develop a good understanding of the student's teaching abilities.

Classroom Management Influences: Child and Youth Well Being

The classroom is a complex place (Clark & Lampert, 1986; Darling-Hammond, 1997; F. Jones, 2000; Shulman, 1984) where decisions are being made every few minutes. E. Morin (2008) suggested that when dealing with complex problems, we cannot separate humans from the problems, and further noted that humans are unpredictable by nature. Adding to this complexity is the variety of readiness levels in the classroom. There are many factors affecting a child's development and in turn his or her readiness to learn. This readiness impacts all members of the classroom. In order to understand readiness, we begin by examining the field of human development.

Prior to Bronfenbrenner (1979) and Lerner (1982), much of what is now called human development was referred to as developmental psychology. Bronfenbrenner's

(1979) Ecological Systems Theory led developmental psychologists to recognize the interrelatedness of many environments affecting the individual. Bronfenbrenner referred to these interrelated systems as nested systems. He suggested that there were four nested systems, which he called the mircosystem, mesosytem, exosystem, and macrosystem. The microsystem included the family and the classroom. The mesosystem occurred when two or more microsystems interacted. The exosystem consisted of external environments that influence development, such as the parent's work or community-based organizations. The macrosystem consisted of the larger sociocultural context. Bronfenbrenner later (1986) added the chronosystem, which related to external systems over time.

Lerner's (1982) Developmental Systems Theory suggested that humans were products of both nature and nurture. This theory acknowledged that there were similarities but also differences between individuals. Each individual possessed personal agency, and this personal agency allowed individuals to overcome difficulties. More recently, Tilleczek (2011) proposed the complex cultural nesting approach as a way of studying youth experiences. She suggested that the term *nest* refers to the need for comfort and belonging, and that this feeling can occur in schools, homes, with friends, and in communities simultaneously. Tilleczek explained that young people are in the process of being who they are now at the same time as they are becoming the people they will be. During this process, they are not passive but demonstrate agency as they feel, experience, react, and negotiate their place within their many intersecting identities.

The early years of a child's development are especially critical to brain development; to maximize brain development, children require a secure relationship with a nurturing adult (Keating, 1996). Keating and Hertzman (1999) related readiness to learn

to a stable and not overly stressful environment. Stressful experiences early in life can result in adverse reactions to new situations and even to neuronal death, affecting the ability to learn: "In other words what we can learn at any point in our development is constrained in two important ways, how much we already know, and how we approach the learning of new information" (Keating 1996, p. 6).

Keating and Hertzman (1999) suggested that many factors have an impact on developmental health, including income, social status, education, employment, working conditions, physical environment, biological and genetic endowment, culture, and social environment. The early social and physical environments of infants and young children contribute to neural sculpting, which affects health, coping, and competence in later life(Keating and Hertzman, 1999). If a child is raised under extreme stress, the caregiver may not be unable to provide adequate parenting and stimulation. If a child does not receive adequate stimulation from his or her caregivers at the right time, certain pathways or connections in the brain do not get hooked up. These pathways have long-term implications for the quality of working life, social support, chronic disease, and degenerative conditions in life. However, each individual possesses varying degrees of personal agency and resiliency. As a result, children and youth who do not begin life with the necessary supports can go on to overcome such obstacles and be successful. According to Bigelow (2006), "Most types of learning disorders (e.g., ADHS, LD, FAS, FAE) are either aggravated or actually caused by the presence of chronic early poverty" (p. 1).

Also affecting a child's development and readiness to learn are outdated labour practices that deny parents the flexibility to meet their children's needs and impact on

their ability to be parents. Modern workers are treated as if they were in a factory even though our society is technological in nature (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). This has a negative impact on the family and prevents parents from being a reliable, stable force in a child's life. If the family is impacted by changes in the economy, parent-child relationships become even more difficult (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). F. Jones (2000) suggests that without the reliable, stable force that comes from a good relationship with the parent, the child may look for affirmation from other sources. This is most evident in adolescents who seek support from their peers.

Any given classroom may be made up of children from a wide range of social and economic backgrounds, making it crucial for the teacher to meet the variety of needs. The "gradient effect," as coined by Keating and Hertzman (1999), suggested that "in societies that have sharp social and economic differences among individuals in the population, the overall level of health and well-being is lower than in societies where these differences are less pronounced" (p. 3). The gradient effect affects not only the physical and mental health of individuals, but also literacy and mathematics achievement. In societies such as ours, those with a higher income will have better health and less disease. They will also have a greater likelihood of school readiness.

Keating and Hertzman (1999, p. 1) explained that we are living in the midst of "modernity's paradox." As a country, we have significant material wealth, and yet at the same time, systems that support developmental health are deteriorating. The greatest impacts of this are experienced by children and youth. This is not just a problem for those who are ill or a living in poverty but a problem for all of society. Dramatic differences between rich and poor result in a lower level of developmental health for the whole

population (Keating & Hertzman, 1999, pp. 24–25). This is especially evident in the school system (Keating, 1996). Keating (1996) drew a connection between low levels of school readiness and poverty:

> It is important to note how much more difficult the school's task is when children arrive at the beginning of school with low levels of preparation for numeracy and literacy, and ineffective habits of learning, attention difficulties and poor interpersonal interaction. Successful participation in school learning depends on adequate advance preparation as well as effective study habits and social skills. (p. 5)

If a part of the class is not ready to learn, the impact is felt by all children in the class. The teacher must spend extra time with children lacking readiness and re-teach information that other children have already mastered. As a result, there are children in each class who are bored with the material, while others are frustrated by their own inability to grasp it. F. Jones (2000) concured: "Are *all* children well-socialized and age appropriate as they enter school? On the contrary, you will find *at least* a half-decade of ability spread in your classroom on any variable you wish to name" (p. 152).

Many new teachers leave the profession, unable to cope with the multiplicity of demands made on them. The Ontario Ministry of Education (2005b) reported that 20–30% of beginning teachers leave the field within the first three years. Many of these beginning teachers cite difficulty adjusting to the classroom as their primary reason for leaving. This is consistent with F. Jones's (2000) findings: "teachers, particularly at the primary level, are reporting more and more extremely needy students. As students get older, their attention seeking often acquires a more antisocial flavor" (p. 229).

Just as children and youth are continually changing, so is the classroom. Strathern (2004) explains that all things exist in a static state, Mode 1 or in a changing state, mode 2. The classroom is always in a state of flux or moving from a static state, or Mode 1, to a more dynamic state, or Mode 2 (Strathern 2004). When one of the dynamics change (e.g., a new class member, a change in a child's home situation) the classroom enters Mode 2. When a classroom is in Mode 2, classroom management is being adjusted to adapt to the new reality. It is in Mode 2 that new knowledge is generated out of necessity. Just as the teacher is contending with the state of flux in the classroom, she is also contending with a variety of readiness levels.

In addition to changing dynamics, the classroom is also impacted by the developmental health of children and youth and their readiness for learning. The variety of readiness levels in the classroom makes the job of teaching much more complex and thus the growing income inequalities and persistent social class gradients in Canada need to be understood and recognized by those who teach children.

Classroom Management Influences: The Well Being of Children and Youth in Sudbury

Poverty, health concerns, and lack of competent parenting affect a child's readiness for school. Children in Northern Ontario live in the midst of abundant natural resources yet many live in poverty. Families living in poverty may lack the resources to take advantage of existing supports. Such an environment impacts the ability of children to prosper in school.

Modernity's paradox is especially evident in Sudbury. Leadbeater (2008) asked, "Why should a community that has produced so much wealth have so little to show for

it?" (p. 13). Sudbury has a long-term pattern of below-average employment rates and employment income. It has high unemployment rates and poverty, abject homelessness and hunger, poor job prospects and a continuing drain of younger people (Leadbeater, 2008). This results in more people accessing social programs such as unemployment insurance and social assistance. These conditions have an impact on the developmental health of Sudbury's children.

Tilleczek (2008, p. 150) outlined the ways in which Northern Ontario is failing children: "It is failing relative to the rest of the province (regionally), failing by social class and socioeconomic gradient effects (class polarization), failing absolutely (declining over time), and failing in relation to the complexities in lives and experiences of children (by ethnicity, gender, and age)." Children from families with the lowest incomes have the highest rates of failure and chronic health problems, and this gap accumulates over life. Poor children are at the greatest risk of being labelled hyperactive and delinquent. Tilleczek found that in Northern Ontario 9% of households with children reported not having enough money to buy food. Students in local English school boards lagged behind their Ontario counterparts in reading and mathematics.

Parents living in poverty may lack the emotional resources to take advantage of existing school and community supports (Bigelow, 2006). The chronic stress of living in poverty can also affect the nerve cells involving memory and new learning. Bigelow (2006) explained that early neglect impairs brain growth and results in mild mental retardation (MMR): "Competent parenting in the early years provides an optimal protective shield against subsequent educational declines, economic disadvantage, mental illness and involvement in crime" (p. 2).

The conditions in Sudbury have had a measurable impact on children's health. In the province as a whole, Tilleczek (2008) reported, 11% of Ontario youth have contemplated suicide, while 15% enter the hospital with a mental disorder. Children in Northern Ontario are 60 times more likely to be hospitalized for mental health disorders than their Ontario counterparts. In addition, 60% of the children and youth in the Sudbury area live with a chronic illness. This rate is significantly higher than in other areas of Northern Ontario. This environment of poverty and poor health affects the ability of children to prosper in school.

Tilleczek (2008) also suggested that the burden of standardized testing, larger class sizes, and fewer years to complete a high school diploma result in a higher dropout rate for vulnerable students. Youth who leave school before graduating from high school enter into a cycle of poverty, injury, disease, and mental illness. According to Tilleczek, "These child health outcomes exist within 'modernity's paradox' in which massive expansion in global wealth generation exists alongside growing indices of health deterioration, especially for those already marginalized by social class, gender, and age" (p. 153).

When a child receives adequate stimulation and experiences good interpersonal relationships early in life, he or she goes on to develop good regulatory systems (Keating, 1999, p. 225). Regulatory systems are an individual's ability to modulate or control his or her reactions. These systems affect the regulation of emotion, social competence, social regulation, inhibition activation or orienting, focusing, and processing. Children with well-developed regulatory systems are better problem-solvers and are better equipped to compromise and make friends. Children with poorly developed regulatory systems are

more aggressive, less sociable, have fewer friends, and are at an increased risk of delinquency. They are also more likely to feel anxious or lonely. Regulatory systems have a huge impact on a child's ability to learn. Well-developed regulatory systems result in more effective "habits of mind," creating readiness to learn (Keating, 1996, p. 12) even in very young children.

Children require good early learning experiences in order to develop an interest in school: "Poor academic and social performance in the early grades is a very substantial risk factor for subsequent academic and behavioural problems well into adolescence" (Keating, 1996, p. 9). The early years of a child's life are crucial to develop "habits of mind" that will encourage school success. However, this is clearly not happening in all of our communities. The Learning Disabilities Association of Sudbury (2006) reports that in 2006, 100 Grade 8 students of a total of approximately 1,000were identified with learning disabilities in the two local English school boards. The Ontario Ministry of Education website reports Barnes and Wade-Woolley's (2008) findings that over 50% of children with special needs have learning disabilities.

Classroom management is thus complicated by the fact that students with such a wide variety of complexities in lives and experiences are present. Since 1998,most "exceptional pupils" or students with special needs have been placed in regular classrooms. The Ontario Ministry of Education reported in *Directions for Special Education* (2007) that in the 2005/2006 school year 191,902 students in Ontario were identified as "exceptional." Of those, 43.3% had been identified as having a learning disability. Approximately 82% of all students in elementary schools and 86% of those in secondary schools receiving special education are placed in regular classrooms for more

than half of the instructional day (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2007, p. 4). In 2005, the Ontario Ministry of Education's *Education for All*(2005a) recommended that all Bachelor of Education programs in Ontario implement special education training into their core qualifications.

Forman (2005) explained, "the fact is that regular classroom settings were never designed to accommodate children with special needs" (p. 51). Statistics Canada (2006d) observed that over 50% of the parents of children with learning disabilities in Ontario reported difficulty obtaining special education. The reality is that schools have limited resources with which to meet the needs of all students. Bronfenbrenner (1979) recognized that in order to receive assistance from society an individual had to prove he or she was deficient in some way. Only then would society provide assistance. Keating (1996) suggested that this is one of the many problems with the structure of special education in Canada. In order for the school system provide additional supports, the child's family must first prove they are unable to meet the child's needs.

Sudbury is a community with great wealth in the form of natural resources, and yet many of its residents live in poverty (Leadbeater, 2008). Children raised in poverty are less likely to arrive at school with the readiness required, and the school system continues to fail them (Tilleczek, 2008). This lack of school readiness is further impacted by limited resources for children with learning disabilities and special needs. Readiness to learn is a major factor in school success as is the ability for educators and systems to address the range of cultural backgrounds and learning needs of students.

Honouring Aboriginal Children and Youth in the Classrooms

Sudbury has a growing Aboriginal population. The educational attainment of First Nations students is decades behind that of other Canadian students (Toulouse, 2008). Teachers with Aboriginal children in their classrooms require an understanding of Aboriginal culture in order to begin to close this gap.

According to Statistics Canada (2006a), between 2001 and 2006, the Aboriginal population in Sudbury grew by 35%, from 7,385 to 9,970 people. Aboriginal people make up 3.8% of the Canadian population. In Sudbury, Aboriginal people made up 6.4% of the city's total population. The report *Ontario's New Approach to Aboriginal Affairs* (Government of Ontario, 2005; referenced in Lakehead Public Schools, 2007) suggested that Aboriginal youth are the fastest-growing segment of the Canadian population. In Ontario, more than 50% of the Aboriginal population (on- and off-reserve) is under the age of 27.

With a growing Aboriginal population in Sudbury, teachers need to be aware of the challenges facing such students. Tilleczek (2008) suggested that Aboriginal communities experience greater rates of infant mortality, suicide, and diabetes. According to L. T. Smith (2006), "Indigenous peoples across the world have disproportionately high rates of imprisonment, suicide and alcoholism" (p. 154). Toulouse (2008) referenced the 2004 report from the Office of the Auditor General of Canada, which presented a startling picture of Aboriginal education in Canada: there was a 28-year educational gap between First Nations and Canadian educational achievement of Aboriginal students. This gap has not changed significantly in the past six years. The report also provided evidence that the school-aged Aboriginal population is growing. The

educational system in Canada has failed Aboriginal people and not much has been done to address this failure. If Aboriginal people in Canada are going to succeed as learners, a new approach is required.

Battiste, Bell, and Findlay (2002) suggested that Aboriginal children are exposed to a curriculum that views them as incompetent, landless primitives who need to be civilized by the dominate culture. L. T. Smith (2006) called for a decolonization of thought processes, whereby the contributions of Aboriginal people would be re-examined and Aboriginal children would experience schooling that shares their contributions and viewpoints.

Teachers with Aboriginal children in their classroom require an understanding of Aboriginal culture in order to choose appropriate teaching strategies. Morrison (2009) explained how her teaching strategies did not work when she taught in an Aboriginal community. Only after much soul searching did she realize that the traditional values of community over the individual meant that calling attention to yourself or making yourself look better than others in the group was considered rude. Aboriginal people show a tendency towards a global, holistic style of organizing information according to Hilberg and Tharp (2002). The same authors suggest Aboriginal learners often possess a visual style of mentally representing information and a preference for collaborative and reflective activities. Dyc and Milligan (2000) proposed that the preference for learning activities requiring visual intelligence may stem from the visual acuity used by Aboriginal people in early trade and communication. Toulouse (2008) suggested that "Educators can promote a positive learning experience for Aboriginal students by ensuring that their culture is represented in the classroom. It is also key that these

students know that their teachers care about them and have the highest regard for their learning" (p. 1). *Aboriginal Presence in Our Schools* (Lakehead Public Schools, 2007) advised that, in addition to meeting the needs of children and youth, sound counselling, support services, and parental engagement are essential to meeting the needs of Aboriginal learners.

The educational system in Canada has failed Aboriginal people. If Aboriginal people in Canada are going to succeed as learners, a new approach is required. Teachers need a good understanding of Aboriginal culture and learning styles. By adapting lessons to include Aboriginal culture, teachers can make the classroom a more welcoming place for Aboriginal learners.

Classroom Management Influences: Differentiated Teaching

The recognition that each student comes to the classroom with a unique level of readiness and preferred learning styles resulted in the adoption of differentiated learning and teaching. Although a positive step for children and youth, it increases the complexity of the teacher's role.

Differentiated learning and teaching is a concept that first received widespread attention in Ontario in 2002 when it appeared in the Ontario Curriculum Unit Planner (OCUP). In 2004, the Expert Panel on Literacy in Grades 4 to 6 in Ontario defined differentiated learning as "an approach to instruction that maximizes each student's growth by considering the needs of each student at his or her current stage of development and then offering that student a learning experience that responds to his or her individual needs" (p. 116).The theory of differentiated learning emerged from the work of Vygotsky (1978), who suggested that both social context and interaction play a

role in students' ability to learn. Differentiated teaching requires teachers to adapt their perspective from a program-based pedagogy to a student-based pedagogy. According to Tomlinson (1999), with differentiated learning all students learn the same curriculum, but they have some choice in how they learn it. Differentiated learning can take many forms, including independent study, a project, graphic organizers, word searches, movie clips, read alouds, and whole group or small group instruction. A teacher in a differentiated classroom requires an in-depth knowledge of teaching strategies and of the students in order to be able to offer students options that engage them.

In a differentiated classroom, the teaching is adapted to meet the student's readiness to learn. This requires the teacher to consider individual needs. Students come to learning with a variety of different learning strategies and prior experiences. Darling-Hammond (1997) suggested that one of the many challenges of teaching is knowing how to create experiences that let students access ideas in a variety of ways, yet always pressing for deeper understanding. According to Veenman (1984), dealing with individual differences among students was the third most frequently mentioned problem of beginning teachers. Attempting to vary curricular and instructional practices to accommodate differences among learners proved to be difficult.

The focus on differentiated learning requires the teacher to invest time in assessing each student, determining his or her preferred learning style, and adapting assignments to meet each student's needs. Clearly, the adoption of differentiated learning increases the complexity of teaching.

The Role of Reflection in the Development of Classroom Management

Reflection is key to growth for teaching candidates. Through reflection, student teachers are required to confront their existing beliefs and consider the reality of what they are experiencing. Such growth is not easy and is often uncomfortable for student teachers.

Reflection is one of the ways in which student teachers can regain power in the practicum situation, according to Dobbins (1996). Collier (1999) reported that reflection occurs when one inquires into his or her experience and knowledge to find meaning in his or her beliefs. Schon (1987) suggested that reflection can occur in two different time frames. When reflection occurs before or after an experience, he referred to it as reflection-on-action. When it occurs during the experience, he called it reflection-in-action. When teachers question or examine the goals and values and assumption that guide their work, they engage in reflection (Zeichner & Liston, 1996):

A reflective teacher:

1. Examines, frames, and attempts to solve the dilemmas of classroom practice;

2. Is aware of and questions the assumptions and values he or she brings to teaching;

3. Is attentive to the institutional and cultural contexts in which he or she teaches;

4. Takes part in curriculum development and is involved in school change efforts; and

5. Takes responsibility for his or her own professional development. (p. 6)

Griffiths and Tann (1992) suggested that there were several levels of reflection with each

requiring progressively more complex thinking and more time to process. Griffiths and

Tann noted that reflection could occur in five dimensions. The first dimension, rapid

reflection, is similar to what Schon (1987) referred to as reflection-in-action. The second

dimension is repair, which requires a quick pause for "reading" student reactions. The

next level is referred to as review, which occurs after the action is completed. The fourth

dimension is research thinking, which can take place over weeks or months; and the fifth

is retheorizing or reformulating, which entails critically examining practice and theories.

According to Zeichner and Liston (1996), teachers engage in all five dimensions

of reflection (see Figure C1 in Appendix C). However, they cautioned that such reflection

does not automatically result in better teaching. Ward and McCotter (2004) suggested

that, too often, student teachers chose to reflect on their own teaching instead of their

students' learning. In order for the reflection to improve teaching practice, the teacher

must use the reflection to create a more fair and democratic classroom. He or she must

consider many sources of information: "When we reflect about students in our classroom,

we need to listen to and accept many sources of understanding" (Zeichner & Liston,

1996, p. 9).

Dobbins (1996) suggested that during a reflective practicum student teachers

maximize their learning by accepting responsibility for their own professional

development: "As student teachers empower themselves and express their voice, their

role changes, as does the role of other participants involved in the practicum. Student

teachers were no longer recipients of the practicum but take control over their own

learning and accept responsibility for it" (p. 12). Engaging in reflective practice does,

however, make the practicum more complex for the student teachers according to Dobbins. Nevertheless, she found that student teachers who engaged in a reflective practicum felt they were better teachers as a result (p. 6).

In their work on pre-service teachers' beliefs, Leavy et al. (2007) referenced the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2003), which suggested that teacher training programs were overcrowded and provided little time to reflect and examine teaching experience in any meaningful way. Similarly, Dobbins (1996) noted that the teaching practicum did not permit enough time for reflection and that time for reflection should therefore be built into the practicum.

Leavy et al. (2007) viewed current education programs as "basic training," providing practical skills. They suggested that the real purpose of teacher education was to facilitate teachers in developing professional knowledge that teachers might build on as they began to construct their teaching identity. Teacher education could not impart knowledge to teaching candidates; instead, it provided avenues for student teachers to understand values, attitudes, and beliefs and to monitor their own professional growth (Leavy et al., 2007, p. 1231). It is perhaps not surprising, then, that Ward and McCotter (2004) found that it was unusual for student teachers reflections to enter into the transformative reflection category. This level of reflection occurred when student teachers combined a response to theoretical readings with their own teaching. Ward and McCotter suggested that this type of reflection usually took place over a long period of time.

According to Mahan and Lacefield (1978, cited in Veenman, 1984), the theory of cognitive dissonance provides an excellent conceptual framework from which to examine

changes of attitudes. This theory holds that if individuals experience prolonged cognitive dissonance they will likely change their attitudes to reduce that dissonance (p. 147). Similarly, van Manen (1995) referenced Dewey (1973), who identified confusion as significant in confronting beliefs about teaching. According to van Manen, Dewey broke down reflection into several steps:

1. perplexity, confusion, doubt due to the nature of the situation in which one finds oneself;

2. conjectural anticipation and tentative interpretation of given elements or meanings of the situation and their possible consequences;

3. examination, inspection exploration, analysis of all attainable considerations which may define and clarify a problem with which one is confronted;

4. elaboration of the tentative hypothesis suggestions;

5. deciding on "a plan of action" or "doing something" about a desired result. (pp. 494–506)

In Dewey, this process takes time. However, van Manen (1995) explained that there is a different kind of reflection that occurs in the classroom when the teacher does not have time to distance him- or herself from the particular moment and acts immediately in a reflective manner. He refers to this as *tact* and describes it as "the intersubjective pedagogical relation between teacher and child as well as . . . the hermeneutic didactical relation between teacher and curriculum content or knowledge" (van Manen, 1995, p. 9). Tact is complex:

1. A teacher who is tactful has the sensitive ability to interpret inner thoughts, understandings, feelings, and desires of children from indirect clues such as gestures, demeanor, expression, and body language. Pedagogical tact involves the ability to immediately see through motives or cause and effect relations. A good teacher is able to read, as it were, the inner life of the young person.

2. Pedagogical tact consists in the ability to interpret the psychological and social significance of the features of this inner life. Thus, the tactful teacher knows how to interpret, for example, the deeper significance of shyness, frustration, interest, difficulty, tenderness, humor, discipline in concrete situations with particular children or groups of children.

3. A teacher with tact appears to have a fine sense of standards, limits, and balance that makes it possible to know almost automatically how far to enter into a situation and what distance to keep in individual circumstances. (van Manen, 1995, p. 43)

Schon (1987) characterized the reflective practicum as learning by doing. Ritchie et al. (2000) described it as teacher reasoning rather than the accumulation of practical professional knowledge. When teachers become reflective, they give thought to the students in their classroom, and they begin to listen and accept that there are "many sources of understanding" (Zeichner & Liston, 1996, p. 9). It is thus during reflective practice that real changes in beliefs begin to occur. Leavy et al. (2007) referred to the work of Bullough and Gitlin (1995), suggesting that "one of the most effective ways to help teaching candidates construct meaningful knowledge and understanding of teaching and learning is by first identifying these preconceptions and beliefs and then working to

tease out and examine the sources and legitimacy of these beliefs" (Leavy et al., 2007, p. 3).

M. G. Jones and Vesilind (1996) stated that new understandings could be formed when reflective practice was connected with prior knowledge. This process, however, was self- regulated, and occurs at a unique pace depending on the individual. Jones and Vesilind described student teaching as a "process of implementing prior knowledge about theory and methods, experiencing anomalies in this implementation, and perhaps most importantly, reconstructing prior knowledge to account for experience and to create for oneself more coherent concepts about teaching" (p. 115). They found that experiences with students were essential in transforming prior beliefs: "For student teachers in this study, interaction with students was the richest source of information for this reconstruction" (p. 115). This interaction with students resulted in a shift from teacher-centred visions of teaching to more student-centred perceptions. Student teachers in their study began to draw linkages between well-prepared lessons and maintaining good classroom management. They recognized the importance of adjusting to individual student needs. Similarly, Leavy et al. (2007) suggested that there is a growing awareness of the central role of the child in the classroom during field experiences.

Korthagen and Kessels (1999) found that some classroom experience was necessary in order to have the theory make sense. By engaging in reflection about these early experiences, student teachers were more able to understand the abstract ideas they had learned in courses. Korthagen and Kessels found that teachers' behaviour resulted from preconceived notions based on feelings, former similar experiences, values, role conceptions, needs or concerns, and routines. It is based on these preconceptions that

most teacher decisions are made. By reflecting afterwards, the teacher can change his or her preconceived notions. The awareness of theory, incorporated with reflection, produces the most meaningful changes to preconceived notions (see Figure C1 in Appendix C).

Hollingsworth (1989) observed that the greatest growth in classroom management ability occurred when teaching candidates were forced to confront their beliefs about teaching. In her study, student teachers were placed with associates who had very different classroom management styles; student teachers were apprehensive. They were asked to attempt to model their associate's style for at least a week. After they had demonstrated a grasp of the style, they were encouraged to modify it to better suit their own needs. Students who experienced a style of management that made them uncomfortable were forced to confront their own beliefs and appeared to experience the greatest growth in classroom management ability.

Reflection provides the opportunity for teaching candidates to examine their beliefs and grow as teachers. There are several levels of reflection, and not all lead to better teaching. Too often, student teachers choose to reflect on their own teaching instead of their students' learning. The most beneficial reflection occurs when student teachers are able to make connections between their teaching and student learning.

Sociology of Childhood and Youth in the Classroom

The classroom is a place where children are thought to have a voice; yet much of what happens in the classroom negates their presence (Goodlad, 1984). Traditional approaches to the study of childhood and youth have neglected the complexity and abundance of youth experiences (Tilleczek, 2011). Such approaches have represented

children and youth as being almost invisible (Qvortrup, 2004), powerless (James & Prout, 2005, homogeneous (James & Prout, 2005) and troubled (Tilleczek, 2011). Tilleczek (2011) contends that the notion that the experience of youth is necessarily risky, stormy, and stressful is a myth.

Inherent to this new approach to childhood and youth studies, which Tilleczek (2011) refers to as positive youth development, is a recognition that children and youth's social relationships and cultures are worthy of study in their own right and not only in relation to the adults around them. Consistent with this positive approach is recognition that children and youth possess resilience; instead of labelling them as being "at risk," we need to recognize that although they may experience misfortune or stressful events, they have the resiliency to change their situation. Tilleczek (2011) posits a complex cultural nesting approach that acknowledges that the experiences of youth are nonlinear and occur in social contents such as school, home, with friends, in communities, and so on—locations that are nested inside one another.

Our views of children have changed depending on societal influences, according to Hendrick (2005). Prior to the twentieth century, in many societies children were thought of as miniature adults, but by 1914 the modern notion of childhood had evolved into a distinct stage in life, recognized socially, legally, and legislatively (Hendrick, 2005).

Woodhead (2005) further suggested that "Children's needs have been constructed as part of a standardized model in which childhood is a period of dependency, defined by protectionist adult-child relationships in which adults are dominant providers and children are passive consumers" (p. 75). He agreed with James and Prout (2005), who

argued that childhood is a social construction. It is a Westernized ideal, and the actual experience of childhood is therefore largely individualized. James and Prout proposed a new paradigm by which to approach the study of childhood. Their emergent paradigm argued that "children's social relationships and cultures are worthy of study in their own right" (p.4). They suggested that the existing view of childhood needed to be reconstructed to more accurately reflect children as "active" subjects in the construction and determination of their social lives, the lives of those around them, and the societies in which they live: "Children are not just the passive subjects of social structures and processes" (p. 8). However, James and Prout also recognized that the lives of children are determined in large measure by adults. Consistently, Tilleczek (2011) found that disciplines such as sociology, history, and psychology have privileged the study of adults over young people.

One of the major obstacles to the emergent paradigm is the absence of children's voices about their own lives. Qvortrup (2005) found that children are invisible both in statistics and in other types of social accounting. Instead, they are described in relation to their family or other adults. According to Qvortrup, "giving children a voice as a collectivity amounts to representing them on equal terms with other groups in society. Seeing children on equal terms with adults in itself contradicts our 'adultist' imagery, exactly because it cuts across prefigured conceptions of children as subordinates" (p. 87).

Best (2007) explained that researchers have only recently begun to recognize children and youth not as subjects-in-the making but subjects in their own right. Holt (2002) noted that because of their relative powerlessness in society, particular ethical issues arise when researching with children. As a result, she recommends research

strategies to promote "empowering research relations" (p. 14). According to James and Prout (2005), the views of children are often not considered. Holt (2002, p. 17) explained that although children may have different ways of knowing/doing this does not make them less than adults. Holt stressed that "it is useful to consider ourselves not dichotomously opposed as 'adults' or 'children', but to emphasise both the 'between-ness' and the' difference' between ourselves and a variety of research partners" (p.25). By viewing children as research subjects who are worthy of listening to, we engage in child-centred research (James & James, 2008). On the concept of agency in children, James and James (2008) pointed out that

> It underscores children and young people's capacities to make choices about things they do and to express their own ideas. Through this, it emphasises children's ability to not only have some control over the direction their own lives take but also, importantly to play some part in the changes that take place in society more widely. (p. 9)

As recently as 2010, Johnson reported that the voices of children and youth "are seldom heard in the arenas of academe" (p. xiv). He referred to child-centred scholarship, where the authentic voices of children and youth are heard, as cutting edge (p. xiv). Similarly, Tilleczek (2011) observed, "There is real value in rigorous study of young people. The ways in which they are actively negotiating their social lives—and not just how adults have constructed life for them—are critical to the study of youth" (p. 30).

Davies (1990) explained that a person who has agency is one who "'speaks for themselves', who accepts responsibility for their actions, that is as one who is recognisably separate from any particular collective, and thus as one who can be said to

have agency" (p. 343). Davies proposed a cooperative approach to agency where subjects work within the existing structures, which function as "collectives of which they are a member" (p. 343). School-aged children exist within the collective of the classroom, and they have been socialized to behave in a manner appropriate to the classroom:

> Agency is thus a matter of position or location within or in relation to particular discourses. How that agency is taken up depends on the way in which one has discursively constructed oneself as a moral being, the degree of commitment to that construction, the alternative discursive structures available to one, as well as one's own subjective history—informing one's emotions and attitudes to agentic and non-agentic positionings. (Davies,1990, p. 346)

More recently, Tilleczek (2011) suggested that there is real value in the rigorous study of youth and how they negotiate their lives. Tilleczek contended that young people feel, experience, react, and negotiate their place and intersecting identities within families, schools, political systems, friendships, and communities, all the while becoming their more biologically mature selves (p. 10). In this way, youth demonstrate agency in their lives.

Much of what happens in schools and classrooms is about the production of children's conformity through the authority invested in adult teachers, according to James and James (2008). Most children find socially acceptable ways to demonstrate their agency within the collective of the classroom. Jackson (1990) observed that in classrooms children are required to take orders from adults who do not know them very well and whom they do not themselves know intimately. When a child enters school, for

the first time in that child's life, power has personal consequences for him or her and that power is wielded by a relative stranger.

To a large extent, the teacher determines the degree to which students are permitted agency by his or her classroom management style, or what Davies(1990) referred to as *control* (p. 344). A teacher may encourage agency but that teacher must also be mindful of the needs of all individuals in the classroom and the duty to address the curriculum. Crass (1998) suggested that student agency is increased when the teacher encourages students to take responsibility for their own learning. In her attempt to increase student agency in her classroom, she made suggestions and offered advice, but the responsibility for carrying out the action belonged to the students:

> It was through this transfer of power that I observed children starting to "wake-up" in my classroom. It was as if a switch that had lain dormant had finally been turned on, and with it came the ability to think for themselves. Each and every child realized, in small but meaningful ways, that he or she had a voice and an ability to effect change. (Crass, 1998, p. 86)

According to Davies (1990), "The question is not then whether individuals can be said in any absolute sense to have or not have agency, but whether or not there is awareness of the constitutive force of discursive practices and the means for resisting or changing unacceptable practices" (p. 359).In order to demonstrate agency, children in the classroom need an understanding of the collective nature of the classroom, but at the same time they must be able to see themselves as individuals with choices (Davies, 1990).

The emergent paradigm of childhood and youth studies suggests that children are active in the construction of their lives. For instance, Solberg (2005) observed that children routinely demonstrate agency in their home lives. Many children belong to a division of labour at home. In doing so, they are responsible, independent, and 'big'; to some extent they are adult-like (p. 142).Boyden (2005) described children as having "precocious mechanisms for survival" (p. 213), perhaps referring to their resiliency. James, Jenks, and Prout (1998) observed that children negotiate their social interactions in and across domains that include the family, home, school, and legal system. The presence of a student teacher in the classroom may be another situation in which children and youth negotiate their social interactions.

Leavy et al. (2007) suggested that there is a growing awareness of the central role of the child in the classroom during field experiences. M. G. Jones and Vesilind (1996) argued that students in the classroom play a role in the development of student teachers. They explained that extended teaching time with the same group of students made it possible for student teachers to experience anomalies but also to work through these anomalies to reorganize prior knowledge (p. 115). Similarly, Smyth (2005) believed that her own students taught her patience, how to be a better communicator, and the importance of consistency. She suggested that the learning process should be reciprocal. While teachers are teaching children and youth, they should also be learning from them. Crass (1998) explained, "As a teacher I must make the effort to engage with my children, learn from my children, and construct that knowledge for myself" (p. 93).

In 1970, Freire suggested that education should be a dialogue and argued that it is instead more often used as system of repression. More recently, Darling-Hammond

(1997) observed that relationships between staff and students in schools are still often characterized by mistrust, manifested through authoritarian and demeaning treatment of students. During her interviews with students, Thorson (2003) discovered that the majority of secondary students did not feel respected by the adults in their school. Freire (1970) proposed that teachers should be partners with students in their quest for knowledge. In this way, they could learn from one another: "In problem-posing education, the teacher becomes a student and students become teachers. They become jointly responsible for a process in which they all grow" (p. 80). Similarly, in 1994, Brady and Jacobs found that students are empowered when they are encouraged to view themselves not just as learners but also as teachers, and are allowed to ask questions and share ideas in a collaborative manner. Unfortunately, Goodlad (1984) found that 70% of the class time consisted of the teacher talking to students and that less than 1% of class time was available for students to contribute responses that required reasoning or an opinion. Education and schooling are fundamentally about the treatment and lives of young people within the school system (Tilleczek, 2011).

Lubeck (1996) explained that much of what is called teaching is contrary to the interactive, child-centred manner in which children learn best. She suggests that what is accepted as knowledge of child development has fundamental problems. Consistent with James and Prout (2005), she acknowledged that children come from a variety of situations and have a range of experiences. For student teachers to truly understand children, they must be exposed to and critically evaluate a variety of child development theories. Lubeck (1996) suggested that teacher training must incorporate the multicultural nature of the classroom and the individualist nature of the child.

Much of what goes on in the classroom, from the teacher's investment in authority to students' feelings that they lack respect, is contrary to how children and youth learn best. It is a place where conformity is expected and passive learning is rewarded. Today's classroom should be a place where learning is reciprocal and children and youth are respected as individuals with choices. There is a growing recognition of children as agentic individuals with the ability to influence the classroom. This recognition has implications for how we view classroom management and the role of children and youth in creating a classroom management dynamic.

Summary of the Literature

During the teaching practicum, teaching candidates have the opportunity to practice teach in a controlled environment. Several authors have identified the practicum as the most beneficial part of teacher preparation (Campbell-Evans & Maloney, 1995; D'Rozario & Wong, 1996; Murray-Harvey et al., 1999).

Joram and Gabriele (1998) reported that classroom management is the main concern of student teachers and a challenge for many beginning teachers. Similarly, other researchers (Housego, 1990; Veenman, 1984) have regarded it as the most difficult aspect of teaching to master. Fuller (1969) recognized that student teachers begin their teaching with concerns largely related to their own performance and are able to focus on their students' learning only after their concerns for self diminish.

Classroom management is a complex combination of teacher and student actions and reactions. Good classroom management encourages respect and creates an environment where learning can occur (Burden, 2006). There are several styles of classroom management and Burden (2006) categorized them on a continuum from low

control to high control. It is generally agreed that most students respond to a style somewhere in between low control and high control (F. Jones, 2000). The classroom is a complex place. The task environment of the classroom has been characterized by Shulman (1984) as more complex than that faced by a physician in a diagnostic examination (Clark, 1988). F. Jones (2000) stated that classroom management is more complex than child-rearing. Adding to this complexity is the variety of levels of learning readiness in the classroom (Keating, 1996).

 Many factors affect a child's development and in turn his or her readiness to learn. Readiness is impacted by developmental health. Keating and Hertzman (1999) observed that among the many factors that impact on developmental health are income, social status, education, employment, working conditions, physical environment, biological and genetic endowment, and cultural and social environments. These factors are especially evident in the school system. If a portion of the student population is not ready to learn, all learners in the class feel the impact.

 In 2002, the Ontario government adopted differentiated learning as a broad educational policy. In a classroom where differentiation is emphasized, teaching is adapted to meet the student's readiness to learn. This requires the teacher to assess and adapt instruction to the individual needs of each student (Tomlinson, 1999). In addition, teachers in Northern Ontario schools need to have an understanding of Aboriginal culture and learning styles in order to meet the needs of Aboriginal learners in their classroom (Toulouse, 2008). By examining classroom management from a human studies perspective instead of the traditional educational viewpoint, we begin to understand why classroom management is so difficult for student teachers to master.

Student teachers have strongly formulated beliefs about teaching and learning prior to beginning their teacher training (Clark, 1988; Leavy et al., 2007; Richardson, 1996). Classroom management style will be grounded in teachers' beliefs about children and learning, and shaped by what teachers have witnessed and experienced as learners. Through reflection (Dobbins, 1996), the student teacher is able to consider other influences, including those of the associate teacher, faculty, and perhaps the readiness levels of children and youth in their classroom.

MacKinnon (1989) suggested that associate teachers play a significant role in student teacher development. While M. G. Jones and Vesilind (1996) found that student teacher/faculty interaction is especially important in a teaching candidate's early development, Richardson-Koehler (1988) suggested that the role of the university supervisor in placements is extremely awkward and clinical in nature. Associate teachers often felt that university supervisors visited their classrooms too infrequently and consequently never developed an authentic understanding of the student teacher's abilities (Borko & Mayfield, 1995). The influence of prior beliefs, associate teachers, university faculty, and courses on student teacher development has been well documented in the literature.

What has not been documented, however, is the impact children and youth may have on the development of classroom management for student teachers. We know that children and youth not only react to their teachers' actions but possess agency (Crass, 1998; Davies, 1990; James & Prout, 2005; Solberg, 2005). They have the ability to take responsibility for their actions and "speak for themselves" in the classroom (Davies, 1990, p. 343). Several authors (Crass, 1998; M. G. Jones & Vesilind, 1996; Leavy et al.,

2007; Zeichner & Liston, 1996) have suggested that children and youth in the classroom

may influence student teacher development. Leavy et al. (2007) reported that there was a

growing awareness of the central role of the child in the classroom. M. G. Jones and

Vesilind (1996) found that experiences with students were essential in transforming prior

beliefs and that extended teaching time with the same group of students made it possible

for teaching candidates to reorganize pedagogical knowledge. They suggested that

students in the classroom offered material for the cognitive reconstruction process: "For

student teachers in this study, interaction with students was the richest source of

information for this reconstruction" (Jones & Vesilind, 1996, p. 115). Zeichner and

Liston (1996) also encouraged listening to children and youth as a way to improve

teaching. Crass (1998) consistently reported learning much about teaching from her own

students, while Smyth (2005) suggested that teachers can learn from children and youth

in their classroom.

The voices of children are absent from the literature on classroom management,

however. James and Prout (2005) argued that classroom management as it is most often

conceived would likely be consistent with what they describe as socialization.

Socialization theory examines how well children follow the social order. Those that

follow it closely are viewed as well-behaved students in a classroom setting. Those that

do not are viewed as discipline problems.

According to James and Prout (2005), children have been traditionally portrayed

as natural, passive, incompetent, and incomplete; yet we know they are active learners

who create a classroom dynamic (Davies,1990). If we seriously mean to improve

conditions for children, we must ensure they are heard (Qvortup, 2005). By examining

their influence on student teacher development, we take seriously the agency of children in the classroom.

 The purpose of this study was to determine how children and youth impact on the development of student teachers' classroom management skills during the teaching practicum. This study addressed the following research questions: How can children and youth in the classroom be observed to affect the development of classroom management for student teachers? What role do children and youth believe they play in the development of classroom management skills for student teachers? How do children and youth demonstrate agency in their efforts to communicate classroom management needs to student teachers? Finally, do student teachers believe the children and youth in their classrooms impact the development of classroom management skills during the practicum—and if so, are student teachers able to shift their focus away from their own teaching long enough to realize what the children and youth in their classrooms are telling them? In asking these questions, this study extends beyond the existing literature and considers the role of children and youth in the development of classroom management for student teachers.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Introduction

This study investigated the experiences of student teachers and the children and youth in their classrooms as those experiences related to the development of classroom management during the teaching practicum. By undertaking a sociology of childhood/youth and a human development theoretical framework, this study engages in child-centred research thatacknowledges that children and youth's social relationships and cultures are worthy of study in their own right. As only student teachers and the children and youth themselves can explain their experiences, the methodology I chose was phenomenology. A phenomenological methodology allowed me to get as close as possible to the lived experiences of student teachers and the children and youth in their classrooms while the teaching candidates developed classroom management skills.

Positive youth development, is a recognition that children and youth's social relationships and cultures are worthy of study in their own right and not only in relation to the adults around them (Tilleczek, 2011). Tilleczek, 2011 argues further that "education and the process of schooling are fundamentally about the treatment and lives of youth people. Since education's centrality in contemporary society sets an agenda for their lives" (p. 89). This research engages in the praxis of youth studies whereby theory and practice become inseparable. By listening and understanding to what young people have to say about having a student teacher in their classroom, this research gives voice to children and youth in the classroom.

The design and method of this study is consistent with Giorgi's (1997) Empirical Phenomenological Psychology approach (cited in Ehrich, 2005). The outcome of this

study is a "general structural statement" (Ehrich, 2005, p. 3) that reflects the essential

structure of the experience investigated. I used myself as a starting point by engaging in

bracketing, but similar to Giorgi's work, this study relies more heavily on others for data.

Instead of a literary and poetic approach (van Manen, 1995, cited in Ehrich, 2005), I

chose a more psychological approach (Giorgi 1997). Consistent with Giorgi, my

approach does not have van Manen's strong moral dimension (see Table D1 in Appendix

D) for a comparative summary of approaches. Unlike Hermeneutic Phenomenology,

which seeks to provide insight into human experience, descriptive phenomenology seeks

to describe it and as a result does not have a moral dimension.

This study utilized questions, narratives, observations, drawings and focus groups

to address this research question:"How do children and youth in the classroom impact the

experience of classroom management for student teachers?" Other questions addressed

by this research include the following: How can children and youth in the classroom be

observed to impact the development of classroom management for student teachers?

What role do children and youth believe they play in the development of classroom

management skills for student teachers? How do children and youth demonstrate agency

in their efforts to communicate classroom management needs to student teachers?

Finally, do student teachers believe the children and youth in their classrooms affect the

development of classroom management skills during the practicum, and if so, how are

student teachers able to shift their focus away from their own teaching long enough to

realize what the children and youth in their classrooms are telling them?

The goal of the study was not to find instances where children or youth in the classroom assisted or negated the development of classroom management but instead, to observe if this occurred and if it did, how it occurred.

Definitions

Classroom management: Classroom management is a complex combination of teacher actions and student reactions. Good classroom management encourages respect and creates an environment where learning can occur (Burden, 2006).

Student teachers: Students enrolled in a Bachelor of Education program and completing practice teaching, also known as a placement or practicum, are considered to be student teachers; they are sometimes also referred to as teaching candidates or candidates.

Associate teacher: During practice teaching, the experienced teacher who agrees to have a student teacher in his or her classroom and mentor that individual is an associate teacher.

Practicum: The practicum provides an opportunity for student teachers to practice teach while under the supervision of an experienced teacher. In Ontario, student teachers must complete 40 days of practice teaching (Ontario College of Teachers, 1996).

Agency: Agency is "the ability of individuals to make independent choices and act on their own behalf and on behalf of others. Agency is a social process of resistance and a manner of acting in a collective sense to either reinforce or resist culture" (Tilleczek, 2011, p. 155).

Phenomenology: Phenomenology, simply stated, is "an analysis of the way in which things or experiences show themselves" (Sanders, 1982, p. 354).

Sink or Swim: A student teacher often feels that she or he has no choice but to learn quickly how to address the behaviour of children or youth in the classroom. The learning often takes the form of trial and error, leading to the precarious feeling that one must *sink or swim*.

Friendship: Children and youth may want to make the student teacher a friend, as opposed to an authority figure.

Lack of Authority: This dilemma stems from the feeling that children, youth, and/or the associate teacher do not recognize the student teacher as having authority, or the right or ability to take charge, in the classroom.

Reflection: When teachers become reflective, they give thought to the students in their classroom and they begin to listen and accept that there are "many sources of understanding" (Zeichner & Liston, 1996, p. 9).

Testing: Child or youth behavior that challenges the student teacher to set limits or to indicate what is appropriate or not appropriate often tests the inexperienced student teacher.

Learning from students: The belief that children or youth in the classroom are somehow assisting the student teacher to learn how to become a better teacher: thus the student teacher is said to learn from his or her students.

Authority: Student teachers have authority when they feel in charge of the classroom.

The power of silence: The student teacher uses the power of silence as a classroom management technique when he or she stops talking and waits for children or youth in the classroom to be quiet before resuming the lesson.

Group control: Group control happens when children or youth in the classroom work together to assist or hinder the student teacher.

Delimitations

This study took place in Northern Ontario, specifically in and around Sudbury between November and June 2010. Only those classrooms with a student teacher in the professional year at the School of Education at Laurentian University, where the teaching candidates, school board, principal, associate teacher, parents, children, and youth had given consent to participate, were included in the study.

The results of this study are based on 29 student teacher questionnaires and narratives from 19 teaching candidates, 23 focus groups involving 107 children and youth, and 12 classroom observations during times when the student teacher taught a lesson.

Consistent with phenomenology, the responses of each participant are taken exactly as given and are accepted as true for that individual. That means that while this study may represent the experiences, feelings, and thoughts of those who participated, it cannot be generalized as being true for the entire population of student teachers, children, and youth in the classroom.

Rationale and Assumptions for Qualitative Design

Only student teachers and the children and youth in the classroom can explain their experiences of classroom management as it is being developed. Such explanations are best understood utilizing a qualitative approach. In this study, phenomenology was chosen as it allows the researcher to get as close as possible to the experiences, feelings, and thoughts of the respondents.

Phenomenology is well suited to educational research, according to Mostert (2002), van Manen (1995), and Quicke (2000) and Jackson, (1990). Mostert suggested that phenomenology was a method suitable for educational research as it provided the opportunity for teachers to "present themselves as phenomena in the lived experience of a teacher in the classroom" (p. 1). Through phenomenology, the researcher gained insight into the feelings underlying the decisions teachers make. Further, van Manen argued that phenomenology was useful in understanding education because "the literature of teaching and teacher education has shown that professional practices of educating cannot be properly understood unless we are willing to conceive of practical knowledge and reflective practice quite differently" (p. 33). He stated, "the teacher teaches with the head and the heart and *must feelingly know* what is the appropriate thing to do in ever changing circumstances with children who are organized in groups but who are also unique as individuals" (p. 33). Consistently, Jackson (1990) also stressed the importance of feelings in teaching, insisting that a teacher must be content with not doing what he knows is right, but what he thinks or feels is the most appropriate action in a particular situation.

According to van Manen (1995), practical active knowledge, such as student teaching, is something that belongs to phenomenology, as it involves the whole embodied being of the person as well as the physical world in which the person lives. He argued that the experience of teaching and practice teaching is embodied in the phenomenology of one's world. This is what differentiates a natural teacher from a beginner. Student teachers still need to learn everything that is taught to them in their education programs, but "the ultimate success of teaching actually may rely importantly on the 'knowledge' forms that inhere in practical actions, in an embodied thoughtfulness, and in the personal

space, mood and relational atmosphere in which teachers find themselves with their students" (van Manen, 1995, p.48). Teachers must learn to interpret behaviour signs that are ambiguous. They must use fleeting behavioural cues to tell them how well they are doing their jobs (Jackson, 1990).

Similarly, Mostert (2002) suggested that phenomenology might be a way for teachers in schools to also find a "way in" to their personal pedagogy. The writings that are the product of phenomenological inquiry may provide a new knowing for other teachers; they may produce the nod that triggers reflection on aspects of personal pedagogy that has previously lain dormant in the subconscious. Aspects of pedagogy may be brought to consciousness through them. While not all teachers will engage in researching their lived experience, the meanings resulting from these endeavours would bring new meanings to a wider audience (Mostert, 2002, p. 13).

A phenomenological approach provides insight into the thoughts and feelings that result in classroom management decisions. Such an approach permits access into the phenomenology of the student teacher's world and his or her relationships with and understandings about children and youth. At the same time, this approach provides access to the thoughts and feelings of children and youth as they experience the student teacher developing classroom management skills.

Utilizing the phenomenological method allowed me to explore the phenomena of how children and youth influence the development of classroom management for student teachers. This method allowed me to get as close as possible to student teachers and children and youth. It permitted access to their feelings, thoughts, and beliefs as they relate to the phenomena.

Phenomenological Design

Background of Phenomenology

Phenomenology is a method of inquiry and a social theoretical approach often used in social science, education, and nursing research as this method endeavours to best discern the human condition (Dowling, 2007). There is confusion surrounding the nature of phenomenology because it is both a research method and a philosophy. In addition, there are many schools of phenomenology and many perspectives. Among those perspectives, according to Dowling (2007), are positivist (Husserl), post-positivist (Merleau-Ponty), interpretivist (Heidegger) and constructivist (Gadamer). Each will be discussed in turn.

Phenomenology originates in the discipline of philosophy with Husserl (cited in Ehrich, 2005). Husserl argued that all that philosophy could and should be a description of experience (Ehrich, 2005). Bolton (1979) explained, "In order to grasp the meanings of a person's behaviour, the phenomenologist attempts to see things from that person's point of view" (pp. 245–246). Dowling (2007) suggested that the key to understanding Husserl is to focus on "primeval form, what is immediate to our consciousness, . . . before we have applied ways of understanding or explaining it" (p. 132). Heidegger explored the meaning of "Being," or presence in the world; to ask for the "Being" of something is to ask for the nature or meaning of that phenomenon (van Manen, 1990). Merleau-Ponty focused on four existentials: lived space (spaciality), lived body (corporeality), lived time (temporality), and lived human relation (relationality to communality) (van Manen, 1990). Gadamer advanced the work of Heidegger, adding the concept of insight derived from personal involvement (Dowling, 2007).

Phenomenology seeks to produce an accurate description of aspects of human experience (Ehrich, 2005).From a phenomenological viewpoint, there is no universal truth; each individual has different and unique experiences, attitudes, beliefs, and values. The meaning of human experience is taken exactly as it is given by the person experiencing. It includes feeling and thought (Ehrich, 2005). Giorgi (1997) explained it this way:

> For person A, the painting will have all of the phenomenal properties of ugliness, and for person B, it will have the phenomenal properties of beauty. However, for a phenomenological perspective no claim is made that the painting is in itself either ugly or beautiful; only its presence for the experiencer counts, and an accurate description of the presence is the phenomenon, and it usually contains many phenomenal meanings. (p. 2)

Phenomenology does not aim to explain or discover causes. Instead, it undertakes a search for the meaning of the experience for individuals and thus provides a foundation from which to build an essential understanding on the phenomena. Meaning is useless unless it is grounded in human experience (Bolton, 1979). The purpose of phenomenology is thus to "enlighten us as to the possibilities of experience and it succeeds only insofar as we are awakened to these" (p. 256). To do this, a phenomenologist attempts to develop an "empathetic understanding or an ability to reproduce in one's own mind the feelings, motives and thoughts behind the action of others" (pp. 245–246).

According to Ehrich (2005), two prominent schools of thought within phenomenology are Hermeneutic phenomenology, which she attributed to van Manen

(1995), and Empirical Descriptive Phenomenological Psychology, attributed to Giorgi (1997) (see Table D1 in Appendix D). Although the origins of Hermeneutic Phenomenology and Empirical Phenomenology are different, the approaches are similar in many ways. The major difference between the two approaches is the outcome. Within the hermeneutic approach, the outcome is a piece of writing that explicates the meaning of human phenomena and attempts to understand the lived structure of meaning. The empirical descriptive approach seeks to produce a general structural statement that reflects the essential structure of the experience being investigated. Within descriptive phenomenology, it is essential to set aside (or *bracket*) all past knowledge and be willing to accept the meaning of an experience as given.

Descriptive phenomenology is well suited to working with youth, as "Young people can be taken at their word, and examined and valued for who they are *now*" (Tilleczek, 2011, p. 30). Conversely, interpretive or hermeneutic phenomenology seeks to analyze the historical, social, and political forces that result in the interpretation of the experience (Lopez & Willis, 2004). Dreyfus and Rabinow (1982) explained hermeneutical phenomenology as follows:

> The phenomenologist views human behaviour . . . as a product of how people interpret the world. The task of the phenomenologist . . . is to capture this process of interpretation. To do this requires what Weber called *verstehen*, empathetic understanding or an ability to reproduce in one's own mind the feelings, motives and thoughts behind the action of others. In order to grasp the meanings of a person's behaviour, the phenomenologist attempts to see things from that person's point of view. (pp. 245–246)

This study was not concerned with interpreting others' experiences but with presenting them exactly as they were described; for this reason a descriptive approach was chosen. The descriptive phenomenological method encompasses three interlocking steps: (1) the phenomenological reduction, (2) description, and (3) search for essences (Giorgi, 1997). Phenomenological reduction is the first step: the process of putting aside all past knowledge that may be associated with what is being presented. The term *bracketing* is used to refer to reducing or setting aside any preconceptions and presumptions. The second step, description, involves accepting what is presented, as it is presented and without any analysis of it (Giorgi, 1997).In this way, the essence of the phenomena is allowed to emerge. The third step, the search for essences, requires the researcher to search for the fundamental meaning behind the experiences as presented (Giorgi, 1997) as those experiences relate to the phenomena being examined. In the phenomenological approach, the role of consciousness cannot be avoided. It is the medium of access to meaning or the essence of what is presented (Giorgi, 1997). Giorgi (1997) explained that "phenomenology thematizes the phenomenon of consciousness, and, in its most comprehensive sense, it refers to the totality of lived experiences that belong to a single person" (p. 2).

Quicke (2000) regarded phenomenology as irrefutably linked to reflection in its attempt to produce an accurate description of aspects of human experience. Reflective practice is the primary process of phenomenological inquiry (Mostert, 2002). Critical reflection is necessary for discovering the essential nature of the experience (Bolton, 1979). According to Ehrich (2005), reflection and written descriptions are intertwined. Writing has the intent of having us see what we have not seen before, of showing the

phenomena in a new way (Mostert, 2002). It is through writing that the writer is able to reflect. Writing conveys the meaning of the phenomenon and reveals its essence (Mostert, 2002). As a result, narrative writing can be especially useful in phenomenological inquiry.

As a research method, phenomenology attempts to understand the phenomena from the subject's viewpoint. Descriptive phenomenology differs from interpretive or hermeneutic phenomenology in its outcomes. Descriptive phenomenology seeks to produce a general structural statement that reflects the essential structure of the experience being investigated, while interpretive phenomenology seeks to understand the forces behind the experience.

Characteristics of Good Descriptive Phenomenological Research

Due to the variety of approaches to phenomenology, there is confusion surrounding the nature of phenomenology. As a result, research utilizing phenomenology is not always done well. Good phenomenological research pays attention to the philosophical underpinnings of phenomenology (Thomas, 2005, cited in Dowling, 2007). Dowling (2007) referenced Giorgi's (2000) critique of the use of phenomenology in nursing and suggested that good phenomenological research incorporates bracketing (sometimes referred to as reduction or *epoché*).

The following five phenomenological research studies are examples that display an awareness and incorporation of the philosophical origins of phenomenology. There is very little educational research utilizing the descriptive phenomenological method and even less that incorporates bracketing. As a result, the studies discussed below are from the field of medicine.

Penner and McClement (2008) employed phenomenology to examine the experiences of family caregivers of patients with advanced head and neck cancer. Utilizing phenomenology in their study allowed Penner and McClement to explore and analyze this particular phenomenon to arrive at a description of the lived, or subjective, experiences of family caregivers. They engaged in phenomenological reduction by bracketing personal biases, although they admitted that they could not set aside clinical expertise. They collected data from a number of sources as consistent with phenomenological research, including interviews, field notes, and demographic information. They discussed "dwelling" within the data to discover the "essences" and determine an accurate representation of the experience (p. 98).

Iwasaki, Bartlett, and O'Neil (2004) utilized a phenomenological method in their examination of stress among Aboriginal men and women with diabetes in Manitoba. They engaged in bracketing prior to conducting their focus groups. Afterwards, they examined the data to reduce it to statements relevant to the phenomena. Finally, they separated data into "meaning units" consistent with phenomenological method (p. 195).

In their examination of older men's experiences of living with severe visual impairment, Moore and Miller (2003) chose a phenomenological method to give voice to the experiences of their subjects. Moore and Miller engaged in bracketing to permit the meaning of experiences to come from participants and not from researchers' preconceived notions. During data analysis, they made certain that the findings did not come from their own preconceptions, but rather emerged from the data, thus uncovering the meaning or essence of the phenomena. They described the process of epoche as maintaining an open view point without prejudice or imposing meaning too soon.

Lee (1997) utilized phenomenology in her study of the lived experience of menopause for middle-aged Korean women. She conducted in-depth, unstructured interviews to discover the thoughts, feelings, perceptions, and expectations of Korean women. She immersed herself in the data repeatedly to identify and categorize common meanings and structural elements. Following this, she synthesized common elements and identified major themes and patterns at a higher level of abstraction, and a hypothetical definition of the phenomenon was formed. Although she was able to produce a structural definition, no mention of reduction or bracketing is made in her study. Similarly, Bergman and Bertero (2001) made only brief mention of bracketing in their phenomenological study on living with coronary disease. They rejected the concept of bracketing, stating instead that they could not bracket their prejudices as it is "in terms of them that we understand whatever and whenever we understand" (Bergman and Bertero, 2001, p. 736).

Several studies (Hodges, Keeley, &Grier, 2001; Iwasaki et al.,2004; Lee, 1997; Moore & Miller, 2003) verified their formative results with participants to be certain that their findings did not come from preconceived ideas, but rather from the data. Iwasaki et al. (2004) asked participants to complete an evaluation form to assess whether they agreed with the findings or whether the summary should be revised. Lee (1997) went back to participants after gathering data to clarify their responses. Similarly, Hodges et al. (2001) followed up with participants to clarify investigators' interpretations during and after interviews to uncover meaning.

If, as Dowling (2007) stated, good phenomenological research pays attention to the philosophical underpinnings of phenomenology and incorporates reduction and

bracketing, then it appears that much of the research done in the name of phenomenology is not done well. Good phenomenological research must do more than merely mention its philosophical underpinnings. Descriptive phenomenology must include elements of bracketing. It must confirm findings with participants to ensure that findings are accurate.

Reduction

As a researcher engaging in descriptive phenomenology, it was important that I engage in bracketing(see Introduction), also known as reduction or epoché, and set aside all past knowledge with a willingness to accept the meaning of the experience as given by the subjects of the research. Consistently, E. Morin (2008) has cautioned against the pretense of objectivity in academia, and he suggested that it was foolish to pretend that research can be separated from the researcher. To understand oneself, one must explore one's personal involvement in the research. Consistent with descriptive phenomenology I attempted to set aside all past knowledge, knowing that this is never truly possible. Instead, I made every attempt to be open enough to allow the true essence of the data to emerge. I took several steps to ensure as much as humanly possible that the data was objective.

I attempted to set aside all pre-conceived biases about the research through journaling. In order to do this, I had to admit that I had a hypothesis. My hypothesis was that children and youth did impact the development of classroom management for teaching candidates, but I thought it was unlikely that the student teachers would be able to recognize their impact. Then, I had to set this hypothesis aside and let the meaning or essence emerge from the data. I believe that I have been successful in bracketing as the results of the study are different from the original hypothesis.

As the practicum supervisor for all placements during the professional year, I had to ensure that my position was not seen to influence participation by student teachers. As I do not supervise or grade placements, I have no power over student teachers. My role at the School of Education is to arrange student teacher placements. For this reason, I read the invitation to participate from a script approved by the Research Ethics Board at Laurentian (see Appendix K). In the recruitment script, I identified myself as a PhD student planning to conduct my research over the next year. The script outlined what the research was and how it would be conducted. I stressed that participation was voluntary and would not affect placements. In fact, it could not affect the placements as all placement requests had been sent out in June 2010 prior to the research beginning.

In addition to being the practicum supervisor, I am also a Kindergarten-to-Grade-12 teacher and the parent of two teenagers. Being a teacher and a parent assisted me in conducting this research as it made me feel comfortable in the classroom and with children and youth. In engaging in research with children and youth, I was aware of the power I might be perceived as having as suggested by Best (2007).For this reason, I explained to each class prior to observing their interaction with the student teacher that I was not there to judge or evaluate the student teacher but to learn from observing. I made it clear to the children and youth that they did not have to be on their best behaviour but to try to act as they normally would when I was not there.

Holloway and Valentine (2000) suggested that the five key ethical issues involved in researching children are consent, structures of compliance, privacy, and confidentiality, issues of power, and dissemination and advocacy. In order to address these ethical issues in working with children, I obtained consent from the Laurentian

Universities Research Ethic Board, the two local school boards, the classroom teachers, and parents, as well as consent or assent from the children and youth themselves. The consent and assent forms stressed the voluntary nature of participation and provided the option of drawing responses. Prior to the focus groups' beginning, I made sure to explain the consent and assent forms to participants (Appendices I & J).

Morgan et al. (2002) stated that focus groups were a valuable method for eliciting children's views and experiences, although they advised that caution must be exercised when dealing with sensitive issues (such as bullying), where children would be less likely to share their feelings. I gave focus group participants the option of drawing their responses if they did not want to talk. I stressed the confidential nature of our discussions and told them that any comments they made would not be attributed to them but to a made-up name or a pseudonym. The student teacher was asked to leave the room during the focus groups so that the children and youth would feel comfortable providing authentic responses.

When introducing myself, I attempted to be as informal as possible. I told the students that my name was Trish and I wanted to learn more about how student teachers learn to become better teachers.

Conceptual Framework: The Bachelor of Education Program at Laurentian University

Laurentian University is located in northeastern Ontario. Since 1960, more than 43,000 students have graduated from the bilingual and tri-cultural university. Through its tri-cultural mandate, Laurentian serves the needs of regional citizens, with particular provisions for Franco-Ontarians and First Nations peoples. A Bachelor of Education

program in the French language has been offered by the university since 1974. In September 2003, Laurentian University began offering a Bachelor of Education in English. The Bachelor of Education is a four- or five-year program taken concurrently with an undergraduate degree. Both primary-junior and junior-intermediate divisions are offered. The program is small in comparison to others in Ontario, with less than 100 students graduating in any given year.

Practical experience working with children and youth is an important element of the program. Students complete three pre-practicum placements, one each year, beginning in the second year of their undergraduate degree. The pre-practicum placements are 40 hours in length and are completed by volunteering a few hours each week in local educational environments. During the first pre-practicum, students assist and observe practising teachers in local schools or other educational environments. For the second pre-practicum, students work with children and youth who have been identified as having a learning disability. During the final pre-practicum, student teachers often return to their home community to volunteer in a local school. These early pre-practicum experiences help prepare teaching candidates for their longer professional year practica. The first professional year practicum is the Initial Practicum.

Prior to the Initial Practicum, students in the program are required to take the following courses: Psychology, Statistics, Computer Applications, Education and Schooling, and Educational Psychology / Special Education. The Educational Psychology course provides an introduction to the stages of child development, which is essential knowledge for placements. Between January and March of the final year of their undergraduate degree, student teachers receive an intensive course to prepare them for

the Initial Practicum. In addition, students in the program must complete six practical teaching workshops prior to the Initial Practicum.

The Initial Practicum Placement begins in the month of May, immediately after student teachers graduate from their undergraduate degree. It is during this initial placement that practicum students are required to write formal lesson plans and teach their first lessons. When students return in September, they complete two more professional-year placements along with their in-class work. The purpose of these courses is to teach candidates how to teach.

In the professional year, only two of the courses are six-credit or 72 hours in length: Literacy and Methods. The Methods course encompasses classroom management, teaching methods, and computers. As a part of the Methods course, student teachers learn about the characteristics of children and youth in various grades. In the primary-junior division, several classes are allotted to exploring the curriculum and characteristics of children in each primary-junior grade. In the junior-intermediate division, a three-hour class is devoted to child development stages and the characteristics of children in Grades 4 to 10. Student teachers are then required to write reflections outlining how they would use their knowledge of child development in classroom management, lesson planning, and teaching.

In total, teaching candidates complete 77 days of placement and 15 days of pre-practicum before graduating. Each practicum requires student teachers to take on increasing responsibility in the classroom, from teaching one lesson a day during the Initial Practicum to teaching 100% of the day during the final practicum.

In 2010, the first professional-year practicum took place from November 8 to December 17. As the placement began two full months into the school year, the associate teacher had time to get to know the children and youth in his or her classroom and to implement a classroom management system. The second professional-year practicum took place from March 7 to April 21, nearing the conclusion of the school year. At this time, classroom management would have been well established in the associate's classrooms.

Student teachers are given basic information about the classroom prior to the start of their placement. Their placement letter indicates the name of the school, the name of the principal, the location of the school, the grade they will be placed in, and contact information for their associate teacher. To build on this basic information, they spend the first two days of each placement observing the classroom prior to beginning to teach.

Associate teachers are recruited through school boards and school principals. Boards and school principals recommend associate teachers who have at least two full years of teaching experience, are certified by the Ontario College of Teachers, and are deemed to be good role models for teaching candidates. Ontario universities and universities on the Ontario–United States border compete for a scarce number of associate teachers. In return, associate teachers are usually given a small honorarium, which amounts to between six and eight dollars a day for each day of placement.

As the Bachelor of Education at Laurentian University is a concurrent program, student teachers make the transition from university student to student teacher gradually throughout their bachelor degrees. This study takes place during two practica over a six-month period during the most intensive part of their teacher preparation.

Participants

In September 2010, all 65 students in the professional or final year of the Bachelor of Education at Laurentian University were invited to participate in the research study. Twenty-seven students submitted consent forms, and of those 27, 19 submitted narratives after the first placement between November 7 and December 16, 2010, for a total response rate of 29%. Of those 19, 10 submitted narratives after the second placement between March 7 and April 21, 2010. Six months passed between the two placements.

Of the 19 student teacher respondents after the first placement, 16 were female and three were male. Thirteen of 17 described themselves as middle-class, and all but one was from Ontario. Seventeen of the respondents were in the junior-intermediate division and two were in primary-junior. Thirteen of the respondents indicated that their undergraduate degree was a Bachelor of Arts. Fourteen of the 19 indicated they had teachers in the family. The most common cultural identity reported was Caucasian. All but one respondent described their K–12 experiences as positive.

Of the 10 student teacher respondents after the second placement, seven were female and three were male. Five of the 10 described themselves as middle-class and all were from Ontario. All of the respondents were in the junior-intermediate division, with half indicating that they had teachers in the family. Eight of the 10 respondents indicated that their undergraduate degree was a Bachelor of Arts. The most common cultural identity reported was Caucasian. All but one respondent described his or herK–12 experiences as positive.

Twelve classrooms were observed in three different school boards, including the Rainbow District School Board, the Sudbury Catholic District School Board, and a Northern Ontario First Nation. Focus groups were conducted in classes ranging from Grades 1 to 10. As the concurrent Bachelor of Education program at Laurentian University encompasses Grades Kindergarten to 10, I ensured representation from all of the divisions covered by that grade range: primary, junior, and intermediate. All participants were given a pseudonym. Focus groups had a minimum of one participant and a maximum of seven. The number of focus group participants ranged from one to 19 per class. In total, 23 focus groups were conducted (see Table 1 below).

Classrooms chosen for participation in the study were in Sudbury or in a First Nations community close to Sudbury. The Rainbow District School Board is the largest school board in the area and its website described Sudbury as follows:

The City of Greater Sudbury is a dynamic, diverse bilingual community with a population of over 157,000.Located approximately 400 km north of Toronto, the city is the largest centre in northeastern Ontario and has become the focus of mining, technology, education, government and health services. (Rainbow District School Board, 2011).

The median income in 2005 for families in Sudbury was $68,312, slightly below the provincial level of $69,156. The median income for families in this area of Northern Ontario was $58,934 (Statistics Canada, 2006b).

Two Grade 1 classes, one split Grade 4/5 class, two Grade 5 classes, three Grade 7 classes, one Grade 8, two Grade 9, and one Grade 10 class participated in the study, for

a total of 12 classes. A total of 107 children and youth participated in the 23 focus

groups.

Table 1

Observation and Focus Group Results

Grade	Observation	Number of Focus Groups	Number of Participants	Drawings
1	Yes	3	18	Yes
1	Yes	2	7	Yes
4/5	Yes	4	19	Yes
5	Yes	1	1	Yes
5	Yes	2	11	Yes
7	Yes	3	14	Yes
7	Yes	1	4	Yes
7	Yes	2	11	Yes
8	Yes	1	4	Yes
9	Yes	1	4	No
9	Yes	0	0	No
10	Yes	3	14	No
Total	12	23	107	9

Procedure

In order to take part in the study, the classroom had to have a teaching candidate

that had agreed to participate in the study (see Appendix E). The classroom had to be in

the Sudbury area and in a school board that had consented to participate in the study (see

Appendix F). Prior to seeking consent from local school boards, I discussed with a

superintendent from one of the school boards the possibility of providing an incentive to

children and youth to participate. My original intention was to put the names of all

children and youth who participated into a draw for an iPod and choose one recipient to

receive the iPod. After discussing it with the superintendent, I decided books would be a

more appropriate incentive. For this reason, I decided to contribute $5.00 worth of books

to each classroom for each student who participated.

After receiving permission from the three school boards, I approached the principal and associate teacher for consent (see Appendix G). I received verbal or e-mail consent from the principals and written consent from the associate teacher. Each classroom that met these conditions was observed.

After the classroom observation, parental consent forms for participation in focus groups were distributed to children and youth (see Appendix H). At this time, I explained the voluntary nature of participation. Approximately one week later, I returned and collected the parental consent forms and asked children and youth to complete the student consent form if they were in Grades 4–10 (see Appendix I) and a student assent form for students in Grades K–3, if they were interested in participating in the study (see Appendix J). In the case of students completing the assent form, I read the form to make sure everyone understood, even those who could not yet read. As the consent process was so complex, I decided early on that I would not audio- or videotape any of the observations or focus groups. I thought this decision might make it easier to get approval from the boards, principals, classroom teachers, parents, and the children and youth themselves.

Data Collection Methods

Five methods of data collection were used to work towards a complementarity or triangulation of methods. These five methods included observation and focus groups with children and youth from 12 classrooms conducted in December 2010, questions and narratives from student teachers collected after each of the two placements, and finally verification of findings with student teachers in June 2011.

Questionnaire and narratives. The questionnaire, along with the narrative questions, was sent by e-mail to all student teachers who had provided signed consent forms in December 2010 and April 2011, immediately following the conclusion of the placement. The questionnaire asked student teachers to provide basic demographic information including, name, age, sex, undergraduate degree, division, teachable, hometown, and socio-economic background.

In addition, five questions were designed to gather more information about the student teachers and their perspectives on schooling and education. The first question asked how they felt about their K–12 experiences. The purpose of this question was to determine if there was a relationship between a student teacher's early school experiences and his or her experiences during placement. The second question asked students to describe their cultural identity. This question was designed to determine where participants were from and how they identified themselves. The third question asked whether or not they came from a family of teachers. The intention of this question was to determine whether there were any differences in the perspectives of teaching candidates who came from a family of teachers and those who did not. The fourth question asked why the student teacher had chosen this profession. The function of this question was to determine if student teachers' motivations for wanting to teach could be linked to responses to other questions or narrative responses. The final question on the questionnaire asked student teachers to share their perspectives on children and youth. The intent of this question was to determine whether their ideas about children and youth would change between placements and whether those ideas could be linked to other responses in the questionnaire or narratives.

The next two questions were designed to provide insight into the experiences of student teachers while they developed classroom management skills and to determine student teachers' views on whether children and youth in their classrooms hindered or helped them in developing classroom management skills. These questions set the stage for the narrative response at the end of the questionnaire, where student teachers were asked to provide an example that illustrated their responses to these two questions. Instructions for the narrative response asked participants to be as descriptive as possible and to include thoughts and feelings they had at the time.

Lawler (2002) described narrative as a social product produced by people in specific social, historical, and cultural locations. Narratives are a means of constructing personal identities. People use narratives to make sense of what is happening to them. The narrative represents the writer's social reality. Tilleczek (2011) described narratives as providing insight into the world of the writer. It is their interpretation of facts and experiences. Narratives work well with observation because they shed insight onto what cannot be observed, how the writer is interpreting the experience. Narratives although biased, are significant when scrutinized for their representation of how the writer uses the experience to construct his or her own social identity. When groups of narratives are collected, they can be analyzed for similarities and differences and viewed for continuities and discontinuities over time (Tilleczek, 2011).

Lawler (2002) explained that narratives demonstrate emplotment. They contain transformation and plot line and characters. The narrative event must be understood as a culmination and actualization of prior events. Mostert (2002) suggested that writing is an important element in phenomenology. Narratives work well with phenomenology

because descriptive phenomenology accepts the individual's experience as it is given, without interpretation (Ehrich, 2005).

Observation in the classroom. Patton (1990) stated that "to fully understand the complexities of many situations, direct participation and observation may be the best research method" (p. 25). Observation allows the researcher to focus on the descriptors of what people experience and how they experience what they experience (p.71).Observation can never be completely unbiased, according to Sanchez-Jankowski (2002).

Observation of student-teacher-led lessons occurred in 12 different classrooms in nine schools between the months of November and December 2010. The student teachers were placed in classrooms where the associate teacher had already established his or her own classroom management system. By the time of the first placement, the associate teacher had had a full two months to establish a system of classroom management. With the second placement, the associate was seven months into the school year by the time the student teacher arrived.

Observation took place in the student teacher's classrooms during the second or third week of the placement. Each student teacher's classroom was observed for one lesson, or approximately one hour. The content of the lesson observed did not matter as long as the teaching candidate was teaching. I conducted the observation at a time that was convenient for the student teacher and the associate teacher. All of the classroom observations occurred during the first practicum.

At the beginning of the observation, I asked the student teacher to introduce me as a student from Laurentian University. At this point, I told the children and youth that I

was working on my PhD and I wanted to learn more about how student teachers learn. I asked the children and youth to act as they normally would and not to try to be on their best behaviour as I was not there to judge or evaluate the student teacher, but to learn by observing their interaction. I attempted to be as unobtrusive as possible by sitting at the back of the classroom and taking notes. I recorded all interactions in the form of dialogue and behaviour between the student teacher and the children or youth in the classroom, as recommended by Mulhall (2002).

Originally, I had designed the ethics submissions in a manner that would allow a research assistant to accompany me during my classroom observations and focus groups. After my first observation, I realized that this would not be necessary as I was able to capture all dialogue and behaviour on my own. I also decided that the presence of another researcher in the classroom might be more of an impediment to the research process than a complement.

After each observation, I thanked the class and the associate teacher for allowing me to observe. I explained that I would be back in approximately one week to meet with those students who were interested in talking to me. I told them that if they were interested in talking to me they had to get their parents' consent. I explained that the associate teacher would hand out the parental consent forms at the end of the day and she would collect them prior to my visit one week later. To encourage participation, I provided $5.00 worth of books of the associate teacher's choice to the classroom for every child that participated. As Table 1 above indicates, in some classes the majority of the class participated in the focus groups while in one of the Grade 9 classes none of the students brought back the parental consent form.

Focus groups with children and youth. Krueger (1994) defined a focus group as "a carefully planned discussion, designed to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interest in a permissive, non-threatening environment"(p. 6, cited in Gibson, 2007). Gibson (2007, referencing Kingry, Tiedje, & Friedman, 1990; Krueger, 1994) explained that a focus group is a form of interview where the objective is not to develop consensus but to produce qualitative data that provides insight into the attitudes, perceptions, motivations, concerns, and opinions of participants. The ideal number of participants for a focus group depends on the age of the children and youth and the practicalities of recruitment (Morgan & Kreuger, 1998, cited in Morgan et al., 2002). The group must be small enough to encourage participation but large enough to stimulate discussion.

Morgan et al. (2002) suggested several strategies to encourage discussion among children and youth. They recommended a seating arrangement where all students could see one another, such as a circle or semi-circle. In addition, they advised, the facilitator might consider using his or her first name to reduce the appearance of authority and formality. Discussion should be less formal than in a classroom, so students would not have to raise their hand to speak, although students should still speak one at a time. Children and youth who want to participate but are too shy to speak up might record their responses on paper or in the form of a drawing. Morgan et al. pointed to the relative difficulty of constructing meaningful questions that will elicit detailed and relevant responses when dealing with children. It is always difficult to be sure of the meaning of responses when dealing with children and youth and, for this reason, probing or clarifying become especially important, according to Morgan et al.

Focus groups in this study. Consistent with Stewart and Shamdasani (1990), I organized the focus groups so that they had a beginning, where I greeted participants and explained the voluntary nature of their participation, a middle, where questions were asked and discussion occurred, and an end, where I collected drawings and thanked children and youth for their participation.

Upon arriving in each classroom, I met briefly with the associate teacher and student teacher. The associate teacher provided the signed parental consent forms. I then proceeded to the table that was set aside for the focus groups and took out note paper, markers, and flipchart paper. In all cases except one, the focus groups were conducted in the classroom. In Emily's Grade 7 class, the focus groups were conducted in a nearby classroom with a different teacher present. This did not appear to inhibit focus group participation. In each case, the student teacher was asked to leave the room so that the children and youth could speak freely about their experiences with student teachers. The associate teacher was asked to remain in the room to make the children feel more secure.

The associate teacher would then call the names of the students in groups of three to seven to join me at the table for the focus group. While the focus group participants joined me, other students in the class had a work period under the supervision of the associate teacher. When the children or youth joined me at the table, I would ask their names and, for each student, write the name at the top of the parental consent form. I then explained that they could decide if they wanted to speak to me or not. I explained that their comments would be confidential and that I would not be sharing them with the teaching candidate. I informed them that if I did include one of their comments I would attribute it to a made-up name or a pseudonym. At this point, I handed out the consent

form to youth in Grades 4–10 and the assent form to children in Grades 1–3. I instructed

the children and youth that if they would like to speak to me, I would need them to agree

by signing the consent or assent form.

After collecting the forms, I explained that I wanted to gather their opinions on

student teachers. I explained that they could draw as we were talking or just listen if they

wanted to. Most participants would begin by drawing, usually a figure representing the

student teacher (see Table 4 in Chapter 4, below). I explained that the student teacher in

their classroom was learning how to become a teacher and that I wanted to ask them a

few questions about how the student teacher learns. At this point, I would often ask if

they had had other student teachers in the past and how they liked having student

teachers. As the purpose of this question was to relax participants, I did not record their

responses but simply listened and engaged in conversation prior to asking the focus group

questions.

Focus group questions. To ensure that the focus group questions were

appropriate, they were piloted with a local Grade 5teacher prior to beginning the study.

Grade 5 was chosen because it is the mid-range between the primary and intermediate

teaching divisions. That teacher indicated that the questions were appropriate and that her

students would be able to understand them.

The first focus group question asked, "Did you help [student teacher] with her

teaching?" The purpose of this question was to determine whether children and youth

believed they had a role to play in helping the student teacher learn how to be a better

teacher. The next question followed from the first: "How did you help her or him?" This

question was designed to elicit specific examples of the kind of actions children and

youth took to assist the student teacher in becoming a better teacher. The third question asked, "How do you know that helped her or him?" It was designed to gather their perceptions of their efforts to assist the student teacher in becoming a better teacher. Next, I changed the focus of the questions to ask about instances where the children or youth made efforts to make the student teacher's situation more difficult or to hinder her growth as a teacher. Finally, I asked how they knew that action was not helpful. The purpose of these last two questions was to elicit examples of actions they had taken to make it more difficult for the student teacher and to determine the outcome of such actions.

In each case, I probed answers that were relevant and redirected those that were not. When collecting the drawings, I asked for clarification of those that were unclear. At the end of the focus group, I thanked all of the participants and the associate teacher. On average, focus groups lasted 20 minutes. In the younger grades, the focus groups were around 15 minutes while in the Grade 10 class the focus groups were over 25 minutes.

Data Analysis Procedures

Giorgi (1997) outlined the concrete steps of the phenomenological methods as (1) collection of verbal data, (2) reading of the data, (3) breaking of the data into some kind of parts, (4) organization and expression of the data from a disciplinary perspective, and (5) synthesis or summary of the data for purposes of communication to the scholarly community.

As phenomenology suggests, no research can ever be 100% objective. As a result, this research follows the paradigm of interpretivism in that it does not seek one truth but

multiple truths. It focuses on the experiences of a few individuals and cannot be generalized to other populations. It represents the experiences of the individuals who have participated. This may be considered a limitation of the research by some but not from a phenomenological viewpoint. From a phenomenological viewpoint, research cannot be generalized as applying to other populations (Morrow, 2005). Bias can never be totally eliminated: "bias is not by definition counterproductive for research studies, and . . . biased studies do not necessarily constitute invalid research" (Mantzoukas, 2005, p. 279). Consistently, from an interdisciplinary perspective, E. Morin (2008) has cautioned researchers to avoid engaging in the academic pretense of objectivity when in fact one can never be completely objective. Instead, Morin suggested that one must explore one's personal involvement in the research. In this sense, this research is post-positivistic as I acknowledge that bias can never be completely eliminated and that recognizing and acknowledging bias adds to trustworthiness.

However, as a researcher I must take every step possible to attempt to make my research as objective as possible. The first step in achieving objectivity was the bracketing process. Through bracketing, I engaged in reflexivity by situating myself as a researcher, teacher, and parent. In addition, I decided to indicate a hypothesis so that I could bracket or set aside my bias.

Second, I have used a multiplicity of methods, including questionnaires, observation, focus groups, drawings, narratives, and participant verification, to ensure the credibility of the data. The process engaged in with each method was consistent in order to ensure data dependability. When collecting student teachers' questionnaires and narratives, first in 2010 and then in April 2011, the process was the same each time. In

both instances, student teachers received the questionnaire and narrative questions by e-mail, and were given a deadline by which to submit them. (The personal information that teaching candidates provided about themselves and their thoughts about teaching are summarized in Tables 5 and 6, and also presented descriptively.)

Observations

When conducting the observations, I made sure that I followed the same process with each class. I began by introducing myself to the associate teacher and then greeting the student teacher. The student teacher would introduce me and I would take my place at the back of the class to observe and take notes. After my observation, I explained that I would be back in approximately one week to conduct focus groups and that the associate would be distributing consent forms for those who were interested in participating.

When analyzing the class observations, each observation was given a meaning unit to represent the dominant theme occurring in the interaction between the student teacher and the children or youth in the classroom. Below is a sample observation decryption to provide the reader with an understanding of how meaning units were arrived at. Meaning units are italicized.

Sample Observation Decryption

Grade 10 Physical Education Class—Gymnasium

Warm-Up

Erica announces a nutrition game will be their warm up.

One young man says "No, I thought we were doing Phys. Ed." (*Challenging*)

Erica does not comment but tells the students they are going to go to the corners of gym.

She says, you are going to be apples, some students say "yeah." She divides them into four groups, bananas, oranges, grapes, apples. She sends each group to a corner of the gymnasium.

Everyone is having fun and smiling. There is a small collision in middle.

Erica is giving instructions about the next activity.

The students are talking at the same time.

Erica asks several boys for help moving benches to set up next activity. Only one of the boys helps. (*Agency, Not Cooperating*)

Relay

The students are jumping over benches, Erica participates.

There is music playing (their Music).

Some of the young men are showing off, jumping and then twirling.

One young man waits for his friend before beginning pushups.

Two of the young men high five each other.

Two of the young men are dancing to the music

Erica stabilizes a bench that they are jumping over so that it doesn't move.

As she calls out different actions, "10 sit ups" students respond and do what she says, when she says it.

They are having fun.

Students are slowing down, getting tired.

She gives instruction, but then does the activity with them.

Erica asks for volunteers to get equipment for a new activity. Two students volunteer.

She asks for three more to move the bench, only two volunteer so she tells another student, "go help".

Erica demonstrates stretching. No one is doing it; some of the young men are sitting on a bench. (*Agency, Not Cooperating*)

Several of the young women are talking

One young man is playing imaginary basketball.

One young man says, "Miss, can I be the ref?"Erica responds, "no you can be the goalie"

Erica tries to get the three young men sitting on the bench to participate. They all make excuses.

Floor Hockey

Erica is giving instruction.

She tells one young man to take a certain position

He says "no" (in a joking manner) but does it. (*Challenging*)

Erica repeats the command "I said . . . (getting assertive)

One young man is running around the gym, letting off energy, he scores on the basketball net, fooling around.

Erica says, "hey" to get his attention.

Erica tries to get their attention. "Guys listen up."

She gives instructions, "No lobbing the ball allowed."

One young man says "Yes it is." (*Challenging*)

Erica says "no, it isn't." (Always challenging her authority but in a respectful way.)

Erica joins in on the game, on and off.

There is music playing, they are having a great time.

Two young women are just standing in position (defense).

The young men are really into it—first pumping, checking when they score, and dancing with the hockey stick.

Erica goes up to one young women who is just standing there and demonstrates the position she should be in.

There is cheering and jumping, when a goal is scored.

Erica is walking around, keeping an eye on everything.

Drink Break

Students go to the fountain.

The game resumes, one young man trips, Erica moves over toward him.

A goal is scored. The young man who scores does a cart wheel and falls wrong.

Erica admonishes him, "Daniel!"

Erica tries again to get two young women who aren't participating to be more involved by making them take center position for the face off. She demonstrates the stick action required and counts down the face off. They do it.

A young man is lying in the net, Erica yells out "get out there."

Erica yells out, "Jason don't lob your stick." (She is right on top of them when they are doing something unsafe.)

She offers positive reinforcement to a young woman, "Nice try Candace."

A young woman goes over to Erica and asks to be centre. She lets her.

For the last 10 minutes, Erica announces a change in the game, "you can only

score on your own goalie and you can't cross the center line."

One young man goes up to Erica and says, "Oh Miss, I didn't get to show you my

trick. (*Get to Know Us*)

She counts the students off to make new teams.

They are full of energy, running around and jumping on benches.

She asks a young man for the ball. He gives her the ball.

She gets some students to switch teams. She tells one man to move over to

defense and he ignores her. (*Agency, Not Cooperating*)

She tells the students "five more minutes."

Class is over.

She says "bring it in, (put sticks away).

She says "Boys, I need your help to put the nets away, and calls on three of them

by name.

After going through my observation notes repeatedly, I determined a pattern of coherence

in the observation data. A model representing student agency in the form of engagement

or lack of engagement emerged from the data (see Figure 2).

Focus Groups

When conducting the focus groups, I followed the same steps with each class. I

would begin by greeting the associate teachers and student teacher, and I would collect

parental consent forms from the associate teacher prior to beginning the focus groups.

The student teacher would leave the room, and I would conduct focus groups with

children and youth at the back of the class while other students worked on their own. In

each case, I reminded children and youth of the voluntary nature of their participation and the confidentiality of their comments. I collected student consent and assent forms from participants, and then proceeded to distribute drawing paper and remind them why I was doing this research before asking the focus group questions. Focus group questions were consistent from group to group although the language changed depending on participants' ages. For example, the Grade 1 children might need to be provided with an example of how they could assist the student teacher, such as showing her where instructional materials could be found, while the Grade 10 students required no such prompting.

Drawings

During the focus groups, children and youth in Grades 1–8 also drew pictures. I did not instruct them on what to draw, how to draw it, or what colours to use. If time permitted, I asked questions from a phenomenological viewpoint, inquiring what the drawing meant to that child. The purpose of allowing participants to draw during the focus groups was to create a relaxed atmosphere in which to ask questions. A. MacDonald (2009) suggested that "Drawings are a useful tool for researching with children, as they provide the children with a research activity which is familiar and non-threatening" (p. 42). Coyne (1998) further added that drawing while talking is an effective way to establish rapport and lower anxiety when interviewing children. I did not intend to analyze the drawings later. For this reason, the analysis of the drawings consists only of identifying common themes in them.

Search for Discrepant Findings

A search for discrepant findings or disconfirming evidence was performed by collecting student teacher verifications in June 2011. Morrow (2005) calls this validation

step a search for discrepant findings. Of the 10 student teachers who were sent the meaning units, four responded. Their responses indicated agreement with all of the meaning units, although one respondent indicated she did not personally agree that the issue of friendship ever hindered her classroom management development. Friendship was never an issue during my observation of her teaching nor was it present in her narratives, thus this response was true for her.

Description

In total 129 pages of rough notes, 36 individual pages and 8 group flipchart pages of drawings were collected from the observations and the focus groups. I began reading the data and immersing myself in the data in May of 2011, after collecting all the data. I read through it several times before I was comfortable breaking the data into parts or meaning units (see Table 2). Morrow (2005) described this as immersing oneself in the data until an analytic framework emerges *Verstehen*, or a deep understanding of the data, was achieved through this immersion in the data consistent with Giorgi (1997). In writing my thesis, I had to go back to the data several more times and further immerse myself in its meanings.

In order to determine the meaning units, I asked myself what kind of knowledge this data represented. The meaning unit is dependent on meaning relevant to the purpose of the study; in other words, meaning units arise by connecting the data with the research questions, in relation to the problem posed in the study. Giorgi (1997) stressed the importance of an attitude open enough to let unexpected meanings emerge. In the analysis of this data, several unexpected meanings emerged. Once the meaning units were

identified, I went through all of the data again and colour-coded it according to meaning unit.

For the observations, focus groups, and narratives, the data is presented in meaning units. The observations and focus groups are described in detail, but a meaning unit is given to each focus group to represent the dominant meaning. In identifying the narrative meaning units, I determined that each sentence could have only one meaning unit. A narrative could have several meaning units, but a sentence always had a dominant meaning unit. For this reason, all narratives were reflection to some degree, but reflection was often not the dominant meaning unit of the sentence.

In determining the meaning units of the narratives, I immersed myself in the data meaning; I read it over several times before I began to notice themes or meaning units. I then began to colour code meaning unit to make it easier to identify similarities and differences. When the narratives were analyzed, certain words or phrases indicated that a narrative might fall under a specific meaning unit. For the meaning unit sink or swim, phrases such as "forced me," "making me," or "a lot of my regular techniques did not work" were key to identification. For the meaning unit friendship, the word "friend" and the phrase "kept asking me personal questions" helped in identification. When identifying lack of authority, I used words such as "undermined" and phrases such as "complete disrespect" and "she said no" (referring to the associate teacher). For the meaning unit reflection, phrases including "I feel," "looking back," and "I don't believe" were helpful. In the case of the meaning unit testing, words like "test" and phrases such as "see how far" were key to identifying the meaning units. When identifying instances where student teachers were describing learning from students, I chose phrases such as "I believe the

students only had positive effects on my teaching and learning" or "the students in my classes assisted me" as triggers for meaning unit identification. For the meaning unit authority, phrases such as "this sparked a fire" or "I sent him in the hallway" were helpful. In identifying the meaning unit power of silence, I found key phrases such as "without speaking" and "just stop and wait" were helpful. For group control, phrases such as "if one was helping the others would help" and "as such classroom management is maintained by the student" indicated the meaning unit.

Credibility of the data analysis was checked by reading the data "blind" to thesis committee members to allow them to categorize it themselves. In October 2011, I met with two members of my thesis committee, Dr. Jan Buley and Dr. Gaby van der Giessen, to review the categorization of the data. I gave Dr. Buley and Dr. van der Giessen the meaning units I had determined and then read the data for them and allowed them to categorize it themselves. According to Guba and Lincoln (1989) "this is the single most crucial technique for establishing credibility" (p. 239). Our findings were in most instances the same except in the area of reflection. Lincoln and Guba (1985) point out that quite frequently such checks result in revisions. In the case of this study, I had not considered that just by submitting a narrative, student teachers had engaged in some form of reflection.

Although I had identified reflection as a meaning unit after the first placement, I had not identified it as occurring after the second placement. For this reason, I reviewed all of my research to check that I had not missed any other meaning units and to look for instances of reflection. In the end, my thesis committee and I were comfortable with the meaning units I had identified except for my omitting reflection from the second

placement. After reviewing my data again, I was able to find several instances of reflection in the narratives provided by student teachers after the second placement, and I added these instances to my results.

The issue of consequential validity, described by Morrow (2005), has been addressed by considering who benefits from power and how power is exercised in terms of the findings of this research. In this case, maintaining the adult-centred view of the classroom, wherein children are taught by teachers and student teachers, permits the power in the classroom to remain with the teacher and/or student teacher. The findings of this research demonstrate the opposite: that children and youth in the classroom do have power, and they use it to "teach" the student teacher how to teach. Another power dynamic that comes into question as a result of this research is that of the teaching triad. The results of this research suggest a re-envisioning of the triad, which upsets the power dynamics between the associate teacher, student teacher, and university. It questions who really holds power in the classroom and as a result who is teaching the student teacher classroom management.

Table 2

Trustworthiness of the Data

Steps Taken to Ensure Trust-worthiness	Method	Phenomenological Step/Data Collection	Phenomenological Step/Data Analysis	Validation Method
Position researcher	Bracketing/ researcher Owning one's perspective	Reduction/Written record of researchers beliefs and hypothesis as related to the phenomena	Reduction/ Researcher reflexivity	Written and recorded in thesis
Position student teachers	Questionnaire/ student teachers 29 questionnaires Situating the sample	Description/ Via e-mail after each placement (December 2010 and May 2011)	Search for essences/ Document analysis	Consistency of process Member checking: Two members of thesis committee reviewed questionnaires
Research question #1: How can children and youth be observed to impact the development of classroom management skills in student teachers?	Observations/ Classrooms 12 classroom observations	Description/ Research notes on dialogue and behaviour	Search for essences/ Meaning units Immersion in the data Colour coding	Consistency of process Multiplicity of methods Consideration of consequential validity /Agency CoherenceModel Emerges Member checking: Two members of thesis committee reviewed observation notes
Research question #2: What role do children and youth believe they play in the development of classroom	Focus groups/ Children and youth 12 Classroom observations 23 Focus groups	Description/ Recorded responses and collected drawings	Search for essences/Meaning units Immersion in the data Colour coding	Consistency of process Multiplicity of methods Consideration of consequential

management skills for student teachers?				validity Member checking: Two members of thesis committee reviewed focus group notes
Research Question # 3: How do children and youth demonstrate agency in their efforts to communicate classroom management needs to student teachers?	Observations/ Classrooms 12 classroom observations focus groups/ children and youth 23 focus groups	Description/ Research notes on dialogue and behaviour Description/ Recorded responses collected drawings	Search for essences/ Meaning units Immersion in the data Colour coding Model (Figure 2) Coherence	Consistency of process Multiplicity of methods Consideration of consequential validity Member checking: Two members of thesis committee reviewed observation notes Coherence— Emergence of model
Research Question #4: Do student teachers be-lieve child-ren/youth affect the development of classroom management skills during the prac-ticum? How are stu-dent teachers able to shift their focus away from their teaching long enough to realize what the children and youth in their class-rooms are telling them?	Narratives/ Student teachers 29 questionnaires and narratives	Description/ Via e-mail questions and narratives from student teachers after the placement, (December 2010 and May 2011)	Search for essences/ Questionnaire analysis Immersion in the data Colour coding	Consistency of process Multiplicity of methods Consideration of consequential validity Member checking: Two members of thesis committee reviewed narratives
	Verification of formative findings Credibility checks	Verification/ Via e-mail in July 2011	Search for essences/ Participant feedback	Search for discrepant findings: participant feedback on formative results

When collecting data for this study, a phenomenological approach allowed me to get as close as possible to the lived experiences of student teachers and the children and youth in their classrooms while the teaching candidates developed classroom management skills. This study utilized questions, narratives, observations, and focus groups to address the research question, "How do children and youth in the classroom impact the experience of classroom management for student teachers?"

Several steps, including blind reviews of the data and a search for discrepant findings, were conducted to ensure trustworthiness of the data. What follows in Chapter 4 is a description of the data collected.

Rigour

The descriptive phenomenological method I have chosen encompasses three interlocking steps: (1) the phenomenological reduction, (2) description, and (3) search for essences (Giorgi, 1997).

I engaged in phenomenological reduction by bracketing my beliefs and a hypothesis as they relate to the phenomena in my thesis. Bracketing beliefs in one way to engage in researcher reflexivity (Morrow, 2005). By engaging in bracketing the researcher attempts neutrality to ensure the findings are not motivated by the biases or interests of the researcher (Guba &Lincoln, 1985).

Five methods of data collection were used to work towards a complementarity or triangulation of methods. These five methods included observation and focus groups with children and youth, questionnaires and narratives from student teachers, and finally verification of the findings with student teachers. Both Lincoln and Guba (1985) and

Morrow (2005) stress the importance of triangulation of the data to ensure trustworthiness.

The data from the student teacher questionnaires became part of the phenomenological description. In order to ensure the questionnaire data was valid, a consistent process was engaged in when collecting questionnaires. In each case, the questionnaires were collected by e-mail following each of the two placements. In order to ensure my analysis of the questionnaires was trustworthy, two of my committee members reviewed the questionnaire data. Member checking is described by Guba and Lincoln (1989) as the "single most crucial technique for establishing credibility" (p. 239).

The data for the first study question was collected over 12 classroom observations. During observation I recorded notes on dialogue and behaviour. The observations were part of the description and the search for essences. In order to ensure the trustworthiness of the observation data, I made sure that each observation was conducted in a consistent manner. Colour coding was used to make similarities and differences in the data more visible. In the process, coherence occurred in the form of a model (Figure 2). Morrow (2005) described this as immersing oneself in the data until an analytic framework emerges. Two members of my committee reviewed my observation notes to ensure trustworthiness of the data.

The data for the second and third study questions was collected from both focus groups and observations. In total, I collected 129 pages of rough notes, 36 individual pages of drawings and 8 group flipchart pages of drawings. By collecting 'thick descriptions' the data allows the reader experience the phenomena almost vicariously

(Guba &Lincoln, 1989). The focus group data became part of the description and search for essences. In order to ensure trustworthiness of the focus group data, I made sure that each focus group was conducted in a consistent manner. Two members of my thesis committee compared my focus group notes with the meaning units I identified in order to ensure trustworthiness of the data.

The issue of consequential validity, described by Morrow (2005), has been addressed by considering who benefits from power and how power is exercised in terms of the findings of this research. As this research is situated in a child-centered, positive youth development approach it engaged in praxis whereby the power to participate, to engage in focus group discussion, describe experiences or not, rested entirely with the children and youth participating. In the end, the findings of this research benefit the children and youth who participated. The research demonstrates the power they have to negotiate the classroom environment.

The data for the final study question was collected from student teacher narratives and questionnaires. The narrative data became part of the description and search for essences. Each narrative was collected in a consistent manner and the issue of consequential validity was minimized by ensuring student teachers that the data would not affect their placements or marks. Finally, two members of my thesis committee compared the narratives I collected with the meaning units identified to ensure trustworthiness of the data.

The search for essences occurred by immersing myself in the data and then examining the data based on the research questions posed. The essences of the research are presented in the findings.

As a final step to ensure rigour, I verified the results with participants. Morrow (2005) calls this validation step, a search for discrepant findings. Of the 10 students who participated during both placements, four of them responded, confirming the findings. These steps are illustrated in Figure 1.
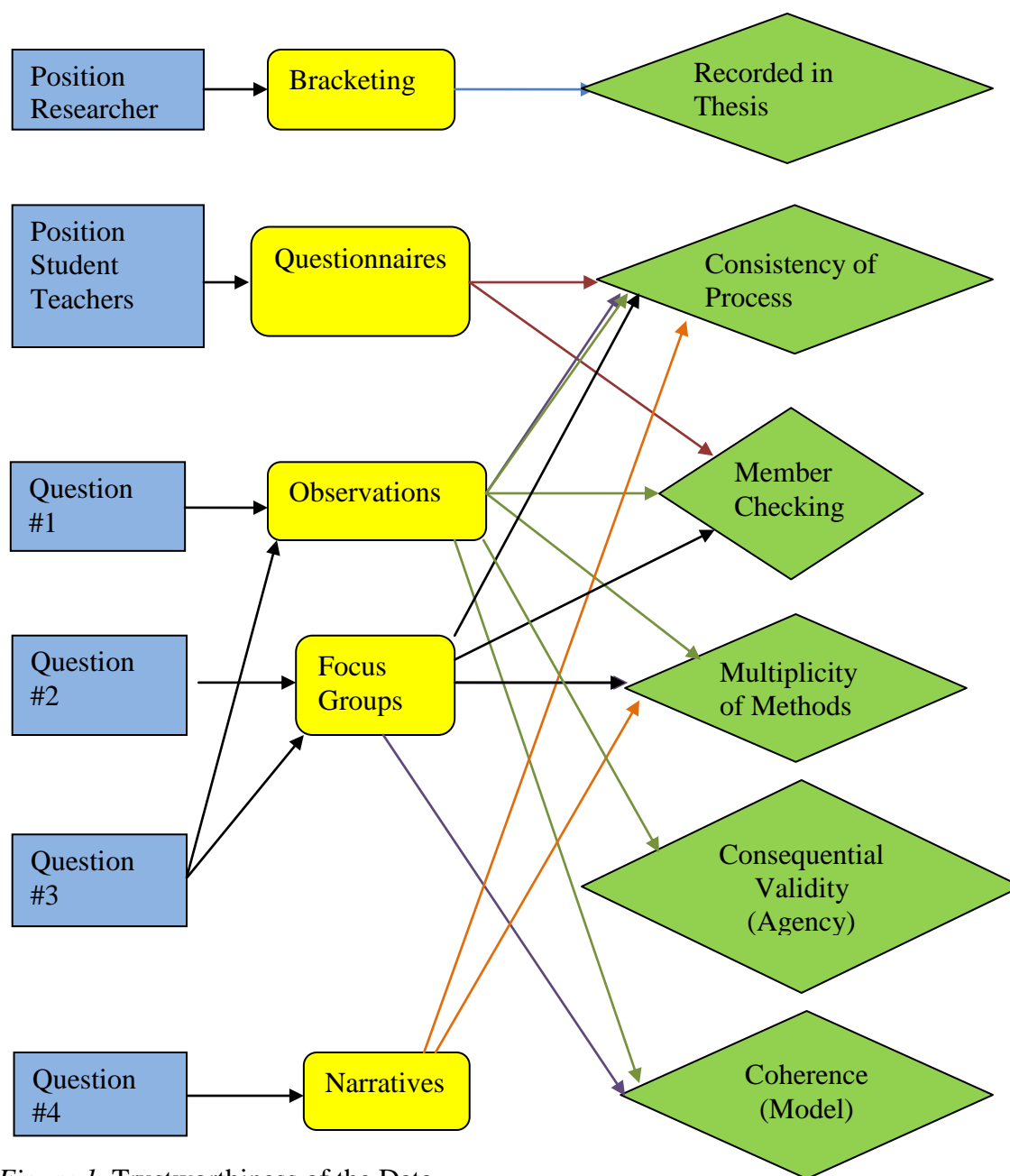
Figure 1. Trustworthiness of the Data

Chapter 4: Results

How do children and youth in the classroom make an impact on the development of student teachers' classroom management skills during the teaching practicum? Between September 2010 and December 2010, a series of classroom observations and focus groups were conducted and student teacher narratives were collected to address this question.

In order to determine how children and youth influence the development of classroom management skills in student teachers, I conducted 12 in-class observations, during which the candidate was teaching. Afterwards, I returned to each classroom and conducted a total of 23 focus groups with 107 children and youth to determine whether children and youth saw themselves as collaborators in the student teacher's development, and if so, how. The drawings of children and youth during the focus groups provided additional data. Finally, I collected 19 questionnaires and narratives from student teachers after the first placement and 10 after the second and final placement of their professional year six months later.

The data was organized into meaning units consistent with a descriptive phenomenological approach. These meaning units provide insight into the experiences of children, youth, and student teachers during the practicum as those experiences related to the development of classroom management. Along with the meaning units, I present a Student Agency Model Demonstrating Engagement or Lack of Engagement (see Figure 2, below) based on my classroom observations and two figures that describe factors that student teachers felt hindered or assisted their development of classroom management during the practicum (see Figures 13 and 14. In the description of the results below, I

describe the school, drawing upon information provided by the school board, principals, and the schools' websites (note that, to maintain confidentiality of student teachers and students, these sources are not specifically identified). I also provide demographic information about the school's catchment area.

Classroom Observations

Research Questions #1 and #3: Class Observation

How can children/youth be observed to influence the development of classroom management skills in student teachers? How do children and youth demonstrate agency in their efforts to communicate classroom management needs to student teachers?

Grade 1, Michelle: Eager for approval

"Great but the next time we want to speak, what do we do? Put up our hands, that's right." (Michelle, student teacher)

Michelle was placed at an elementary school with an enrollment of 546 students. The school has 29 teachers and offers both English and French immersion to students in Junior Kindergarten to Grade 6.According to Statistics Canada census data, the median family income in this area is $43,991 (Statistics Canada, 2006b). The classroom I visited was cheerfully decorated and full of activity.

In this Grade 1 class, the teaching candidate was delivering a mathematics lesson. The children were eager for her approval as they approached her with their work. She responded thoughtfully to encourage each child. She gently made suggestions, such as, "That's great, but you need to tell me how many you started with and how many you had in the end." Positive reinforcement was available to all children whether they had the correct answer or not. The children came to Michelle with questions and concerns, and

she offered specific feedback: "Great job, Sarah. I really like how you took the time to make it nice and neat." The student teacher was given a level of respect that would be similar to that of an associate teacher. The children never questioned her direction but instead accepted her authority in the classroom. At one point during the lesson, students were working independently on a worksheet when a boy began talking to the girl next to him. Michelle crouched down near him and asked, "Ben, what's wrong?"With that simple question, both students returned to their work.

Even though the associate teacher was in the classroom and working at her desk, the children approached only Michelle with their questions, as if the associate were not present.

Grade 1, Wendy: Eager for approval

"Show me what a Grade 1 class that is listening looks like."(Wendy, student teacher)

This class is in a First Nations community in Northern Ontario. According to the principal, there are 13 teachers and 155 students at this school. The class is decorated in a manner that you would expect of most Grade 1 classes but also has reminders of First Nations culture, such as Ojibwa art, the Seven Grandfathers teachings, and the days of the week in Ojibwa. Students in this Grade 1 class are instructed in English but also receive language lessons in Ojibwa. The desks are in rows and face the front of the class where the Smart Board is placed. There is a feeling of eagerness to this classroom as if the students want to get every opportunity to participate. According to Statistics Canada census data, the median family income in this area is $58,934 (Statistics Canada, 2006c).

In this Grade 1 class, I observed a mathematics lesson. Much like the children in the other Grade 1 class, the children in this classroom were eager for approval the student teacher. They responded to her classroom management efforts, including counting them down, looking for the row that was sitting quietly, and promising them a chance at the Smart Board if they behaved appropriately. There was very little disruptive behaviour in this class. Wendy provided constant positive reinforcement. The few times a student was off task, she called on the student by name and he or she responded immediately.

Grade 4/5, Nicole: Confusion; lack of clear directions

"What were you doing when I gave instructions?" (Nicole, student teacher)

This small school has an enrollment of 128 students and 23 teachers, according to information provided by the principal. It is located in a community that was settled in the early 1900s and is on the outskirts of the city of Sudbury. The school offers both English and French immersion to students from Kindergarten to Grade 8. The median family income in this area is $60,333 (Statistics Canada, 2006b). This is a large classroom with windows, and although the students are seated at individual desks, there is also room for group work at the back of the class.

I observed a lesson on painting a colour wheel in this Grade 4/5 split class. The student teacher began the lesson by explaining the instructions in a step-by-step fashion. Several students asked questions and Nicole responded. One boy was so excited that he got up out of his seat while she was still explaining the instructions. She responded, "You need to go back to your desk." Many of the students were so anxious to begin painting that they stopped listening to her directions before she finished.

When students began to work on their colour wheels, several of them had difficulty. One student expressed his confusion by putting his hand up, and saying, "It's different, my sheet from the board." While walking around the room Nicole noticed a student who was not following directions and she asked, "What are you doing?" The student responded, "Making orange."Nicole said, "That won't work." Still another boy mixed all of the colours together and needed to start over. He displayed his frustration by stamping his foot and saying, "oh f***." Another boy appeared so overwhelmed that he curled up on his chair and waited for attention from Nicole. While Nicole observed the frustration her students were exhibiting, she was unable to minimize the confusion and redirect the class.

Grade 5, Colin: Lack of cooperation and disruption of other students

"No, you don't need your pencil sharpened, just keep going on this." (Colin, student teacher)

Colin was placed at an elementary school with an enrollment of approximately 258 students. The school's website indicates that the school has 14 teachers and offers both English and French immersion to students in Junior Kindergarten to Grade 8. According to Statistics Canada census data, the median family income in this area is $79,160 (Statistics Canada, 2006b).The students were seated in groups of two with room for group work at the back of the class.

In this Grade 5 class, the children were just returning from recess. Even before the lesson began, one student announced, "We are going to play another game." Colin responded, "No, we are not."The boy continued to challenge Colin's authority by responding, "Yes, we are." Colin attempted to exert his authority by stating, "No, I

promise you we are not."Challenging student teacher authority was a dominant meaning unit in Grade 5 classes (see Table 3). Challenging differed from not cooperating as challenging was verbal in nature while not cooperating was usually exhibited by a lack of action or an action contrary to what was being requested.

Table 3

Observation Meaning Units

Grades	No. of Students	Want to Please	Group Control	Challenging	Agency / Not Cooperating	Agency / Disruption	Get to Know Us
Grade 1	2	2		1			1
Grade 4/5	1	1		1	1		
Grade 5	2	1		2	1	1	1
Grade 7	3	1		3	3	2	1
Grade 8	1		1	1	1	1	
Grade9	2	1		2	1	2	1
Grade 10	1			1	1		1
Total	12	6	1	11	8	6	5

Note: Meaning units were counted once per observation. Any number greater than one indicates that the meaning unit occurred in more than one observation within that grade level.

At the start of the lesson, when Colin announced it was time for math, several students collectively responded, "Nooooo." During the math lesson, one student fidgeted with objects in his desk and eventually got up to sharpen his pencil eight times; the eighth time, Colin said to him, "O.K., you don't need to advertise that." On his way back to his desk, the same boy stopped and talked to another boy and borrowed his sharpener. Another boy then began to take objects out of his desk, at which point Colin asked,

"What are we doing, friend?" The boy responded and Colin then said, "No, put that over here and let's do math, man." Later in the lesson, the same boy got up out of his desk and tried to sharpen his pencil. At this point, Colin attempted another classroom management technique by sending the boy to the associate to get a pencil. After getting a pencil, the boy began to distract a student behind him. Colin then told him, "No, you have to focus, stop distracting him." At this point, Colin bent down to speak to the boy quietly, and I could no longer hear the discussion.

As the lesson continued, Colin handed out cards. Two boys were reminded that they were not to write on these cards, to which one boy responded, "It was his idea." Colin had implemented a system of lost recess time for poor classroom behaviour. He told the two boys that they were both on his board for tomorrow since there was no recess remaining for that day. One of the boys attempted to complain, but Colin responded quietly to him, "I don't care."

Grade 5, Cathy: Students express agency verbally; When they don't get enough attention they become disruptive to other students

"Teacher, she just smacked me." (Grade 5 female)

This class is in a First Nations Community in Northern Ontario. According to the principal, there are 13 teachers and 155 students at this school. Desks are arranged in rows. The class is very active, with students regularly leaving their desks to approach the teaching candidate. Students in this Grade 5 class are instructed in English but also receive language lessons in Ojibwa. The median family income in this area is $58,934 (Statistics Canada, 2006c).

In this Grade 5 class, the student teacher circulated while students were working on math problems. Many of the students were off task and talking, wrestling, or getting up to go the washroom. The teaching candidate appeared very calm and not at all disturbed by the behaviour. At one point a boy yelled out, "I need help." The student teacher was busy assisting another student and ignored him. Later in the lesson another boy called out, "Yeah, I need help."As the student teacher was unable to meet the multiple demands of the students, off-task behaviour escalated from talking to yelling out inappropriate comments such as "Shit my pants," which resulted in laughter. The students increasingly lost focus, and by the end of the period very few members of the classroom were doing their work.

Grade 7, Martina: Lack of student engagement demonstrated

"What's going on in this chapter?" (Amy, student teacher)

This class is in a First Nations Community in Northern Ontario. According to the principal, there are 13 teachers and 155 students at this school. The class very quiet, and as a result my presence in the classroom is felt. The class has several books about Ojibwa culture and other First Nations. Students in this Grade 7 class are instructed in English but also receive language lessons in Ojibwa. The median family income in this area is $58,934 (Statistics Canada, 2006b).

I observed a language arts lesson in this Grade 7 class. The student teacher made great efforts to engage the students, with little success. She walked around the class and asked both open and closed questions about the reading. When no one responded, she directed the questions to specific students. The students listened quietly but appeared to have little interest in participating. Instead, several students played with objects such as

elastics or calculators during the lesson, while others rested their heads on their arms. While the students were not overly disruptive, their body language and lack of participation appeared to indicate that they were not engaged in the lesson. After the lesson, the student teacher expressed frustration that despite her repeated efforts she could not get the students to participate.

Grade 7, Emily: Continually challenging

"What if I don't have a pet and I don't know and I don't have the internet?"(Grade 7 boy)

Emily was placed at an elementary school with an enrollment of approximately 280 students. According to the school board's website, the school has 13 teachers and offers both English and French immersion to students in Junior Kindergarten to Grade 6. This school is in predominantly French area of Greater Sudbury. This is a standard classroom with blackboards, desks in rows, and the teacher's desk at the back of the class. The median family income for families in this area is $74,186 (Statistics Canada, 2006b).

For this Grade 7 mathematics class, the teaching candidate had designed a lesson based on the students' pets. Instead of resulting in the expected engagement, the lesson resulted in students constantly challenging the student teacher with questions and concerns. It was almost as if she had to provide directions to each child individually.

The student teacher constantly monitored and corrected off-task behaviour. She used a variety of strategies, such as saying, "That is not appropriate," "please stop," "quiet," or "sit down," and she called on students by name. There was so much classroom management going on that very little teaching occurred. One student continually asked

questions about the lesson and his inability to grasp the concept. Near the end of the lesson, he expressed his fear by saying, "I am going to fail."

Grade 7, Camille: Lack of authority, testing

"Eyes up front." (Camille, student teacher, says for the second time)

Camille was placed at a school with an enrollment of 327 that offers both English and French immersion to students in Grades 7–12. There are 30 full time teachers at this school. Student work is displayed outside the classroom, and in the classroom, students sit in groups. According to Statistics Canada census data, the median family income in this area is $48,361 (Statistics Canada, 2006b). The school is located in one of the older parts of the city and has a prestigious reputation. For this reason, many parents choose to send their children to the school even though they do not live in close proximity.

At the beginning of this Grade 7 lesson, the students appeared to be attempting to get the student teacher off task by engaging her in a conversation about shopping. During the lesson, the students were well-behaved but consistently ignored the first request of the student teacher on each occasion. Only after she repeated the request would the students listen. Each time she gave the direction to stop talking, to close their laptops or to look up front, she had to repeat the request a second time before the students complied.

As the lesson progressed, students were working individually at their desks. The conversation began to get a bit playful and turned to talk of burning bras and menstrual cycles. At this point, the girl who made the comment looked at the student teacher to gauge her reaction. The student teacher expressed disapproval with her look and then stated the comment was not appreciated.

Grade 8, Craig: Challenging, testing; and group support, get to know us

"It's impossible." (Craig, student teacher)

"I'll make it possible." (Grade 8 girl)

This class is in a First Nations Community in Northern Ontario. The principal of the school reports that there are 13 teachers and 155 students at the school. According to Statistics Canada census data, the median family income in this area is $58,934 (Statistics Canada, 2006c). This class takes place in a large classroom where students are seated in groups. The class is very typical in many ways, but throughout the classroom are reminders of First Nations culture, such First Nations literature and teachings of the Seven Grandfathers. Students sit together in groups and there is a large table at the back for large group work. Students in this Grade 8 class are instructed in English but also receive language lessons in Ojibwa.

At the beginning of this Grade 8 science lesson, one student stated, "Science, science is gay." Craig chose to ignore the comment and did not react. The lesson continued and the discussion was about different types of machines. One student mentioned nut crackers, and stated that the purpose is to "crack nuts," at which point laughter erupted. Craig continued with the lesson, accepting their teenage behaviour but also attempting to manage the classroom by getting the students to focus on the lesson. Later in the lesson, Craig observed a female student off task and stated, "No, Renee don't." She responded by saying, "Why are you on me?" Craig accepted the challenge and stated, "I'm on you because I don't want you to do that."As the lesson continued another female student appeared to attempt to get her classmates back on task by siding

with Craig, and stating, "You guys aren't doing any work, you're talking about pregnancy and babies."

Craig permitted the students to joke around and be teenagers as long as they were doing work at the same time. He continued to walk around supervising their work and reminded the students that their work "needed to be done by Friday." One boy responded, "I'm not going to be here. Yeah, I'm going to a Justin Bieber concert." The class once again erupted in laughter. Craig chose to ignore the comment and instead checked on a table and asked, "How is it going here?"

Grade 9, Gord: Expressing agency verbally

"Sir, I can't even see . . . you need to bold it." (Grade 9 youth)

Gord was placed at a large high school with an enrollment of 844 students and 63 teachers (according to the school board's website). This school is located in a newer part of the city. According to Statistics Canada census data for 2006, the median family income for families in this area is $81,876 (Statistics Canada, 2006b). In this classroom, students sit in horizontal rows facing the blackboard and teacher's desk. The school offers both English and French immersion to students in Grades 9–12.

Before the lesson began, the associate teacher informed me that this class had an average of a three-year delay in language and communication. As the lesson began, Gord was showing a PowerPoint slide when a student called out, "Sir, I can't even see . . . you need to bold it." Gord did not comment, but bolded the text as the student requested. The lesson went on and students continued to express their needs verbally, saying, "I can't read from here," and "I don't understand the question." Still another student advocated for a fellow classmate by stating, "Josh needs your help."

When one young man wanted Gord's attention, he called out, "Hey, buddy." The associate teacher responded, "'Hey buddy,' is not the way to address him." The same young man responded, "I don't care." Later in the lesson, Gord asked another question to which a student responded, "Just wait."

The lesson continued and one young man asked to go to the washroom and expressed how badly he had to go. Gord told him to wait. A few minutes later a girl asked to go to the washroom and Gord allowed the girl to go. The young man who had asked earlier expressed his dissatisfaction by stating, "Oh, that's great, I ask first but get to go last . . . are you serious? I asked before."Gord responded, "I have a bad memory"; the young man replied, "Maybe you should get that checked." Gord did not comment, and it appeared that this type of verbal interaction was par for the course.

As the lesson continued, students were becoming more disruptive. Gord asked one young man to move closer to him stating, "Have a seat over here." The young man said, "I'm fine here." Gord responded, "I know, but you are disturbing Kegan." As the young man, moved he responded, "I'm going just going to talk a bit louder, that's all."Gord chose to ignore the comment and proceeded with the lesson.

The students were also very direct about what they liked and disliked about Gord's teaching. As the lesson progressed, Gord asked a young man to read aloud, to which the young man responded, "F*** that." Gord continued to read aloud and the students became quiet, listened attentively and enjoyed his reading. When he paused to ask a question, a young man made clear his desire for Gord to continue reading by stating, "O.K., we're not stopping here."

Gord continued to read aloud, and the plot developed to that of a 17-year-old boy falling in love with a 30-year-old woman. The students expressed their opinions easily, stating, "That's just disgusting" and "I think she's a cougar." Gord allowed the students to express their opinions without reacting to them.

When the term *coureur de bois* was mentioned, a young man is the class had no qualms about asking, "What does that mean?"Later in the lesson, the term *staples* was mentioned, referring to basic necessities. Gord explained the term, but another youth in the class responded, "I don't get it." As Gord continued to explain, the young man stated, "What do you mean by that? I don't get that," followed by "Like, what do you mean?"

Grade 9, Francis: Testing

"Why do I need to learn this?"(Grade 10 youth)

Francis was placed at a high school with an enrollment of approximately 355 students (according to the school board's website). The median family income in this area is $74,186 (Statistics Canada, 2006b). The school has 24 teachers and offers both English and French immersion to students in Grades 7–12.This school is in a predominately French area of Greater Sudbury. This is a standard classroom where students sit in their own desks and face towards the front of the class. There is not a lot of decoration in this classroom, almost as if it were a spare classroom and not used very often.

I observed a Grade 9 Health and Physical Education lesson about drugs. At the beginning of the lesson, one of the boys asked, "Why do I need to learn this?" Francis responded, "You need to learn this because everything you learn in health is relevant to your life." The lesson continued, and students were attentive as Francis drew on examples from her own life: "If I'm found with any drugs in my system, I would lose any

awards that I've earned." She kept the students on task, at one point stating: "Boys in the back, let's not have a repeat of yesterday."Soon after, one student said loudly to another, "You shut up"; Francis responded, "Hey, Amy and Breydon, you do something, you will get in trouble with me." Later in the lesson, a student challenged her by stating, "This whole thing that you just said doesn't make sense."Francis responded, "What do you mean?"She moved closer to him and explained that athletes can't take depressants like marijuana. The same young man responded, "I know athletes that use marijuana." Francis then explained how drug testing works. The class became quiet while she drew on experiences from her life and experiences of famous athletes. She wrapped up the lesson by stating, "That's what happens when you are an elite athlete."

After the lesson, the conversation turned to a former student teacher the class had had in the past. The students were recalling how they made teaching difficult for the student teacher. One student asked Francis, "Hey miss, what did that chick tell you?" She responded, "What chick, Miss Laframboise?"The student then said, "She committed suicide didn't she?" Francis responded "Hey, that's not nice."

Grade 10, Erica: Testing

"Boys, I need your help to put the nets away." (Erica, student teacher; no one helps until she calls on the students by name)

Erica was placed at a large high school with an enrollment of approximately 938 student and 41 teachers (according to the school's website. This lesson took place in a large gymnasium. The median family income in this area is $43,991 (Statistics Canada, 2006b). This school offers both English and French immersion classes to students in Grades 9–12.

At the beginning of this Grade 10physical education lesson, the student teacher announced that the class would begin with a nutrition game. Immediately, one of the young men in the class expressed his dislike of the nutrition game by saying, "No, I thought we were doing phys. ed."After the nutrition game, Erica asked three young men to move a bench in order to prepare for a game of floor hockey. Only two of the young men helped while the third ran away to join other students. During the floor hockey game, she told a boy to take a specific position and he responded, "No," but then he did it.Erica did not comment or even look at him; perhaps he said, "No," to demonstrate that he had the power to choose to comply or not. As the class continued, Erica provided directions for the floor hockey game and told the students, "No lobbing the ball allowed." One young man responded, "Yes it is." She then stated more firmly, "No, it isn't." It was clear that the students enjoyed the class; they laughed, joked, and danced to the music playing in the background. At the end of the class, one of the young men approached Erica and said, "Oh, Miss, I didn't get to show you my trick." Although I was unable to determine what the trick was, it appeared as if he wanted Erica's approval or attention.

Observation Summary

The children and youth I observed demonstrated their efforts to influence their student teachers by expressing their needs verbally, physically, and behaviourally. When this failed to result in the desired effect, they expressed their frustration by disrupting other students. Figure 2 represents this pattern. This model is based on observations in the 12 classrooms of teaching candidates. It demonstrates the ways in which children and youth in the class indicate their engagement or lack of engagement with the student teacher. The circle on the outside represents a student agency model to demonstrate

increased engagement with the efforts of the student teacher. (By agency, I mean the ability of individuals to act on their own behalf, consistent with Tilleczek's [2011] definition.) The circle on the inside represents a student agency model to demonstrate increased disengagement with the efforts of the student teacher. Although the steps are numbered in a sequential order, they do not always occur in the order depicted. At times, a step may be skipped or behaviour may return to a previous stage in the model.

Figure 2. Student agency model demonstrating engagement
(outer circle) or lack of engagement (inner circle).

Figure 2 is based on 12 classroom observations. The model begins at testing behaviour, which was observed in Grades 5–10. Testing behaviour occurred when

students said no to the student teacher's introduction to the lesson, as observed in Colin's class when he told the students they would be doing mathematics and in Emily's class when she introduced the nutrition game. Testing behaviour was also observed in Craig's class when he introduced science and a student responded, "Science is gay," and in Camille's class when students tried to get her off topic by discussing shopping.

After testing, there was often a period of asking questions, as in Francis' class, when a student said, "What do you mean?" or in Cathy's class when a student asked for help. From this point the students expressed their agency by indicating they had been engaged, as in Gord's class where a student said, "O.K., we're not stopping here," or not engaged as observed in Nicole's class, when the student expressed fear by saying, "It's different, my sheet from the board."

If the lesson went well, as indicated by the outer circle of the model in Figure 2, it was often accompanied by laughing and joking, as in Erica's and Craig's classes. As this progressed, students sometimes tried to encourage one another by suggesting that others focus on assigned work as observed in Craig's class, or they indicated their interest by asking questions about terms they didn't understand as they did in Gord's class.

If the lesson was not going well, as indicated by the model's inner circle, there were expressions of frustration, such as in Nicole's class when a student stamped his foot and said, "oh F***," or in Martina's class when students rested their heads on their arms. When this progressed, students began to look in their desks for objects to play with, as observed in Martina's and Colin's classes. If students continued to be disengaged, they sometimes began to disrupt other students as observed in Colin's class, where one boy continually sharpened his pencil, and in Emily's class, where she spent the lesson trying

to correct off-task behaviour. If the lesson further disintegrated, students began to express their frustration by calling out inappropriate comments like "Shit my pants," in Cathy's class, or "I am going to fail," in Emily's class; or they physically disengaged by curling up in a ball as observed in Nicole's class.

There appears to be a delicate balance between a lesson that goes well and one that does not. The lesson can turn from bad to good as in the case in Gord's class or from good to bad as with Nicole's lesson. The teaching candidate sometimes has the ability to get the lesson back on track as Francis did by demonstrating her knowledge or as Craig did by bantering playfully with the students while at the same time keeping them on task. However, even the best efforts of the student teacher cannot always get the lesson back on track as evidenced by Emily's and Colin's efforts to manage student behaviour when the lesson was not going well.

Younger students were, in general, more likely to be engaged in a positive way. The two Grade 1 classes I observed were eager for approval the student teacher and keen for her approval. They responded to the student teacher's efforts to manage the class and did not appear to distinguish between the student teacher and the associate teacher.

Students in the middle and higher grades beginning with the 4/5 split class were more likely to express challenging behaviour, especially when frustrated. Some of these classes demonstrated challenging behaviour that was nonetheless more playful than in some of the other grades. In classes where the student teacher had established a rapport with the students, then, the older youths' challenging behaviour did not impede learning. At times students attempted to wrestle control of the classroom from the student teacher and at other times they displayed strong indications of verbal agency by making their

learning needs clear. In each class observed, students' behaviour impacted on the student teacher's ability to manage the classroom.

The focus groups that followed the classroom observations provided the opportunity to gather the perspectives of children and youth on their roles in the classroom. During focus groups, children and youth in Grades 1–8 doodled.

Focus Groups

Research Questions #2 and #3

What role do children and youth believe they play in the development of classroom management skills for student teachers? How do children and youth demonstrate agency in their efforts to communicate classroom management needs to student teachers?

Grade 1, Michelle: Being helpful

Figure 3. Smiling student teacher(Grade 1)

In this Grade 1 class, the students reported that they helped the student teacher by behaving well in the classroom and cooperating. Focus group participants spoke about teaching the candidate routines, such as when they would go to the carpet or when it was time to read. Two students spoke about helping the student teacher by explaining what other students meant: "We understand better what she [a fellow student] is saying," and, "We would say, I think I know what that means." The Grade 1 students spoke about

cooperating with the student teacher by teaching him or her about themselves, telling the student teacher their names, and teaching him or her about other students (see Table 4). Other focus groups spoke about helping the student teacher when she made a mistake or missed a step in a mathematics lesson on patterning.

When I asked about making it difficult for the student teacher, they told stories about other students misbehaving, but never about themselves. One group told a story of a boy who had little interest in learning and wanted to play all day. They expressed their frustration by saying, "He doesn't want to learn," and, "All he wants to do is play." Another group talked about a boy who hid on the student teacher and in doing so they expressed their disapproval at such behaviour. They appeared reluctant to describe any instances where they themselves did not cooperate with the student teacher.

Table 4

Focus Group Meaning Units

Grades	Co-operate (If we like you)	Misbehave (If we don't like you)	Get to Know Us	Testing	Group Control
Grade 1	1	1	2		1
Grade 4/5	1	2	2		1
Grade 5		3	1		
Grade 7	1	2	6	1	3
Grade 8	1	1	1	1	
Grade9					
Grade 10	1	1	1	1	
Total	5	10	13	3	5

Note: Meaning units were counted once per focus group. A number greater than one indicates that the meaning unit occurred in more than one focus group within that grade

level. No student consent forms were returned in the Grade 9 class; as a result no focus groups could be conducted.

Grade 1, Wendy: Being helpful

Figure 4. Student teacher with associate teacher (Grade 1)

Students in this Grade 1 class were anxious to get into the gymnasium for their physical education class. I found it difficult to get these children to talk to me until one child in the group began to comment. I could tell by her comments that she understood what I was asking, and this encouraged other students to join in. She told me she liked to meet student teachers, and others described student teachers as fun, with new stories. When I asked how they helped the student teacher to become a better teacher, they said that they listened and were nice. They talked about showing the student teacher hand signals that they respond to and helping her to learn their names.

When I asked them if they ever made it difficult for the student teacher, they said no. Unlike the previous focus group, they did not share any stories about other students who misbehaved for student teachers.

Several students left to join the physical education class; the remaining students were more interested in drawing than talking. Several of them wanted to continue to draw even after I had exhausted all of my questions, so I used the time to ask them about their drawings.

Grade 4/5, Nicole: Get to know us; If we like you, we will cooperate

Figure 5. Student drawing: A figure with a big head,
possibly representing a big brain (Grade 4/5)

Students in this focus group told me that they helped the student teacher by "behaving and being nice." They explained that they taught her what they liked to do and mentioned games like Mumble ball and Buzz. They liked it when she asked for their opinions about the Christmas play. They described how Nicole asked questions, such as "what colour elves would wear" and "What should the North Pole look like?"

When I asked them if they ever made it difficult for the teaching candidate, they told a story about a student teacher they didn't like and how they tried to make him angry. They reported that they refused to listen to the student teacher, recognizing that he was not their "real" teacher and didn't have authority over their marks.

Grade 5, Colin: Get to know us / what we like / our cognitive levels; Lack of authority

Figure 6. Student drawing: Symbol, possibly an S for Superman (Grade 5)

The students in this Grade 5 class told me that they taught the student teacher "how to handle kids." They told me they liked it when Colin designed lessons that incorporated their names or interests into the lesson. They spoke about how he would sometimes ask questions that were too easy. When this happened they would finish early, and eventually they had to tell him, "We need harder questions."

When I asked these students if they had ever done anything to hinder a student teacher, they told a story about how other students (not themselves) didn't like a previous teaching candidate and would make noise or distract their classmates. They didn't appear to see that they were acting in a similar manner with this student teacher. When I asked why they thought other students would behave like that, they responded, "Maybe because they think the regular teacher is more powerful."

Grade 5, Cathy: Being helpful and testing

Figure 7. Student teacher with words(Grade 5)
(helpful, nice, sweet, fun, smart, pretty, kind, nice smile, dress nice, simles [smile] nice, can talk nice, not stearked [strict], wonderful)

In this Grade 5 class, only one student had a signed consent form and could participate in the focus group. He explained that he helped the student teacher by familiarizing her with the classroom and school. When I asked him if he had ever done anything to hinder the student teacher, he spoke about playing jokes on student teachers. I asked him to tell me more about the jokes but he was reluctant to provide details.

Grade 7, Martina: Get to know us
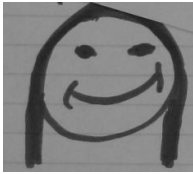
Figure 8. Smiling face (Grade 7)

As the students in this focus group sat down, one of them addressed me in Ojibwa. When I asked her if that meant hello, she explained that she had addressed me in the formal tense because she did not know me. She explained that the word *boozhoo* is used when you don't know someone, and aanii is when you already know the person.

When I asked these students how they helped their student teacher become a better teacher, they told me they helped her learn about them. They explained that they were teaching her Ojibwa, and she was getting better at it. They described games they like to play in physical education class that she did not know, and they took it upon themselves to teach her the games.

Grade 7, Emily: If we like you, we will help you; Group agency

Figure 9. Star(Grade 7)

In this Grade 7 class, the students told me that they help the candidate by telling other students to "be quiet." They explained that they knew they had helped Emily become a better teacher because now she knows that "we like to get up," referring to their need for kinesthetic activities. They explained that they also helped her learn about their interests, and she incorporated this knowledge into her lessons. One of the boys explained

how she incorporated his love of all things military into her lessons and how that made it more fun for him.

When I asked if they ever made it difficult for the student teacher, they said no, but told a story about a candidate they didn't like. One student described feeling "ignored" and "left out" by this student teacher. I asked him what he did when he felt this way. He explained that he stopped listening and doodled. The students went on to describe how they expressed their dislike by misbehaving until the student teacher resorted to crying and yelling at the class. I asked what happened when she yelled, one boy responded, "We stopped listening."

Grade 7, Camille: Lack of authority; hinder

Figure 10. Student drawing (Grade 7)

During the first focus group with this class, one young lady dominated the discussion and the drawing. Other students in the focus group focused on her drawings and simply added on to them. They appeared disinterested in my questions and echoed the opinions of the dominant girl in the focus group. She made it very clear to me that student teachers were more like friends than regular teachers. She stated, "I am a friend with all of my student teachers." Another youth compared the candidate to an older sibling. As the conversation progressed, one of the youth acknowledged that she didn't feel that she had to listen to the student teacher because the student teacher "doesn't really have much authority." Another said, "They don't make you," referring to the

candidates' classroom management style. One student described putting the candidate on the spot with questions if they didn't like him or her.

Grade 7, Camille: Let us have some input
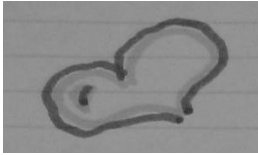
Figure 11. Heart(Grade 7)

During the next focus group with this class, I removed the flipchart paper because of the dominance of one student during the previous focus group. Students in this focus group described helping the student teacher become a better teacher by contributing their ideas about what kind of activities they would like. They spoke about negotiating with the student teacher to be allowed to draw instead of write, or use the Smart Board instead of making a PowerPoint.

Grade 8, Craig: Get to know us

Figure 12. Non-smiling student teacher (Grade 8)

When I asked these students how they helped the student teacher become a better teacher, they spoke about teaching him how to use the Smart Board and how to set up the gymnasium for physical education. They told me that their role was to "Tell them [student teachers], what it is like to be our age—what we like to talk about—joke about, they have to be dirty minded" (see Table 4). I then asked, "How do you know that helped?" They spoke about Craig's ability to joke with them and relate to their lives.

When I asked them about hindering the candidate, they told me about a student teacher they didn't like because she preferred girls; they said, "She would always pick girls to read and not boys."They reported that she would "allow the boys to read one word and then would say, o.k. that's good." I asked them how they responded to that. They told me that the boys would say, "Wow," referring to how unbelievable her behaviour was.

Grade 9, Gord: Being ourselves

I did not provide drawing paper for the Grade 9 or 10 focus groups. In the Grade 9 focus group, the youth saw the role of the student teacher as an "extra teacher" in the classroom who could "give us ideas about what to write or rephrase things for us."They explained that they helped the student teacher become a better teacher by "showing him how we learn and how some of us learn better by looking at things." They reported that they helped the candidate become a better teacher by "speaking out," or saying, "Come help me." One student mentioned that he would express his frustration by "putting my head down when I don't know what I am doing," or telling the student teacher, "I am frustrated."

When I asked them if they had ever hindered a student teacher, one youth reflected on a student teacher who didn't believe that he had a learning disability and treated him as if he was lazy. As a result, he stopped cooperating with her.

Grade 10, Erica: Testing; Gaining their respect

The students in this Grade 10 class were very clear about their role in helping the student teacher to become a better teacher. They explained that they felt their role was to show the student teacher the "real world." In other words, they would not be on their best

behavior for Erica or their worst; instead, they would act as they always did, and she would need to learn how to manage the classroom based on their behaviour. They described helping Erica express her authority by testing her or not listening. One boy stated that teaching candidates learn how to become better teachers by having students challenge them: "At the beginning, they are shy and at the end, they are more confident."They explained how the student teacher needs to earn their cooperation; if she or he doesn't, there are consequences.

When I asked if they had ever made it difficult for a student teacher, they told a story about a candidate who "freaked out" at them. As a result, they started to dislike her and eventually stopped listening to her. They explained that each student teacher had to pass a "test" in order to gain their cooperation. They needed to demonstrate authority but also not take themselves too seriously; as one youth put it, "We help her to develop her sense of humour."

Student Drawings During Focus Groups

Participants in Grades 1–8 were given paper and markers so that they could draw during the focus groups. This had a dual purpose in that it appeared to relax the participants and also provided more data about their feelings towards student teachers. As I collected the drawings, I asked questions about those I didn't understand.

Malchiodi (1998) explains that "drawings can serve as a catalyst for increased interaction and interchange, thus expanding the effectiveness and depth of the relationship" (p. xv). Drawing is one of the most important ways that children express their personality and emotions (Malchiodi, 1998). Attempting to understand the meanings behind children's drawings is a complex process that requires consideration of culture,

class, gender expectations, parenting, and the genetic determinants that affect children (Malchiodi, 1998). Art therapy experts such as Rubin (2005) and Betensky (1973) caution the inexperienced against attempting to interpret children's drawings. For this reason, I will not attempt to interpret these drawings other than to say they appear to represent positive feelings about student teachers. Some of the drawings (see Figures 4 and 5) appear to represent something to the drawer, so the drawings may be students' attempt to share something of themselves with the researcher. Several common themes emerged in the drawings, including smiling student teachers, non-smiling student teachers, the student teacher with the associate teacher, hearts, sunshine images, flowers, animals, and stars (see Table 5 and Figure 13 below).
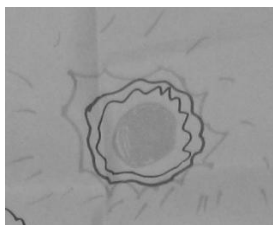
Sunshine (Grade 7)

Flower (Grade 1)

Dog (Grade 1)

Figure 13.Common themes in student drawings

Table 5

Common Themes in Drawings of Children and Youth

Grade	Smiling Student Teachers	Non-Smiling Student Teachers	Student Teacher with Associate Teacher	Hearts	Sun-shine	Flowers	Animals	Smiling Faces	Stars
1	28	1	7	5	7	6	8		7
4/5	18			3	4	1		5	18
5	1								
7	23	3ª	1	2	3			14	3
Total	70	4	8	10	14	7	8	19	28

ª Two of the non-smiling teachers from this grade were labelled "student teacher from last year."

Summary of Focus Group Results

Five meaning units emerged from the focus groups: cooperate if we like you, misbehave if we don't like you, get to know us, testing, and group control. While all meaning units occurred in each grade, testing behaviour was more common in grades beyond Grade 6.

Children in Grade 1spoke about cooperation. They believed they helped teaching candidates become better teachers by being helpful and by helping the candidate to learn their names and learn about other students. They indicated that at times they helped the student teacher by explaining what another child meant. One of the Grade 1 classes reported that they had never made it difficult for a student teacher, while the others told stories of other children misbehaving, but not themselves.

In one of the Grade 5 focus groups, youth reported they helped the student teacher become a better teacher by teaching her "how to handle kids." In another, the youth spoke of teaching the candidate about themselves and the games they liked to play. One of the focus groups recalled the student teacher designing lessons that were too easy. They saw it as their role to teach him that they could handle more difficult work. Both of these focus groups said they liked it when their student teacher made efforts to ask their opinions or include them in their lesson design.

When the question of hindering the student teacher came up, both Grade 5 classes spoke of a difference between the authority of a "real teacher" and that of the teaching candidate. One group told a story of refusing to listen to a student teacher while another spoke about making noise to distract the other students when they didn't like the student teacher. One of the Grade 7 focus groups told a story about a candidate they didn't like and how they eventually stopped listening to her and doodled on their papers. Another Grade 7 group spoke about making the student teacher uncomfortable with questions, a tactic they also tried to use on me. When I asked a Grade 10 focus group if they had ever hindered a student teacher, they told a story about a student teacher who lost her composure and how they stopped listening to her after that.

During observations, children and youth exhibited agency in the classroom, and in focus group discussions, they elaborated on how, why, and when they express their agentic status. The Grade 1 students taught the student teacher about classroom rules and helped to interpret other children's comments. In the Grade 5 classes, the students spoke about teaching the student teacher how to handle kids and what level they needed to be taught at. One of the strongest representations of agency occurred in the focus group with

Grade 7 students in a First Nations community in Northern Ontario. Even before I said a word, one of the youth addressed me in Ojibwa and then proceeded to explain what the word meant and how it was the formal version of hello, indicating that I was an outsider. In this group, the students were very proud of teaching the student teacher about themselves and their language. The Grade 7 focus groups recognized their power and spoke about teaching the student teacher how they like to learn (e.g., "We like to get up") and helping her learn about them and the games they like to play. One of the focus groups discussed having a friend-like relationship with the student teacher and compared the student teacher to an older sibling.

The Grade 8 students spoke about the importance of the student teacher being able to enter their world and think like them. Along with thinking like them, they discussed the importance of having a sense of humour when teaching. The youth in the Grade 9 focus group believed they helped the student teacher to become a better teacher by educating him about themselves and how they learn.

The Grade 10 youth reported they helped the teaching candidate become better by challenging her and not being on their best behaviour. The youth in Grade 10 described how the student teacher had to pass their "test" by demonstrating a sense of humour but also displaying authority.

Children and youth in Grades 1−8 drew images such as smiling student teachers that represented their largely positive feelings towards student teachers. Though these drawings were originally intended to relax focus group participants, in the end they provided more data.

The children and youth I had observed demonstrated their agentic status in the classroom, and in focus groups they elaborated on the why and how of their actions. They told me they had the power to cooperate, misbehave, test, and get others in the classroom to work along with them. Through observations, focus groups, and drawings, children and youth revealed their efforts to affect what was going on in the classroom, but were student teachers observant enough to pick up on their efforts?

Questions and Narratives

Research Question #4

Do student teachers believe the children and youth in their classrooms impact the development of classroom management skills during the practicum? If so, how are student teachers able to shift their focus away from their own teaching long enough to realize what the children and youth in their classrooms are telling them?

In order to address this question, I collected questionnaire and narrative results from the student teachers after each of their two practica. After the first practicum (November 8 to December 16, 2010),19 student teachers returned the questionnaire and narrative. After the second practicum (March 7 to April 21, 2011), 10 student teachers returned the questionnaire and narrative. The lower response rate after the second placement can likely be attributed to the fact that, at the conclusion of the second placement, students had completed all of the requirements of their degree and did not return to the university. Perhaps they no longer viewed themselves as students but as teachers in search of a job.

Questionnaire responses: Professional year 1. Fourteen of the 19 student teachers who responded after their first practica were 22 years old, and of those,16 were

female. Of the 19 respondents, 14 had taken an undergraduate degree in arts, two in physical education, and three in sports psychology. Seventeen of the respondents were in the junior-intermediate division and three were in the primary-junior division. Four had chosen a teachable subject in religion, five in physical education, three in English, two in history, two in French, and one in music.

Eighteen of the 19 respondents were from Ontario. One student was from Glensfalls, New York. Five respondents were from Sudbury, two from Timmins, two from Ottawa, and two from Toronto. Milton, Sault Ste. Marie, Blind River, Penetanguishene, Ajax, Goderich, and Guelph each had one respondent. The majority of students (13) indicated that they were from middle-class backgrounds. Two student teachers indicated they were from lower-middle-class backgrounds, one student described him- or herself as being from a working-class background, and another self-identified as a student. Two did not respond to the question.

Nine of the respondents indicated that their Kindergarten to Grade 12 experiences were positive and used descriptors such as "wonderful,""positive," and "rewarding." One person reported being punished in school for being social. Eight of the respondents misunderstood the question and commented on their placement. One respondent did not answer the question.

The most common cultural identities reported were Canadian and European. One respondent reported a combination of ethnicities while others described themselves as Irish/Scottish or English/French. One person reported Southeast Asian descent, one Chinese Canadian, one Slovenian and one Portuguese. One respondent did not answer the

question. Eleven of the respondents indicated that they did have teachers in their family, and eight did not have teachers in their family. Table 6 summarizes this information.

"Why do you want to teach?" When asked why they wanted to be teachers, five respondents indicated positive perceptions of children and youth, providing descriptors such as "amazing,""lively," and "fearless," and one described children and youth as the future. Three described the impact of technology in the classroom, one in a negative manner. Four indicated that all children and youth can learn, with one commenting on the importance of a caring teacher. Three respondents wrote about children being influenced by their environment and what is expected of them, with one writing, "not every child comes from a perfect home." One respondent commented on each child's individuality and how important it is that children are not labelled, while another acknowledged that all bring knowledge to the classroom. One respondent wrote about how difficult being a child or youth is in today's world while another described children and youth as lacking knowledge about physical education. One student teacher did not respond to the question.

Table 6

Demographic Information on Student Teacher Participants, Professional Year 1

Name	Age	Sex	Under-graduate Degree	Division	Socio-economic Back-ground	K–12 Personal Experience	Cultural Identity	Teacher in Family
Emily	22	F	Arts	J/I	Middle class	Wonderful	Caucasian	Aunt
Sarah	22	F	Arts	J/I	Middle class	Positive, enjoyable, good grades, highly involved	Canadian	Aunt (music teacher)
Michelle	22	F	Arts	P/J	Middle class, single parent	Positive	Italian, Irish, Scottish, Finnish	Gfather

Martina	23	F	Physical and health education	J/I	Middle class	Punished for socializing	Slovenian	
Tanis	36	F	Arts	J/I				Yes
Colin	22	M	Arts	J/I	Student		Canadian	Mother
Camille	23	F	Arts	J/I	Lower middle class		Caucasian	Mother
Cathy	38	F	Arts	J/I	Middle class	Wonderful	White	
Craig	22	M	Arts	J/I	Middle class	Rewarding	Canadian, Italian	
Steph	22	F	Sports psychology	J/I	Middle class	Great opportunities	Irish, Scottish	Mother
Kassie	22	F	Arts	J/I		Memorable but moved a lot	Caucasian	
Natasha	22	F	Sports psychology	J/I	Middle class		Southeast Asian	
Heather	22	F	Arts	J/I	Middle class		Canadian	One aunt, one uncle
Francis	22	F	Physical and health education	J/I	Middle class	Enjoyable	Caucasian	Mother
Linda	22	F	Arts	J/I	Lower middle class	Enjoyed	Chinese, Canadian	
Nicole	22	F	Arts	J/I	Middle class		Canadian	
Gord	23	M	Arts	J/I	Middle class	Very enriching	English/ French	Father and mother
Erica	22	F	Physical and health education	J/I	Middle class		Canadian, Caucasian	Cousins, cousin-in-law, great-aunt
Wendy	22	F	Arts	P/J	Working class		Portuguese	

Note: Teachable subject and hometown have been omitted from this table in order to protect the identity of participants. All names are pseudonyms

What are your main perceptions about children and youth? There was little consensus in responses to this question. Five participants wrote about their worries or concerns for children and youth; one indicated that children and youth deal with a lot of difficulties, and one wrote about difficulties in the home, while another described them as having limited knowledge about health; still another responded that they have too much freedom. One participant indicated that society was failing them because technology is wasting their brain power. Four participants wrote about the desire children and youth have to learn, with two mentioning the importance of a good teacher, one indicating all children can learn, and another stating they are learning earlier. Three described children and youth using positive language such as "lively," "creative," and "hilarious." Still another respondent called children and youth technologically advanced, while another stated that they deserve respect. Two respondents indicated that children and youth are products of what is expected of them. Two respondents summed up the lack of consensus by indicating that children and youth should not be labelled, while another indicated that children and youth have their own perceptions of the world. One respondent did not complete the question.

Questionnaire responses: Professional year 2. Ten student teachers responded to the questionnaire after the second practicum. Half of the students who responded after their second practicum were 22 years old, and seven of the 10 were female. Of those respondents, eight had taken an undergraduate degree in the arts, and two in physical education. All of the respondents were in the junior-intermediate division. Two had chosen a teachable subject in religion, two in physical education, two in English, two in history, one in French, and one in music.

All of the respondents were from Ontario. Four were from Sudbury, two from Timmins, and one each from Milton, Penetanguishene, Ajax, and Toronto. Seven of the 10 respondents indicated that they were from middle-class backgrounds. Two of the students indicated that they were from lower-middle-class backgrounds, and one described herself as being from a single-parent family.

Nine of the respondents indicated that their Kindergarten to Grade 12 experiences were positive and used terms such as "good,""enjoyed it,""extra-curricular activities,""very involved,""great teachers," and "social." One person reported a negative school experience with bullying and receiving corporal punishment.

The most common cultural identities reported were Canadian and/or Caucasian. Five of the 10 respondents described themselves as Canadian, with one adding Chinese to the descriptor and another adding Scottish; one individual identified himself as a combination of ethnicities. Four of the participants described themselves as Caucasian. Five of the 10 respondents indicated that they did have teachers in their family and four said they did not. One respondent described himself as not being from a family of teachers but explained that his parents were teachers early in their lives. Table 7 summarizes this demographic information.

Table 7

Demographic Information on Student Teacher Participants, Professional Year 2

Name	Age	Sex	Under-graduate Degree	Division	Socio-economic Back-ground	K–12 Personal Experience	Cultural Identity	Teacher in Family
Sarah	22	F	Arts	J/I	Middle class	Positive	Canadian	Aunt
Martina	23	F	Physical and health	J/I	Middle class	Good	Caucasian	

education

Name	Age	Sex	Program	Level	Class	Experience	Ethnicity	Inspiration
Colin	22	M	Arts	J/I	Student		Canadian	Mother
Camille	23	F	Arts	J/I	Lower middle class	Great	Caucasian, Scottish	
Cathy	38	F	Arts	J/I	Middle class	Negative	Scottish	
Craig	22	M	Arts	J/I	Middle class	Great	Canadian	
Heather	22	F	Arts	J/I	Middle class	Fantastic	Canadian	Aunt
Francis	22	F	Physical and health education	J/I	Middle class	Enjoyable	Caucasian	Yes
Linda	22	F	Arts	J/I	Lower middle class	Enjoyed	Chinese, Canadian	Mother
Gord	23	M	Arts	J/I	Middle class	Great	Caucasian	

Note: Teachable subject and hometown have been omitted from this table in order to protect the identity of participants.

Why do you want to teach? Responses to this question fell into two categories: those who wanted to teach to affect students and those who wanted to teach for reasons that related to their own aspirations and development. Of those who wanted to teach to affect students, two respondents indicated that they wanted to help students reach their potential, one to encourage at-risk students, and another to make a difference. One respondent indicated she wanted to create a love of learning and another wanted to teach because she loves children. Of the responses related to student teacher's own aspirations and development, one respondent indicated that she had been inspired by great teachers,

while another wrote about her desire to teach because she was good at it. The final

respondent indicated he was not sure he wanted to teach at all.

 What are your main perceptions about children and youth? In response to this

question, three of the 10 respondents mentioned the uniqueness or individuality of

children and youth, with two adding that as a result they require a teacher who knows

how to use different teaching strategies or make the most of a student's learning style.

Similarly, one respondent indicated that children and youth are hungry for knowledge but

need to be educated properly, while another said they will learn if learning is made fun.

One respondent summarized the importance of a teacher in the lives of children and

youth by writing, "all pass through teachers hands [sic]."One respondent pointed to the

intelligence and potential of children and youth. Only one respondent had negative

comments about children or youth, indicating that they were spoon-fed to their own

detriment.

 Comparisons of Questionnaire Responses. When comparing the responses for

student teachers who submitted questionnaires for both practica, it is interesting to note

that some responses changed, including the way individuals described themselves, their

reasons for wanting to teach, and their perceptions about children and youth. Even though

there are only six months between the beginning of the first practicum and the end of the

second practicum, student teachers begin to view themselves differently. In her first

response, Linda indicated that there were no teachers in her family, yet in her second, she

stated that there were. Martina described herself as being of Slovenian descent in her first

questionnaire, but in her second called herself Caucasian. When writing about her K–12

experiences after her first practicum, she described being punished for being too social,

but after her second practicum she described her experiences as simply good. Camille also changed herself-description, first indicating that she is Caucasian but after the second placement describing herself as Caucasian-Scottish.

In comparing the results of the two questionnaires for teaching candidates who submitted after both practica, there are also subtle changes in responses to the question about why they want to teach. After the first practicum, Linda indicated simply that she wanted to teach, but after the second she wrote that she wanted to teach because she had great teachers. After the first practicum, Colin wrote that he wanted to teach because he wanted to do something meaningful while after the second practicum he indicated that he wanted to teach because he wanted to help others reach their potential. At first Martina indicated that her love of children was the reason she wanted to teach, but after the second practicum she wrote that she wanted to teach because she was good at it.

With regards to respondents' perceptions of children and youth, there were also changes between the first and the second practicum. After the first practicum, five respondents wrote about worries or concerns for children and youth. One described them as having to cope with a lot of difficulties including drugs and peer pressure, and one wrote about difficult home situations, while another indicted they lack information about health; one described society as failing youth because technology wastes their brain power, and still another described children and youth as having too much freedom. After the second practicum, these worries appear to have diminished. Participants stressed the uniqueness of each child, and only one wrote about concerns or worries for children and youth.

After the first practicum, Linda described children and youth as having too much freedom, but after the second practicum she wrote that they are curious and enjoy learning. Cathy described children and youth as the future after the first practicum, but after the second she wrote that they all pass through a teacher's hands. After the first practicum, Craig wrote about the importance of being present in "their" culture in order to teach them, whereas after the second practicum he described students as hungry for knowledge. Heather's perceptions also changed: after the first practicum she wrote about the many difficulties children and youth face, and after the second practicum she reflected on each child's individuality. Francis also changed her response to the question, indicating after the first practicum that children and youth lack knowledge of physical education, but after the second writing that all have a willingness to learn but require different strategies in order to learn.

Responses to the questionnaires revealed a variety of opinions with most participants having good early school experiences and describing themselves as middle-class and Caucasian. The replies demonstrate reflective thought as participants described their ongoing commitment to teaching and their desire to make a difference for children and youth, although the way they expressed that commitment changed as student teachers gained more experience.

Narratives

Meaning units from professional year 1 placement based on student teacher narratives. In their narrative responses, student teachers were asked to write about the phenomena of classroom management and their experiences during their most recent practicum. They were asked to consider how children and youth assisted or hindered

them in developing classroom management skills and to provide an example from their practicum and include thoughts and feelings they had at the time. Consistent with phenomenology, this narrative description from student teachers is taken exactly as it was given by them (Ehrich, 2005).Only student teachers themselves can explain their personal experiences with the phenomenon of classroom management. What they have written is true for them.

Five meaning units emerged from the data after the first placement: sink or swim, testing, reflection, lack of authority, and friendship (see Table 8). Some of the meaning units were described as being helpful to student teachers while they developed classroom management, while others were not.

Sink or swim

"The trouble makers forced me to try different management strategies before I found a strategy that worked well." (Erica)

Student teachers reported learning a great deal about classroom management by being forced to deal with challenging behaviour. Ten students reported feeling forced to learn on the spot (sink or swim). Many teaching candidates tried out different techniques before settling on one that worked.

Student teachers reported that the children and youth in their classrooms helped them to develop their classroom management skills by forcing them to try techniques that would result in good behaviour. Kassie reported, "They definitely allowed me to change and try out new classroom management skills and adapt"; similarly, Craig stated, "The students helped me develop my classroom management skills by presenting me with unpredictable and spontaneous situations."Kassie compared the children and youth in her

classroom to teachers themselves: "I feel like being in the classroom [is] . . . like having 25 teachers with you all day long. You learn a lot about them, their individual needs, their group needs, their learning processes, their downfalls and especially about yourself."

Many student teachers indicated that the challenging behaviour students exhibited forced the student teacher to come up with classroom management techniques that resulted in cooperation from the students. In many cases, these techniques were determined as a result of trial and error. Linda explained, "I had a wide range of students, many that had behavioural problems. I had a difficult time with my classroom management at the beginning because I did not know how to control the class. However, over the course of my practicum I was able to adapt to the changes needed to help students be more engaged with the lesson." Nicole also wrote about learning how to control a class through trial and error:

> I was teaching a basketball drill during phys. ed. I had instructed the students on the drill/activity that we would begin class with; this activity required each student to have a basketball, they must place it between their feet in order not to play with the ball while I demonstrated the activity. I felt rather frustrated because every time I spoke to explain something the youth would either be talking, bouncing the ball, rolling the ball, or tossing the ball that was in their hands. I also felt totally frustrated and annoyed when I attempted, on numerous occasions, to get students' attention and explain an activity. Following this situation, I tried two different approaches to resolving my dilemma. The first was getting a ball and demonstrating the activity prior to letting the youth get a ball and practice the activity/drill, and the second solution was instructing the youth what they were

required to do with the ball once they got one before they were sent off to get a

ball. On the occasion where I instructed student what to do with the ball as soon

as they got a ball, they paid more attention to what I was saying.

In some cases, student teachers reported learning the most from the children who

challenged them. Erica explained that "the trouble makers forced me to try different

strategies." Erica wrote about a child in her class that did not cooperate with any of the

teachers. She reported trying a variety of strategies before determining that "waiting until

he was ready to pay attention worked the best, although it did not work quickly, in most

cases." In summarizing her efforts at classroom management, Erica wrote, "I kept trying

different things instead of saying 'it's no use.'"

Even when a trial-and-error approach didn't arrive at a solution, student teachers

learned from mistakes. In describing one lesson that did not go well, Linda reported,

"The lesson did not start out great at all. . . . Only 20% of the class actually did their

homework to the ONE question that was assigned, and the frustrating part was that I gave

five minutes a day before to do it. This was the start of my gut feelings that this lesson

may not go as well as the previous day." Even though the lesson did not go well, Linda

concluded by writing, "In the end result every experience that dealt with classroom

management, little or big, has helped shape how I will deal with students who have the

same behaviour problems in my future placement and future teaching experiences."

Several student teachers wrote about learning the most about classroom

management from children who had special needs. Nicole reported, "I think that having a

lot of students with special needs in my classroom really gave me the opportunity to see

the diversity of learning that can occur in the classroom setting." When working with

children with special needs, student teachers were forced to learn through trial and error what would work with that child. Referring to a child with Down Syndrome in her class, Kassie stated, "She assisted me every day in making new choices, lesson ideas and adaptation to suit her learning needs and her learning potential."

In some cases, student teachers reported a sense of frustration that drove them to be creative and try new strategies. Martina felt that the class she was placed in didn't really have a classroom management system in place. She decided it was up to her to attempt to establish a system that the students would buy into. As a result, she worked with the students to develop classroom rules and consequences. Another student reported implementing wait time to encourage students to cooperate. He would wait excessively long until students decided that it was no longer in their interest to continue to disrupt the class, and they eventually encouraged others around them to be quiet so the lesson could continue. The same student decided to implement a recess detention system for those students whom he could not get to cooperate.

Student teacher narratives indicate that many candidates felt that, in order to survive the placement, they were forced into determining what classroom management techniques would be most effective with the students in their class through a system of trial and error.

Testing

"The students were compliant at first but as the placement progressed they started to test the boundaries." (Cathy)

Several student teachers described a kind of testing that occurred in the placement. Once teaching candidates demonstrated that they had a sense of humour and a

limit to the behaviour they were willing to tolerate, the testing lessened. Martina

described it this way: "Some of the children would try and test me to see how far they

could push the rules before they were 'punished' for their negative behaviour."

Several student teachers wrote about being tested to set clear expectations for

behaviour. Francis describes how students tried to test her knowledge of the class rules:

"The students knew that I did not know the rules of the classroom and they tried to get

out of doing some things (pushups for being late)[;] however I learned that rules of the

classroom fast and was able to implement them into my lessons." Sarah wrote about

students who would "choose not to do their work and would distract others from doing

theirs, or from listening to the lessons." Sarah was challenged by these students to make

her expectations clear. Likewise, Heather described an incident where a group of students

decided not to participate in a group project. On the day their presentation was due, they

were unprepared and botched the assignment: "On the presentation day, one group went

up with no information what-so-ever and tried to pull off a speech, a poster, and a

commercial, when it was clear that they had not even spoken to each other about it."

Heather met with the students after class and told them how disappointed she was. She

told them she expected them be ready to do a proper presentation the next day. The

students met her expectations by being better prepared the next day.

Wendy also described being tested during her first week of placement until she

was able to illustrate that she was deserving of the respect they gave the associate teacher.

Unlike Wendy, Cathy found "the students being compliant in the beginning" but testing

the boundaries as time went on. Cathy wrote about a time when a supply teacher came in

and disrupted the classroom management system she and her associate had in place. At

this point, a child who had been behaving decided to test Cathy to see if she could get away with it: "So this student had a tantrum and went into the hall. I proceeded to go to talk to her to ensure she was ok, then give her the needed time to calm down." Francis described a playful type of testing where students tried to trick her by making up rules that didn't exist and tried to get out of things by telling her that that was the way the associate did it.

The testing behaviour experienced by the student teachers was similar to an initiation. Once they had passed the initiation the testing behaviour lessened. At times the testing was playful in nature, and at other times its purpose was to determine what type of behaviour the student teacher would accept.

Reflection

"In the end result every experience that dealt with classroom management little or big, has helped shape how I will deal with students who have the same behaviour problems in my future placement and future teaching experiences." (Linda)

All student teachers who submitted narratives engaged in reflection to some degree by thinking back on their classroom management experiences during their first placement. Seven student teachers described the role reflection played in helping them to develop classroom management skills. Of those, four wrote about engaging in reflection in the middle of a lesson and adapting the lesson as a result. When Linda noticed that her students were struggling to complete a worksheet, she decided that instead of abandoning the worksheet altogether, she would change the assignment from individual to group. Likewise when students began to complain that they could not label a diagram, Linda decided to change the lesson from an individual to group to activity to lessen student

frustration: "I used my classroom management skills and changed it up stating to the students that we will do the assignment together AND they are able to use the textbook."

Similarly, both Craig and Heather wrote about changing a lesson midway through in order to prevent the situation from disintegrating. Craig told the story of a disastrous Christmas play rehearsal:

> During the final week leading up to the Christmas concert at the school it was my task to help the students learn their lines and stage directions for a play that I created. We entered the stage and as we entered that stage I knew that my task of managing the student's behaviour was going to be difficult. The stage was full of distractions (i.e. ladders, props, and Christmas decorations) and before I started anything I had students remove the equipment off of the stages[;] however, the students took this opportunity to begin to play with all of the equipment that needed to be moved.

After several attempts to get the class back on task and to stop playing with equipment for the play, he recognized that the situation was beyond rescue: "I thought at this point that things were going to escalate to chaos if I did not take charge and have the equipment moved without anymore mischief." At this point, he decided to alter his lesson plan and have all of the students work as a large group instead of several small groups: "I decided to have the play unfold in one central location and this alteration led to a successful rehearsal." Likewise, Heather wrote about a group of students unprepared to do a presentation and how as a result she had to adjust her expectations for that lesson: "I wanted to have a debate that day, but I knew that I had to be flexible."She concluded, "I told them that they had to work together and get a presentation put together for the next

day, and we had the debate at that time." Other student teachers wrote about being aware of student body language and adjusting their actions. Sarah described becoming increasingly aware of student body language and using it to measure student learning: "I could tell if they were becoming bored and fidgeting or if they were engaged in the lesson."

Other students took time to reflect on their classroom management and make changes as a result. Natalie wrote about becoming aware that the classroom management techniques that had worked for her in the past were not universally applicable: "The skills I had previously been using were not as effective as I had hoped; therefore I needed to make some modifications to find a more suitable solution." Instead of adapting during teaching, she gave thought to her strategy over time. With thought, Natalie decided the students needed very specific step-by-step instruction in physical education class. Otherwise, she would lose their attention and chaos would ensue. Still another student teacher wrote about reflecting on students' positive reactions to her use of humour: "they showed me how mixing humor with my lessons plans can make the lesson come to life."

Tanis also engaged in reflection over time about the styles of classroom management she had witnessed during her placements. She used this reflection to adapt her own teaching style: "After witnessing some teaching styles I was able to adapt some of the modeling styles and omit the ones I felt were hindering to the teaching experience, especially the styles where the teacher wasn't willing to be flexible or open-minded." For Camille, reflection over time helped her to put her students' desire to know more about her in context. She wrote, "Looking back it had disrupted concentration for a minute or two but we were able to maintain focus after a little laugh."

Lack of authority

"If I felt hindered it generally happened when the associate teacher did or said something I felt did not add to the teaching experience." (Tanis)

When a student teacher enters an associate's classroom, a strange power dynamic emerges. Even though the candidate is acting as teacher, she or he may have no real authority. The student teacher does not have the final say with regards to marks, report card comments, or the consequences of poor behaviour. That authority remains with the associate. Most student teachers are able to negotiate this grey area where they have no real authority, especially in the lower grades. However, five students mentioned a lack of authority as a problem during their first placement.

Michelle, a student teacher in a Grade 1 class, began to experience teacher authority on a day when the associate was away and a supply teacher took over. Instead of looking to the supply teacher for normalcy and routine, the children looked to Michelle. She wrote, "The students looked to me to help explain each lesson and task she had given them. They asked me to go to the washroom or get a drink, and they told me when something was wrong. This experience really made me feel like a part of their class. I was not an outsider. I was the teacher and they respected me." However, Michelle's experience appears to be an anomaly. Many student teachers wrote about the frustration of lacking authority as a teacher.

Several students wrote about being aware of their lack of authority but frustrated when the associate refused to use his or her authority to support their classroom management efforts. Martina, a student teacher in a Grade 7 class, wrote about a disruptive student and her attempts to get the student to behave: "I had just spoken to her

in the hall privately and said that she had to change her behaviour before coming back into the class." The student agreed, but once she returned to class the disruptive behaviour continued. At this point, Martina reached out to her associate for assistance: "I asked the host teacher if I could send her to the office for her behaviour. She said no, and said that she would speak to her privately and she did so in the hallway. Even after the associate spoke to the student privately, she was still not listening but there was nothing else I could do." Martina uses the word "frustrating" to describe the impact this experience had on her authority in the classroom. Sarah uses similar vocabulary to describe her experiences with a student who refused to do work in class even though she had presented him with several choices: "I gave him many options to go about doing the question, or to repeat previous questions so he might understand. I was very frustrated while working with him because he refused to do his work and bothered others."

Colin, a student teacher in a Grade 5 class, also expressed frustration at feeling adrift as a result of a lack of direction from his associate. As a result of this feeling, Colin decided to create and implement his own style of classroom management by waiting as long as necessary until students were willing to cooperate. By waiting, he found that eventually other classmates would grow tired of the disruptive behaviour and encourage the misbehaving students to cease. When this didn't work, Colin began to write the names of "repeat offenders" on the board. He wrote, "I had one student who constantly battled me, stating how ridiculous I was, and that I was not the real teacher with real authority." After several warnings, Colin would begin to remove minutes from their recess, a classroom management strategy that he was well aware was not supported by

his associate. He describes this lack of support as making him feel infuriated, "mostly because everything I was trying to do was disregarded by the students."

Gord, a student teacher in a Grade 9 class, also wrote about feeling undermined by his associate. He felt that he could not motivate students to do their work because his associate continued to rescue them when they struggled. Describing an assignment that he estimated would take two or three class periods, he wrote,

> However, 3 weeks later, students were unable (laziness, attendance) to complete the assignment. Once I finally received all of the assignments, more than a quarter of them were written by my associate teacher. . . . I found it essentially undermined my classroom management. How am I supposed to teach, and expect these kids to learn (and be able to produce good, meaningful work as a result of what they've learned[)], if they know that no matter how much they fool around and waste class time, that their teacher (my associate) will do their work for them[?]

In primary classes, children appeared willing to accept the teaching candidate as teacher, but once youth began to enter the junior grades, they became unwilling to allow the student teacher to usurp the teacher's authority in the classroom. For some student teachers, however, a lack of authority in the classroom was also related to the issue of friendship.

Friendship

"They looked at me more so as a friend than an actual teacher." (Nicole)

For two student teachers, the desire to be a good teacher was sometimes in conflict with the desire to be liked by students. By walking that fine line between teacher

and friend, they created additional difficulties for themselves. One student teacher

reported beginning her placement by trying to be both friend and teacher to her students:

> I didn't want to be mean or strict with them too soon, but at the same time I
>
> needed to build a good status as a teacher, I didn't want them to think that they
>
> could walk all over me but at the same time I didn't feel comfortable enough
>
> within the first few weeks to be strict or even reprimand them in a nice way.

Her attempts to be both friend and teacher resulted in confusion between being strict and

being mean. She felt that if she was mean, she would lose the cooperation of students: "I

also didn't want to be too strict or demanding with them because I wanted them to be

comfortable with me at the front of the class, while maintaining that friendship between

us. I also was a little bit scared that they wouldn't like me or that they would just not

listen to me." In the end, she found this aspect of classroom management to be the most

difficult.

Another teaching candidate reported being continuously bombarded by female

students wanting to know about her personal life: "They kept asking me personal

questions during class time like 'Where did you get that skirt? Do you like Mr. Small

(other student teacher)?'" Eventually the student teacher decided to place limits on the

questioning, and in doing so re-established her role as teacher and not friend:

> I did tell them that they could not question me about my relationships as I had to
>
> keep it as my business, and I had to explain to the girls that I was there to teach
>
> them and I wasn't there to be their friends, but that we could talk during lunch or
>
> after school if they had an important question.

 For some student teachers, the desire to be liked by the students superseded the desire to demonstrate authority in the classroom. When this happens, classroom management becomes more difficult.

Summary of professional year #1 narratives. Of the five meaning units identified after the first placement, student teachers described sink or swim, testing, and reflection as having assisted them in developing classroom management skills, and lack of authority and friendship as having hindered them in developing classroom management skills (see Table 8).

Table 8

Narrative Meaning Units, Professional Year 1

Class Level	Sink/Swim	Reflection	Friendship	Testing	Lack of Authority
Grade 1	1	1		1	
Grade 4		1			1
Grade 4/5	1		1		1
Grade 4–6	1			1	
Grade 5	2			1	1
Grade 6	1			1	1
Grade 7	1	1	1	1	
Grade 7/8	1	1			
Grade 7–10		1		1	
Grade 8	1	1			1
Grade 9		1		1	
Grade 10	1			1	
	10	7	2	8	5

Note: Meaning unit had to occur more than once in narratives in order to be identified.

Even though student teachers reported feeling as if they were largely unsupported in their classroom management efforts, they described having learned a lot from the experience. Many student teachers reported learning the most from the children who challenged them. The challenging behaviour forced them to try various classroom management techniques before arriving at one that worked. Testing behaviour also forced student teachers to consider what type of behaviour they would tolerate in the classroom. Testing was sometimes good-natured but appeared to be designed push the limits of acceptable behaviour. How the student teachers dealt with the testing had an impact on their authority. Several student teachers wrote about being able to engage in reflection in the middle of a lesson and adapting the lesson as a result. Others wrote about a type of reflection that required them to think about what was happening in the classroom over time before deciding on an approach. In each case, candidates described reflection as having a positive impact on their classroom management abilities.

Lack of authority and friendship with students in the classroom were described as detrimental to the development of classroom management skills. Several student teachers described their feelings about their lack of authority in the classroom as frustration. Martina and Colin felt unsupported by their associates whereas Sarah described being unable to exert enough authority to convince a student to do his work. Similarly, Gord described feeling undermined by his associate when his attempts to have students complete work that he had assigned were not supported.

Two student teachers reported walking a fine line between teacher and friend in the classroom. In the end, this approach created additional difficulties for both student

teachers. One student teacher was afraid that being strict would be perceived as being mean, while another was bombarded with personal questions. While one student teacher eventually set limits on the personal questions, the other did not report being able to resolve the conflict between being friends with the students and being an authority figure.

At the conclusion of this first placement, student teachers reported three meaning units that assisted their development of classroom management skills and two that hindered it(see Figure 14).

Meaning units from professional year 2 placement, based on student teacher narratives. Five meaning units emerged from the second and final placement: learning from students, the power of silence, group control or collective resistance, authority, and reflection (see Table 9). Challenging behaviour that was more likely to have been described as hindering their classroom management development during their first placement was now described as assisting their development.
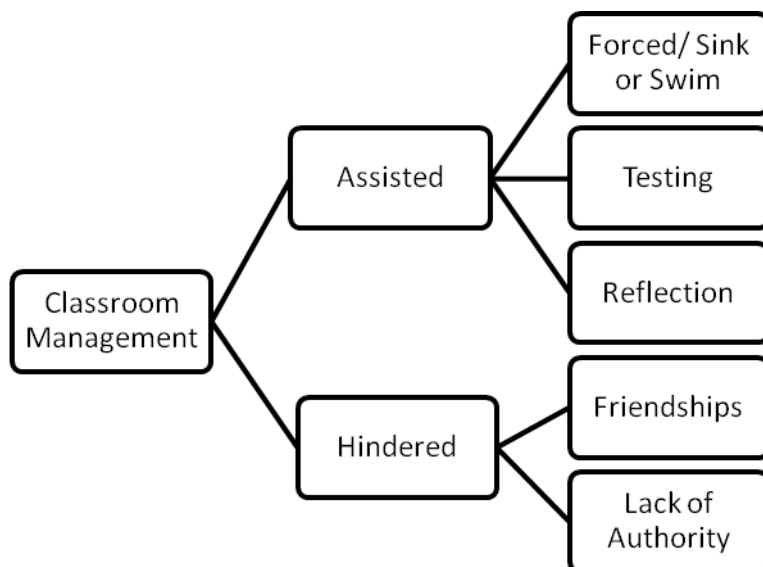
*Figure 14.*Factors that assisted or hindered development of classroom management for student teachers

Table 9

Narrative Meaning Units, Professional Year 2

Student Teachers	Learning From Students	The Power of Silence	Authority	Group Control	Reflection
Grade 4/5	1			1	
Grade 4/6	1		1		1
Grade 5/6				1	
Grade 6	1	1			
Grade 7	2	1	2		1
Grade 7/8		1	1	1	1
Grade 9/10			1		
Totals:	5	3	5	3	3

Note: Meaning unit had to occur more than once in narratives.

Learning from children and youth

"I learned much more from the students on classroom management than I did from the host teacher." (Cassie)

During this final placement, five of the 10 students wrote about learning classroom management from the children or youth in their classrooms. Camille wrote, "The children assisted in the development of my classroom management skills as they helped me." She explained how she implemented a collaborative process whereby the students would help her determine what kind of classroom management they felt worked best for them. She wrote, "We discussed that raising my voice would not be a suitable

way to manage the class and therefore we came up with a few techniques together that really worked."

Similarly, Craig reported after his second placement that instead of hindering his classroom management development, students with high needs actually helped him to develop: "I believe the children of my classroom assisted me in developing my classroom management skills. They were a diverse group and had high needs. Due to their needs I had to quickly develop my classroom skills." Gord reported feeling lucky to have experienced a variety of student behaviour: "Both placements were on the opposite sides of the behaviour spectrum, and ultimately that allowed me to experience and learn teaching and management skills for both groups!"

For Sarah, the students helped to teach her that sometimes learning occurs in an active environment: "The students in my classroom assisted my development of classroom management skills by helping me to realize that a classroom can function when students are in a 'busy' environment." Similarly, Linda wrote that students taught her that if they were having fun in the lesson they were much more likely to cooperate. Erica, saw each of her students as teachers: "with a high school placement, I was able to experience the assistance of 77 different students."

What they could have easily viewed as hindering their classroom management development, student teachers reframed in the narrative as a force that assisted them.

The power of silence

"'I am waiting', initialized the second group of students to start quieting down and the rest of the class to say, 'quiet guys, he's serious.'" (Colin)

Three students reported learning that sometimes just waiting for students to stop what they are doing and be quiet was the most effective method of getting their attention. Camille wrote about negotiating with students regarding the type of classroom management they would prefer. She explained to them that she would prefer not to raise her voice, and together they agreed that "if someone is talking during my lesson, I just stop and wait and if they do not realize what I am doing then I inform them that I am waiting for them, and then thank them for their time." In a similar vein, Linda wrote, "I was able to control my classroom when the noise level was increasing greatly by sometimes standing in front of the classroom without speaking to wait for the students' attention." Colin also wrote about waiting at the front of the classroom and saying nothing until students paid attention.

At times the power of silence was linked to group control.

Group control

"'Quiet guys, he's waiting.' . . . This is more effective as students govern themselves." (Colin)

Group control occurred when the class allied themselves with the student teacher and attempted to get others in the class to cooperate with the teaching candidate. Colin wrote about waiting for the class to be quiet so that he could begin the lesson. He reported that "standing at the front saying nothing [elicited] students to say, 'quiet guys, he's waiting.'" He stated, "This is most effective as students govern themselves. As such, classroom management is maintained by the students which assists me when I am teaching."

Heather reported, "A lot of my students led by example. If one was helping clean up, the others would help as well." This, however, did not always work in the student teacher's favour: "As, always, when one started talking while myself or my host teacher were giving instructions, then the others would start up. If one was being silly with the water at the sink, the others would play along. I noticed that they really played a lot off of each other, both good and bad."

In Sarah's class, students demonstrated group control by simply ignoring another student's disruptive behaviour. Sarah wrote about a student who was often off task, but the students in her class "were very good at ignoring this child's behaviour, which helped me in my classroom management techniques." Instead of letting the lesson be hijacked by this student, the children and youth in her class were able to block him out so that learning could occur.

Group control occurred when students worked together to gain control of the class. At times the students allied themselves with the teacher, although this was not always the case.

Authority/confidence

"I told him I wasn't going to tolerate his attitude." (Martina)

Two student teachers experienced respect for their authority right from the beginning of the placement, while three other students wrote about having to demonstrate their authority as teachers in order to regain control of the class. Linda reported that the class he was placed in "respected the teachers and the student-teachers well."Linda wrote about her authority to extend a lesson if students were really into it. Similarly, Gord

wrote, "Classroom management never crossed my mind, as all it ever took was a 'shhhhh' or something similarly small in order to quiet the [class]."

For Martina, Francis, and Colin, however, authority had to be earned. Martina wrote about having to demonstrate her authority with a student who was disrespectful towards her:

> One time at the beginning of placement when there was a supply teacher in the class, one student was speaking back to me in front of the class. I sent him in the hallway right away and said that the behaviour is not tolerated in this classroom. After when I had time I went to speak with him and I told him that I wasn't going to tolerate his attitude and he quickly apologized and said it wouldn't happen again. I told him that he had [2] decisions, which were to change his attitude and enter the class or go to the office. He entered the class and I never had any issues with that student for the rest of placement.

In the same way, Francis had to demonstrate the seriousness of learning the material to her students and the consequences of not doing so. She explained how when teaching a lesson on orienteering several students began skipping class and being disinterested in the material. She wrote, "I sat down with the students and told them that without knowledge of this that we would not feel comfortable taking them on their final canoe trip that is essential to pass the class. This sparked a fire a bit and most students finished the orienteering unit."

Colin used classroom management techniques, including ringing a bell and waiting until there was silence to continue. He waited patiently until students quieted

themselves and others in the classroom. "This really made me feel good about myself. I was able to regain control on the class."

While Linda and Gord entered into classrooms where they felt authority from the beginning, Martina, Francis, and Colin had to earn authority. In the end, they demonstrated confidence in their classroom management abilities and were not afraid to take action to regain control of the class.

Reflection

All of the student teachers engaged in reflection to some degree by thinking back on their classroom management experiences and writing about them. One student teacher wrote about having to change a lesson in the middle of it, while two others wrote about reflecting back on a classroom management experience. Craig wrote about his attempt to have students sit still in a carpeted area during guided reading. After realizing that this was not working, he decided to take a break and have them move around before continuing, "Without movement during guided reading, it was very difficult for me to complete the task."

For Cathy and Gord, reflection took the form of review (Griffiths and Tann, 1992) or reflection-on-action as described by Schon (1987). Cathy describes realizing that a student in her class needed a lot of reassurance before he was able to begin his work. Eventually Cathy decided that the best way to limit his interruptions was to provide him with a few minutes of direct instruction: "taking two minutes to go over it with him and consistently check on him was enough to [alleviate] this behaviour."

Gord wrote about feeling badly for accidentally hurting a young girl's feelings: "I really didn't realize how sensitive the girls were until slowly but surely, more of the girls

were getting mad at me for silly reasons." He describes how what he thought was joking

with students "that her provincial champ was a fabrication of her imagination"; imitating

another's laugh led to decreased cooperation from students. Eventually, he noticed a girl

was "snappy" with him, and he asked her why. She responded, "I had stated she [another

student] had buck teeth. When I asked her how I did that she said, Well maybe you didn't

say it, but it's the way you imitate her laugh." In the end, he apologized to all of the

students, explaining that "I didn't mean anything bad with anything I'd said or done." He

concludes by adding, "My associate. . . . told me to brush it off as simple sensitivity

issues and I really didn't do anything wrong, and that was echoed by multiple sources."

Hindered no more

"Honestly, at this placement the students were terrific." (Linda)

During this final placement, four of the 10 students who submitted narratives

reported that children and youth in their classrooms did not hinder the development of

their classroom management skills in any way. Camille wrote, "I believe that the students

only had positive effects on my teaching and management skills." Similarly, Linda

asserted, "Honestly, at this placement the students were terrific." Craig responded, "Not

at all. It was very rewarding to work with the students I had because they required so

much guidance and management." Likewise, Gord reported, "the [students] were so

fantastic. Classroom management never crossed my mind." What may have appeared as

hindrance to their development in the first placement was now viewed as assisting them

in their development as teachers. Responses that indicated the children and youth did

hinder the development of their classroom management skills, such as descriptions of

students playing off one another, not taking the student teacher seriously, wasting time,

being uncooperative, and being noisy, did not occur with any consistency in narratives written after the second placement.

During this placement, student teachers reframed their experiences to consider children and youth as co-learners and co-teachers. Comments such as "I believe that the students only had positive effects on my teaching and my management skills" and "I believe the children of my classroom assisted me in developing my classroom management skills" indicate that student teachers began to view children and youth as allies in teaching and not enemies. Camille felt confident enough to negotiate classroom management techniques with her students. Together they agreed that when she was standing in front of the class and waiting in silence, it meant the students should stop what they were doing and listen.

Student teachers began to recognize their own authority in the classroom. Two student teachers reported experiencing a feeling of authority immediately while three others had to demonstrate authority in order to win the respect of students in the classroom. Colin learned about the power of silence from his associate teacher while Linda discovered it on her own.

Three student teachers witnessed group control or the power children and youth can have when they decide to exert it to influence the classroom dynamics. Group control was demonstrated in many different ways. Colin wrote about students who would encourage others to stop what they were doing so that he could continue with their lesson. In Heather's class, group control could take a positive or negative turn depending on whether students decided to use group control to follow the lesson or to disrupt it, while

in Sarah's class students decided as a group to ignore disruptive behaviour and focus on the lesson.

Reflection was present throughout the narratives although it did not always result in growth. One student teacher wrote about engaging in reflection-in-action while two others described reflection-in-action. Gord described reflecting on a situation where a youth's feelings were hurt. In the end he dismisses himself from being at fault, indicating he likely did not learn from the situation.

Although five meaning units emerged from the final placement, the most important finding may be student teachers' shift in their perception of children and youth in the classroom. What they once viewed as hindering their development was now viewed as helping them to grow as teachers. Student teachers reported learning from children and youth in their classes. After the first placement, student teachers described three meaning units as assisting in the development of their classroom management skills: sink or swim, testing, and reflection. After the second placement, all five meaning units—learning from students, the power of silence, authority, group control, and reflection—were described as assisting their development (see Figure 15). The meaning units that were once described as hindering their development after the first placement— friendship and a lack of authority—were no longer evident in the narratives of the second and final placement.
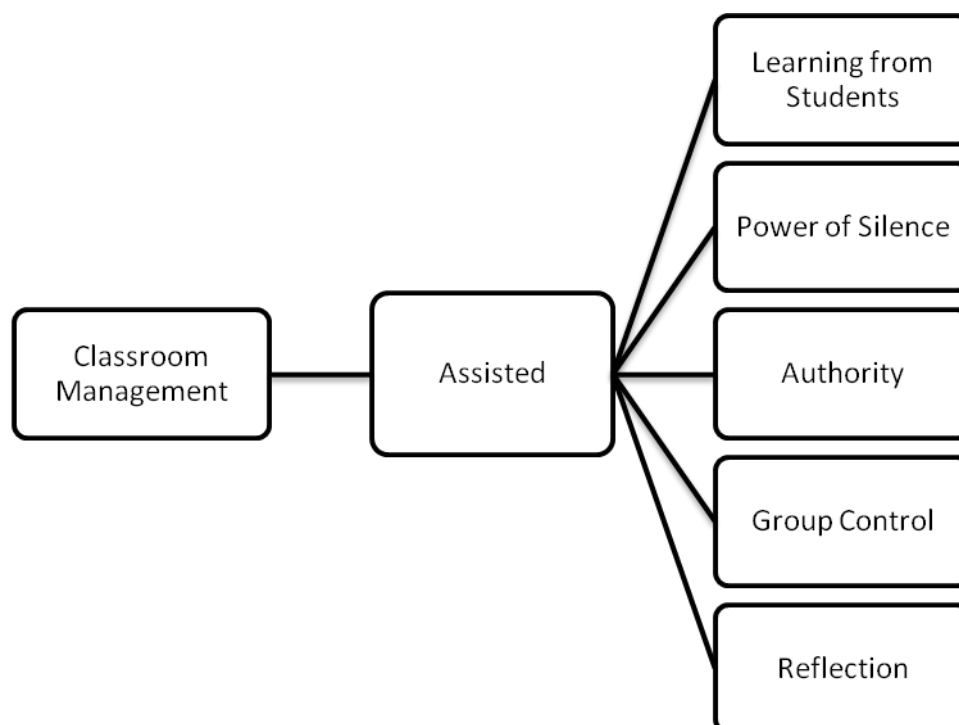
Figure 15. Factors that assisted the development of classroom management for student teachers

Table 10

Summary of All Findings

Question-naire 1 (December 2010)	Question-naire 2 (April 2011)	Observations	Focus Groups	Narrative 1	Narrative 2	Drawings
Participants described themselves as:	Participants described themselves as:	Children express classroom management needs verbally, physically, and behaviourally	Co-operate (If we like you)	**Sink or swim**	**Learning from students**	Smiling student teachers
Mostly middle class	Mostly middle class		Misbehave (If we don't like you)	Friend-ship	Power of silence	Non-smiling student teachers
Mostly from Ontario	All from Ontario	If needs are not met may begin to disrupt other students	Get to know us	**Lack of author-ity**	**Author-ity**	Student teacher with associate teacher
Canadian /European	Canadian /Caucasian					
Majority had teacher in their family	Half had a teacher in the family		**Group control**		**Group control**	Hearts
						Sunshine

				Reflect-ion	Reflect-ion	Smiling faces
Mostly good early school experiences	Mostly good early school experiences	**Testing** behaviour	**Testing**	**Testing**		Flowers
Want to teach because they love children	Want to teach because they want to help children	Engagement indicated by laughing, joking				Animals
						Stars
Fears/concerns for children and youth	Each child is unique.	Lack of engagement indicated by playing with objects, swearing				

Note: Major similarities or contrasts between questionnaires, observations, focus groups and narratives have been bolded.

Chapter 5: Discussion

This study examined the phenomenon of classroom management through the lived experiences of the children and youth and their student teachers. I have observed how children and youth communicate their classroom management needs to teaching candidates. In addition, I have asked children and youth what they believe about their role in helping the student teachers learn classroom management. Finally, I have delved into the narratives of student teachers to determine their perspectives on the impact that children and youth have on the student teacher's classroom management development. Four of the most crucial themes will be summarized; agency, reflection, quadrad, and interdisciplinarity.

Summary of All Results or Essences

This study addressed the following research questions: How can children and youth be observed to affect the development of classroom management skills for student teachers? What role do children and youth believe they play in the development of classroom management skills for student teachers? How do children and youth demonstrate agency in their efforts to communicate classroom management needs to student teachers? Finally, do student teachers believe the children and youth in their classrooms have an impact on the development of classroom management skills during the practicum, and, if so, how are student teachers able to shift their focus away from their own teaching long enough to realize what the children and youth in their classrooms are telling them? Each of these questions will be discussed in turn.

Question # 1: How can children and youth in the classroom be observed to affect the development of classroom management skills for student teachers?

The children and youth I observed attempted to influence their student teachers by expressing their needs verbally, physically, and behaviourally. At times, when this failed to result in the desired effect, they proceeded to express their frustration by disrupting other students (see Figure 2 on page 129).

Many children and youth consistently attempted to demonstrate their engagement or lack of engagement to the student teacher. Through my observations, I witnessed testing behaviour which was a way for children and youth to assess the student teacher and what kind of behaviour would be tolerated. Testing behaviour included comments such as saying no in a half-hearted manner as witnessed in Emily's and Colin's classes and comments such as "Science is gay" in Craig's class. Testing behaviour such as that observed in Camille's class appeared to be an attempt to determine what type of behaviour the teaching candidate would tolerate. After the testing behaviour, I observed children and youth questioning the student teacher, perhaps deciding whether or not to engage in the lesson. Questions included "What do you mean?" "Why do I need to learn this?" or "Why are you on me?"

When the lesson was going well, some of the students and youth gave clear verbal and behavioural feedback to the student teacher. They would laugh, joke, or make comments indicating their engagement, such as "O.K., we're not stopping here." When the lesson was not going well, the verbal and physical feedback took the form of swearing, playing with objects in their desks, and clear physical disengagement, such as curling up in a ball or resting their heads on their arms. Through this verbal and physical behaviour, children and youth clearly attempted to communicate their acceptance or rejection of the student teacher's classroom management efforts.

Question #2: What role do children and youth believe they play in the development of classroom management skills for student teachers?

In focus group discussions with children and youth, it was clear that, regardless of the grade level, many children and youth believed they had a role to play in the student teacher's development. Children in Grade 1 believed they encouraged teacher candidates to become better teachers by being helpful and reminding the student teacher of their names and the names of other students. They indicated that at times they helped the candidate by explaining what another child meant. By the time children entered Grades 4 or 5, they appeared to view their role in teaching the student teacher as less of a helping role and more of a challenging role. In one of the Grade 5 focus groups, youth reported they helped the teacher candidate become a better teacher by teaching him or her "how to handle kids." At this stage, they differentiated between the "real teacher" and the student teacher. They became aware of the teaching candidate's lack of authority, and as a result, their own sense of agency when it came to cooperating or not increased. This agency was used to teach student teachers when lessons were too easy or to communicate their approval by engaging in lessons when the student teacher made an effort to include their interests or names.

Agency was also used to hinder the student teacher at times. Both Grade 5 classes spoke of a difference in the authority of a "real teacher" and that of the teaching candidate. Agency could be used in different ways such as attempting to manipulate the teacher candidate into a friendship or showing the student teacher "the real world," when children and youth were not always on their best behaviour. Children and youth

demonstrated agency by engaging in behaviour they believed would challenge the student teacher.

This desire to educate the student teacher continued into Grades 8, 9, and 10. In the higher grades, this desire took the form of testing and teaching the candidate about the "real world," meaning that the students would not be on their best behaviour for the teaching candidate.

Question #3: How do children and youth demonstrate agency in their efforts to communicate classroom management needs to student teachers?

Children and youth try desperately to communicate their classroom management needs to student teachers verbally, physically, and through their behaviour. They attempt to communicate their desire for the student teacher to enter their world and get to know them. For example, the Grade 7 students invited the student teacher to enter their world by teaching the candidate their language, Ojibwa. At the same time, they were demonstrating agency because they were exhibiting pride in their identity. The Grade 8 students spoke of their desire for the student teacher to get to know them as adolescents: "He has to think like us, to be dirty-minded." While in the Grade 10 class, a youth approached Emily after a lesson and wanted to share something unrelated to the lesson with her, almost as an invitation to understand him better. Some children and youth clearly wanted student teachers to get to know them as individuals.

Many children and youth also demonstrated their agency in the classroom by deciding whether they would cooperate with the teaching candidate. Sometimes this agency can be very evident, as in Gord's Grade 9 class when a student was asked to read and he said, "F*** that." The most obvious meaning of this comment is that he did not

want to read. From a classroom management perspective, he may have been saying something like, "Don't put me on the spot like that. I will listen and not disrupt you if you leave me alone." In the case of Gord's class, the fact that these students had an average of a three-year developmental delay meant that they were accustomed to advocating for themselves and making it clear what their classroom management needs were. They had no problems demonstrating agency by telling Gord to make the print larger or asking him to explain a term.

In other cases, some children and youth demonstrated their agency in more subtle ways. This was observed in Martina's class, by students not participating and playing with objects in their desks. Similarly, in Nicole's class a student expressed his frustration with painting the colour wheel by saying, "It's not the same, mine and the board." By disengaging or becoming frustrated, children and youth are letting the student teacher know that he or she has lost them.

Children and youth in the classroom also demonstrated agency when they engaged in group control. Group control occurred when members of the class allied themselves with the student teacher and attempted to get others in the class to cooperate with the candidate. This happened in Colin's and Craig's classes when children and youth would attempt to get others in the room to behave for the student teacher. Heather reported that youth in her class would often repeat the behaviour of others around them, so that if one was helping, the others would, or if one was disruptive, others would join in. In Sarah's class students demonstrated group control by simply ignoring another student's disruptive behaviour. By engaging in group control, children and youth

demonstrated their agency to gain the cooperation of others in the classroom in their efforts to help or hinder the teaching candidate.

Through their drawings, children and youth expressed their positive feelings towards their student teachers by drawing optimistic images, including smiles, hearts, and sunshine. Humour was also expressed in the drawing of angry-looking eyebrows on Craig, when the feedback indicated how much they liked having him in the class. As the intent of providing the option of drawing during the focus groups was to relax the participants, a thorough analysis of the meaning of these drawings is not part of this study. It is sufficient to conclude that children and youth enjoy drawing while participating in focus groups and that many enjoy having a new or additional teacher in the classroom.

Question # 4: Do student teachers believe the children and youth in their classrooms have an impact on the development of classroom management skills during the practicum, and if so, how are student teachers able to shift their focus away from their own teaching long enough to realize what the children and youth in their classrooms are telling them?

The narratives of student teachers demonstrate the many ways they believe children and youth in their classrooms affect the development of teacher candidates' classroom management skills. Student teachers repeatedly wrote about learning from the children and youth in their classrooms. In many cases, candidates wrote about learning the most from children or youth with special needs. These children required one-on-one problem-solving from the student teacher. In other cases, student teachers saw each child in the classroom as a teacher. As Kassie put it, it was "like having 25 teachers with you

all day long. You learn a lot about them, their individual needs, their group needs, their learning processes, their downfalls and especially about yourself."

Although student teachers mentioned learning from the children and youth in their classes during the first practicum, they also viewed children and youth as sometimes hindering their development. This viewpoint shifted, however, after the second placement, when all of the student teachers began to see children and youth in their classrooms as helping them to develop classroom management skills. This finding is consistent with Fuller (1969) and later Marso and Pigge (1997), who suggested that as student teachers gain experience, they are less concerned with their own performance and more concerned with the children and youth in their class. In this case, teaching candidates began to see the challenges that children and youth presented as learning opportunities. Perhaps in addition to being concerned with the learning of the children and youth in their classes, they are less threatened by them. Where once they saw these individuals as potential saboteurs of their classroom management efforts, student teachers now viewed them as opportunities for growth.

Contrary to my original hypothesis, student teachers were in many cases able to realize what children and youth were attempting to tell them about their classroom management efforts. Student teachers themselves were able to identify the role that children and youth played in their classroom management development. Their personal narratives indicate that time spent in the classroom resulted in a shift in their viewpoints, and that child and youth behaviour that was once viewed as hindering their classroom management development was later seen as helping them to learn how to be better teachers. This finding is consistent with M. G. Jones and Vesilind (1996), who

recognized that time spent with children in the classroom affects student teachers' beliefs about teaching, and with Leavy et al. (2007), who pointed to a growing awareness of the central role played by the child in the classroom. Consistent with M. G. Jones and Vesilind, these student teachers underwent a cognitive reconstruction that caused them to examine their previously held beliefs. In some cases, student teachers were able to engage in rapid reflection or repair (Ziechner, 1996) or reflection-in-action (Schon, 1997) and adapt their lessons according the feedback they were getting from children and youth. In other cases, student teachers engaged in reflection-on-action (Schon, 1997) in order to make sense of child and youth agency. Many wrote about reflecting on feedback during a lesson and adapting the lesson on the spot. Craig wrote about having to adapt a Christmas play rehearsal that was taking a turn for the worse, while Heather had to adjust a lesson after students were unprepared for their part in it. Schon (1987) refers to this type of reflection as reflection-in-action, while Zeichner (1996) calls it rapid reflection and van Manan refers to it as teacher tact.

Only six student teachers wrote about engaging in reflection over time (Griffiths & Tann, 1992). Ward and McCotter (2004) call engaging in reflection over time *transformative reflection*. Natalie wrote about experiencing cognitive dissonance (Dewey, 1973) and realizing that the classroom management techniques that had previously worked for her were not working in her new class. After giving thought to her situation over time, she decided to use step-by-step instruction to limit chaos. Nicole did not experience a similar reflection over time, and as a result she was unable to recognize that this step-by-step instruction was what her students were asking for with their feedback. Tanis wrote about reflecting over time on the importance of being willing to be

flexible or open-minded in her classroom management approach. For Camille, reflection over time helped her to put her students desire to know more about her into context. She writes, "Looking back it had disrupted concentration for a minute or two but we were able to maintain focus after a little laugh." Cathy wrote about learning how to react to a student who required continuous reinforcement while Gord described hurting a student's feelings. Ward and McCotter (2004) suggested that it is unusual for student teachers' reflections to enter into the transformative reflection category. This level of reflection requires teaching candidates to reflect on both their in-class learning and their own experiences. Six of these student teachers did demonstrate transformative reflection and as a result they may have been able to examine prior beliefs to see if those beliefs meshed with their experiences. In the case of Gord's reflection, even though he reflected on the incident after the fact, what Schon (1987) would call reflection-on-action, it appears that he did not change his beliefs as a result.

According to Griffiths and Tann (1992), both the fourth and fifth dimensions of reflection—research thinking and retheorizing or reformulating—take weeks or months to process. It is possible that, because the second narratives were collected immediately following placement, student teachers had not yet been able to effectively engage in deeper levels of reflection. Perhaps if more time had passed, student teachers would have demonstrated the research thinking or retheorizing that Griffiths and Tann (1992) mention. According to Zeichner and Liston (1996), teachers become reflective when they give thought to the students in their classrooms, and begin to listen and accept that there are "many sources of understanding" (p. 9). Consistent with M. G. Jones and Vesilind (1996), for student teachers in this study, increased interaction with students resulted in a

shift from teacher-centred visions of teaching to more student-centred. By viewing the students in their class as co-teachers and co-learners, the teaching candidates in this study have moved to a more student-centred view of teaching.

It is interesting to note that when all of the major findings are compared (see Table 10)several themes occur consistently. In describing themselves, student teachers consistently indicated they were middle-class and mostly or all from Ontario. After the first placement, student teachers described themselves as Canadian/European while after the second placement they were more likely to describe themselves as Canadian/Caucasian. The majority of student teachers stated that they had a teacher in the family after the first placement while only half of the respondents did after the second placement. After the first placement, student teachers indicated that they wanted to teach because they loved children, while after the second placement they were more likely to mention they wanted to teach to help children. After the first placement, four student teachers wrote about their fear or concerns for children and youth while after the second placement these concerns appear to have disappeared, with only one student teacher expressing concerns for children and youth, and the majority describing them as unique.

There appears to be no relationship between student teachers' early school experiences and their experiences during placement. Negative early school experiences were not linked to negative experiences during placement. Similarly, student teachers who had teachers in their families did not reveal perspectives on children and youth that differed significantly from those of respondents who did not have teachers in the family.

Student teachers who indicated positive reasons for wanting to teach were more likely to have positive responses to other questions. Student teachers' perspectives on

children and youth were somewhat related to the question about why they wanted to teach. Gord reported negative perceptions about children and youth, and was not sure that he wanted to teach.

Testing behaviour occurred during observations and in focus groups, and as a meaning unit in the first narrative. Children and youth talked about group control during focus groups, and student teachers described having experienced it after the second placement. Reflection was evident throughout the narratives and presented itself as a meaning unit after both placements. A lack of authority was a meaning unit after the first placement but had changed to feeling of authority after the second placement.

Overall, student teachers appear to have reframed their beliefs about and perception of children and youth during the time period between the first and second placements, approximately four months. Their fears and concerns for children and youth appear to have dissipated after the second placement. Where they once saw children and youth as hindering their development of classroom management, they now described children and youth as helping them to develop classroom management skills after the second placement. What they described as a lack of authority in the first placement was now expressed as a feeling of authority after the second placement.

The literature indicates that prior beliefs have a strong impact on the classroom management behaviour of student teachers (Borko & Mayfield, 1995; Clark, 1988; Leavy et al., 2007; Richardson, 1996). In comparing the beliefs about children and youth expressed by student teachers after the first placement with those expressed after the second placement, it is evident that some change has occurred between the first and the second practicum.

Table 11

Perceptions of Children and Youth During Professional Years 1 and 2

Student Teacher	Perceptions of Children/Youth PY#1	Perceptions of Children/Youth PY #2
Sarah	Technology basis for learning	Technology important in education
Martina	Sometimes difficult home life	Need learning to be fun
Colin	All can learn.	All can learn
Camille	They want to learn	Intelligent
Cathy	They are the future	All pass through a teacher's hands.
Craig	They want to learn. Their culture must be reflected in classroom	Hungry for knowledge
Heather	Dealing with difficulties, drugs, peer pressure, alcohol, etc.	Determined to learn, individuals
Francis	Lack knowledge of health	All willing to learn but need different strategies
Linda	Too much freedom	Curious, enjoy learning
Gord	Society is failing them Technology wastes brain power	Misguided, spoon fed

As Table 11 demonstrates, student teachers appear to have reframed their beliefs

and perceptions of children and youth during the time period after the first and second

placement. The concerns they described after the first placement, including children's

having to deal with a lot of difficulties, lacking knowledge about health, and having too

much freedom, as well as the feeling that society was failing children and youth, were almost absent from the after the second placement. After the second placement, only one student teacher indicated that children and youth were over-pampered. Also interesting is the fact that this individual was not sure whether he would pursue a job in teaching.

These changes in beliefs about children appear to reflect a more positive, hopeful view of children and youth based on experience in the classroom instead of prior beliefs. The implications of these findings will be discussed in the following chapter.

The Agency of Children and Youth in the Classroom

In this study, student teachers appeared to be struggling with the human experience of learning, failing, and coming back to try again. At the same time, the children in their classrooms expressed their agency by pushing back against the student teachers' efforts to exhibit authority. This pushing back is not necessarily bad or good; it is simply an effort to make the student teachers understand that they are a part of the classroom dynamic that cannot be taken for granted. This expression of agency is consistent with James and Prout (2005), who suggested that the existing view of childhood needs to be reconstructed to more accurately reflect children as "active" in the construction and determination of their social lives, the lives of those around them, and the societies in which they live.

This research is consistent with Tilleczek (2011), who found that young people feel, experience, react, and negotiate their place in the many environments that are a part of their lives. Tilleczek suggested that it is necessary to do more research on how young people actively negotiate their lives. My own research has demonstrated that children and youth actively negotiate the classroom when they have a student teacher. They test the

student teacher, decide whether or not to cooperate, express their needs verbally, physically, and through behaviour, and are able to use group control to assist the student teacher or to negate her or his effectiveness.

From a classroom management viewpoint, the voices of children are largely absent from the literature. In fact, until recently the voices of children and youth have been absent from most research conducted "on them". As recently as 2010, Johnson reported that the voices of children and youth "are seldom heard in the arenas of academe" (p. xiv). He referred to child-centred scholarship, where the authentic voices of children and youth are heard, as cutting edge (p. xiv). Consistently, James and Prout (2005) suggest that one of the major obstacles to the emergent paradigm is the absence of children's voices about their own lives. By approaching classroom management from a human studies, child centric viewpoint this study includes the voices of children and youth and furthers the emergent paradigm which suggest that "children's social relationships and cultures are worthy of study in their own right"(p.4).

Children and youth have different ways of knowing according to Holt (2002). James and James (2008) suggested that much of what happens in schools and classrooms is about the production of children's conformity through the authority invested in adult teachers, or in this case student teachers. Children and youth in this study demonstrated their agency by communicating their classroom management needs in socially acceptable terms, for the most part.

 During observations of student teachers classrooms it was clear children and youth were attempting to communicate their needs with the student teachers verbally,

physically, and through behaviour. In focus groups, children and youth indicated they believed they had a role to play in helping the student teacher learn to teach.

In this study the children and youth in the classroom were active in the construction of the classroom dynamic. Student teachers sometimes felt resentment towards the students who challenged them in the classroom. However, with experience, these student teachers exhibited growth and reflection, and reframed what they once viewed as threatening as helping them to grow as teachers. This study demonstrated the active role children and youth play in the development of classroom management for student teachers.

Reflection as a Conduit for Student Teacher Growth

Hollingsworth (1989) found that learning to manage a classroom occurs when student teachers learn how to teach but also engage in reflection and become aware of pupil comprehension. When teachers become reflective, they give thought to the students in their classroom, and begin to listen and accept that there are "many sources of understanding" (Zeichner & Liston, 1996, p. 9). Student teachers in this study engaged in reflection by simply participating in the study. In most cases, they described reflection-in-action and reflection on-actions (Schon, 1987) while six of the student teachers wrote about engaging in reflection overtime (Griffiths & Tann, 1992). However, the change in their beliefs about children and youth from that of saboteurs in their development as teachers to that of allies points to a deeper level of reflection, consistent with what Ward and McCotter (2004) refer to as *transformative reflection*.

Reflection Resulting in Change of Prior Beliefs

Until now, prior beliefs, associate teachers, and faculty and courses have been considered the dominant factors influencing the development of classroom management for teaching candidates (Beck & Kosnik, 2002; Borko & Mayfield, 1995; Clark, 1988; Hollingsworth, 1989; M. G. Jones& Vesilind, 1996; Leavy et al., 2007; MacKinnon, 1989; Richardson, 1996). The role that children and youth in the classroom play in student teacher development has only been hinted at by authors such as Veenman (1984), Smith and Laslett (1993), M.G. Jones and Vesilind (1996).

This research is consistent with that of Jones and Vesilind (1996), who suggested that extended time with the same group of students makes it possible for student teachers to undergo a cognitive reconstruction process and reorganize pedagogical knowledge. The children and youth in the focus groups indicated they believed they had a role to play in student teacher development. The narratives of the student teachers indicated student teachers were aware of the role children and youth were having on their development as teachers.

This change in beliefs is consistent with the findings of Leavy et al. (2007), who suggested that with experience teaching candidates develop a growing awareness of the central role of the child in the classroom. This awareness may also explain student teachers' growing willingness to accept children and youth as teachers themselves. According to Hollingsworth (1989), prior beliefs serve as a type of filter through which we make sense of new knowledge. Certain aspects of classroom management must be in place before student teachers are able to challenge their pre-existing beliefs, as illustrated in Hollingsworth's Model of Learning to Teach (see Figure B1 in Appendix B). Perhaps

those certain aspects were put into place during the first practicum, allowing more openness to restructuring of prior beliefs. Linda, Cathy, Craig, and Heather experienced subtle changes in their prior beliefs, which may have an impact on their approach to classroom management. Only one student teacher expressed negative beliefs about children and youth. Gord described children and youth as spoiled and spoon-fed after both placements. These beliefs are consistent with his uncertainly about wanting to teach.

What student teachers described as hindering their development of classroom management after the first placement, they described as helping them to develop after the second placement. While they described a lack of authority during the first placement, they were now likely to express a feeling of authority after the second placement. It appears as if student teachers reconstructed their beliefs and views about their experiences in the classroom. Perhaps by experiencing cognitive dissonance (Mahan and Lacefield, 1978, cited in Veenman, 1984), student teachers were forced to reexamine previously held beliefs. During the first practicum, they may have felt somewhat threatened by the children and youth in their classrooms, but six months later they appeared to view those who challenged them as helping them to grow. Continued experience with children and youth appears to have resulted in student teachers feeling more confident in their abilities and less threatened by challenges from children and youth.

From Teaching Triad to Teaching Quadrad

The relationship between the student teacher, cooperating teacher, and university supervisor is sometimes referred to as the teaching triad (Griffin, 1989; Veal & Rikard, 1998;Ritchie et al., 2000). In the teaching triad, the cooperating teacher and at times the

university supervisor hold the dominant amount of power in the classroom. I propose that the role children and youth play in helping teaching candidates develop classroom management skills is as important as the role played by the cooperating teacher and or university—if not more important. In addition, children and youth in the classroom can choose to express their agency in ways that shift the power dynamics from the teacher to themselves. For this reason, the triad needs to be re-envisioned as a quadrad. This quadrad consists of the student teacher, the cooperating or associate teacher, the university, and the children and youth (see Figure 16), as the children and youth hold as much power as the others in what takes place in the classroom. This is consistent with Zeichner and Liston (1996), who suggested that through reflection teachers learn that there are "many sources of understanding"(p. 9), and with Veal and Rikard (1998), who acknowledge the role pupils can play in the teaching triad in the absence of the university or faculty representative.
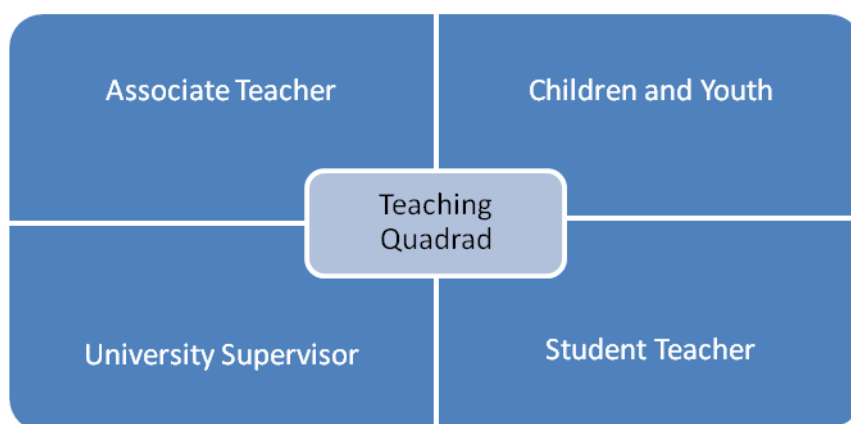
Figure 16. Teaching quadrad: A revisioning of the teaching triad. In the teaching quadrad, children and youth in the classroom share power with the associate teacher, university supervisors, and student teachers.

Veenman (1984) and van Tartwijk and Hammerness (2011) reported that classroom management is often ignored in teacher education programs, and this may be partly due to the fact that classroom management is such a misunderstood subject. Confusion exists around how classroom management should be taught. Is it a technical skill that can be learned in the classroom or should it be linked to the practicum (van Tartwijk & Hammerness, 2011)?In further recognition of the place of children and youth in the teaching quadrad, I suggest that classroom management courses need to invoke deeper knowledge about sociological understanding (theory, research, and practice) of children and youth.

The Interdisciplinary Nature of Classroom Management

Classroom management has been identified as the most difficult aspect of teaching to master (Housego, 1990; Veenman, 1984) and the main concern of student teachers, according to Joram and Gabriele (1998). This study recognizes that although the term *manage* is out of touch with an approach that makes efforts to learn from children and youth, a better descriptor does not exists. Terms such as *building and sustaining caring communities* or *motivating through extrinsic rewards and inner* motivation fail to emphasize the leadership role a teacher must take in the classroom.

The results of this study point to the complex interdisciplinary nature of classroom management as being responsible for the difficulties new and student teachers have in mastering it. When classroom management is approached from an educational perspective alone, its true complexity is not revealed. It is only when we approach it from an interdisciplinary perspective that we are able to recognize the many factors that all come into play to create a classroom dynamic on any given day.

In addition, the teaching of classroom management needs to emphasize the in-flux (Strathern 2004) nature of the classroom, where interdisciplinary factors, including family income, social status, education, employment, working conditions, physical environment, biological and genetic endowment, and cultural and social environments all play a part. Strathern (2004) suggests that new knowledge is never static; it is always in a state of flux. When knowledge is static it becomes cold. This occurs when a discipline focuses inward. If we focus on classroom management from an educational perspective alone, our knowledge becomes static. It is only when we accept the complexities of classroom management that new knowledge is created. Classroom management dynamics are constantly in Mode 2 (Strathern, 2004), and though they may stabilize temporarily, they will once again shift depending on these interdisciplinary factors.

Limitations

This study would have benefited if each of the 10 student teachers who submitted both narratives had also been interviewed a few months after the study. As it was, participation in the study diminished the closer teaching candidates came to completing their program requirements. As the students had finished their Bachelor of Education requirements by the end of the study, fewer of them were motivated to participate.

Although each participant that submitted both narratives received a summary of the findings and was asked to provide feedback, their feedback was brief, leading me to believe that the participants didn't reflect on their responses before replying. Narratives were collected immediately following placement to ensure that experiences were still fresh in their minds. However, in retrospect, perhaps if more time had passed between the end of the second placement and the collection of the final narratives, student teachers

may have been able to engage in deeper levels of reflection about their experiences. In addition, meeting with student teachers to review my conclusions with them in person may have resulted in increased insight.

Another limitation of this study is the low response rate after the second practicum. Only 10 of the original 19 respondents submitted questionnaires and narratives after the second placement. Perhaps if I had provided some sort of incentive to the 19, the response rate would have been better. The only incentive I provided was a certificate indicating that they had participated in the study. A more social incentive such as a lunch meeting may have resulted in better participation.

Finally, although the student drawings were initially intended simply as a tool to relax children and youth during focus group discussions, the interesting aspects of their drawings (see discussion in chapter 4) suggest that this study would have benefited if I had spent more time talking to children about their drawings. The drawings may have been able to provide another way into the lived experiences of children and youth. Instead they can only be taken at face value.

These limitations mean that the findings of this study are valid but would have benefited by a greater response rate and the opportunity to discuss the finding with participants instead of gathering their responses through e-mail. Finally, this study would have benefited by spending more time speaking to children about the meanings of their drawings.

Suggestions for Further Research

This research demonstrates that children and youth have an impact on student teachers' development of classroom management. However, additional research is required to determine the impact of the student teacher on children/youth's beliefs regarding learning. This question is not asked from a quantitative "test score" perspective but from the more qualitative aspect of the learning perspective. This research indicates that children and youth react to student teachers in their classrooms and to some degree negotiate how they will be taught by the student teacher. Does this expression of agency affect their view of their own power in society, and does it have an impact on their view of learning? When children and youth observe a young adult such as a student teacher attempting to learn, struggling, and coming back the next day to try again, does this strengthen their willingness to leave their own comfort zone and attempt to learn things that may not at first come so easily to them?

This research could be continued by reviewing the findings with the student teachers, now teachers in their own right, who participated in this research. Although feedback on the findings was sought, it would be interesting to note the role reflection plays in student teachers' viewpoints a year later.

This research revealed that children and youth in the classroom attempt to communicate their classroom management needs with student teachers physically, verbally, and behaviourally. More research is needed to confirm the frequency of such behaviour and what it means. This could be accomplished through more classroom observation and focus groups with children and youth to confirm the meaning of their physical, verbal, and behavioural attempts to communicate their classroom management

needs with student teachers. The scholarship on classroom management would benefit from focusing on what children and youth have to say about classroom management.

Descriptive phenomenology requires a general structural statement that reflects the essential structure of the experience being investigated. In the case of this study, that statement is as follows: The findings of this research suggest that children and youth demonstrate agency in the classroom with student teachers. They use this agency to assist student teachers in their efforts to become better teachers, although this agency can also be used to hinder candidates' classroom management efforts. Student teachers are aware that they are learning from the children and youth, and with experience, they begin to see children and youth as collaborators in their learning. Contrary to existing literature, which proposes a teaching triad, I propose a teaching quadrad, where children and youth hold an equal amount of power in the classroom and play an equal role in educating student teachers.

This research demonstrated the active role children and youth play in teaching the student teacher how to teach. In this study, reflection was a conduit for student teacher growth and resulted in a change of beliefs for some student teachers. Student teachers recognized the role children and youth had in their development. This research demonstrated that children and youth play a role as significant and possibly even a *more* important than the roles played by associate teachers, faculty, and courses in the development of classroom management for student teachers. As a result, I suggest the teaching triad should be reconfigured to a teaching quadrad, where children and youth are recognized as having equal power in the classroom. When classroom management is viewed through an interdisciplinary lens, its true complexity is revealed. Examining

classroom management from an interdisciplinary perspective at least partially explains why it is the most difficult aspect of teaching for student teachers to master.

Summary

This study explored the issue of classroom management from an interdisciplinary perspective instead of an educational perspective alone. In doing so, it examined a problem that has traditionally been an educational issue, classroom management, from a human studies perspective that incorporated the voices of children and youth. Approaching classroom management from an interdisciplinary perspective has shed light upon the true complexities of classroom management more than an educational focus alone reveals. E. Morin's (2008) paradigm of complexity encourages us to think in a way does not mutilate life, but allows us to live it more fully by being more present to the complexities, paradoxes, tragedies, joys, failures, and successes. When we think of classroom management from an educational perspective alone, we separate it from its complexities.

The literature indicates that the classroom is a complex space and that there are many factors affecting children's readiness to learn, including family income, social status, education, employment, working conditions, physical environment, biological and genetic endowment, and cultural and social environments. These factors further complicate the components required for effective classroom management because each classroom is composed of learners with varying needs and abilities.

By examining classroom management from an interdisciplinary perspective, which takes into consideration factors that affect children's readiness to learn, the true complexity of the classroom is revealed. Instead of learning how to manage a classroom,

student teachers must to consider the readiness of learners in their classroom, which may be impacted by a variety of factors. In addition, the teaching candidate must consider the varying needs and abilities of each child and youth in the classroom. Only then can the student teacher begin to consider the best approach for his or her class. The complex nature of classroom management is revealed when approached from an interdisciplinary perspective. An interdisciplinary perspective may explain why classroom management is the most difficult aspect of teaching for student teachers to master (Housego, 1990; Veenman, 1984) and the main concerns of student teachers (Joram &Gabriele, 1998).

This study drew on the research of Leavy et al. (2007), Crass (1998), Zeichner and Liston (1996), and M. G. Jones and Vesilind (1996), who suggested that children and youth do influence student teacher development. This study built further on this hypothesis and indicated that children and youth play as significant a role in preparing student teachers as do associate teachers, university, and faculty. Additionally, Leavy et al. (2007), Clark (1988), and Richardson (1996) all reported that student teachers have strongly grounded beliefs and assumptions about classroom managements based on their own experiences as learners. These beliefs and assumptions have been further formed through interactions with associate teachers, faculty, and university supervisors. The importance of reflective practice by student teachers as a conduit for growth cannot be overlooked. All student teachers who participated in this study were reflective to some degree; however, only a few of these student teachers were able to transform their pre-existing beliefs about children and youth. What they viewed as hindering their development in November and December, by April they reconstructed as assisting in their classroom management development. Consistent with M. G. Jones and Vesilind's

(1996) findings, experience with students was essential in transforming prior beliefs. As student teachers got to know the children and youth in their classrooms, they were able to reorganize pedagogical knowledge. With increased experience, student teachers' perceptions of children and youth transformed their students from saboteurs to allies in the student teachers' development. Children and youth in the classroom should thus not be viewed as passive recipients of knowledge from student teachers but as active participants, both in classroom learning where they negotiate what they will learn and how they will learn it, and in student teacher development.

Classroom management is a complex process that is always in flux. For this reason, it makes more sense to view it from an interdisciplinary perspective that encompasses family income, social status, education, employment, working conditions, physical environment, biological and genetic endowment, and cultural and social environments, as well as factors such as the number of students with learning disabilities, meeting the needs of Aboriginal learners and creating a differentiated learning environment. Children and youth attempt to communicate their classroom management needs physically, verbally, and behaviourally. They often use their agentic status to help and or hinder student teacher development. They are aware of their power in the classroom and sometimes use it to encourage others to join with them in their efforts to assist or negate student teachers. Student teachers, for their part, are aware of the efforts children and youth make to communicate their classroom management needs. As a result, student teachers are often able to adapt in the midst of a lesson to meet those needs.

The role children and youth play in the classroom is so significant that it needs to be recognized as equal to the role associate teachers, university courses, and faculty play

in student teacher development. Teacher training should be reconstructed to recognize the role children and youth play in student teacher development, and more emphasis should be placed on recognizing the efforts of children and youth to communicate their classroom management needs.

The findings of this research suggest children and youth demonstrate agency in the classroom with student teachers. This agency assists student teachers in becoming better teachers. However, this agency can also be used to hinder classroom management efforts. Student teachers are aware that they are learning from the children and youth in the classroom. With experience, children and youth are viewed as collaborators by student teachers. While student teachers see this agency as an attempt to sabotage their classroom management efforts children attempts to sabotage early in their teaching experience with increased experience they come to view children and youth as allies in classroom management.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Learning General Classroom Management
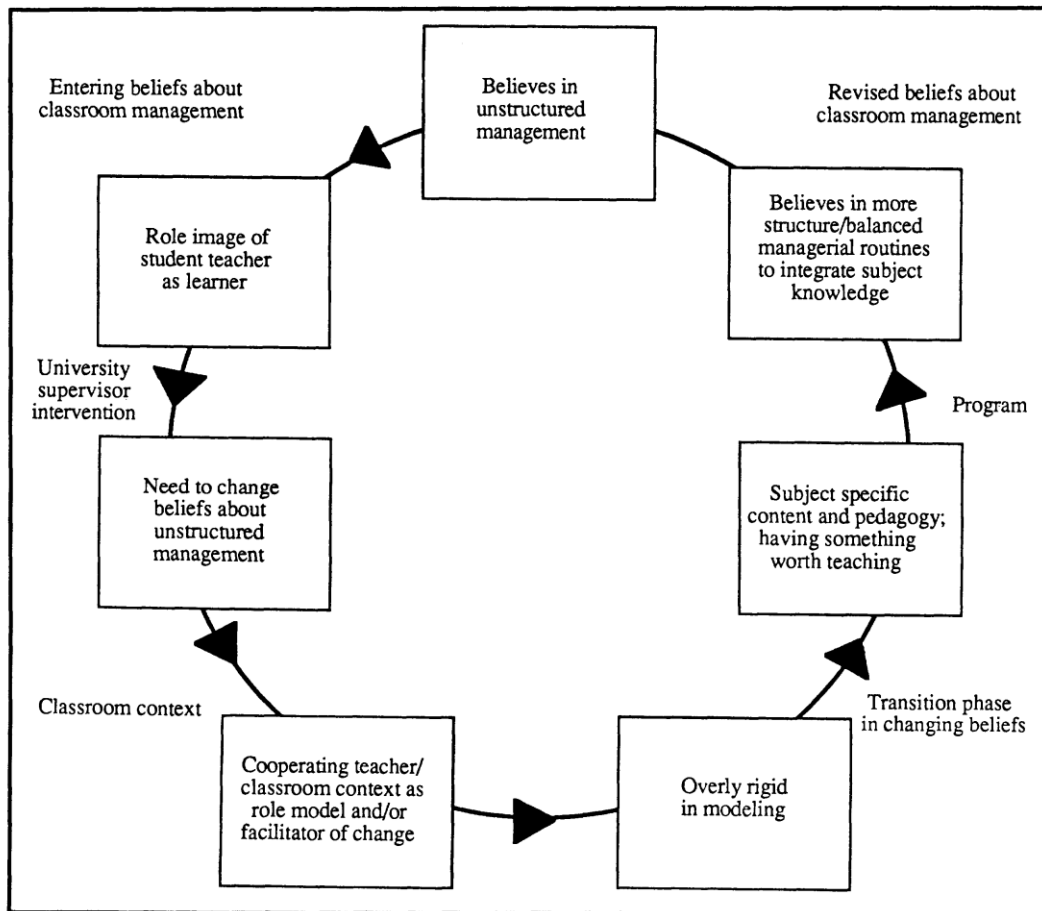
Figure A1: Hollingsworth's Model of Learning General Classroom Management.
Source: S. Hollingsworth. (1989). Prior beliefs and cognitive change in learning to teach.
American Educational Research Journal, 26(2), p. 174. Used with permission.

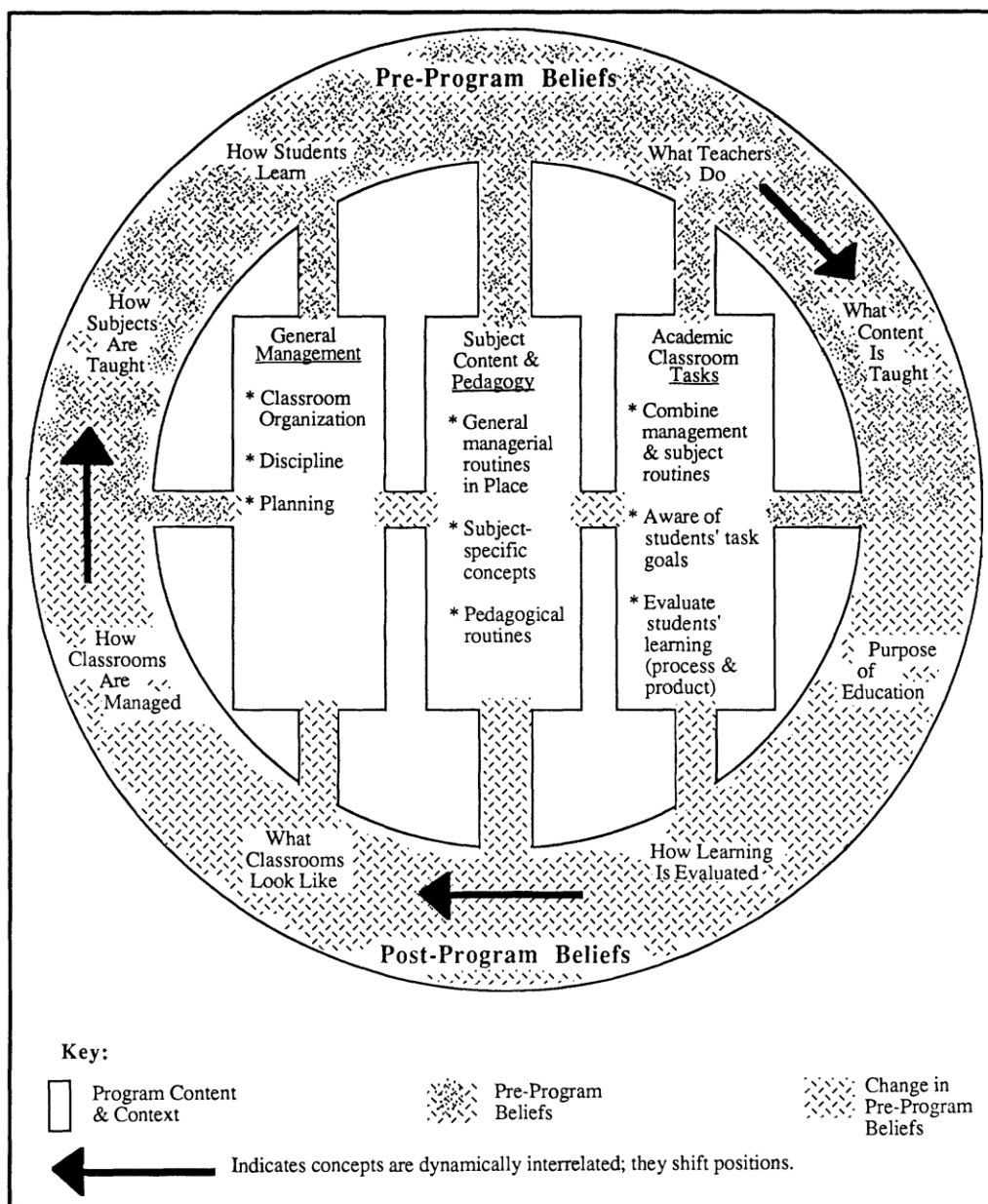Appendix B: A Model of Learning to Teach

Figure B1. Hollingsworth's (1989) Model of Learning to Teach.
Source: S. Hollingsworth. (1989). Prior beliefs and cognitive change in learning to teach.
American Educational Research Journal, 26(2), p. 169. Used with permission.

Appendix C: Dimensions of Reflection

1. RAPID REFLECTION	Immediate and automatic Reflection-in-Action
2. REPAIR	Thoughtful Reflection-in-Action
3. REVIEW	Less Formal Reflection-on-Action at a particular point in time
4. RESEARCH	More systematic Reflection-on-Action over a period of time
5. RETHEORIZING and RESEARCH	Long-term Reflection-on-Action informed by public academic theories

Dimensions of reflection.

Figure C1. Dimensions of Reflection
Student teachers in this study engaged in the first two levels of reflection, rapid reflection and repair. Source: Reprinted from *Reflective Teaching: An Introduction*(p. 47), by K. M. Zeichner and D. P. Liston, 1996, Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum. Copyright 1996 by Routledge Taylor & Francis. Permission pending.

Appendix D: Two Well-known Phenomenological Approaches

Table D1

A Comparative Summary of Two Well-known Phenomenological Approaches

van Manen **Utrecht School** **Hermeneutic Phenomenology**	Giorgi: **Duquesne School** **Empirical Phenomenological Psychology**
Influenced by "human science pedagogy" and the Dutch movement of phenomenological pedagogy	Used the insights from phenomenological philosophy to develop a human science approach to psychology
Important concepts include description, reduction, essences and intentionality	Important concepts include description, reduction, essences and intentionality
Aim is to produce insights into human experience	Aim is to produce accurate descriptions of aspects of human experience
Focus is on the phenomenon (i.e. studying in subjects the object of their experience)	Focus is on the phenomenon (i.e. studying in subjects the object of their experience)
Outcome is a piece of writing which explicates the meaning of human phenomena and understanding the lived structures of meaning	Outcome is a general structural statement which reflects the essential structures of the experience being investigated
May use "self" as a starting point; relies on others and other sources (i.e. fiction and non-fiction, observations, etc) of data	May use "self" as a starting point; but relies mainly on others for data
Uses imaginative variation to help illuminate themes during data analysis	Uses imaginative variation to help illuminate themes during data analysis (i.e. "meaning transformations")
Uses less prescriptive methods of doing research	Follows a fairly strict method of data collection and data analysis
Is not inductively empirically derived	Is an empirical analytic science
Uses a literary and poetic approach	Uses a psychological approach
Has a strong moral dimension	Does not necessarily

Source: Ehrich, L. (2005). Revisiting phenomenology: Its potential for management research. In *Challenges of organizations in global markets,* British Academy of Management Conference Proceedings, pp. 3–4. Used with permission.

Appendix E: Student Teacher Consent

Dear Student Teacher,   September 2010

I am inviting you to take part in a research study to learn more about the influence of children/youth in the classroom on the development of your classroom management skills. This study will be conducted by Patricia Danyluk, Ph.D. Student. The title of the research project is:*The Influence of Children and Youth in the Classroom on the Development of Classroom Management in Student Teachers: A Phenomenological Inquiry.*

Your participation in this study is strictly voluntary. You have the right to withdraw at any time without penalty.

If you agree to be in this study, you may be asked to do the following:

1. Complete this consent form (you will receive a copy of this form for your own records)
2. Respond to two questions and submit one narrative piece of writing per practicum, (November 2010 and April 2010)
3. Assist the researcher and the classroom teacher to arrange an appropriate time for the researcher to observe during one of your lessons.
4. Assist the researcher and the classroom teacher to arrange an appropriate time to have the researcher conduct a brief focus group (30 minutes) with your students.

Participation in this study will involve a total of about three hours of your time. At the conclusion of each practicum you will be sent an e-mail asking you to respond to the following questions:

1. Based on your experiences during this practicum how do you believe the children or youth in your classroom assisted you in developing your classroom management skills?
2. Based on your experiences during this practicum how do you believe the children or youth in your classroom hindered you in developing your classroom management skills?

Narrative

You will be asked to provide at least one example that illustrates this experience from your practicum. Please be as descriptive as possible including thoughts and feelings you had at the time.

In addition, the researcher may observe and conduct a brief (30 minute) focus group in your classroom.

There are no known risks associated with your participation in this research beyond those of everyday life.

Although you will receive no financial payment for participating in this study, this research may contribute to a better understanding of the impact of children and youth on the development of classroom management skills in student teachers, and it will most certainly inform our practice here at Laurentian University.

If you participate in this research by responding to the questions and submitting two narratives you will receive a certificate of participation for your teaching portfolio.

If you have additional questions or wish to report a research related problem, you may contact me at any time. My contact information is: Patricia Danyluk 675-1151ext. 3208, School of Education. If you have questions or concerns pertaining to the ethics aspects of the study, you can contact Jean Dragon Ph.D., Ethics Officer at Laurentian University at (705) 675-1151, ext. 3213.

Participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw at any time without penalty. Non-participation or withdrawal will not affect your grades or academic standing. Confidentiality of all research records will be strictly followed, and subjects will be issued pseudonyms. Non-participation or withdrawal will not affect grades or academic standing. Confidentiality of all research records will be strictly followed assuring anonymity throughout this project.

Only the researcher, her assistant and her thesis committee will have access to the raw data and participants will have an opportunity to read or change their narrative at any time during the research. All narratives and consent forms will be kept in a locked storage file, for five years, in the practice teaching placement office. They will be destroyed after five years.

Below, please print your name, email address and phone number where you may be reached locally if you're interested in being part of this study. Please return these forms returned no later than September 30, 2010, in the enclosed envelope to Patricia Danyluk, School of Education.

Sincerely,
Patricia Danyluk, PhD Student

Student Teacher Consent

I agree to take part in this research:

Name of Participant_____

Signature_____

E-Mail Address_____

Phone Number_____

Appendix F: School Board Consent

Rainbow
District School Board

69 Young Street, Sudbury, Ontario P3E3G5 ITel:
705.674.3171 IToll Free:
1.888.421.2661*rainbowschools.ca*

November 15, 2010

Patricia Danyluk
School of Education
Laurentian University
935 Ramsey Lake Road
Sudbury, ON
P3E 2C6

Dear Patricia Danyluk:

The purpose of this letter is to inform you that your Research Project Proposal entitled **"The Influence of Children and Youth on the Development of Classroom Management for Student Teachers: A Phenomenological Inquiry"** has been approved.

Recommendations:

- Recommend you reword question four as we found the negative question to be confusing and we think children will as well. Be aware that the presence of the teacher and this kind of questioning may lead younger children to think they are in trouble (if they have not been helpful). On the other hand, older students may not take this line of questioning very seriously in a group.

Rainbow District School Board permits you to contact the school principal in order to present your proposal. The principal has the final authority to allow research in his/her school.

All on-site data collectors/facilitators need a current criminal record check on file with my office prior to entry to any school.

The Education Research Council would appreciate receiving a copy of your completed research project so that we might ascertain its impact in our school system.

Sincerely,

Dr. Sharon Speir
Superintendent of Schools
Rainbow District School Board
speirs@rainbowschools.ca

Neil Debassige <neild@XXXXschool.ca>
PDanyluk@laurentian.ca
10/29/20102:10 PM
Re: Research with Student Teachers and the Children in their Class

i don't see any problem with that...

neil

On Fri, Oct 29,2010 at 9:34 AM, Patricia Danyluk <PDanyluk0>laurentian.ca> wrote:

Dear Neil,

Three of the four students coming to Lakeview for their Professional Year # 1 Placement are participants in my Ph.D. thesis research. Those three students are XXXX, XXXX and XXXX. I will also be doing this research in the Rainbow and Sudbury Catholic Board.

The purpose of the research is to determine how children and youth help student teachers learn about classroom management. The research consists of observation in the student teacher's classroom for one hour each and one 30 minute focus group with the children/youth in those classrooms. I've enclosed a more detailed research package. This proposal has been approved by the Laurentian Ethics Board. I've sent a more detailed ethics package in the mail. It should arrive next week.

Is it possible for me to visit, observe and talk to the children in the classroom at the same time that Yovita is doing her observation?

Sincerely,

Patricia Danyluk
PhD Student
Laurentian University
Patricia Danyluk
Practicum Supervisor

From: "Rossella Bagnato" <rossella. bagnato@scdsb.edu.on.ca>
To: PDanyluk@laurentian.ca
Date: 11/10/2010 2:20 PM
Subject: Fwd: research project

From: "Rossella Bagnato" <rossella. bagnato@scdsb.edu.on.ca>

To: PDanyluk@laurentian.ca

Date: 11/10/2010 2:20 PM

Subject: Fwd: research project

Rossella Bagnato
Superintendent of
Education
Sudbury Catholic District
School Board
165A D'Youvilie Street
Sudbury ON P3C 5E7

(705) 673-5620 ext. 300
(705) 688-1781 (FAX)

----- Original Message -----

Hello everyone
Patricia Danyluk is a researcher at Laurentian University who conducting a project
involving the student teachers at your schools. She has sent her credentials and police
check and her project has been approved through the department of ethics at LU . I
approve our schools involvement in this project.

She will be contacting you this week to give you further information.Participation is on a
voluntary basis. For each child that participates, Patricia will donate five dollars towards
class room books.

I have spoken to her at length and i trust that you will find the study very interesting.

Again it is your
decision

Thankyou
Rossella

Rossella Bagnato
Superintendent of
Education
Sudbury Catholic
District School Board
165A D'Youville Street
Sudbury ON P3C 5E7

Appendix G: Consent from Classroom Teacher

Dear Associate Teacher,   October 2010

My name is Patricia Danyluk, I am a teacher working towards my PhD. I am conducting a study onthe impact of children and youth in the classroom on the development of classroom management skills in student teachers.

This research may contribute to a better understanding of the impact of children and youth on the development of classroom management skills in student teachers, and it will most certainly inform our practice here at Laurentian University.

I am requesting your permission to visit your classroom twice during your student teacher's placement. The purpose of the first visit is to observe one lesson delivered by the student teacher. The purpose of the second visit is to conduct a brief focus group (15-30 minutes) with the children and youth in the classroom to gather their opinions.

Your agreement to participate in this study is strictly voluntary. You have the right to withdraw at any time. Although I am a teacher, I would appreciate your presence in the classroom during the research. This research may contribute to a better understanding of the impact of children and youth on the development of classroom management skills in student teachers, and it will most certainly inform our practice here at Laurentian University.

I will observe from the back of the classroom and will take written notes. An assistant may help me take notes. No audio or video recording will occur. I will record their responses on flipchart paper in front of them. The names of student teachers, classroom teachers and students will not be identified and instead they will be given a pseudonym.

During the focus group I will ask the children/youth:

1. Did you help (student teacher) with her/his teaching?
2. How did you help her?
3. How do you know you helped her
4. How did you not help her with her teaching?
5. How did you know that wasn't helpful?

There are no known risks associated with your participation in this research beyond those of everyday life. If you have additional questions or wish to report a research related problem, you may contact us at any time. My contact information

is:Patricia Danyluk -675-1151 ext. 3208, School of Education, Laurentian University, Sudbury, Ontario. If you have questions or concerns pertaining to the ethics aspects of the study, you can contact Jean Dragon PhD., Ethics Officer at Laurentian University at (705) 675-1151, ext. 3213 or write to jdragon@laurentian.ca

Participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw at any time without penalty. Non-participation or withdrawal will not affect your grades or academic standing. Confidentiality of all research records will be strictly followed, and subjects will be issued pseudonyms only the researcher, her assistant and her thesis committee will have access to the raw data. All data and consent forms will be kept in a locked storage file, for five years, in the practice teaching placement office. They will be destroyed after five years.

Below, please print your name, email address and phone number where you may be reached locally if you agree to being part of this study. Please return the forms in the enclosed envelope to Patricia Danyluk, School of Education no later than October 15, 2010.

Sincerely,

Patricia Danyluk, Ph.D. Student

Classroom Teacher Consent

I agree to allow the researcher to visit my classroom for the purpose stated above.

Name of Participant_____

Signature_____

E-Mail Address_____

Phone Number_____

Appendix H: Consent from Parent/Guardian

Observation and Focus Group

Dear Parent/Guardian   September 2010

       I am Ph.D. Student at Laurentian University and a teacher. I am requesting your permission to observe one lesson delivered by a student teacher and allow your child to participate in a brief focus group about student teachers for a research project. Your child's teacher will be present at all times.

       This study will examine how children and youth in the classroom contribute to student teacher learning.

Title of Research Project
The Influence of Children and Youth on the Development of Classroom Management
 in Student Teachers: A Phenomenological Inquiry.

Investigator:
Patricia Danyluk (705) 675-1151 (3208)
pdanyluk@laurentian.ca

Why Am I Doing This Study?
This study will examine the role that children and youth in the classroom play in "teaching" student teachers. This study will use classroom observation (for one class period and one brief focus group (a total of 30 minutes).

What Will Happen During the Study?
I will observe, (for one class) in the interaction between the student teacher and the children and youth in the classroom.

I will conduct a brief focus group (30 minutes) with the children/youth in the classroom.

This focus group will consist of the following questions:
1. Did you help (student teacher) with her/his teaching?
2. How did you help her?
3. How do you know you helped her?
4. How did you not help her with her teaching?
5. How did you know that wasn't helpful?

There will be no video or audio recording of children or youth. I will be taking notes. An assistant may help me record notes. No names will be used. All comments will be attributed to a made up name. The classroom teacher will be present at all times.

Are There Good and Bad Things about This Study?
There are no known harms to being part of this study. I have designed this research to ensure minimal disruption to the classroom. As a teacher, myself I will attempt to make the focus groups fun for the children and youth in the classroom. The children and youth in the classroom may enjoy being asked for their thoughts about student teachers. This research will contribute to a better understanding of how student teachers learn.

Confidentiality:
Any information collected will be done so by hand. No names will be used. All comments will be attributed to a made up name. Only the researcher, her assistant and her thesis committee will have access to notes. All data and consent forms will be kept in a locked storage file.

Can I Decide If I Want to Be in the Study?
Participation in this study is strictly voluntary. You reserve the right to withdraw at any time without penalty.

If You Do Not Want Your Child to Participate
Participation in this study is strictly voluntary. Children who do not participate will be involved with regular class activities during the focus groups.

Problems
If you have additional questions or wish to report a research-related problem, you may contact us at any time. My contact information is:
Patricia Danyluk 675-1151 ext. 3208, School of Education
Laurentian University, Sudbury, Ontario.
If you have questions or concerns pertaining to the ethics aspects of the study, you can contact Jean Dragon Ph.D., Ethics Officer at
Laurentian University at (705) 675-1151, ext. 3213 or write to jdragon@laurentian.ca

Patricia Danyluk, PhD. Student

Parent/Guardian Consent

By signing this form,

1. I agree for my child to be present in a class where the researcher will observe (for one hour) while the student teacher is teaching.

2. I agree to allow the research to conduct a brief (30 minutes) focus group with the children/youth in my classroom.

3. I understand the classroom teacher will be present during observation and the focus group.

4. I understand that my child has the right to refuse to take part in this study and that I have the right to refuse to take part in this study. I also have the right to withdraw from this part of the study at any time.

5. I have read and understand pages one and two of this consent form.

I agree that my child can participate in this study:

Name of Parent_____   Signature and Date_____

Appendix I: Assent from Child/Youth Grades 4–10

September 2010

Dear Student,

I am a student from Laurentian University. I am trying to learn more about how children and youth help student teachers learn.

I would like to ask you and your classmates (in a group) a few questions about having a student teacher in your classroom.

Can I Decide If I Want to Be in the Study?
You don't have to participate, it is up to you. You can withdraw at any time. Your teacher will be in the classroom during the questions. You can write or draw your answer to the questions if you prefer.

Confidentiality
Your name will not be used. No pictures or recordings of you will be made.

Patricia Danyluk, PhD Student

If you want to participate sign below:

Yes, I would like to participate:

Signature and Date_____

Appendix J: Assent from Child Grades K–3 (To Be Read Aloud)

September 2010

Dear Student,

I would like to ask your class some questions about how you helped your student teacher.

You do not have to answer the questions, if you do not want to. You can choose not to participate. If you do not wish to participate you will remain in the class with your teacher.

 You can write or draw pictures to answer the questions.

Patricia Danyluk, PhD. Student

Yes, I would like to participate:

 Signature _____

 Date_____

Appendix K: Recruitment Script

(to be presented at a session that does not have any connection to placements)

Dear student teachers,

I am working towards my PhD and planning to conduct my research over the next year. The title of my research is *The Influence of Children and Youth on the Development of Classroom Management for Student Teachers: A Phenomenological Inquiry.*

You do not have to participate in this research. You participation or non participation will not affect your placements as all placement have already been requested. Nor will it affect your grades in this program. If you feel there is a conflict of interest between my role at the School of Education and my role as a research, you may speak to Dr. George Sheppard about the conflict and he will help you.

The research will be conducted as follows:

I will observe your interactions with the children and students in the classroom for one class. I am not evaluating your teaching and do not have any authority in the evaluation of your practicum. If you are uncomfortable at any time, you can simply say stop and I will stop observing.

A week later, I will conduct focus groups (one hour) with the children and youth in your classroom. You will be asked to leave the room during the focus group but the associate teacher will be present. A research assistant may take notes while I am conducting the focus groups.
At the end of your practicum you will be asked to respond in writing to the following two questions and provide a brief (1–5 pages) narrative.

1. Based on your experiences during this practicum how do you believe the children or youth in your classroom assisted you in developing your classroom management skills?
2. Based on your experiences during this practicum how do you believe the children or youth in your classroom hindered you in developing your classroom management skills?

Narrative

Provide at least one example that illustrates this experience from your practicum. Please be as descriptive as possible including thoughts and feelings you had at the time.

After analysis of the narratives, I will e-mail participants a summary of my findings. Participants can then respond if they would like to see changes.

Everyone is invited to participate. All narratives collected will be include in the study but only eight classrooms will be visited. If your classroom is chosen for a visit, I will inform you the week before my observation. The classroom chosen for visits will be those with a consent forms from you, the student teacher, the classroom teacher, parents or guardians and assent from the children and or youth. If more than eight classrooms meet these criteria, I will choose those with the highest number of parental consent forms. If participants or classrooms drop out I will move on to another classroom that meets the criteria above.

Appendix L: Thesis Research Questionnaire

Dear student teacher,

Thank you for agreeing to participate in my thesis research. Please spend a few minutes completing the questions below and write a narrative response to the final question. **Return by e-mail by January 7, 2011.**

1. Name_____

2. Age_____

3. Sex_____

4. Undergraduate degree_____

5. Division_____

6. Teachable_____

7. Hometown_____

8. Describe your socioeconomic background?
_____

9.How do you feel about your K-12 school experiences?_____
_____

_____

10. What is your cultural identity?
_____

11. Do you come from a family of teachers?
_____

12. Why do you want to teach?
_____

_____

_____

13. What are your main perceptions of children and youth?
_____

14.Based on your experiences during this practicum how do you believe the children or youth in your classroom **assisted** you in developing your classroom management skills?

(expand for response)

15. Based on your experiences during this practicum how do you believe the children or youth in your classroom **hindered** you in developing your classroom management skills?

(expand for response)

Narrative

Please provide at least one example that illustrates this experience from your practicum. Please be as descriptive as possible, including thoughts and feelings you had at the time.

(expand for response)

Thank you