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‘Is This Student Voice?’
Students and Teachers Re-negotiate Power through Governance
Partnerships in the Classroom

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Abstract

A change in status for students to position them influentially as educational decision-makers with teachers is identified as a key dimension of student voice research and pedagogy. Despite over thirty years of student voice research and pedagogical practice, this change in student status remains problematic. Accountability agendas associated with neo-liberalism intermingle with student voice ideals contributing to contradictory purposes for, and in some cases diminutive instantiations of, student voice research and practice. This tension often renders student influence illusory, fleeting or difficult to sustain. Greater theorising of the power dynamics at work in enacting ongoing student influence in pedagogical and curriculum design, that also takes account of expectations and demands on teachers' practice, is called for. This research contributes to this challenge.

Three teachers and their Year Seven and Year Eight students within one intermediate school collaborated across a three-cycle action research project to identify and utilise student perceptions of effective teaching and engagement as a basis for co-constructing responsive and reciprocal pedagogy as governance partners. The teachers met regularly to plan and reflect on aspects of collaborating with their students, and to ensure that aspects of teacher voice were addressed in the process of enacting student voice. A student research group of twelve students drawn from the three participating classes provided ongoing reflection and insight into classroom power dynamics as the research unfolded.

Student/teacher 'governance partnerships' were enacted as a way to maximise student influence within classroom-based pedagogy and curriculum decision-making. A power analytic framework was developed to theorise the relationships between voice and power by mashing Lukes' three-dimensional theory of faced power with Foucault's micro-physics of power and theories of discourse and discourse analysis.

Three findings emerged from this research. Firstly, the research established that the vantage point from which student voice practice was experienced influenced how that practice was perceived. Teachers were more certain that their co-constructive action research work with students represented student voice in action because the students demonstrated behaviour teachers identified with

student voice. Participatory strategies enacted within the action research meant that student talk and reflection about their learning and themselves as learners increased. Teachers gained valuable insight into their students as learners as well as the efficacy of their teaching from this student talk. As teachers came to increasingly trust their students' contributions, students' thinking came to influence teachers' thinking and the student voice curriculum in the three classrooms.

Students from their vantage point were more ambivalent in their evaluation of these same actions. Although they appreciated having a say in deciding aspects of the classroom programme, they identified pedagogical decision-making as a clear responsibility for teachers who they perceived were professionally trained for this responsibility.

Secondly, the power analytic framework developed for the research illuminated visible and less visible aspects of how power dynamics influenced teachers' and students' action as governance partners. Persistent tensions between co-construction and accountability agendas meant that teachers and students were constrained in their student voice action by school expectations and macro accountability demands. However they were able to negotiate ways to address these constraints, largely in ways that accommodated rather than challenged them.

Thirdly, the shift in power dynamics between teachers and students in the research classrooms generated spaces conducive to the emergence of a student discourse on student voice. Students identified the importance of knowing and being known as learners by their peers, rather than being motivated to establish influential relationships with teachers. This student-student collaboration theme pushes back against adult-centric student voice discourses focused on increasing the influence of students in conventionally teacher-dominated decision-making domains.

Implications from this research suggest that although building student influence in classrooms as a means to elevate their status as governance partners with teachers is necessary, student voice practice and research needs to look beyond the classroom to bring taken-for-granted elements of school culture expectations, and how these constrain classroom possibilities for action, into the student voice agenda. Teachers and researchers need also to consider how their conceptions of student voice are imposed within the context of compulsory classwork on

students. The power analytic frame developed for this research may assist students, teachers, policy makers and researchers to keep the problematic nature of student voice in schools to the forefront as they plan, implement and critically reflect on classroom and school student voice initiatives to scaffold student influence within the educative process.

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Chapter One: Introduction to the Thesis

The project at the heart of this study was to promote student voice within classroom-based pedagogical and curriculum decision-making. On the surface defining student voice seems unproblematic. Student is a term used to signify learners within an educational context. Voice functions as a political marker to refer to the perspectives of a particular social group (Thomson, 2011). Its use implies a worldview, stance or standpoint unique to that group. So student voice research refers to research that is concerned with the perspectives of students as a social group.

However student voice is immediately problematized when its normative political dimension (Smyth, 2006b) is made explicit. As Thomson argues,

‘Voice’ is inherently concerned with questions of power and knowledge, with how decisions are made, who is included and excluded and who is advantaged and disadvantaged as a result. (Thomson, 2011, p. 21)

Student voice commentators advocate a change in status for students alongside educators as a reason for student voice research (Rudduck, 2007). Student voice theorising rests on the assumption that students and their perspectives have been under-utilised in the design of educational programmes, relationships, learning environments and conditions for engagement that address their learning needs and aspirations (Cook-Sather, 2002; Rudduck, Chaplain, & Wallace, 1996).

Educators and policy makers rarely invite students to contribute to educational debate, design and decision-making. Instead, educational decisions and pedagogical initiatives deemed in the best interests of students are implemented most commonly without student input or influence.

Where students have been consulted about their experiences of or perspectives on aspects of schooling, this has occurred largely once significant decisions have been made by educators and policy makers (Brooker & MacDonald, 1999). This prevailing adult-centric approach is predicated on an historic societal view of children and young people as immature and lacking rationality (Roche, 1999). However, a ‘new sociology of childhood’ (James & Prout, 1990) has emerged that challenges children and young people’s passive positioning and counter-positions them as active social actors with viable and unique insights to contribute in their own interests. This changing sociological view has influenced the rights children

and young people hold under current international legislation (Hagglund & Thelander, 2011). Most particularly the participation rights afforded children and young people within the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) (United Nations, 1989) to participate in decision-making around their own interests in all spheres of their lives including their interests as learners at school. In this thesis I take up this challenge.

Simply consulting students for their views is a commonplace but minimal enactment of student voice (Bahou, 2011) because, typically, it does not come with influence on decisions that are taken next (Lundy, 2007). Increasingly researchers and educators are exploring research and pedagogical design initiatives where students contribute as co-researchers and partners alongside adult researchers and educators (Thomson & Gunter, 2007).

A central aim of student voice in this expanded sense is to position students with influence and status to shape classroom practice, school initiatives, education policy and other educational projects (Rudduck, 2007). Such active involvement is argued to positively influence student engagement with learning (Finn & Rock, 1997), lead to democratic classroom practices (Pascal & Bertram, 2009; Shaw, 2010; Smyth, 2007), greater teacher understanding of students as learners (Kane & Maw, 2005; Nelson & Christensen, 2009) and school improvement (Rudduck, 2007). However this student influence has proved difficult to achieve (Rudduck, 2007). One reason for limited impact may be that many student voice research and school-based initiatives occur peripherally to the classroom and focus only indirectly on pedagogy to support student learning but not on matters of pedagogy (Thomson, 2012). For example students might participate in school councils to improve aspects of school culture and conditions for learning. The student voice literature includes comparatively little research into students' ideas on the development of individual teacher practice and whole-school learning and teaching policy (D. Frost & Roberts, 2011). Such research is necessary however if influential counter-positioning for students as governance partners with teachers that raises their status is to succeed (Thomson, 2011).

In this study I focused on how this counter-positioning might be achieved with a particular focus on power relations and how they might produce and constrain student influence and roles. In and through this research I develop and utilise a

power analytical framework to understand the power dynamics that influence teachers' and students' actions within classroom-based student voice initiatives. To date the relationship between voice and power has been under-theorised beyond a practical agenda for change (C. Taylor & Robinson, 2009). My intention within this research was to enact a practical agenda of re-positioning students with influence through classroom action research, but to also illustrate how power plays out within this process to influence the possibilities for teacher and student action. On this basis I locate the research within a critical paradigm (Gergen, 2003; Kincheloe, McLaren & Steinberg, 2011) as a partisan, political intervention, aimed at addressing the injustice of excluding students from educational debate, design and decision-making by positioning them as partners with teachers in classroom pedagogical decision-making.

In the next section I provide an overview of the New Zealand education setting to locate this research within its local context.

1.1 The New Zealand Education Context

This research was conducted in one New Zealand Intermediate School. Two-year Intermediate schools constitute one schooling structure for the young adolescent age group in New Zealand (ages 11-13 in Years Seven and Eight), although a handful of Years 7-10 middle schools exist and Years 7-13 schools combining Middle and Secondary provision are on the increase (Shanks & Dowden, 2013).

Schools in New Zealand have been managed by a Board of Trustees since the Tomorrow's Schools policy development in 1989 (www.nzcer.org.nz/research/impact-education-reforms). The Board of Trustees, including the Principal, a teaching representative and members selected from the parent community, govern with reference to a school Charter developed in consultation with the school community to address Ministry of Education National Education Guidelines (NEGs) and National Administrative Guidelines (NAGs) (www.minedu.govt.nz/theMinistry/EducationInNewZealand/EducationLegislation.aspx). School performance is audited against these NEGs and the NAGs by the Education Review Office (www.ero.govt.nz), an audit body independent of the Ministry of Education. Changes in national education policy priorities are enacted

through changing the NEG's and the NAG's, effectively altering the legal parameters and obligations of the Board of Trustees and the teaching staff.

In 2010 National Standards (www.nzcurriculum.tki.org.nz/National-Standards) were introduced into schools through an amendment to the National Administration Guidelines (NAGs) to provide benchmarks for national student achievement data in relation to nationally mandated targets in literacy and numeracy. National Standards were designed to promote increased levels of student achievement in Years 1-8 to eventually increase student attainment of Secondary Mathematics and English qualifications.

The *New Zealand Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 2007) provides the common national framework for the vision and focus for primary, middle and secondary education provision. Within this national framework schools also construct their school curriculum in consultation with their local community. The New Zealand Curriculum identifies five distinct learning pathways that represent a stage in students' education from early childhood through to tertiary education and employment:

1. Early childhood learning;
2. Learning in years 1-6;
3. Learning in years 7-10;
4. Learning in years 11-13; and
5. Tertiary education and employment.

In New Zealand children start primary school on or around their fifth birthday, many having come to school from early childhood education programmes. The school leaving age is 16. The 'learning in years 7-10' pathway is the pathway of central relevance to this research because the study focuses on enacting responsive pedagogy for the young adolescent age group. This learning pathway is the most recent, included in the New Zealand Curriculum for the first time in 2007.

Inclusion of the pathway represented an advocacy victory for the New Zealand Association of Intermediate and Middle Schooling (NZAIMS) (school principals and academics) to recognise the unique developmental profile of students in Years 7-10 (discussed further in Section 1.3).

Given this broad context for New Zealand education I now focus more specifically on how student voice is promoted currently within the New Zealand Curriculum.

1.2 Student Voice in the New Zealand Education Context

The *New Zealand Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 2007) can be seen to promote student voice in a number of ways that are relevant to this research. Firstly it defines dimensions of effective pedagogy by stating that students learn best when teachers:

- Create a supportive learning environment;
- Encourage reflective thought and action;
- Enhance the relevance of new learning;
- Facilitate shared learning;
- Make connections to prior learning and experience;
- Provide sufficient opportunities to learn; and
- Inquire into the teaching-learning relationship.

(Ministry of Education, 2007, p. 34)

Addressing these dimensions leads teachers to utilise integrative curriculum design approaches such as inquiry learning, and e-learning to establish relevance between school curriculum contexts and students' lives. Teachers are encouraged to "look for ways to involve students directly in decisions relating to their own learning" (p. 34) to enhance student ownership of their learning. Teachers are encouraged to take a research approach to teaching by finding out what is important to focus on given where their students are in their learning. The curriculum prioritises also assessment practice that improves students' learning and teachers' teaching. One of the identified characteristics of effective assessment that relates to student voice is that it involves students discussing, clarifying and reflecting on their learning goals and progress (Ministry of Education, 2007). Finally, the curriculum promotes five key competencies: managing self, relating to others, participating and contributing, thinking critically and engaging with languages, symbols and texts. Taken together these competencies develop students as 'confident, connected, actively involved, lifelong learners'.

Each of these aspects addresses an element of student voice but none of these turns student voice onto students' perceptions of effective teaching. This research addresses the student voice potential of the New Zealand Curriculum but extends the agenda for student participation into the domain of effective teaching for their learning.

1.3 The Student as a Young Adolescent

As I have mentioned the study was situated in Years Seven and Eight. Educators within New Zealand schools that acknowledge their Years Seven and Eight students as young adolescents draw pedagogical guidance from the New Zealand Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2007) and from the United States and Australian middle schooling communities. In this section I outline key developmental characteristics associated with early adolescence and tenets of middle schooling philosophy. I then outline how middle schooling philosophy relates to education in New Zealand and to student voice in particular, and how it influenced the conceptual framing of this research.

Early adolescence (ages 11-14; New Zealand schooling Years 7 to 10) is a key developmental transition second only to infancy in its complexity, growth and development (Kuhn, 2008; Nolan, Kane, & Lind, 2003). It is characterised by the onset of puberty for boys and girls (Thornburg, 1983), by individual difference in relation to timing for onset, and by an increase in specialised areas of expertise based on personal interest (Piaget, 1972). In addition to physiological growth and development young adolescents experience intense neurological growth and synaptic pruning as a process of brain maturation with emotional effects (Iglesias, Eriksson, Grize, Tomassini, & Villa, 2005). Consensus appears to exist among cognitive theorists that cumulative development throughout childhood culminates in greater 'executive control' (Klaczynski & Cottrell, 2004) or metacognitive functioning in early adolescence. This control is characterised as the learner's ability to deliberately reflect on their subjective experiences and increasingly extract decontextualised patterns, rules and insights; and apply these to unfamiliar problems and challenges in their life and schooling (Klaczynski & Cottrell, 2004; Kuhn & Pease, 2006; Moshman, 2005; Sloman, 1996; Williams et al., 2002).

Middle Schooling philosophy has developed to acknowledge and address these developmental challenges students in the young adolescent age group experience

through pedagogy (Beane, 2004). This is in response to an issue of student disengagement from learning at school in the middle years (Archambault, Janosz, Morizot, & Pagani, 2009) and to develop responsive pedagogy fit for the learner.

In the US, many of the principles of middle schooling relate to structural arrangements of schooling (small school, team and class sizes, interdisciplinary teaming, three or four year grade span and common planning time for teachers) (Beane, 2004; Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, 1996). If addressed comprehensively this focus has demonstrated a statistically significant influence on student learning, socio/emotional wellbeing and behavioural adjustment (Felner et al., 1997). Addressing student voice is argued also as a key tenet of middle schooling pedagogy (Beane, 1993; National Middle Schooling Association, 2003; Powell & Faircloth, 1997; Toepfer, 1997). Enacting student voice has been found to promote a shift in the locus of control over learning from teachers to students meeting their efficacy needs for “competence, belonging, identity, independence, and responsibility” (P. Bishop, 2008, p. 22) with subsequent correlations to achievement (Finn & Rock, 1997).

In the New Zealand context student disengagement is identified as an issue in the middle years that motivates New Zealand middle schooling philosophy (Dowden, Bishop, & Nolan, 2009; Shanks & Dowden, 2013). Education Review Office (ERO) reports into the education for Years Seven and Eight students (Education Review Office, 2001) and Years Nine and Ten (Education Review Office, 2003) identified pedagogical issues for this age group that contribute to visible indicators of student disengagement from learning – such as off-task and disruptive behaviour. The ERO reports found that these indicators were related to:

- Whole class teaching;
- Teaching to one curriculum level or ‘teaching to the middle’ rather than to the needs of students within some intermediate schools; and
- Classroom programmes in some full primary schools that do not explicitly address the needs of students as early adolescents resulting in disruptive and ‘off task’ behaviour.

The reports noted that a clear philosophy related to addressing young adolescent students' personal and educational needs and positive transition programmes generally indicated high quality education in a school.

The ERO report on education for Years Nine and Ten (Education Review Office, 2003) argued for “more avenues for students to have a say in what they are learning” (p. 23) and “[giving] students greater opportunities to have input into what they learn, how they learn, and [establishing] how well they learn” (p. 29).

At the time this research was conceived in 2008 a number of initiatives were underway within the New Zealand middle schooling community to advocate for middle schooling pedagogy to re-engage students to learning at school and to build pedagogical approaches optimal to the foci of students' developmental transition:

- A change in focus for the *New Zealand Association of Intermediate and Middle Schools* reflected in a name change to the *New Zealand Association of Intermediate and Middle Schooling* [NZAIMS]. The Association's focus shifted from advocating for middle schools to advocating for developmentally responsive pedagogy in all schooling structures that serve young adolescents;
- Advocacy for recognition in the final version of New Zealand curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2007) for the middle years as a distinct third compulsory education sector by prominent intermediate and middle school leaders and academics within the NZAIMS association (the middle years had been omitted in the draft curriculum document).
- An audit of teacher preparation for teaching in the middle years in New Zealand was undertaken by US middle schooling academic Dr Penny Bishop's on an Ian Axford Fellowship to the New Zealand Ministry of Education (P. Bishop, 2008). Implications from Bishop's research sparked a cascade of Ministry of Education research initiatives into effective pedagogical strategies for the middle years (Cox & Kennedy, 2008) a literature review on student engagement in the middle year (Gibbs & Poskitt, 2010) and focus group interviews with young adolescent students and teachers about effective learning and teaching in the middle years (Durling, 2007); and

- Ministry of Education approval for a *Post Graduate Diploma of Education (Middle schooling)* delivered to practicing teachers in school cohorts.

Given the inclusion of the Learning in Years 7-10 pathway in the New Zealand Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2007) and the largely adhoc school-based in-service teacher preparation focus in the middle years in New Zealand, I identified that it was timely to conduct classroom-based research that would involve students centrally as partners with their teachers to shape what effective New Zealand middle schooling pedagogy might look like. I also viewed this research as an opportunity to explore how students could be involved centrally in the professional development of teachers as influential contributors to this process.

1.4 Personal Perspective

My focus on student voice began as I developed my Master of Education thesis proposal in 2003. Two pieces of research caught my attention; one shattered my existing paradigm around the potential of students to contribute to thinking on educational debate and design firstly, and the second suggested a methodological journey from which I have yet to emerge. In the first instance Rudduck, Chaplain and Wallace (1996), writing in the UK school improvement literature, suggested that teachers and professional development personnel spend considerable amounts of time and effort meeting together to work out what would improve student learning and achievement without thinking to ask students what this might look like. This statement shattered my worldview and I experienced a paradigm shift. As a class teacher I had engaged with negotiated curriculum approaches with my students; as an adviser to schools I had worked with teachers on curriculum integration projects that involved teachers listening to student questions and concerns in order to construct responsive curriculum. However in both these roles I had never entertained the idea that students had something to teach teachers about pedagogy and school improvement.

Drawing on my professional development experience I originally was intending to focus my M.Ed. research on exploring teacher voice as a starting point for improving pedagogy. I was introduced to auto-photography (E. Taylor, 2002) as a data generation strategy for shifting power in the research relationship from the researcher to the participant. With auto-photography participants generate images that represent their views and perspectives on topics of interest to a particular

research project. They also lead the exploration of the images they construct through photo elicitation interviews (Clark-Ibanez, 2004). In a moment of synchronicity my M.Ed. Supervisor suggested that auto-photography might work as a methodological approach to elicit student voice as well as teachers' philosophies in a project he was designing. His suggestion sparked my exploration into student voice research and ultimately led to a shift in my focus from teacher voice to student voice through image-based research methods (Nelson, 2006).

What I found frustrating as the researcher in my master's research was that I built up a valuable understanding of my student co-researchers as learners and young people. However it was their teachers who would have benefited most from this knowledge. The class teachers who played an organisational liaison role in this research expressed surprise and excitement at the ways in which their students who were participating in the research were sharing cogent and insightful thoughts about learning and teaching. The teachers began to adapt and utilise some of the visual research methods and research questions pedagogically within their own classes outside of the realms of my research. These teachers changed their teaching practice in response to what they learnt from their students and in ways that better addressed the preferences of their students. They perceived their students' preferences as valuable and informative to their development as responsive teachers. What I found puzzling as the researcher was finding a way to bring teachers and students together to learn with, from and about each other whilst acknowledging the power relation that all too often silences engagement between students and teachers through fear of censure.

After my Master's research my research focus as an independent researcher shifted from consulting students to looking for ways to build dialogic student and teacher interaction around pedagogical questions of importance to both, utilising visual research methods (Nelson & Christensen, 2009; Nelson, Christensen, & Cleary, 2008).

In this doctoral study, while I am committed to student voice research and take the view that more student participation in decisions about learning and teaching enriches both students' and teachers' learning, I adopt Butler's (2000) position around reflexivity: that I can be committed to the project of student voice whilst still engaging critically with it conceptually, in practice and in my practice of it.

As Butler contends “to question a form of activity or a conceptual terrain is not to banish or censure it; it is, for the duration, to suspend its ordinary play in order to ask after its constitution” (Butler, 2000, p. 264). This stance is based on my concern with unproblematised conceptions of student voice. Hearing colleagues tell me “yes we’ve got the student voice on this” caused me to think about the purposes for student voice in schools and the positioning of students within student voice initiatives.

However, in contrast to research findings that suggest teachers hold mixed responses to student voice (Fox, 2013; Roberts & Bolstad, 2010; Rudduck, 2007), teachers I have worked with over the years to enact increased student voice in their class programmes have shared their excitement with the insights of their students. However these teachers have also shared their caution “you couldn’t do this with a whole class Emily”. Those teachers who have enacted student voice beyond survey and one-off consultation wrestle with what is involved in changing an educational system that is designed to operate well without student voice, with educators making decisions on behalf of students rather than with them.

1.5 Aims of the Research

This research addresses the issues related to enacting student influence in pedagogical decision-making identified in this chapter. In this respect three aims underpinned the study:

1. To shift students’ status in relation to teachers by increasing their participation in pedagogical decision-making in classrooms;
2. To position students influentially in the professional learning of teachers as responsive middle years’ practitioners by engaging students and teachers in dialogic interaction around what might count as effective pedagogy and conditions for student engagement in learning at school; and
3. To problematise the relationship between student voice and its enactment as an instantiation of power.

In this respect this research combines research with teacher professional development, an approach that has been utilised similarly by other researchers working in in-service contexts (Bell & Cowie, 2001).

1.6 Structure of the Thesis

Chapter One introduced the key foci of the study, and contextual factors of the project as New Zealand research.

Chapter Two outlines the student voice literature and the key arguments and issues in the field relevant to enacting student voice in classrooms that shift student status to governance partners with teachers. This chapter also sets out the research questions for the study.

Chapter Three outlines the conceptualisation of power adopted for this research. This conceptualisation is applied to the data of the study to examine how power conditions possibilities for teacher and student action within classroom-based student voice initiatives. This chapter adds to the research questions for the study.

Chapter Four presents the methodology and research design for the study as well as describing its enactment. This chapter represents the intervention I proposed to assist teachers to scaffold students' influence in pedagogical decision-making through a collaborative action research design.

Chapter Five outlines the participating teachers' perceptions of effective teaching and student voice for the young adolescent age group at the outset of the research, before they began deliberately to focus on enacting student voice with their classes. With this focus the chapter addresses Research Question One.

Chapter Six presents initial student voice data around student perceptions of effective teaching and the conditions they identify as important for their engagement in learning at school. This chapter addresses Research Question Two.

Chapter Seven describes how the participating teachers responded initially to the students' perceptions of effective teaching and the conditions they identified as important for their engagement in learning at school. The data presented in this chapter partially addresses Research Question Three.

Chapters Eight, Nine and Ten present data from the three class action projects as three class case accounts. Collectively, along with Chapter Seven, these chapters address Research Question Three.

Chapter Eleven illustrates, examines and discusses how power conditioned teacher and student action within the three class action projects described in Chapters Eight, Nine and Ten. It addresses Research Question Four.

Chapter Twelve outlines the contribution of this research to the student voice field. It addresses Research Question Five and re-states the answers to the other four research questions of the study. The chapter identifies implications of the findings of the study for school-wide professional development and for policy makers. It also identifies limitations of the research and implications for further research.

Chapter Two: Student Voice: Definitions, Discourses, Purposes and Practices

One over-arching question encapsulates the focus of student voice research and practice over the past thirty years: “what would happen if we treated the student as someone whose opinion mattered?” (Fullan, 1991, p. 170). In this chapter I review major research and pedagogical practice trends in the student voice field by tracing how definitions, discourses, purposes and practices of student voice have developed and evolved as researchers and educators have worked to address this underpinning question. Firstly I explore why the inclusion of students and their perspectives are advocated for within the educational context by outlining five key discourses of student voice that underpin research and pedagogy in the field. Against this backdrop I then trace how definitions of student voice have developed over time. Together these definitions and discourses influence how student voice is enacted as research and practice in educational contexts. I then delineate the New Zealand student voice field and its particular influencing discourses and purposes. In so doing I set out the topography for student voice that researchers, educators and students navigate as they work to enact particular student voice practices in the New Zealand education context. I then shift levels and explore purposes schools address as they work to enact student voice as well as the purposes students emphasise when they are consulted and involved in student voice initiatives. I then explore the mutually constitutive nature of the student/teacher pedagogical relationship and the implications this has for student voice practice, namely locating student voice research and practice within the student/teacher relationship in the classroom and necessary attendance to teacher voice and teacher learning as part of enacting student voice. I then examine the increasing dissatisfaction within the student voice field with notions of power that dichotomise teachers as powerful and students as powerless and explore other power theorising emerging to address the complexities of student voice in contemporary social contexts. Having outlined and reviewed these aspects of the student voice field I draw the threads of the chapter together and propose a definition of student voice for this thesis as student/teacher governance partnerships focused on co-constructing responsive and reciprocal pedagogy and curriculum in the classroom. I draw on theorising in the field to position student/teacher governance partnerships as a way to scaffold student influence and

status in relation to teachers and to address teacher voice and learning. I conclude the chapter by outlining key research questions that emerge from the literature review and focus the study.

2.1 Advocating Student Inclusion

In this section I present the arguments raised by student voice proponents for the inclusion of students in educational debate, design and decision-making. These arguments are linked to justifying discourses of student voice and I use these to organise the section. Within a consideration of these justifying discourses I also identify how definitions of student voice have changed over time from notions of student consultation through to contemporary attempts to construct ongoing dialogic interaction between teachers and students as a matter of social justice.

This literature review takes as its starting point the emergence of the ‘new wave’ student voice movement (Fielding, 2004a) in the late 1980s. New wave student voice promoted the inclusion of students and their perspectives in the processes of educational debate, design and decision-making largely as a democratic project to alter the status of students alongside teachers and other educators (Fielding, 2004a). Historically students have been excluded from educational design, debate and decision-making on the basis that they lacked the capacity and maturity necessary to understand their best interests (Cook-Sather, 2007). However counter-arguments for the inclusion of students in this traditionally adult governance domain can be linked to a number of predominant discourses. Foucault (1972) defines discourse as a limited number of statements that are referred to repeatedly around a particular concept. These statements, linked to each other, regulate practice by providing the grounds for what represents ‘truth’ in that context. In this way discourses are social practices (Gee, 2012) that construct the field through the possibilities for practice they make available. I use the term discourse in this way in this thesis and develop the definition further in Chapter Three (section 3.2).

Within the student voice field, advocacy for student inclusion in educational debate, design and decision making can be linked to five main justifying discourses:

1. Student voice as a unique student standpoint;

2. Student voice as enhanced learning;
3. Student voice as the missing element of school improvement/reform;
4. Student voice as social justice; and
5. Student voice as colonised neo-liberal discourse.

In this section I introduce the definitions, key justifying beliefs, and research and pedagogical practices associated with instantiations of student voice in each of these five discourses. I separate these discourses for the purposes of illustrating each but in practice student voice researchers and educators often reference their work concurrently to more than one of these discourses.

I have ordered these student voice discourses according to the order of magnitude of their focus; from the micro-level individual student, and their relationships with classroom learning and their teacher, to their meso-level relationship with schooling through to macro level social justice discourses and discourses associated with the broader societal project of neo-liberalism that pervades education policy currently (Czerniawski, 2012).

2.1.1 Student voice as unique standpoint discourse

Student voice as a unique student standpoint discourse positions students as ‘expert witnesses’ on their lives and experiences of schooling (Flutter & Rudduck, 2004; Hadfield & Haw, 2001). The key justifying belief of this discourse is that “it cannot be tenably claimed that schooling is primarily intended to benefit students if students’ own views about what is beneficial to them are not actively sought and attended to” (McIntyre, Pedder, & Rudduck, 2005, pp. 597-598). Proponents make the argument that only students experience schooling as it is designed and enacted (Cook-Sather, 2002; Smyth, 2006b). As Toshalis and Nakkula (2012) note by the time US students reach the end of their secondary education they will have “devoted over 12,000 hours of seat time to observing classroom decision making ... you can bet they have opinions about what they have received” (p. 25). Mitra (2009b) frames her student voice research in the US context on the belief that “students possess unique knowledge and perspectives about their schools that adults cannot fully replicate [and they] have access to information and relationships that teachers and administrators do not” (p. 819).

Research and pedagogical practice underpinned by a unique standpoint discourse includes “activities that encourage reflection, discussion, dialogue and action on

matters that primarily concern students, but also, by implication, school staff and the communities they serve” (Fielding, 2004a, p. 199). Examples of teachers and researchers attending to the unique standpoint of students include teachers’ increased attendance to questions and topics important to students within curriculum design (Lincoln, 1995).

Although the student voice as a unique standpoint discourse is pervasive within the student voice field (Burke, 2007; Cook-Sather, 2002, 2007, 2010; P. Johnston & Nicholls, 1995; Mitra, 2008b; Oldfather, 1995; Roberts & Bolstad, 2010; Smyth, 2007; Yonezawa & Jones, 2009) it is critiqued on the basis that it equates experience and identity with knowledge, leading to ever decreasing specialisations of who ‘voice’ represents (Gallacher & Gallagher, 2008; Moore & Muller, 1999). However this critique assumes equal representation of differing worldviews and an even playing field of power (Arnot & Reay, 2007) which is paradoxical in that the emergence of the student voice field was initiated by the absence of students and their perspectives within educational debate and decision-making processes. Caution is also raised about the risk of ‘essentialising’ student experience and masking difference between students within the same social group thus silencing difference (Silva & Rubin, 2003). It also does not take account of the ways in which voice is constructed in dialogue with other voices and inflected with broader discourses of particular social cultures (Cook-Sather, 2007).

2.1.2 Student voice as enhanced learning discourse

Student voice is argued as a way to enhance student learning (P. Bishop & Downes, 2008; Ferguson, Hanreddy, & Draxton, 2011; K. Johnston & Hayes, 2007; Lincoln, 1995; Smith, 2002; Smyth, 2007). Whilst no causal data has been generated to show that student voice causes or results in improved learning (Flutter, 2006), the qualitative data generated by teachers’ voices (Downes, Nagle, & Bishop, 2010) as well as students’ voices (B. Morgan, 2009; Rudduck, 2007; Shultz & Cook-Sather, 2001) does show a strong link in the minds of classroom actors.

A plethora of research and theorising exists to guide teachers’ understandings of how students learn without consulting students themselves. However, Toshalis and Nakkula (2012) argue that when students are consulted by their teachers, they

come to believe they are respected and valued and they develop enhanced feelings of ownership and belonging to their learning context (Mitra, 2009b).

The student voice as enhancing learning discourse incorporate four themes: 1) student voice develops increased metacognitive capacity (Cook-Sather, 2010; Wall & Higgins, 2006) and is linked with activity linked with contemporary theories of learning, 2) active student participation in decisions related to their learning leads to greater student engagement in learning at school (Finn, 1989), 3) consulting with students about their learning preferences is a way to personalise student learning (Czerniawski, Garlick, Hudson, & Peters, 2010); and 4) student perspectives on learning and teaching facilitate greater teacher understanding of their students as learners (Ferguson et al., 2011).

From the metacognitive perspective Cook-Sather (2010) argues that the opportunity for students to reflect on their learning and themselves as learners involves students in a process of ‘translation’ where they come to understand themselves better as learners. Through this process of translation they become a new version of their self with the insights and learning they gained through reflection. Collins (2004) argues that as a result of this kind of involvement “students begin to gain more control and ownership of their learning and become self-reflexive” (p. 354) and that through this kind of student involvement “the understanding of the whole learning community is enhanced” (p. 354).

Student voice is theorised as constructivist (Burke, 2007; Cook-Sather, 2001, 2010; Ferguson et al., 2011; Lincoln, 1995). Constructivism conceptualises learning as a process of learners actively making sense of their experience either alone or in cooperative relationships with teachers and other learners (Biesta, 2005). The voice aspect of constructivism is the recognition of ‘multiple realities’ grounded in the personal experiences of individuals (Lincoln, 1995). These experiences can be incorporated into learning at school when teachers actively involve students in decision-making and sense-making of their experiences.

From the student engagement perspective of the student voice as enhanced learning discourse, active student participation in classroom decision-making, associated with student voice, is linked positively to student engagement with learning and identification with school important in preventing early school leaving (Finn, 1989; Finn & Kasza, 2009). Finn (1989) devised a participation-

identification engagement typology that identifies four levels of participation in school activities that are related to student engagement in learning and identification with school: (1) students responding positively to school requirements, (2) students showing class-related initiative, (3) students participating in extracurricular activities within the school, and (4) students participating in decision-making about learning. In my study the fourth level is most relevant and is identified as the highest level in the typology.

However, although student engagement at school is positively associated with academic achievement, the relationship may be indirect (Finn & Rock, 1997). Finn and Rock (1997), note in their summary of research on this area, that engagement results as an effect of participation. Students develop new skills and positive attitudes through participation, and in turn, receive reinforcement of these. They further note that one study in this area (Connell, Spencer, & Aber, 1994) with African American youth found significant positive correlations between emotional and behavioural engagement and educational outcomes for students.

One student engagement research example close to the design of this study was Kroeger et al's (2004) US photovoice and action research study with students labelled at risk. University researchers and classroom teachers used photovoice methodology with six middle school students to explore the question 'how can we be of assistance to these students?' The question was prompted by a desire to re-engage the students with school by deepening their feelings of belonging and relationships with teachers. The starting point for the teachers was to learn from the students what might engage them and what was important to them in their lives. The photovoice process engaged the students and teachers directly in dialogue around the students' photos and the themes that emerged. The teachers reflected on their pedagogy in light of the insights they gained from their students. Kroeger noted that as an outcome of the study "the participation levels of these students increased in the classroom over the course of the study and their academic performance showed gradual improvement" (p. 55).

Student voice research is positioned at the heart of the personalised learning movement in the UK (Czerniawski et al., 2010; Thomson & Gunter, 2007) and in New Zealand where it is a principle within a future-oriented learning and teaching

approach (Bolstad et al., 2012). Within personalised learning approaches students are positioned “at the centre of the education system” (Czerniawski et al., 2010, p. 8). Students articulating their learning needs and preferences are viewed as valuable data for crafting learning experiences that meet their personal needs and inform their teachers’ understanding of them as learners. Leadbeater (2004) conceptualises students as ‘users’ and ‘consumers’ of the education system where “service innovation is a joint production combining producers and consumers” (Czerniawski et al., 2010, p. 9). Leadbeater views personalised learning approaches as transforming education systems still linked strongly to nineteenth century mass production principles to twenty-first century notion of personalisation. Within personalised learning students move along ‘learning pathways’ across contexts of school, workplaces and other sites “at a pace that suits their abilities and circumstances” (Leadbeater, 2004, p. 7). Czerniawski along with others (Fielding, 2004a) cautions however that whilst personalised learning discourses aim to empower students as autonomous learners, the notion is also yoked to neo-liberal economic policy and runs the risk of becoming a ‘new orthodoxy’ (Fielding, 2004a).

The final aspect of student voice as enhancing learning discourse promotes student voice in the form of consultation and dialogue with teachers as a way to improve teacher learning and pedagogy, and as a flow-on effect student learning. Kane and Maw (2005) argue that teaching is only effective when it aligns with how students learn. Johnston and Nicholls (1995) noted it is particularly engaging when it resonates with students’ interests. Kane and Maw (2005) explored New Zealand secondary students’ perceptions of their learning and the conditions that supported their learning. They found that teachers gained more value from ongoing dialogic feedback with their students than from formal professional development opportunities. This finding resonated with prior teacher development and formative assessment research also (Bell & Cowie, 2001; Bell & Gilbert, 1996). Through stimulated recall interviews the students identified aspects of the teaching practice they experienced that supported their learning. Through engaging with their students’ feedback participating teachers transformed their teaching practice to take account of their students’ perspectives.

Summarising the benefits teachers gain from engagement with their students on teaching and learning Rudduck (2007) noted that for teachers, student voice can lead to:

- Increased awareness of young people's capabilities;
- The capacity to see the familiar from a different angle;
- A readiness to change thinking and practice in the light of these perceptions;
- A renewed sense of excitement in teaching;
- A practical agenda for improvement; and
- Confidence in the possibility of developing a more partnership-oriented relationship with their students.

(pp. 599-600)

These outcomes are echoed in Downes, Nagle and Bishop's (2010) middle schooling research focused on integrating student consultation into teacher professional development. Within the context of an annual summer institute the Vermont Middle Grades Collaborative includes a consultation strand where middle years students act as consultants to teachers on aspects of student engagement, adolescent development and curriculum design. Teachers who participated in the consultation strand noted that as a result of insights they gained from student consultants they changed aspects of their classroom practice, gained a greater appreciation of what was important to students and gained confidence to employ consultative practices in their classrooms with their own students.

2.1.3 Student voice as school improvement discourse

Student voice is also argued to contribute a 'missing' (Beattie, 2012) and vital dimension to school improvement initiatives. Within school improvement discourses students are positioned as primary stakeholders of schooling. Consulting students as primary stakeholders is argued as vital as they can offer insights into improving pedagogy and curriculum that adults by definition cannot access (Joseph, 2006; Rudduck et al., 1996). Conventionally educators spend a great deal of time and resources working together through professional development initiatives to explore ways to improve the quality of their teaching and improve student learning without asking students what this might look like (Cook-Sather, 2006a; Rudduck et al., 1996). Where they are included in decision-making this is often not until major decisions have been made by educators

(Brooker & MacDonald, 1999). Including students and their unique perspectives in school improvement processes disrupts the traditional one-way flow of pedagogical decision-making by adults (Cook-Sather, 2007) and acknowledges students' pedagogical content knowledge and expertise as curriculum theorists (Nicholls & Hazzard, 1993).

Rudduck (2007) argues that school reform is not about 'quick makeovers' but about "reviewing the deep structures of schooling that hold habitual ways of seeing in place" (p. 588). Part of reviewing these structures is looking for ways that schools can change to involve students in ways that are aligned with the opportunities available to them in their lives beyond school such as in the online communities to which they belong and participate (Lindstrom, 2012), to the funds of knowledge students bring with them to school (Gonzalez & Moll, 2002) and to engage with students' own insights about how to support their learning at school.

Despite the insights into school improvement students might provide as primary stakeholders, commentators warn that 'harnessing the yoke of student voice' to school improvement (Thomson & Gunter, 2006) can lead to the utilisation of student voice for instrumental purposes rather than democratic and empowerment purposes, masking the potential of students' contribution to their own education (Biddulph, 2011). Schools tend to engage in and with student voice research to address specific concerns they have about student learning related to pedagogy and school culture (Czerniawski et al., 2010),

concerns such as high levels of pupil disengagement with learning, particularly boys ... broad[er] interest in the notion of pupil voice and ... pupil consultation and pupil participation strategies as contributing to the development of a more positive learning and inclusive culture within the school. (p. 10)

Although inclusion of students in these matters may provide perspectives not available to educators any other way, findings from student consultation can also be co-opted to agendas other than adults learning from students (Fielding, 2007; Toshalis & Nakkula, 2012), agendas that entrench students' passive positioning as objects of research (Cook-Sather, 2007). Bragg (2007b) and others (Rudduck, 2007) noted that student voice initiatives for school improvement purposes do not necessarily align with early conceptions of student voice as a democratic project aimed at student empowerment and a shift in student status.

As part of this shift in the student voice field to active student participation in school improvement the ‘students as researchers’ (SAR) research genre emerged within the school improvement movement (Atweh & Bland, 2004; Collins, 2004; Jones & Yonezawa, 2009; Oldfather, 1995; Raymond, 2002; Thomson, 2012; Thomson & Gunter, 2007; Yonezawa & Jones, 2009). Thomson and Gunter (2007) argue that students participating as researchers “can devise and conduct their own inquiries into schooling” rather than being “the sources of data in projects which others implement” (p. 844). They argue for student voice activity of this nature as the most potentially transformative practice (Thomson & Gunter, 2006). In SARs projects students are trained in research methods and supported by adult researchers to investigate issues of concern to them within their educational context, including in some cases making recommendations from their findings (Thomson & Gunter, 2007).

In the United States a parallel focus on youth-adult research partnerships involves students conducting research related to their pertinent educational concerns in schools (Beattie, 2012; Jones & Yonezawa, 2009; Mitra, 2006a, 2006b, 2008b, 2009a; Mitra & Serriere, 2012; Yonezawa & Jones, 2009). However in these students as researcher genres students are predominantly involved in research projects located within schools but outside classrooms, peripheral to the site of “professional and research energy” (Cox & Robinson-Pant, 2008, p. 457) and the teacher/student relationship.

2.1.4 Student voice as a social justice discourse

Student participation in educational decision-making is argued not only as a way to take students seriously, but as a matter of social justice (Fielding & Rudduck, 2002; Lundy, 2007; Lundy & McEvoy, 2011; Lundy, McEvoy, & Byrne, 2011; Pascal & Bertram, 2009; Raby, 2008; Shaw, 2010). Research conducted within a social justice discourse is focused on enacting participation rights mandated for children and young people within international legislative frameworks, building democratic schooling and societies, and addressing agentic positioning for children aligned with contemporary sociological views of childhood (James & Prout, 1990). The underlying assumption of student voice as social justice is that “respecting children’s views is not just a model of good pedagogical practice (or policy making) but a legally binding obligation” (Lundy, 2007, p. 930).

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) (United Nations, 1989) has been identified as the catalyst for the ‘new wave’ (Fielding, 2004a) student voice movement of the 1990s (Rudduck, 2007). Article 12 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) obligates state agencies – including schools - to consult with and involve children and young people in decision-making pertinent to their interests and take their perspectives seriously (Lundy, 2007). UNCRC frames child agency as a right of childhood. This right of children to agency obligates adults to build child/youth capacity to form and share a view to address UNCRC minimum responsibilities (Lundy, 2007). Lundy defines building capacity as “sufficient time to understand the issues; access to child-friendly documentation and information; capacity building with child-led organizations; and training for adults to overcome their resistance to children’s involvement” (Lundy, 2007, p. 935).

The UNCRC Committee in its 2001 General Comment established a link between children’s human rights and their schooling:

Children do not lose their human rights by virtue of passing through the school gates. Thus, for example, education must be provided in a way that respects the inherent dignity of the child and enables the child to express his or her views freely in accordance with Article 12(1) and to participate in school life. (Cited in Lundy, 2007, p. 939)

However, possessing participation rights and having these rights honoured has been problematic for student voice in education contexts. Enacting student participation rights in New Zealand educational settings has proved difficult (N. Taylor, Smith, & Gollop, 2008). The latest UN Committee on the Rights of the Child (2011) report on New Zealand’s performance against UNCRC obligations notes with regret that, “the views of children are not adequately respected within the family, in schools and in the community” (p. 5) and awareness of the convention by teachers and others remains limited (p. 4).

One argument for why the UNCRC provisions have proved so difficult to enact is that children’s participation rights potentially undermine adult authority (Lundy, 2007). This is one reason cited for why the US failed to ratify the UNCRC (Kilbourne, 1998). Even within countries that have ratified the Convention there exists a gap between the intention of the Convention and the extent of implementation (Lundy, 2007). Commentators argue that UNCRC Article 12 is

“one of the most widely violated and disregarded in almost every sphere of children’s lives” (Shier, 2001, p. 108).

A poignant example of student voice as social justice discourse is Lundy, McEvoy and Byrne’s (2011) study with young children as co-researchers in Northern Ireland. In their study commissioned by Barnardos Northern Ireland, they engaged a Children’s Research Advisory Group (CRAG) to act as co-researchers to develop an ‘out-of-school hours’ educational programme for children in disadvantaged communities. The CRAG students participated in the development of research questions, methods, data analysis and dissemination of research findings. This was no small feat given that the student co-researchers had limited literacy and numeracy capabilities appropriate to their standing as Year One students. However, the commitment to working with students as co-researchers at all stages of the study was informed by a commitment to children’s UNCRC participation rights where the researchers applied the obligation to build children’s capacity to participate in matters affecting their lives to the research process itself.

Student voice as a social justice discourse includes a democracy aspect (Ferguson et al., 2011; Mitra, 2008b; Pascal & Bertram, 2009; Raby, 2008; Roberts & Bolstad, 2010; Shaw, 2010; Smyth, 2006a). Active student participation in educational design of their learning and the conditions of learning through research is viewed as proto-democratic practice. That is, research involvement both prepares young people for later active participation beyond school, as well as more immediate school-based democratic activity in the form of classroom-related local decision-making opportunities (McArdle & Mansfield, 2007; Roberts & Bolstad, 2010). However Rudduck (2007) cautions that democratic student voice work often focuses on preparing students to use their voice as future citizens “whereas what matters to students is their lives in schools *now*” (p. 590).

Commentators argue that democracy and student ownership of learning in schools lead to the development of schools as conducive for learning.

When schools are democratic places in the sense that students have genuine opportunities and spaces in which to air their views and to have ownership of their learning, then schools become places more conducive to student learning. (Smyth, 2007, p. 640)

From this perspective student voice research generates students' perspectives on their learning and experiences of schooling and identifies conditions for student ownership of their learning. In contrast lack of these ownership opportunities through student exclusion and lack of representation can result in student alienation from learning at school. Smyth and Hattam's (2002) research with early school leavers demonstrates how student alienation occurs. Through their interviews with students who had left school early they found that for some secondary students leaving school represents an expression of agency – a vote against participating in a school culture they consider irrelevant to their lives and educators not prepared to take account of their worldview.

Intertwined with rights and democratic notions are the changing sociological views of children in western society (Roche, 1999). Through the lens of 'new sociology of childhood' children and young people are positioned as agentic, active constructors of experience and knowledge (James & Prout, 1990), experts in their own lives and able to participate competently in negotiating their own interests. Children are viewed as 'beings' rather than 'becomings', or 'would-be adults' (Rudduck, 2007). This view is in contrast to children's exclusion from decision-making historically as lacking capacity, rationality and full citizenship (Cook-Sather, 2007; Rudduck & Flutter, 2000; Smith, 2002). This deficit positioning continues to conceptualise western youth as 'priceless' (Roche, 1999) kept within an extended childhood to meet social and economic agendas. Roche (1999) describes this as a 'modern childhood' view that "constructs children out of society, mutes their voices, denies their personhood, limits their potential" (p. 477). Rudduck (2007) argues that remnants of 'immaturity' and 'dependency' views of children endure in schools and get in the way of student voice possibilities. The new sociology of childhood involves "re-drawing what it means to be a child and what it means to be an adult" (Roche, 1999, p. 489) within western society.

In sum, student voice as social justice discourse addresses children and young people's human right to participate in their own interests; promotes student inclusion in classroom and school decision-making as democratic practice as well as developing their capacity as future informed and critical citizens. Students are positioned as active constructors of their experience and knowledgeable,

especially with capacity-building support from adults, to participate competently in negotiating their own interests.

2.1.5 Student voice as colonised neo-liberal discourse

In relation to the macro-level policy aspect that forms the context for student voice research and pedagogical practice, caution is raised about the increasing acceptance and promotion of student voice at an educational policy level in an education system characterised by neoliberal agendas (Bragg, 2007b; Czerniawski, 2012; Nairn, Higgins & Sligo, 2012). Student voice initiatives, linked with empowerment agendas on the surface, are susceptible to colonisation by neo-liberal education agendas (Fielding, 2004a). These neo-liberal agendas are characterized by an emphasis on external accountability – “ticked targets and prescribed pedagogy” (Fielding, 2004a, p. 198), student and teacher performance and lifelong learning for the purpose of producing enterprising and economically contributing citizens (Biesta, 2004, 2007). They also equate student ‘voice’ with student ‘choice’ where the underlying framework that constrains action is obscured (Fielding, 2004a).

Student voice practice from this perspective has been critiqued for its use as a form of ‘internal policing’ of teacher performance by and through students, potentially undermining teacher professionalism as those who make decisions about what constitutes effective pedagogy (Bragg, 2007b). Shifting responsibility for educational success onto students and teachers shifts responsibility away from the state and from structural arrangements that influence what is possible in classrooms (Bragg, 2007b).

Within a colonised neoliberal discourse, student voice has been promoted also as a consumer satisfaction practice. The consumer metaphor, imported from business settings is applied to educational contexts and processes (McMillan & Cheney, 1996). Students are positioned as consumers of schooling, influenced by a broader social discourse that equates choice with voice (Fielding, 2004a; Lodge, 2005). Consumer discourse in the UK is linked to the European Community’s consumer policy and a key theme within this discourse is ‘empowering the consumer’ (Brennan & Ritters, 2004); this includes students.

Student voice as colonised neo-liberal discourse critiques student positioning as consumers. This discourse identifies how the lines are blurred between

empowerment aims of student voice as learning, standpoint and social justice, and student voice as co-opted to neoliberal agendas (Czerniawski, 2012). Lodge (2005) identifies official OFSTED school review processes as a driver of student voice as consumer discourse. Students participate within school review to evaluate their education as “a kind of consumer satisfaction survey” (Lodge, 2005, p. 129).

Today’s western youth are increasingly distant from active economic roles within the household but increasingly involved in influencing consumption priorities and practices (Benn, 2004). Consumer education programmes within schools are promoted as a vehicle to empower and protect young people to make responsible choices as consumers within western capitalist societies (Benn, 2004).

These diverse student voice discourses that underpin practices of student voice have led some theorists (Bragg & Manchester, 2012; Thomson, 2011) to argue that student voice has become “almost meaningless ... an empty jug into which people can pour any meaning that they choose ... for any number of contradictory ends” (Thomson, 2011, p. 19). Czerniawski (2012) argues that the student voice field is under the influence of ‘two competing narratives’, one related to democratic education and student empowerment and the other related to market notions of accountability, efficiency and consumer competition. What makes navigating the field difficult for teachers and researchers is that the agendas and discourses within these that I have presented in this section can be located in both narratives, setting up a tension in practice. Educators’ student voice practices can be motivated by student empowerment ideals but become easily co-opted to accountability intentions, an idea developed further in this chapter.

2.2 Orientations and Positioning within Student Voice

In this section I explore how different orientations to student voice position students differently as objects and subjects, actors and influencers in student voice initiatives.

Early new wave student voice research and practice focused on consulting students to elicit and authorise their unique perspectives for the purposes of including students in educational design, debate and decision-making (Cook-Sather, 2002). However, despite these empowerment intentions, consultation

research as an orientation to student voice, all too often positioned students passively as objects and subjects of research (Rudduck, 2007). Researchers and educators gathered data from students, eliciting their viewpoints, but with little involvement of students beyond the data generation process (Lundy, 2007). Research and pedagogical practices such as these, paradoxically, risk entrenching inequalities of student access and influence that student voice research attempts to re-dress (Cook-Sather, 2007). For example Rudduck (2007) argued that although “consultation implies participation ... there can be participation without student voice, although it is probably diminished by omitting it” (p. 590).

Based on this critique of consultation and its predominant passive positioning of students, action emerged as a key dimension of and orientation to student voice where students participate as ‘actors’, not ‘acted upon’ (Cook-Sather, 2010). Cowie, Otrell-Cass and Moreland (2010) foreground the importance of action in student voice research where space is provided “for students to contribute to addressing issues raised” (p. 82). Within this action orientation Bragg and Manchester (2012) conceptualise student voice as “enacted and practiced rather than accessed” (p. 7). The ‘students as researchers’ movement, identified in the previous section, represents a strong portfolio of research practice underpinned by a notion of student voice as enacted student participation in research and decision-making related to issues relevant and pertinent to them. In other participation initiatives students have been involved in classroom and school-wide curriculum design (Brough, 2008; Tait & Martin, 2007) and informing pre-service teacher development (Youens & Hall, 2006).

A number of frameworks have emerged to guide students’ active positioning and participation in research (Flutter & Rudduck, 2004; Hart, 1992; Shier, 2001, 2006). For instance Hart’s (1992) youth participation ladder differentiates among voice initiatives based on the degree of their authenticity, or intention on the part of adults to afford children and young people influence in ongoing decision-making. He identified three ‘non-participation’ levels – manipulation, decoration and tokenism that can leave young people passively positioned and in some cases exploit students in the name of empowerment. At these levels young people’s views are used selectively by adults with no feedback to children on the outcomes of their consultation; young people are showcased in activities such as education conferences, performing and advertising the cause; and young people are

consulted but with no input into the agenda or how they would prefer to express their views. Rungs further up Hart's ladder focus on increasing degrees of youth initiation and leadership of research initiatives with educators and researchers. At the top of the ladder young people initiate projects and share decisions with adults.

Participation is primarily centred on including students in decision-making in schools. However Mager and Nowak (2012) argue that student influence through participation in decision-making depends on where their participation is located. In their meta-analysis of the effects of student participation in decision-making at school, they differentiate between classroom-level decision-making influence and school-level decision-making influence and between decisions that affect individual students and decisions that affect students as a collective group. They disregarded studies that involved students in one-off consultation and temporary working groups, as these participation opportunities proffered students less influence in what happened beyond initial decision-making. Rather they included studies where students were involved in ongoing dialogue with decision-makers. Their rationale for this was that participation in decision-making involved a sharing of power and should involve students having "some influence over the decisions being made and actions being taken" (Mager & Nowak, 2012, p. 40).

However participation has been critiqued as a potential 'tyranny' in its reliance on consensus building and participatory methods that are designed to illicit authentic local knowledge but are themselves exempt from scrutiny in the way that they valorise consensus but preclude the expression of divergent perspectives (Kothari, 2001). This has been a caution raised more generally within the student voice field around whose voices are consulted, who gets to participate and who is excluded (Thomson, 2011). However Kothari's caution turns the focus on examining issues of power within the methods chosen to facilitate participation, not only on how these position students but how they mask their influence on activity (Fielding, 2001a; Fielding & Rudduck, 2002).

Scaffolding student influence in research and pedagogy related to their learning is a contemporary orientation to student voice. Lundy (2007) contends that in many voice initiatives the dimension of influence for students is missing. She notes that to address their UNCRC participation rights children should be consulted,

(i) when decisions are being made which impact on individual pupils; (ii) when school and classroom policies are being developed; and (iii) when government policy/legislation on education is determined (p. 931).

The minimal levels of involvement of students to satisfy UNCRC obligations has informed further development of participation matrices to guide student voice research and practice within a rights frame. Shier's (2001, 2006) matrix (Figure 1) recognizes the process schools and organisation need to address to build capacity to develop robust and influential partnerships with students. His matrix is used to identify starting points but also aspirational destinations; it locates minimal enactment of UNCRC obligations between levels three and four on the matrix.

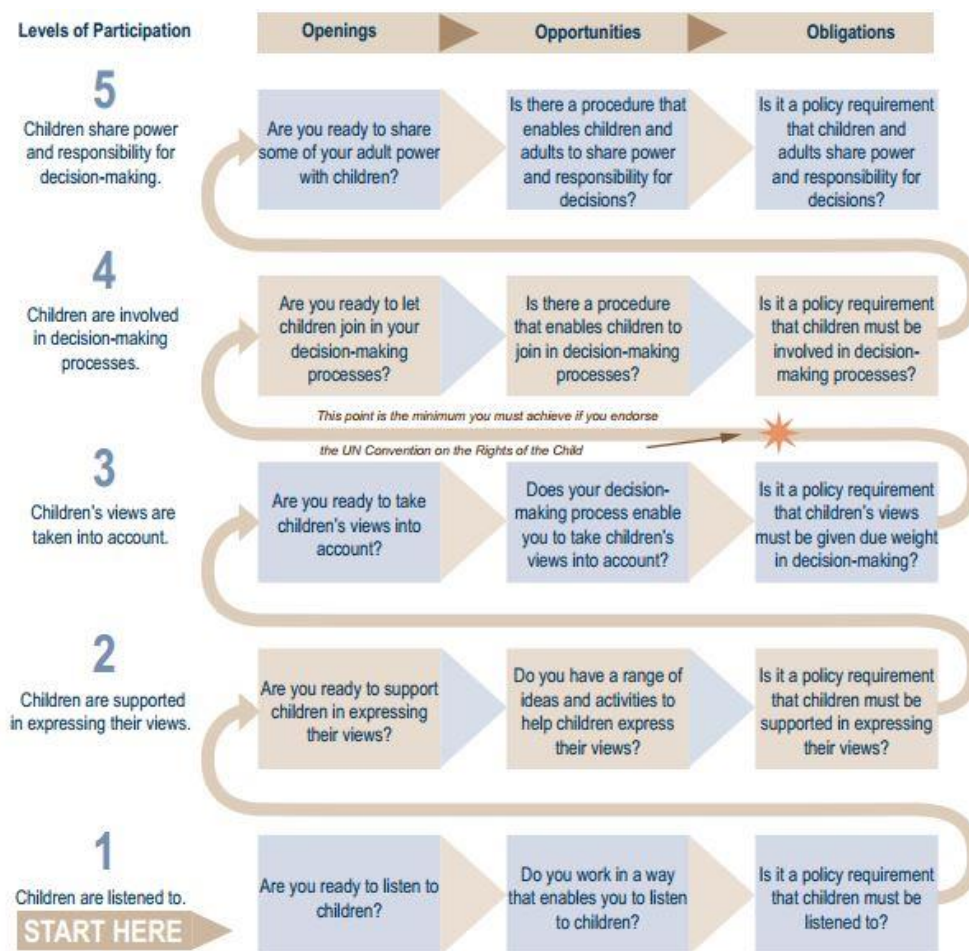


Figure 1 Pathways to Participation Matrix. (Shier, 2001, 2006) Reprinted with permission

Commentators who conceptualise what influence might look like define student voice as ongoing initiatives that,

strive to elicit and respond to student perspectives on their educational experiences, to consult students and include them as active participants in critical analyses and reform of schools, and to give students greater agency in researching educational issues and contexts. (Thiessen & Cook-Sather, 2007, p. 579)

When student influence through ongoing and dialogic participation is incorporated into student voice research designs student voice becomes a joint enterprise between students and adult educators, “youth and adults contributing to decision making processes, learning from one another, and promoting change” (Mitra, 2008b, p. 221). Toshalis and Nakkula argue (2012) that,

whereas most curricula and pedagogy seek to change the student in some way, either through the accumulation of new knowledge, the shifting of perspectives, or the alteration of behaviours, student voice activities and programs position students as the agents of change. In this way student voice is about agency. (p. 23)

From this perspective student voice initiatives become “pedagogies in which youth have the opportunity to influence decisions that will shape their lives and those of their peers either in or outside of school settings” (Toshalis & Nakkula, 2012, p. 23).

In this section I have demonstrated how definitions of and orientations to student voice have developed over time. Firstly I explored how notions of student consultation predominantly position students passively as objects and subjects of research. Secondly I presented the emergence of action orientations to student voice where students participate as actors in research and pedagogy in the enactment of student voice. Finally I demonstrated how the dimension of influence has emerged as an important consideration in contemporary student voice research and practice as a way to afford students the change in status underpinning new wave student voice. I have shown also that in order to afford students influence attention must be given to scaffolding their capacity to form and express a view, as well as deploy the skills and practices necessary to participate as decision-makers with researchers and educators.

2.3 New Zealand Student Voice Research and Practice

In this section I locate student voice research and practice within the New Zealand education context. I could have integrated this literature into the previous section

but because this doctoral research is New Zealand research, I wanted to clearly delineate the local field in which the research is nested, and to engage with the New Zealand student voice literature in light of the discourses and orientations to student voice identified within the international field.

In the New Zealand context student voice literature emerged in the early 2000s linked to children's rights discourses. Smith (2002, 2009) and Te One (2005, 2011), researching within the early childhood context, link their work to New Zealand's obligations under UNCRC. New Zealand ratified UNCRC in 1993. Smith and Te One use this commitment to assess how well educational policy and practices address the participation rights afforded all children and young people to participate in decision-making processes and be listened to in relation to all areas of their lives including education.

Young people themselves identify a need for better opportunities to represent themselves (N. Taylor et al., 2008). Young people involved in Taylor, Smith and Gollop's (2008) research that explored 14 and 15 year old's understanding of 'citizenship' found that students valued voice opportunities for the purposes of gaining respect and "the right to 'have a say', 'to be given opportunities to discuss issues', 'to be respected like an adult', 'to be listened to'" (N. Taylor et al., 2008, p. 204). Taylor et al note "New Zealand children see themselves as active agents in society, rather than just being acted upon by society" (p. 207).

The *New Zealand Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 2007) is a reference point cited as a mandate in NZ student voice research (Lovett, 2009; Tait & Martin, 2007). Although the document does not explicitly use the term 'student voice' it does promote student-centred learning and student decision-making around their learning (this was introduced in Chapter One section 1.2). *The New Zealand Curriculum* requires the development of a local school curriculum informed by stakeholders. New Zealand researchers have interpreted this as license to encourage student inclusion in curriculum development as community stakeholders (Brough, 2008; Lovett, 2009).

Reporting of classroom-based student voice research in NZ primary school settings is limited (Lovett, 2009). A number of school-level student voice projects in New Zealand have focused around advocating the value and veracity of students' views on their learning, local curriculum design and conditions to

support student learning. However these studies are rarely published but can be found on the Ministry of Education website www.tki.org.nz and individual school websites. In the middle school and secondary-school domains New Zealand researchers (Bourke & Loveridge, 2014; Kane & Maw, 2005; Nelson & Christensen, 2009; Nelson et al., 2008) have investigated the role students can play in improving teachers' practice (student voice as enhanced learning discourse). Nelson and Christensen (2009) used photovoice (Wang & Burris, 1997) to explore the perceptions held by students labeled at risk, about themselves as learners and their experience of school. The students' teachers were involved as the audience for the students to communicate their perspectives so that teachers' enhanced understanding of the needs of these students might inform and improve their pedagogy and relationships with these students. Teachers utilised these student perceptions to inform their classroom planning and to consider issues relevant to students through staff development sessions.

Seminal Te Kotahitanga research (R. Bishop, Berryman, Cavanagh, & Teddy, 2009) conducted with adolescent Maori students found that "children and young people are able to articulate and theorise the important elements of schools and teaching that both foster and stymie their willingness to engage and their sense of belonging in schools" (Kane & Maw, 2005, p. 313). More specifically the research identified the importance for Maori students of forming relationships with teachers where teachers valued the funds of knowledge students brought to their learning as a key support for learning (Glynn, Cowie, Otrell-Cass, & MacFarlane, 2010) (student voice as a unique standpoint discourse and student voice as enhanced learning discourse).

New Zealand student voice researchers link their work to the broader discourses outlined in section 2.1 but Hipkins (2010) notes that New Zealand teachers primarily engage with student voice more immediately through five pedagogical traditions, each with an accompanying 'voice' component:

1. Formative Assessment;
2. Inquiry Learning;
3. Student Leadership;
4. Self-regulation, Learning to Learn; and
5. Responding to Diversity.

I would add a sixth tradition (6) negotiated and integrated curriculum approaches (Brough, 2008; Dowden, 2007; Dowden et al., 2009; Lovett, 2009; Stewart & Nolan, 1992) as an aspect of middle schooling and school-based curriculum design related to the *New Zealand Curriculum* (Ministry of Education, 2007). Negotiated curriculum relates to the influence of curriculum integration projects in the 1990s and more recently (Fraser, Aitken, & Whyte, 2013).

Formative assessment (Bell & Cowie, 2001) links to constructivist views of learning that view learning as the connections students make in relation to their learning experiences (student voice as enhanced learning discourse). The ‘voice’ component is students speaking the connections and meta-awareness they increasingly generate as learners (Hipkins, 2010).

Inquiry learning pedagogies link to notions of integrated and negotiated curriculum (Beane, 1997; Brough, 2008; Lovett, 2009) and the voice component includes students’ questions and input into the scope and direction of classroom inquiries (student voice as enhanced learning discourse) (Hipkins, 2010).

Student leadership traditions link to education as a democratic practice (student voice as social justice discourse) (McNae, 2011). Self-regulation and learning to learn pedagogies link also to theories of agency and personal development (Smith, 2002) and are related to the increased focus on teaching students how to learn as part of implementation of the *New Zealand Curriculum* (student voice as enhanced learning discourse).

Responding to diversity relates to equity issues embedded in a commitment to all students having access to learning at school that meets their particular needs both personally and in relation to broader affiliations such as ethnicity, gender and educational needs (student voice as social justice discourse) (Glynn et al., 2010).

In summary, although student voice research is on the increase in New Zealand it remains focused on advocating access for students to debates around matters of learning and teaching and agendas of practical change (C. Robinson & Taylor, 2007; C. Taylor & Robinson, 2009). As sections 2.1 and 2.2 demonstrated, student voice debate in the international student voice community has moved on from advocacy for student consultation and participation to exploring the problematic nature of scaffolding student influence. The next section extends an

examination of student voice research on the basis of the purposes for which student voice is undertaken in schools related to a number of interests.

2.4 Purposes for Student Voice

The critique of whose interests student voice initiatives serve has focused the student voice agenda on the purposes for which student voice is utilised (Fielding, 2010). These purposes can be examined from two perspectives: 1) student voice purposes of teachers and schools and 2) student voice purposes of students themselves.

The multiple purposes that underpin student voice research projects within school-based student voice initiatives are made explicit in the seminal typology devised by Lodge (2005). She identified four purposes for student involvement in student voice projects:

1. Quality control – students give ‘consumer feedback’ for evaluative purposes;
2. Students as a source of information – passive consultation of students for the purposes of school improvement;
3. Compliance and control – views of students are taken account of but can be manipulated to address institutional aims or utilised tokenistically e.g. student quotations in school brochures; and
4. Dialogue – student/teacher mutual exploration of learning about learning that could not occur by one party alone.

(Summarised from Lodge, 2005, pp. 132-134)

To minimise exploitative student voice activities, Lodge promotes a dialogic approach to student voice where students and teachers collaborate around matters of learning, curriculum, pedagogy and assessment. Collaboration generates rich learning for both students and teachers.

Enquiry into curriculum, pedagogy, assessment and learning undertaken collaboratively by a small group of teachers together with young people is an exceptionally rich form of learning for each. (Lodge, 2005, p. 136)

Problematising the purposes underpinning particular student voice activities is necessary to resist the potential of student voice research to entrench and make worse existing inequalities around students’ positioning within these initiatives

(Cook-Sather, 2007). Lodge (2008) contends “there are some very tame, reductive, and exploitative notions of student voice in the UK” (p. 3). She argued this was in part due to agenda control - what students are allowed to contest and discuss within school improvement projects, for instance litter rather than changes to school uniform.

In addition to what students are allowed to contest, caution has been raised about whether involving students in critiquing matters of teaching and learning positions them as surveillance partners in processes of teacher accountability as was outlined in section 2.1. From this perspective the student/teacher alliance is distorted as “a way to discipline teachers as much as to provide students with real choice” (Bragg, 2007b, p. 351) through their involvement.

However Fielding (2001b, 2004a) argues that although current co-option of student voice to an accountability agenda may narrow the focus of student voice, it does mean that student perspectives are taken account of through required consultation around the quality of learning and teaching. Teachers also indicate that receiving feedback from their students is “a move towards a dialogic, reflective model of professionalism, forged in alliance with students” (Bragg, 2007b, p. 351).

The second perspective for examining the purposes that underpin student voice is that of students themselves. When asked during student voice research initiatives, students report that they appreciate having a say in decisions around their learning and their lives (Mitra, 2006a). In Northern Ireland Lundy (2007) conducted research on children’s educational experiences as part of a larger audit of children’s rights against UNCRC provisions. The most significant finding of the research that involved 1064 school children from 27 schools was that “not having a say in the decisions made about them was the single most important issue to the children in Northern Ireland” (p. 929).

Summarising her experience in many student voice research projects over time Rudduck (2007) collated category ‘clusters’ that represented the influence students say they want in their schooling at four levels: (1) individual autonomy – that they are able to contribute; (2) pedagogy – they want teaching and learning that is relevant to their present and future aspirations, involves intellectual challenge and involves them in a variety of experiences; (3) social – they want

respect from their teachers and their peers and they want influence over the conditions that impact their learning; and (4) institutional – they want more responsibility and involvement in decisions at a school level (summarised from pp. 591-592).

New Zealand research Kane, Maw, and Chimwayange (2006) found that students and teachers hold similar conceptions of learning and perspectives on the conditions that support learning to flourish.

Both students and teachers identified respectful relationships, relevance of subject and objectives, appropriate preparation, clear and open communication, and supportive classroom environments as essential to student learning. (Kane et al., 2006, p. 2)

These student perspectives might not be new knowledge to teachers, but Bishop and Pflaum (2005b) argue “the extent to which students are aware of their own engagement requirements, however, may be revelatory for some” (p. 5).

Although a burgeoning literature reporting student voice consultation research exists, Morgan (2009) argues that research that explores students’ experiences of being consulted is sparse. In her UK research Morgan (2011) followed four teachers as they worked to consult their students in different ways within their classroom practice. The key findings noted that,

(1) Pupil consultation was marginal and low in priority for three of the four teachers who participated; (2) a commitment to pupil consultation at the whole-school level was not necessarily translated into teachers’ classroom practices; and (3) pupils welcomed consultation and had much to say about the benefits of consultation for their learning and their teachers’ teaching (p. 446).

Morgan also worked with 75 Year Eight students who were consulted within the larger study. These students volunteered to share their perspectives on being consulted through semi-structured interviews. Summarising the students’ perspectives Morgan noted “all pupils said they approved of consultation and suggested it was better for teachers to do it than not” (p. 400). She noted that students had modest expectations of consultation, they appreciated feedback on how their participation influenced teachers’ practice and thinking, and that effects from consultation in terms of conditions for their learning depended on particular

teachers and their uptake. Students in this research also expressed a concern that they did not want to offend their teachers by sharing viewpoints that might upset them and consequently come back to impact on them negatively. In this respect anonymity was identified as a key student concern.

However Hyde (1992a) writing in the Australian context, and reporting her work with students around sharing power through negotiating classroom curriculum and decision-making identified a more nuanced student response to being involved in consultation and negotiation. Hyde identified four typical student reactions to being involved in negotiation:

1. Thankful and amazed;
2. Suspicious;
3. Dismayed; and
4. Contemptuous.

Students who expressed thanks and amazement interpreted an invitation to negotiate with the teacher as an indicator that they were respected by the teacher for their expertise and capability to make sound decisions related to their own learning. Students who expressed suspicion said they would like to trust the teacher's intention to include them in decisions of significance but their experience with teachers led them to feel 'conned' when offered opportunities to negotiate. Students who expressed dismay at being involved in negotiating curriculum and conditions of their learning were worried primarily about how they would learn without the teacher telling them what to do. Finally the students who expressed contempt for being included in negotiation took the position that by including students in decision-making, the teachers was 'shirking' their responsibilities as the professional educator (summarised from Hyde, 1992a, pp. 53-55).

In sum, schools engage in student voice initiatives for diverse purposes, influenced by macro-level and school-level policy agendas. Within school-based student voice projects the agendas that students are supported to contest are delimited by educators. It appears also that students welcome opportunities to advocate for their own interests, be heard by adults and participate in educational decision-making alongside teachers and be made aware the impact their perspectives have on teachers' thinking and practice. The perspectives presented

in this section also indicate student awareness of the multiple influences acting within educational contexts to constrain and enable their participation possibilities. These include teacher/student and institutional power dynamics as well as established perceptions around the role of the teacher and role of the student.

2.5 Locating Student Voice in the Teacher/Student Pedagogical Relationship

In this section firstly I outline the call in the student voice literature for locating student voice within the student/teacher pedagogical relationship in the classroom. Secondly, I identify a growing awareness of the mutually constitutive teacher/student relationship and some of the implications of locating student voice within the teacher/student relationship for teacher and student roles, teacher learning, and teacher voice.

Student voice as a joint influential enterprise between students and educators implies a change in status for students (Rudduck, 2007). Student voice positions students as ‘active players’ and ‘protagonists’ in the learning process (Cook-Sather, 2010; Rudduck, 2007). Rudduck (2007) contends that “student voice is most successful when it enables students to feel that they are members of a learning community, that they matter, and that they have something valuable to offer” (p. 587). In the New Zealand context researchers concur, finding in research profiling the experiences of young New Zealanders aged between aged 10 to 16 years that connectedness is predictive of young people’s future health and wellbeing. (Ministry of Youth Development, 2010).

Growing awareness of the ‘mutually constitutive’ and ‘reciprocal’ student/teacher relationship (Cowie et al., 2010) shifted the focus of student voice research from advocating and amplifying the student side of the student/teacher relationship to focus on the processes of enacting student voice through student/teacher interaction (Flutter, 2007). In the classroom it is within interaction between students and teachers within the pedagogical relationship that student voice resides as a process of co-construction and exploration of the power differential (Lincoln, 1995; Smyth, 2006b). The extension of this idea is that the student/teacher relationship is itself nested within a broader social ecosystem (Lincoln, 1995) that needs to authorise student perspectives (Cook-Sather, 2002)

as legitimate and valuable but that enacting student voice needs to take account of teacher voice and constraints on teachers' practice also.

Calls for attention to student voice provoke mixed responses from teachers and draws attention to the need for student voice to take account of teacher voice also (Fielding, 2001a). Rudduck (2007) describes teachers as 'gatekeepers of change' in schools with criteria that need addressing before they are willing to take account of student voice. Findings from New Zealand research around curriculum implementation with secondary teachers found that some teachers believe student voice carries too much weight in contemporary education approaches (Hipkins, 2010). Currently in the UK this issue is being debated with some commentators arguing that student voice undermines teacher professional judgment (Fox, 2013).

Whichever form student voice initiatives take they will involve students in roles "considerably different from the types of roles that students typically perform in schools" (Mitra, 2006a, p. 7) and as an extension, involve teachers in new roles also. Involving students in more agentic roles involves teachers creating opportunities for students to contribute to the pedagogical process and educational decision-making (Yonezawa & Jones, 2009) but this is only a starting point. Cook-Sather (2003) argues that including students more powerfully in educational policy and pedagogy requires "major shifts in the ways we think and in how we interact with students" (p. 22). Yonezawa and Jones (2009) argue that involving students as partners with teachers changes the conversations teachers have with each other and the kinds of questions they ask students and each other. However commentators also caution that teachers engaging with student voice may also necessitate them learning to hear unfamiliar, uncomfortable or unwanted voices also (Bragg, 2001; P. Johnston & Nicholls, 1995).

Given the unfamiliarity of students and teachers with sharing responsibility for decision-making a gradual shift in responsibility towards student participation in decision-making typically the exclusive domain of teachers is advocated (Rudduck, 2007). Shier (2006) argues this gradual transition is necessary because teachers' roles are dominated by functions of control of students. He proposes a process of 'continual improvement' rather than abrupt dispensing with traditional authority roles for teachers,

The system includes deep-rooted, learned and internalised pupil and teachers roles. We can't suddenly say to a class of young adolescents who all their lives have depended on the teacher to control their schooling, "OK kids, it's your education, it's up to you now to run it yourselves!" (p. 16)

A gradual shift is also necessary for teacher voice, authority and dignity to be preserved.

The development of student voice at the expense or the exclusion of teacher voice is a serious mistake. The latter is a necessary condition of the former: staff are unlikely to support developments that encourage positive ideals for students which thereby expose the poverty of their own participatory arrangements. (Fielding, 2001a, p. 106)

Rudduck (2007) identified an exhaustive list of potentially de-stabilising factors that teachers face in addressing student voice. These include needing to re-visit their views around the positioning of children, de-stabilising experiences of change resulting from ongoing innovation and the need to confront familiar but no longer useful pedagogical beliefs. Biddulph (2011), in contemporary geography curriculum research, identified benefits of curriculum negotiation for teachers and students, but highlighted also tensions involved in teachers sharing curriculum planning responsibility with their students created by current accountability agendas that constrained teachers' pedagogic freedom.

However even within teacher/student partnerships where there is an awareness of the benefits of collaborative student/teacher decision-making, an implicit requirement exists for students to participate and to say something useful (as judged by adults) and acceptable (Bragg, 2001; Czerniawski, 2012). Rudduck (2007) identified criteria student perspectives had to address before teachers would listen in order to take account of these:

First, they had to be based on what teachers recognized as a valid and not an imagined or over-personalised account of classroom realities. Second, there was the practicality test ... for instance, the requirements of the National Curriculum and of associated assessment arrangements and the lack of freedom teachers felt they had to do anything not tailored to these requirements, the time that teachers would need to spend preparing the new approaches that the students had suggested ... and issues of space ... and timetabling. (p. 596)

On the other hand students' funds of knowledge (Gonzalez & Moll, 2002), the cultural resources of importance to them that they bring with them to school, can reciprocally influence teachers' thinking also to mutual benefit. Hsi, Pinkard, and Woolsey (2005) argue, in the context of information communication technology (ICT) for example, that young people have set the agenda for many current technologies such as instant messaging, music downloading, and blogging.

Whilst student voice conceptualised as a mutually constitutive and interactive process between students and teachers requires educators to take ongoing account of students and their perspectives, Lundy (2007) cautions against a 'chicken soup' approach of adopting student perspectives as unquestionably good. She argues that although taking account of student views is a legal obligation, teachers critiquing student perspectives within broader institutional configurations is a vital aspect of student voice. She also argues that it is essential to acknowledge and address concerns adults hold about student voice in order to move beyond cozy rhetoric. For adult educators this might involve confronting,

scepticism about children's capacity (or a belief that they lack capacity) to have a meaningful input into decision making; a worry that giving children more control will undermine authority and destabilise the school environment; and finally, concern that compliance will require too much effort which would be better spent on education itself. (Lundy, 2007, pp. 929-930)

Enacting new ways of relating also may involve disrupting wider student discourses (P. Johnston & Nicholls, 1995; Kelly, 2009). Thomson (2011) argues,

it is always the case that children and young people will exercise 'voice' through and within a specific discourse community/ies. Their words, just like our own cannot be seen as somehow separate from this cultural and social immersion. (p. 28)

Students' notions of appropriate pedagogy and participation are influenced by their social context. Students have been identified by some commentators as a 'conservative force' opting for the status quo as this is the extent of their experience (Howard & Johnson, 2004; O'Loughlin, 1995). Their embeddedness within the wider individualist, neo-liberal social context may condition their views in ways of which they may be unaware. These need to be on the agenda for challenge (Bragg, 2007b; Ryan, 2008) rather than being uncritically accepted as

unquestionably good (Lundy, 2007). Teachers challenging students' perspectives within a context of mutual trust and respect may contribute to building students' understanding of the ways in which wider social processes influence social actors' perspectives, choices and actions (Bragg, 2007b).

Morgan (2011) argues that shifting the focus of student voice research within the teacher/student relationship must acknowledge the nested nature of classroom practices within a broader institutional framework. The study's key research question "how would teachers consult pupils within the complexities and constraints of their 'normal' teaching routines and responsibilities?" (p. 446) looked specifically at how teachers might address student consultation feedback without outside agency or researcher support within the context of teachers' work.

2.6 A Growing Awareness of Power

With the increased insistence on student voice at a policy level at the turn of the century a growing awareness of the influence of power dynamics on student voice initiatives has emerged. New wave student voice with its advocacy of students' capabilities to offer insightful and unique perspectives on their learning and on education more generally, has given way to suspicion towards the diverse purposes underpinning contemporary student voice research and practice. In this section I examine the call among student voice commentators for examination of power dynamics at play within school-based student voice initiatives variously underpinned by empowerment and neo-liberal purposes.

Commentators argue that the relationship between voice and power has been under-theorised (C. Taylor & Robinson, 2009). 'New wave' student voice was "naively oblivious to power relations" (Fielding, 2004a, p. 206). Increasingly commentators argue, student voice research that fails to examine the ongoing workings of power, once access for students to the educational conversation is achieved, is insufficient (Bragg, 2007b; Gallagher, 2008; C. Taylor & Robinson, 2009). However Bragg notes a reluctance for such research and advocacy in the student voice field to "engage with the shifting power relations that have accorded students their new authority to speak, or to be critically reflexive about the means used to shape and channel what can be recognised as 'student voice'" (Bragg, 2007b, p. 344).

How power is conceptualised conditions what is seen, how social actors are positioned and what becomes invisible. Traditionally student voice research has been framed within a binary have/have not view of power that “presumes a world of subjects (teachers) and objects (students) arranged in a hierarchical relation in which only the former have power” (C. Taylor & Robinson, 2009, p. 165).

Within this binary view of power student voice functions as a practice to empower and emancipate students from powerless positions and by extension liberate society from these binary relations also.

It is this optimistic discourse of radical pedagogy, with its stated desire to liberate and transform people, institutions and systems, which animates much current mainstream student voice practice. (C. Taylor & Robinson, 2009, p. 165)

From this perspective the work of student voice is to redress unequal teacher/student power dynamics through notions of power sharing whereby teachers ‘relinquish’ power to their students and in the sharing of power both teachers and students are transformed (Mitra, 2008b). Within this critical pedagogy framework power is conceptualised as a finite resource that some actors have more of than others. From this perspective sharing power is viewed as a zero-sum game (Foucault, 1982) where gaining power equates to winning and relinquishing power equates to losing. Taylor and Robinson (2009) note the advantage of this view of power is that “it may bring into view different modes of power, such as coercion, domination, manipulation, authority and persuasion” (p. 166) as well as locating where power ‘resides’ within ‘individuals and structures’.

However, whilst this view of power has endured within the student voice field, increasingly it is challenged as insufficient to explain the nuanced and complex effects of power within contemporary society (Bahou, 2011; Bragg, 2007b). Taylor and Robinson (2009) contend that “it is only by going ‘beyond binaries’ that power in all its multifarious manifestations and guises might be apprehended and understood” (p. 171). That is, teachers are expected to govern their own actions toward the goal of enhanced student achievement under threat of potential external surveillance and censure by others in authority (Bragg, 2007b; Webb, 2002). In this respect teachers are constrained in their actions also with their “own ability to free themselves to struggle against oppressive and dis-abling systems ... rather too unproblematically assumed” (C. Taylor & Robinson, 2009, p. 167).

Suspicion about the efficacy of student voice is raised also in light of the co-option of student voice at a policy level as a neo-liberal tool.

The fact that student voice now appears to be fully compatible with government and management objectives and that senior staff are introducing it with the explicit aim of school improvement, causes disquiet, even concerns that it might be cynical and manipulative, intentionally or not masking the “real” interests of those in power. (Bragg, 2007b, p. 344)

Narrow definitions of student achievement promoted by current policy initiatives can constrain teachers to implement student voice as ‘surface compliance’ (Rudduck, 2007; C. Taylor & Robinson, 2009) with teachers rushing to comply with mandates around student voice without having the time to think through their rationale (Rudduck, 2007) and confusion due to contradictory agendas generating diverse practices under the same umbrella term.

Rather than abandon student voice as a worthwhile project in light of this growing suspicion, researchers have begun to look for ways to problematise their student voice research and pedagogical practice to make explicit the multifarious power dynamics at play. Seminal work in this area includes Fielding’s (2001b) conditions for student voice that raised questions of who is allowed to speak, when, on what topics and where and the nested nature of school-based student voice initiatives within broader institutional cultures.

As an extension of this examination of institutional culture Robinson and Taylor (2009) drew attention to the influence of macro neo-liberalism policy strands. They cautioned that any student voice work carried out in educational settings needs to acknowledge that student voice work carried out within ‘cultures of performativity’ can be inclined to co-opt student voice to accountability purposes rather than realise its transformative potential (C. Robinson & Taylor, 2007).

This section has outlined the contemporary call by student voice researchers and proponents for ongoing explicit examination of the effects of power relations within student voice initiatives. Contemporary theorising critiques binary theories of power associated with critical pedagogy that influenced new wave student voice when power relations were considered. Suspicion towards official endorsement of student voice initiatives in education policy has stimulated a call for more nuanced analyses that examine the link between voice and power (C.

Taylor & Robinson, 2009), and the interaction between identity, language, interaction and power within the student/teacher pedagogical relationship (Bragg, 2007b). This intersection is identified as the key focus for the examination of the relationship between student voice and power within this research and is developed further in Chapter Three.

2.7 Enacting Student Influence through Student/Teacher Governance Partnerships

This section draws the threads of the chapter together to propose the definition and orientation to student voice adopted for this research. In this section I propose the notion of student/teacher classroom governance partnerships as the conceptualisation of student voice that addresses criteria for ongoing dialogic student voice (Fielding, 2001b; Lodge, 2005, 2008) into an approach for enacting influential student positioning within the student/teacher pedagogical relationship. From this section on I flip the teacher/student binary, describing student/teacher governance partnerships. I do this to foreground increased student influence and status as an intention embedded in this co-governance notion.

Students are increasingly involved in governance level consultation as part of a student voice agenda (Thomson & Gunter, 2007). However whilst they are increasingly positioned as agents of change within schools producing knowledge from their particular standpoint (Thomson & Gunter, 2007) student involvement in co-constructing pedagogy with teachers remains rare (Thomson, 2011). Flutter (2007) reviewing a collaborative teacher and student classroom initiative, noted that even though teachers and students worked together the focus of student consultation was on how children learn. From this data teachers could then adjust their teaching. Students were not asked directly about teachers' performance or to give lesson feedback.

Student voice activity is often an add-on rather than a 'mainstream curricular activity', with "significant underdevelopment of classroom pedagogies which encourage everyday dialogue between students and teachers, and ... evaluative discussions with teachers" (Thomson, 2012, p. 96). Classroom-based student voice research focused on pedagogy is called for by teachers themselves. Teachers participating in a New Zealand study (Roberts & Bolstad, 2010) exploring how students might contribute to educational design noted teachers' call

for a shift of student voice into the classroom. In their reflections on students' perceptions of opportunities for their involvement in educational design, one teacher commented "we've done lots of talking about 21st century learning and lifelong learning and it seems 'out there' but what does it mean in the classroom?" (Teacher One, Roberts & Bolstad, 2010, p. 36). Teachers also signalled that they wanted to shift from students presenting their perspectives to engaging in dialogue with them.

Research on how teachers learn from students is under-addressed in student voice initiatives (B. Morgan, 2011; Pedder & McIntyre, 2006). Pedder and McIntyre (2006) note that "research into the impact of pupil consultation on teachers' classroom practices and, in particular, teachers' use of pupils' ideas, remains in its infancy" (p. 145). Even in student voice research aimed at improving teaching practice, student perceptions of effective teaching are seldom sought directly (for an exception see Bragg, 2007b). More commonly studies explore students' conceptions of learning in order to infer implications for teaching practice (Kane & Maw, 2005; Kroeger et al., 2004; Lodge, 2008).

One notable exception is Frost (2007) taught a class of Year Three students research skills over six weeks as the students engaged in action research projects. At the end of the research the students were invited directly to give her feedback on her teaching and their learning.

Change of this nature is difficult for teachers to achieve in practice because it requires them to do things very differently if they are to reposition students more powerfully as pedagogical partners (Smyth, 2007). In enacting student/teacher governance partnerships, teachers' learning is linked to how they might represent and engage with the complexities of students' voices, perspectives, experiences and identities (Cook-Sather, 2007) and research designs need to include strong scaffolds and support for teachers if they are to succeed (Hall, Leat, Wall, Higgins, & Edwards, 2006; Hipkins, 2010). One such scaffold is to link teacher learning with their work in the classroom (Downes et al., 2010; Putnam & Borko, 2000).

An important aspect of governance partnerships is the notion of ongoing dialogue. Ongoing student/teacher dialogue is advocated as a way to generate new hybrid student/teacher discourses within 'official' classroom spaces (Gutierrez, Rymes,

& Larson, 1995; Lodge, 2005). Gutierrez, Rymes and Larson (1995) argue power is embedded within the multiple teacher and student discourses and social relationships. Often teachers communicate using official authoritative discourse (Scott, Mortimer, & Aguiar, 2006). Students' either comply with or contest these authoritative discourses with dialogic discourse, discourse that develops amongst students (Scott et al., 2006). When teacher and student discourses genuinely intermingle they produce an 'interanimated' discourse (Seymour & Lehrer, 2006) relevant to both teachers and students and their context.

Safe spaces are needed for student voice that integrate students and their perspectives into classroom dialogue as an "integral part of school discourse rather than an attempt to undermine authority" (Lundy, 2007, p. 934) and protect students from potential sanctions related to the views they share. Safe spaces for student voice imply student/teacher relationships where teachers are open to student perspectives and are willing to learn from, rather than filter, student experiences of learning, schooling and conditions for engagement.

Increased student participation in classroom pedagogical decision-making within invokes the issue of agenda control. Some issues are welcomed onto the agenda for student/teacher negotiation, others are not, and in some cases agenda control boundaries are difficult to identify in action. For example Cox and Robinson-Pant (2008) conducted action research with nine teachers in six UK primary schools to improve student participation in classroom decision making processes using visual data generation methods. Whilst the children involved in the study did experience an expanded opportunity for their real participation in classroom decision making, to a large extent their teachers decided the kinds and scope of decisions the students could make. The teachers themselves were also constrained in the kinds of decisions they could allow the students to make, or the decision-making agenda, by contextual influences on their own practice. For instance, time to fully explore decisions in the busy classroom was truncated, teachers still held to their role as professionals to act as final decision-makers in the classroom, teachers sometimes judged the focus of children's attention to be trivial and educationally suspect, and teachers mediated tensions between their children's intended focus and what they had to get done within their broader institutional constraints. These findings highlight the sometimes illusory aspects of student voice as participation in pedagogical decision-making within institutional

constraints of classrooms (Raby, 2008; Thornberg, 2010). As Frost (2007) noted in similar research, “we appeared to be consulting pupils yet denying them any real power to change anything because of an intricate web of institutional imperatives” (p. 442).

With the caveats I have explored in this section I draw on Thomson and Gunter’s (2007) governance notion to conceptualise student voice in this thesis as student/teacher governance partnerships. These governance partnerships as I conceptualise them, extend the student voice agenda to include students co-constructing matters of pedagogy not traditionally afforded students, with teachers in classrooms, through ongoing dialogic interaction.

2.8 Chapter Summary

In sum, since the late 1980s definitions of and orientations to student voice have developed to influence what counts as student voice and what this notion might entail in research and pedagogical practice to treat students as people whose opinions matter in the educative process. Against the backdrop of five justifying discourses that underpin and intertwine to produce student voice research and practice four important themes have focused the field: (1) the need for broadening the agenda of student voice to include student perspectives on effective teaching and how teachers learn from their students, (2) shifting the focus of student voice research to the central student/teacher pedagogical relationship within the classroom (3) problematising power relations within student voice initiatives beyond binary theories to account for the nuanced social, institutional and societal context in which student voice is enacted; and (4) the generative potential of student/teacher governance partnerships co-constructing pedagogy as a way to enact student influence commensurate with the focus of student voice as shifting the status of students alongside educators.

In this thesis I give prominence to the notion of student voice as student/teacher governance partnerships; that is, student voice as a joint enterprise within the mutually constitutive student/teacher pedagogical relationship. I conceptualise student voice as an ongoing, dialogic enactment (Mitra, 2008b; Thiessen & Cook-Sather, 2007) involving students co-constructing pedagogy and curriculum relevant and responsive to their aspirations and preferences as learners. To enact these governance partnerships I also draw on Lundy’s (2007) notion that building

student influence is essential in the enactment of student voice. However I also take caution from the literature introduced thus far that enacting student voice is not only a pragmatic project. The nested nature of student voice within broader institutional discourses and practices suggest that enacting student voice necessitates a nuanced and ongoing examination of power relations to resist entrenching existing inequalities. It is also dependent on ongoing interrogation of the contextual conditions in which student voice is enacted (Fielding, 2001b).

2.9 Research Questions

Three research questions emerge from the themes highlighted from this review of the student voice literature to guide this study:

1. *How do teachers of young adolescent students perceive and define effective teaching and student voice in relation to the needs of the age group?*

Successful professional learning is linked to teachers' work and to building on and challenging their existing beliefs and practices. This question aims to identify the perceptions of effective teaching and student voice for the young adolescent age group that the teachers bring to the research as a starting point for co-constructing governance partnerships with their students.

2. *How do young adolescent students perceive effective teaching in relation to their needs and aspirations as learners?*

This question is designed to elicit students' perceptions of effective teaching in order to broaden student voice agendas to include effective teaching, and to inform teachers' development as effective teachers based on the perceptions of their students.

3. *How might teachers utilise their students' perceptions to co-construct responsive and reciprocal pedagogy with their students in their classrooms?*

This question aims to explore how teachers might learn from and utilise the perceptions of their students as they enact student voice as student/teacher governance partnerships in the classroom.

Chapter Three: Reconceptualising Power within Student Voice

In this chapter I outline how power is conceptualised in this research to explain power relations in the classroom beyond binary theories that tend to dichotomise teachers as powerful and students as less powerful. I draw on elements useful to this research from three influential theories: (1) a micro-physics of power outlined by Foucault (1977), (2) discourse theory (Foucault, 1972; Gee, 2012), and (3) the three-dimensional view of power set out by Lukes (1974, 2005). I then propose a mashup¹ of these elements to form the power analytic frame for this research.

I firstly outline Foucault's notions of a microphysics of power (Foucault, 1977). This means that the focus is on the operation of power at the local level through governmentality (Foucault, 1991a) and techniques of power (Foucault, 1977). Foucault's theorising is important in this research because it highlights the ubiquitous nature of power and focuses analytic attention on the agency of all social actors to influence power relations in the classroom. I then discuss how student voice researchers have used these constructs to explain power relations in their research.

Funneling deeper into the workings of power I outline theories of discourse that explain how, as a social practice, discourse in interaction between social actors operates to configure power relations in certain ways in classrooms (Gee, 2012). I then identify useful elements from the political science domain to theorise power relations in the classroom, namely the notion of faced power within Lukes' (1974, 2005) three-dimensional view of power. Lukes' work is particularly important for this research because it provide an account of how power operates through visible through to less visible mechanisms to condition possibilities for action.

I then bring the elements of these three theories together in a mash-up, to generate the power analytic frame used in this research that I use to theorise how power conditions possibilities for teacher and student action within classroom-based student voice initiatives. Finally I restate the research questions that emerged

¹ I borrow the term mashup from the online domain where online tools such as Googlemap are 'mashed' or combined with other compatible online tools such as Wikipedia to produce a new hybrid tool with enhanced functionality. In this instance the result is wikipediavision a tool that allows Wikipedia users to locate where changes to entries originate geographically ([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mashup_\(web_application_hybrid\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mashup_(web_application_hybrid))).

from the Literature Review of Chapter Two and extend these with two further research questions for the study that emerged from the reconceptualisation of power for this thesis.

3.1 A Microphysics of Power

Student voice researchers who do theorise power beyond binary theories draw on Foucault's theorising on power relations to explain their work (Bragg, 2007b; Gore, 1995, 2002; C. Taylor & Robinson, 2009; Webb, 2002; Webb, Briscoe, & Mussman, 2009). In this section I outline key elements of Foucault's theorising of power relations relevant to this research, in particular the notions of microphysics, governmentality and regimes of truth. I outline also how these have been taken up by student voice researchers to explore the workings of power in their research.

Foucault shifted the examination of power dynamics from macro-level examinations of relations of production and exchange central to critical theory (Stoddart, 2007) to a study of power relations between social actors at the micro-level (Foucault, 1980c). In this respect Foucault explicated a microphysics of power (Foucault, 1977). He viewed power relations primarily as local solutions to specific local challenges and problems (Foucault, 1980a). His theorising was grounded in the analysis of specific social contexts such as punishment (Foucault, 1977), psychiatry (Foucault, 2003), and sexuality (Foucault, 1980b, 1990).

For Foucault power was not a property held by some and not others as is the case in binary theories of power. He theorised power as relational, pervasively circulating without signature in a net-like arrangement within social systems, where all elements within the system function "in a relationship of mutual support and conditioning" (Foucault, 1980a, p. 159).

On the basis of power as relational and pervasive, Foucault characterised power in modern societies as indirect,

A mode of action which does not act directly and immediately on others. Instead, it acts upon their actions: an action upon an action, on existing actions or on those which may arise in the present or the future. (Foucault, 1982, p. 789)

He theorised the exercise of power as "guiding the possibility of conduct and putting in order the possible outcome" (Foucault, 1982, p. 789). Hence, to

Foucault power is “less a confrontation between two adversaries or the linking of one to the other than a question of government” (Foucault, 1982, p. 789).

Foucault’s notion of government, or governmentality, refers to how power is ‘done’ in western societies in the neo-liberal era (Foucault, 1991a).

Applied to the classroom governmentality refers to how the conduct of students is governed by the indirect actions and antecedents of teachers, and how the conduct of teachers is governed by the expectations created by educational policies and by the discourses of others, including students. Gallagher (2008) in his research on student participation and power, provides an example of this indirect influence of power in the context of a student council.

The ways in which power is exercised by councilors in a pupil council could be placed in the context of how, in that particular school, other pupils exercise power over the councilors (and vice versa), how the senior management exercise power over the council (and vice versa), how the education authority exercised power over the senior management (and vice versa), and so on. (p. 399)

Indirect power as action to influence the possibilities of others’ actions is deployed through techniques that act as disciplinary practices on people’s conduct (Foucault, 1977). These techniques include practices of surveillance and regulation that afford and constrain individuals to act in certain ways; and include ‘technologies of the self’ (Foucault, 1988b) that individuals impose to regulate their own conduct. Surveillance is being watched with the expectation of being judged or evaluated. However the effectiveness of surveillance is not always in the direct observation of social actors by others but in the threat of observation and judgment by others so that they act in certain ways in case they are surveilled (Webb, 2006). Technologies of the self refer to the ways in which individuals police themselves by producing practices, identities and discourses desired at an official level to avoid potential censure. Webb’s (2006) work on the choreography of accountability provides a pertinent example of these two aspects of Foucault’s notion of governmentality as applied to the practice of teachers. Webb uses the example of teachers walking their students quietly through corridors, not because they believe this is the best way for students to move through a school, but in order to appear competent based on unstated circulating expectations that being able to walk students quietly through corridors is an expectation of a professionally competent teacher.

In the student voice field Bragg (2007b) utilises Foucault's notion of governmentality to critique positioning students as consultants within student voice research. She argues that through their involvement in consultation as part of school review, school improvement and research initiatives can also position students to police teacher practice and shift partial responsibility for the effectiveness of schooling onto students themselves. If they participate in suggesting what would better support their learning and still do not achieve or bring about transformational change then they have failed.

Foucault (1991b) argued that one of the ways individuals govern themselves and others is through "the production of truth" (p. 79) within discourses. Truth in a Foucauldian sense refers to regimes of norms and boundaries of what is acceptable within particular social contexts. Establishing norms is often achieved by also identifying what is not acceptable, that which is excluded. For example students may be expected to work individually and silently on particular tasks. This would also mean that they were excluded from talking to other learners while they completed tasks. What is made true and acceptable is enforced through techniques of power (Foucault, 1980a) such as regulation (reward, punishment and sanction), through actual and potential surveillance and by distributing social actors in relation to each other in certain ways. Examples of distribution in a school context might include teachers organising students to work with each other in groups, or the school organising students into classrooms with one teacher. These 'regimes of truth' (Foucault, 1977) form discourses that discipline us to think and act and interact in certain acceptable ways. In his later work Foucault (1988a) re-framed regimes of truth as 'games of truth' to emphasise the strategic agency actors deploy to accept, refuse, resist or counter prevailing discourses and their attendant norms, boundaries, distributions and consequences.

Rather than conceptualising power as oppressive, Foucault (1977) took a productive and generative view of power. This meant he foregrounded the generative and multiple material effects of the exercise of power.

We must cease once and for all to describe the effects of power in negative terms: it 'excludes', it 'represses', it 'censors', it 'abstracts', it 'masks', it 'conceals'. In fact power produces; it produces reality; it produces domains of objects and rituals of truth. (Foucault, 1977, p. 194)

From a productive perspective power is characterised as the power for social actors to do specific things, to exercise their ‘will to power’ or put simply, their goals and aspirations (Foucault, 1977). This productive view of power opens up the analytic agenda to investigate the productive effects produced by certain power dynamics and deployment of influence within student voice initiatives. In the context of the classroom what does the teacher have the power to do? What do the students have the power to do specifically? In the context of this research student voice involves expanding the students’ power to include making governance-level pedagogical decisions with their teachers.

Despite taking a productive view of power Foucault (1988a) acknowledged that relations of domination – or power over – do exist as a possible effect of power. He argued that domination exists where “the relations of power are fixed in such a way that they are perpetually asymmetrical and the margin of liberty is extremely limited” (Foucault, 1988a, p. 19). Enduring inequalities position some actors (such as teachers) to prevail in decision-making over others (such as students). For example the teacher has the power to insist that students comply with their expectations whereas students cannot readily deploy this power to insist from their position as students. However Foucault argued that very small margins for liberty still exist for these relations of dominance to be resisted and countered.

Increasingly commentators have taken up Foucault’s challenge to examine power relations at the micro-level of how power circulates within local relations within local social networks and through routine and mundane activity (Gallagher, 2008; Gore, 1995; Gutierrez et al., 1995). As a methodological consequence of this Biesta (2007) argues

this means that we shouldn’t simply look for those who ‘steer’ these networks; it is rather that a particular configuration puts some in the steering position or gives the impression that some are ‘in control’. The actual workings of power are thus quite messy. (Biesta, 2007, p. 2)

In her work on spatiality and power McGregor (2004) draws on Foucault’s notion of disciplinary power (Foucault, 1977) to foreground how spatial arrangements in schooling concretise power relations and discipline social actors. She notes that while attention is focused on contesting who is most powerful, for example in the student/teacher relationship, the less visible regulating function of the spatial

arrangement of classrooms, furniture arrangements and how these are engaged with by whom, masks the implicit messages these arrangements transmit.

Building on Foucault's regime of truth concept, Gore (2002) examined "the regime of power that is pedagogy" (p. 77). She posited that one of the reasons why radical pedagogies had largely failed to take off was because of the 'continuity' of power relations through pervasive pedagogical practices, persistent across time and resistant to reform. She examined whether the specific techniques of power Foucault (1977) identified within the penal context were applicable to schooling (Gore, 1995, 2002). She argued that "the institution of schooling might produce its own 'regime of pedagogy', a set of power-knowledge relations, of discourses and practices, which constrains the most radical of educational agendas" (Gore, 1995, p. 166). From this starting point she confirmed the applicability of Foucault's techniques of power to schooling and investigated how techniques of power functioned together as a regime of pedagogy in the context of classrooms. She identified eight techniques of power from Foucault's work and defined them in the following way for her research:

1. Surveillance – supervision or potential observation of practice by others;
2. Normalisation – defining what counts as normal within the social context;
3. Exclusion – defining what counts as abnormal within the social context;
4. Classification – how people, roles and practices are categorised and defined in relation to each other;
5. Distribution – how bodies are distributed within spatial arrangements;
6. Individualisation – assigning an individual identity to a behaviour, practice and/or a norm;
7. Totalisation – assigning a collective identity to a behaviour, practice and/or a norm; and
8. Regulation – control through rules including reward, punishment and sanction. (Paraphrased from (Gore, 1995))

Gore (1995) found in her research that the more subtle techniques of normalisation, classification and exclusion were more prevalent than overt instances of surveillance and regulation. She argued "it is precisely the mundane and subtle character of these practices which ... contributes to the functioning of what I am calling the pedagogical regime" (Gore, 1995, p. 169). Utilising

Foucault's notion of power as productive Gore (1995) posited that her analysis of the operation of these subtle techniques in pedagogy provided the basis for identifying 'spaces of freedom' where practices could be otherwise.

In sum, Foucault's microphysics of power enables this research to challenge binary theories of power that examine primarily ways in which students are dominated by teachers and the arrangements of the classroom. Taking a productive view of power re-frames the analytic focus to examine what students have the power to do specifically within student voice-related governance partnerships. Foucault's notion of power as circulating without signature within social contexts enables an examination of power to shift from who is powerful to how is power exercised, or deployed, through specific techniques to configure power in certain ways.

3.2 Discourse Theory and Practice

The second theory in the three-theory mash-up is discourse theory and practice. In this section I firstly elaborate the definition of the term discourse and how it is used in this thesis (as introduced in Chapter Two, section 2.1). Then, drawing on ideas already explained, I introduce Foucault's notion that power operates through discourse to generate possible identities or subject positions for social actors (Foucault, 1972). I then explore Foucault's notion that discourses establish 'discursive formations' or systems of identities, tools and processes associated with a particular discourse, Gee's (2012) notion of big 'D' discourses and their effects, and the notion that discourses are populated already with prior messages that have to be made explicit in order to be challenged and countered with new norms (Bakhtin, 1981; Bourdieu, 1999; Maybin, 2001). Finally, I introduce some specific strategies of discourse analysis to zoom in to the utterance level on how power is 'done' through discursive practice in interaction.

In Chapter Two I defined discourse as repeating statements related to a concept (Foucault, 1972) that regulate social practice and are linked explicitly with power (Gee, 2012). Gee (2012) argues that rather than a neutral language resource social actors use to communicate, discourses constitute "ways of behaving, interacting, valuing, thinking, believing, speaking, and often reading and writing, that are accepted as instantiations of particular identities or kinds of people" (p. 3). In this respect Gee talks about Discourses with a capital 'D' to distinguish different

social groups and ideas from each other and the possibilities these make available to social actors through little 'd' language resources. These social Discourses "are intimately related to the distribution of social power and hierarchical structure in society ... Control over certain Discourses can lead to the acquisition of social goods (money, power, status) in a society" (Gee, 2012, p. 159).

Control of discourse is vital because as Gee (2012) argues "language makes no sense outside of Discourses" (p. 3). Foucault (1972) goes further to argue that discourses constitute subject possibilities for social actors, in the case of this research, teachers and students. Subject possibilities refer to possible personifications of the knowledge promoted by a discourse; and certain kinds of subjects, or people, which are consistent with the discourse. For example in schools we would expect available subject positions to include teacher, student, principal and parent. The knowledges and possibilities for action and interaction available to each would be consistent to their subject position within the message system of the particular education discourse. Student voice discourses argue for new possibilities for the subject position of student (and by extension teacher); most particularly increased influence in educational debate and decision-making, positions traditionally exclusive to the subject positions of teacher and principal.

Subject positions and the range of subject possibilities available in a given social context are configured within 'discursive formations' (Foucault, 1972), or systems of possibility for identities, tools, and practices in social contexts like classrooms. Subject possibilities within discursive formations can be socially contested (Gee, 2012) through negotiation by social actors promoting specific new subject possibilities. However as subject possibilities expand prior messages continue to exert echoing influences that social actors such as teachers and students need to confront before new subject possibilities can embed, "discourses are "already 'overpopulated' with other people's voices, and the social practices and contexts they invoke" (Maybin, 2001, p. 67). By extension identities, tools, practices and traditions in certain discursive formations such as classroom power relations, are already populated with social messages about who can do what, how and for what ends (Maybin, 2001).

In this research the term identity is used in preference to subject. This use is underpinned by the view that subject positions are "the process by which our

identities are produced” (Burr, 2003, p. 110). The term positioning is also utilised to look at how “people are subject to discourse and how this subjectivity is negotiated in interpersonal life” (Burr, 2003, p. 116). In the process of discursive struggle, subject positions, and the identities they make possible, are either accepted, countered or resisted through interaction. For example in a school playground an adult walking around with a bin and a pair of gloves picking up rubbish is expected to be the caretaker, not the principal. However through the process of struggle, social actors can negotiate and deploy new identities and possibilities for action. The principal can be the adult picking up rubbish in the playground, in the same way a student can be the one providing feedback on a teacher’s pedagogical practice.

Strategies of discourse analysis facilitate investigation of “how bits of social life are done” (Wetherell, Taylor, & Yates, 2001, p. 2) through talk. Discourse in this sense is discourse with a little ‘d’ (introduced earlier in the chapter) and referring to the language resources and interaction patterns social actors use to achieve their goals through talk and interaction (Gee & Green, 1998). Little ‘d’ discourses are referenced to big ‘D’ discourses but operate at an utterance level. Discourse analysis provides a diverse set of methodological tools, to examine how power is deployed through discourse within interaction (Gutierrez et al., 1995). That is, discourse analysis strategies are used to explain how certain norms, practices and identities bring influence to bear to achieve certain goals and agendas in social practice. In this research in addition to using Gore’s (1995) techniques of power as analytical constructs, I draw also on strategies of discourse analysis to zoom in on how at an utterance level in teacher and student interaction, techniques of power are deployed to accomplish their goals.

Particularly relevant to this research are studies that examine how authoritative (official) curriculum discourses enacted by and through teachers, interanimate, or intermingle, with local dialogic discourses of students (Scott et al., 2006), how activity, identity, discourse, and connection building are constructed by social actors to accomplish certain social building tasks (Gee & Green, 1998), how social dominance is achieved discursively (van Dijk, 1993), and how social actors jointly construct ‘collective warrants’ or situated meanings to extend discourses through re-voicing (Carroll, 2005). Authoritative and dialogic discourses are interanimated through a shift from evaluative listening (Brodie, 2010) associated

with authoritative discourse (for example teachers' official curriculum messages) to interpretive listening (Brodie, 2010), characterised by a willingness to understand and engage with the thinking and ideas of others (for example students' perceptions of effective teaching in student voice research). These and other discourse analysis strategies that are utilised within the analytic framework of the research are detailed in Chapter Four later in the thesis.

3.3 Three-dimensional Theory of Power

The three-dimensional theory of power which is attributed to Lukes (1974, 2005) emerged from the political science domain. It has been influential in political science and social development domains but little utilised within education and specifically student voice research. Rather than representing one theory, the three-dimensional theory of power constitutes a cumulative development of a debate within political science that originated with a desire to formally describe the phenomenon of power in a way that would make it empirically measurable (Dahl, 1957). As the proffered formal conceptions of power were tested conceptually and through research, new dimensions were progressively added. Lukes added a third dimension of power in the 1970s to the two that were generally accepted. In this section I outline the three dimensions, or faces, of power that together constitute the three-dimensional theory of power outlined by Lukes.

3.3.1 Face One: Prevailing in key decisions

The first face, or one-dimensional view of power, posits that power can be measured by examining which interest groups prevail in key decisions. Dahl (1957) defined power as "A has power over B to the extent that he [sic] can get B to do something that B would not otherwise do" (p. 203) through control and influence of social resources. Within the one-dimensional, or faced view, power is vested with leaders related to specific issues important to their vested interests (Dahl, 1958). Polsby (1963), a key proponent of first face power, argued that decision-making is "the best way to determine which individuals and groups have "more" power in social life, because direct conflict between actors presents a situation most closely approximating an experimental test of their capacities to affect outcomes" (Polsby, 1963, p. 4). Power is exercised directly by the more powerful over the less powerful through coercion, persuasion, reward and/or veto within decision-making processes (Dahl, 1958). Being powerful within a first

face perspective involves the control of more resources than other social actors (Dahl, 1957). In this respect the binary of powerful/less powerful operates. However, power relations are not understood as exclusively embedded within enduring structural categories such as gender and ethnicity but rather as shifting control of resources relevant to specific issues (Bachrach & Baratz, 1962). From this perspective the comparative power or influence amongst social actors must be inferred through observation of key decision-making outcomes within visible conflicts around vested interests.

In the student voice literature this first face of power is well-represented as it most closely aligns to a binary theory of power. For instance Burke (2007) notes, “ultimately schools are places where adults are in positions of power over children and where they are expected as professionals to exercise their judgment in creating an effective learning environment” (p. 363). Thornberg (2010) in his work on pupil control discourse within school democracy meetings in the Swedish context, notes that through their use of initiate-response-evaluate (Mehan, 1979) discourse patterns, teachers control student/teacher interaction that on the surface is aimed at increased student voice. In practice however, this teacher control “actually constrains and counteracts pupils’ participation in democratic negotiation and decision-making” (p. 930).

The first face of power has been critiqued on the grounds it “results in an incomplete and biased picture of power relations” (Flyvberg, 1998, p. 231). Critics argued that focus on visible conflicts and key decisions around vested interests masked the less visible ways in which influential actors use their influence to organise some issues off the decision-making agenda (Bachrach & Baratz, 1962) and how social actors can choose non-action as an expression of agency.

3.3.2 Face Two: Agenda control

A second, or hidden face of power, was proposed by Bachrach and Baratz (1962) who argued that power is not only exercised within key and visible decisions, but also through routine decisions and non-decisions that confine “the scope of decision-making to relatively “safe” issues” (Bachrach & Baratz, 1962, p. 948). They argued that examining how decision-making agendas are controlled gives “real meaning to those issues which do enter the political arena” (1962, p. 950).

The second face of power introduces an indirect element to the operation of power whereby control over antecedents that shape decision-making opportunities is an aspect of power. Bachrach and Baratz (1962) state,

power is also exercised when A devotes his [sic] energies to creating or reinforcing social and political values and institutional practices that limit the scope of the political process to public consideration of only those issues which are comparatively innocuous to A. (p. 948)

The distinction with second face power is that in Face One power A participates overtly in decision-making whereas in Face Two 'A' might participate but also might confine her/his efforts to keeping certain issues off the decision-making agenda. This process is referred to as 'mobilisation of bias' (Schattschneider, 1960). Bachrach and Baratz contend that in Face Two power "when the maneuver is most successfully executed, it neither involves nor can be identified with decisions arrived at on specific issues" (p. 948). Second face power sets up situations where 'B' cannot participate in decision-making or where acting might be detrimental to 'B's' circumstance.

An example of this from the student voice field is reported by Bahou (2011) in the Lebanese educational context. A student wrote a school newspaper article critiquing the Lebanese educational system as archaic. In response school administrators instituted a policy "to approve selective topics and writers for the student magazine, effectively imposing censorship" (p. 2). Another example of agenda control in the student voice field is the operation of student councils and how these are often steered in their terms of reference by school leaders into the realm of toilets and rubbish bins, away from substantive policy decisions on learning and teaching (Lodge, 2008).

Rather than separate to Face One power, Lukes identifies the second face of power as a more 'basic' form of faced power (Lukes, 2005). Control of decision-making agendas in steering what is included and what is diverted is put to the task of preserving the influence of status quo vested interests. In the context of the student voice field this form of power is best seen in the example of student councils mentioned earlier in the chapter, where students are invited to decide on the colour of rubbish bins rather than contribute to matters of school policy and or pedagogy (Lodge, 2008).

Second face power has been critiqued on the grounds that non-action and non-decisions, where social actors can choose not to act, are difficult to identify methodologically. However, Gaventa (1982) addressed this methodological challenge by attending to opportunities where it would be expected that less powerful individuals or groups would act if power were not a constraining factor. He utilised participant observation and comparative, historical analysis to identify 'avowed interests' held by marginalised groups and to identify how non-conflict is engineered through routines and other socio-cultural factors. In a student voice context a similar approach might be to identify factors that influence why, after twenty years, the avowed societal commitment to the participation rights of young people under UNCRC (United Nations, 1989) have been so difficult to enact in education contexts in New Zealand and elsewhere.

3.3.3 Face Three: Conditioning wants and needs

Lukes (1974) incorporated a third, even less visible dimension to the two faces theory of power. This third dimension acknowledged that power acts on an ideological level to condition an individual's beliefs, wants and needs. This ideological conditioning, by extension, is understood to influence the choices for action and identity social actors perceive as available to them, thereby acting as a mechanism for avoiding conflict through securing compliance to be dominated. Lukes described the third dimension of power as "A may exercise power over B by getting him [sic] to do what he does not want to do, ... [A] also exercises power over [B] by influencing, shaping or determining his very wants" (Lukes, 1974, p. 23).

Lukes' third dimension expanded the theorising of power to include influences on people's beliefs in addition to examining the outcomes of their decision-making actions. Lukes described how manipulation of beliefs to produce radical reconceptualisation of their best interests led to this third face power "to acquire beliefs and form desires that result in their consenting or adapting to being dominated, in coercive and non-coercive settings" (Lukes, 2005, p. 13). The ideological beliefs and preferences embedded through this process form 'internal constraints' that induce compliance with prevailing discourses. Beliefs 'condition' possibilities for action (C. Taylor & Robinson, 2009) by constraining the ideas that social actors even envisage should or could be contested or enacted. However once these influences are made explicit and challenged, new

conditioning in the form of discourses, norms and practices can be deliberately introduced to produce desired effects (Bourdieu, 1999) and revised power relations. However challenging persistent and embedded ideological positioning and discourses can involve struggle. Bragg (2007a) notes an example of this in her research on teachers' perspectives on student voice where a teacher got upset when a student handed her a report card on her performance as a teacher that also included targets for improvement. This practice is a ubiquitous part of a teacher's role that is not interchangeable with the role of student even when greater student voice is promoted.

Lukes noted that one drawback of binary theories of power was the assumption that the social actors possess unitary interests focused around domination to gain advantage over others (Lukes, 2005). He acknowledged "it was inadequate in confining the discussion to binary relations between actors assumed to have unitary interests, failing to consider the ways in which everyone's interests are multiple, conflicting and of different kinds" (p. 12).

Lukes (2005) posited power as domination as only one 'species' of power even within dependence relationships. By expanding the definition of power relations beyond domination analysis of the workings of power was expanded to include "the manifold ways in which power over others can be productive, transformative, authoritative and compatible with dignity" (p. 109). This included power operating in non-conflict driven ways for conventionally viewed 'powerful' actors to advance the interests of others conventionally viewed as 'less powerful' within binary relations. He argued that social actors "can be powerful by satisfying and advancing others' interests" (Lukes, 2005, p. 12).

Despite the longstanding influence of Lukes' three-dimensional theory of power in the political science domain his work has been criticised for its lack of methodological guidance and testing within research (Swartz, 2007). I located only one recent doctoral study that utilised Lukes' theory of power to inform power theorising in educational research (P. Rose, 2011) but this study did not utilise Lukes methodologically. Outside education Lukes' model has been applied by Gaventa (1982) to conduct a case study of mining effects in Appalachia, by Crenson (1971) to study the effects of power dynamics on air pollution management and by Jeffares (2007) to explore dynamics in public

policy. In each case, the way in which the use of Lukes' framework illuminated the complexity of power dynamics – for instance highlighting the struggle over agenda, mobilising resources to shore up vested interests and illustrations of where less influential actors would act if they did not fear censure – suggested there would be merit in using it as a framework to conduct a nuanced examination of the workings of power in this research.

A number of theorists and researchers have challenged and extended Lukes' work. Hayward (2000) rejected Lukes' notion of 'faced' power in favour of a 'de-faced' view of power. She argued that faced theories of power focus on how the relatively powerless are dominated and constrained in their action without an attendant focus on how diverse structural antecedents constrain the action of all social actors. These structural antecedents refer to educational and political policy as well as socio-cultural categories such as gender and ethnicity. For instance Hayward includes zoning policy and student bus routes as effects of power. Although Hayward draws attention usefully to how all social actors are constrained a faced view of power does not preclude this especially with the addition of the third face. Actors such as teachers can be positionally powerful whilst at the same time be constrained through broader societal and institutional expectations on their action (Weiler, 1991).

In their work on examining empowerment practices in business Hardy and Leiba-O'Sullivan (1998) added a fourth dimension to Lukes' three dimensions of power to incorporate Foucault's theorising of power. Similarly Digeser (1992) working in the field of politics added a fourth face to Lukes' three-dimensional view of power also to incorporate Foucault's thinking on disciplinary power. Digeser described the focus of the fourth face of power as, "an examination of the myriad and infinitesimal mechanisms of our social practices and discourses" (p. 985). He linked the fourth face of power to the previous three arguing that the fourth face of power "does not displace the other faces of power, but provides a different layer of analysis" (p. 991).

While initially I considered extending Lukes' theory with a fourth dimension for reasons outlined by the theorists above, ultimately however I rejected this idea. Instead I saw potential to mesh Foucault's specific techniques of power within the existing framework of Lukes' three faces of power as tools to explain how the

visible to less visible aspects of power are enacted discursively and materially by social actors to achieve their goals. I explain my conceptualisation of this synthesis next.

3.4 The Mashup: The Power Analytic Frame for this Research

To form the three-theory mashup used in this research I utilised Lukes' three-dimensional theory of power as the over-arching framework for considering how the visible to less visible mechanisms of power might play out in classrooms. Within each of the three faces, Foucault's microphysics of power in the form of the techniques of power provides a means to explore how governing is done by teachers and students. Specifically, Foucault's notion of a microphysics of power opens up the possibility of viewing power relations as productive expressions of solutions to specific local issues. This productive view provided a constructive orientation to the exploration of how teachers and students might deploy techniques of power to co-construct governance identities, open up and extend governance agendas, mobilise pedagogical resources to student voice purposes, and negotiate the influences of prevailing educational and societal discourses on their classroom actions together within their classrooms. Just as importantly, it offered a productive focus on teachers' actions to enact student voice as they understood it in their setting. Theories of discourse as a social practice and strategies of discourse analysis offer insight into how, at an utterance level, techniques of power can be deployed discursively within teacher-student interaction to enact governance partnerships together in this research.

In sum, the three-theory mash-up as it has been developed and explicated in this chapter offers a framework, that I call the 'power analytic frame', through which to conduct a nuanced analysis of the interaction between identity, language, interaction and power within the student/teacher pedagogical relationship as teachers and students work together to understand and enact student voice agendas. Meshing the theoretical tools identified from Foucault's microphysics of power, theories of discourse and Lukes' three-dimensional theory of power, reconceptualises power beyond binary notions to examine how visible through to less visible mechanisms of power condition possibilities for teacher and student action in classroom-based student voice initiatives.

3.5 Research Questions

As a result of how power is conceptualised for this thesis two further research questions emerged:

How does power condition possibilities for student and teacher action within classroom-based student voice initiatives? And

Is this student voice?

This final question functions as an over-arching question within the research to promote ongoing critical reflexivity throughout the study. It also problematizes the notion of student/teacher governance partnerships, and the methods to enact this relationship throughout the research.

I include these two questions along with the three research questions introduced at the conclusion of the Literature Review of Chapter Two. Therefore the following five research questions guide the study:

1. *How do teachers of young adolescent students perceive and define effective teaching and student voice in relation to the needs of the age group?*
2. *How do young adolescent students perceive effective teaching in relation to their needs and aspirations as learners?*
3. *How might teachers utilise their students' perceptions to co-construct responsive and reciprocal pedagogy with their students in their classrooms?*
4. *How does power condition possibilities for student and teacher action within classroom-based student voice initiatives?*
5. *Is this student voice?*

Chapter Four: Research Methodology, Design and Enactment

This chapter describes and justifies the research methodology, design and enactment. The research was designed to provide the bridge to support teachers to learn about effective teaching from their students and to engage students and teachers in interaction with each other to enact student voice practice in their classrooms in order to research it. The research design addressed the need for teacher professional development to take up new student voice roles with their students and at the same time, create new knowledge on enacting student voice for pedagogical purposes in the classroom. The chapter is divided into two parts. Part One outlines the research methodology and the design of the study. Part Two describes how the research was enacted.

4.1 Part One: Research Methodology and Design

In this section I outline the methodology of the research; that is the principles and theorising that underpin the design of the research and the selection of the research methods for the study.

4.2 Paradigm

This research is located within a critical paradigm (Gergen, 2003). It plays at the intersection of the transformative and post-structural genres within this critical paradigm. Both are concerned with power relations but from different vantage points and assumptions. Transformative research advocates for social relations that emancipate social actors from unequal and inequitable power relations (Cresswell, 2013). From this viewpoint powerless actors need advocacy to have their marginalised, silenced or repressed viewpoints and worldview expressed in ways that challenge dominant discourses. Research in this genre seeks to transform actors' possibilities (Cresswell, 2013).

Post-structural research eschews the structural grandnarratives of critical theory concerned with categories of ethnicity, gender and class (Greene, 1992). It focuses instead on the multiple identities that social actors negotiate relationally at a local level through discourse as a social practice. Whilst sharing a commitment to deconstructing taken-for-granted power relations that advantage some over others, in contrast to transformative research, post-structural research is underpinned by the assumption that power relations cannot be escaped or

expressed in stable binaries (Jennings & Graham, 1996). Rather all social actors are multiply positioned in and through discourse, heterogeneous in their interests and identities; sometimes able to participate powerfully and sometimes constrained (Weiler, 1991). Research conducted within a post-structural genre aims to generate small stories rather than grand narratives (Anyon, 1994) centred around the configurations of power particular to specific social contexts and issues.

Despite the seeming incongruence of locating this research at the intersection of transformative and post-structural genres, both were necessary for my research. Post-structural theorising has been critiqued as ‘arm-chair politics’ where notions of power are troubled without an accompanying commitment to action and are argued to be incongruent with a social justice orientation in research (Youdell, 2006). However Adams St Pierre (1997) contends “poststructural theories offer opportunities to investigate ... worlds by opening up language for redeployment in revitalised social agendas” (p. 176). This in itself is a form of transformative action (Gergen, 2003). As Adams St Pierre argues, for those who find themselves on the ‘wrong side’ of power/powerless binaries, imagining other possibilities can also lead to “asking different questions and thus chang[ing] the conversation entirely” (Adams St Pierre, 1997, p. 176).

Critical theory in the transformative genre has come to dominate power theorising in the student voice field (C. Taylor & Robinson, 2009). However it is increasingly critiqued as inadequate for the task of accounting for the complexity of contemporary social relations (Bahou, 2011; Bragg, 2007b). This research adopts post-structural theorising to examine power dynamics beyond the critical genre but, in that it builds on established theorising of student voice associated with critical theory, it starts from this place. The research was a partisan political intervention that promoted greater student participation in pedagogical decision-making through the enactment of student/teacher governance partnerships. It was underpinned by the premise that more student influence is better than status quo passive student positioning.

In sum, the transformative genre provided me with the starting point for the research and best encapsulated its political intent as an intervention to afford students more influence in pedagogical decision-making. The post-structural

genre provided me with the theoretical resources to imagine power relations within classrooms beyond binaries. It also provided me with the discourse theories and tools to explore the ways that power conditions possibilities for teachers' and students' action.

A post-structural ontology, eschews truth claims based on the notion of objective reality. It adopts an 'anti-foundationalist' ontology (Gowlett, 2013) that theorises reality as socially constructed through discourse within particular contexts, identities and time (Schwandt, 1998). This anti-foundational ontology was most appropriate to this research because the research focuses on the intersection of language, power and interaction primarily (Bragg, 2007b; Orner, 1992) within the situated context of my research.

Working from a social constructionist epistemology (Burr, 2003; Gergen, 1985) sense-making was conceptualised as a dialogic process between people within relationships (Gergen, 1985). As Butler (1993) notes, 'unmooring' discourse from a realist ontology reconceptualises it as a "resource from which to articulate the future" (p. 11). Social constructionism shifts the focus of analysis from the individual and their experiences to the interaction between individuals. In this way social constructionism decentres the individual and places the analytic focus on processes of relating between people.

Both social constructionism and post-structuralism are critiqued on the grounds that their anti-foundational approach to reality can lead to relativism and ultimately nihilism. The question is raised 'on what basis can truth claims be judged?' Luke (1992) argues that rather than lead to relativism, socially constructed knowledges are always relational to specific contexts and moments in time. Adams St Pierre (1997) also notes that "there is nothing nihilistic or apolitical or irrational or relativistic or anarchistic or unethical about the task of resignification" (p. 176) in troubling orthodoxies within social relations.

4.3 Research Design: Collaborative Action Research

In Chapter Two I argued that although an established tradition of students as researchers exists within the student voice field, the majority of these studies are conducted outside classrooms, and few are focused on students' perceptions of effective teaching as a basis for teacher learning within ongoing participatory

frameworks. The design of this research addresses these aspects centrally by locating the study in classrooms as an action research project involving students and teachers as co-researchers focused on taking account of students' perceptions of effective teaching and engagement in pedagogical and curriculum decision-making as its central focus. An action research frame was identified as a potentially productive way to engage students and teachers as co-researchers in a dialogic way, and also to support teachers' professional learning from students.

The research was conceptualised more particularly as collaborative action research (Collins, 2004), a variant within the broad family of action research approaches (McTaggart, 1994). Before I describe what made the research collaborative action research I will outline the key tenets of action research relevant to this study.

Action research is defined in many ways but I adopt McTaggart's (1994) definition for this study, namely "the way groups of people can organise the conditions under which they learn from their own experience, and make this experience available to others" (pp. 316-317). Fundamental to action research is the notion that some particular social change is desirable and worth taking action towards (McTaggart, 1994). In this respect action research is interventionist and political. Action research employs diverse research methods but at its most simple involves social actors objectifying their experience and reflecting systematically on this experience in order to inform further action (McTaggart, 1994). McTaggart promotes action research practice in particular that includes social actors centrally affected by a particular problem or social issue taking responsibility for decision-making around particular actions and solutions. In this research teachers and students worked together to enact students more influentially in pedagogical and curriculum decision-making in ways responsive to their mutual needs and context.

Action research involves practitioners managing "complex situations critically and practically" (Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988, p. 7). As a research genre it is linked with social construction in that both are committed to democratic and relational processes to achieve social ends. More particularly both conceptualise the research process as socially constructed requiring ongoing, collaborative and critically aware decision-making (Gergen, 2003; Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988).

Collaborative action research (Collins, 2004; Feldman & Weiss, 2010) is a variant within the broad family of action research. Collaborative action research is most generally practitioner-based, focused on issues and questions of central relevance within particular classroom contexts (Collins, 2004). However Collins (2004) also advocates the involvement of all ‘significant actors’ within the classroom including students, because they are centrally affected by any social change teachers make and because such action research potentially offers students the opportunity for substantial participation in decision-making for change through the use of participatory research methods.

Collaborative action research best addressed the focus of this research on teachers and students working together to re-position students with influence in pedagogical and curriculum decision-making. By definition collaborative action (Collins, 2004) research also offered research processes that would support teachers to take account of the perspectives of their students in the enactment of governance partnerships.

Action research features prominently in student voice research (Atweh & Bland, 2004; Beattie, 2012; Collins, 2004; Cox & Robinson-Pant, 2008; Kroeger et al., 2004). Within this research students participate in researching school and community-based issues relevant to them. However as already noted, the majority of these studies are conducted outside the classroom within specific project groups and school-based research programmes, rather than being focused in classrooms on matters of effective teaching practice.

One notable exception relevant to this research within the students as researchers genre is Cox and Robinson-Pant’s (2008) classroom-based action research study in the UK. The study involved nine teachers and their students in six primary schools enacting practical opportunities to include students in classroom decision-making. Classrooms were chosen as the site of the research on the basis that the classroom space was the primary site of ‘professional and research energy’ (Rudduck, 2007). The teachers facilitated the research with their students as co-researchers and with university researchers, who facilitated capacity building activities with students, captured data of the children in action, and facilitated teacher planning and discussion sessions. This research design enabled the

illumination of influencing constraints of the broader institutional context on the possibilities for teachers' and students' classroom research.

Action research has been critiqued on a number of fronts. Highlighted as a limitation of the approach is its localised nature (Brydon-Miller, 2003). Brydon-Miller (2003) notes that in the process of effecting social change "action research is likely to win local skirmishes but not the bigger social battles that face us all" (p. 25). Altrichter (1993) argues also that action research is potentially incompatible in its ongoing demands for practitioners to implement research processes and integrate findings into practice within their workloads and cultures, running the risk of increasing pressure on participants as a result of volunteering. Cox and Robinson-Pant (2008) also question the extent to which student participants are 'captive subjects' in such classroom-based research rather than research partners with teachers.

4.3.1 Research relationships

This research involved four main participant groupings interacting in a co-researcher relationship: (1) I participated as the doctoral researcher, (2) three class teachers participated with their (3) class of students and (4) a small student research group drawn from the participating classes participated as co-researchers with each other, their teachers and me. Primarily the participating teachers interacted with their students as action research partners. The aim here was for teachers to learn from their students about effective teaching and conditions for engagement in order to co-construct responsive and reciprocal pedagogy and curriculum with students. More broadly the participating teachers interacted with each other and with me as co-researchers.

As mentioned a focus group of students participated in the research as the 'student research group' (SRG). These students acted as co-researchers with their teachers and their classmates in their classroom research investigating mutually relevant research questions together. They acted as co-researchers with me, generating the initial data on student perceptions of effective teaching and engagement, and continued to meet to reflect on aspects of the classroom research in action across the study. Their reflections also informed their teachers' thinking through the sharing of transcripts of SRG sessions with the participating teachers once identifying features were removed. In this respect the SRG was conceptualised

most closely with Lundy and McEvoy's (2011) notion of a CRAG – children's research advisory group – who advise adult researchers as co-researchers, drawing on their expertise of childhood as children and young people to inform adults' thinking. Contrasting with a CRAG the SRG actively participated in the collaborative action research as part of their classroom learning. In this respect they played multiple roles in the research: students experiencing the research as classwork, co-researchers with their teachers and each other, and reflective advisors with me.

The positioning of teachers and students as co-researchers within this research design best aligns with Level Four of Shier's (2001, 2006) *Pathways to Participation Matrix* (section 2.2) within the central Opportunities strand. At this Level students are involved in decision-making alongside teachers.

4.3.2 Research design: Three cycles of action

The research was conceptualised and enacted as three cycles of action, each with a distinct purpose:

1. Action Cycle One: Exploring Perspectives and Starting Points
2. Action Cycle Two: Focused Exploration with Wider Perspectives
3. Action Cycle Three: Taking Action: Classroom Action Research Projects

The three action cycles of the research are depicted in Figure 2 as nested circles within a broader circle labelled 'Collaborative action research'. Each cycle generates the data on which strategic action within each successive cycle is based. The broadest circle is included to show that learning within the three separate class action research projects contributed to understandings and action developed across the broader collaborative action research project.

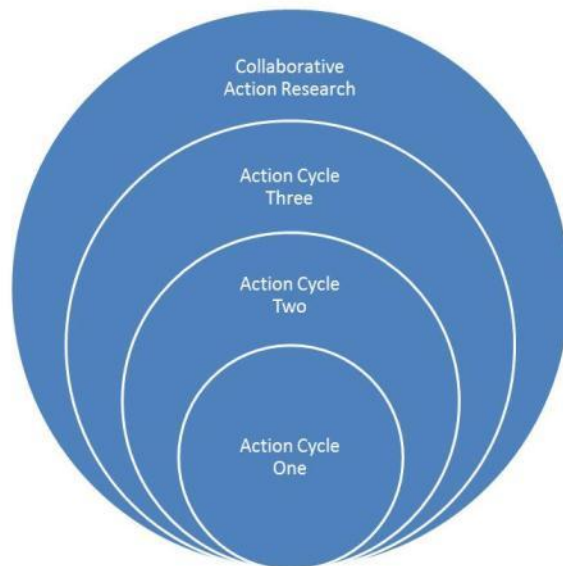


Figure 2 Research Design

Processes within each cycle were generatively negotiated between the teachers and the students and myself, but more generally these reflected Lincoln and Guba’s (1985) processes of reconnaissance (scoping), planning, action, monitoring, analysis and reflection depicted in Figure 3 below.

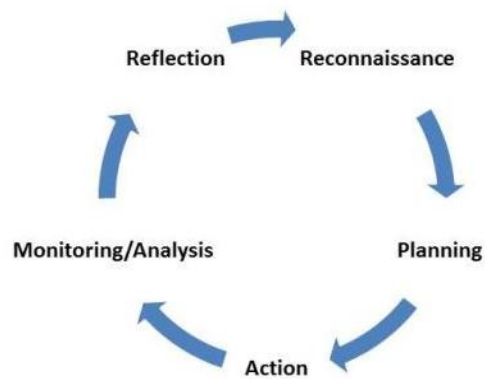


Figure 3 Activities Within Each Action Cycle

Each cycle fed learning and findings into the next in an overall spiral of action as the research partners’ understanding deepened and the scale of interventions increased across the three cycles (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

In the next section I describe the purpose and foci of each action cycle along with the data generation and analysis strategies utilised.

4.3.2.1 Action Cycle One: Exploring perspectives and starting points

Action Cycle One established three starting points:

1. Participating teachers' perceptions of effective teaching and student voice for the young adolescent age group;
2. Student Research Group (SRG) perceptions of effective teaching, themselves as learners at school and beyond and conditions that influenced their engagement and disengagement with learning at school; and
3. Baseline patterns of student engagement with learning at school.

Action Cycle One culminated with the participating teachers analysing and reflecting on initial student voice data as a starting point for checking the themes generated by the small SRG with students across their whole class and exploring these themes indepth.

4.3.2.2 Action Cycle Two: Focused exploration with wider perspectives

In Action Cycle Two the teachers devised pedagogical strategies to check and explore more deeply the themes generated in the analysis of the Action Cycle One initial student voice data. At the end of the action cycle the teachers reflected on the learning they gained from engaging with their students and their perspectives, as the starting point for a class action research project in Action Cycle Three.

4.3.2.3 Action Cycle Three: Taking action

In Action Cycle Three the teachers and their students conducted their own mini class action research projects. The teachers decided the focus of these projects, but in each case these had to relate to research questions that arose for them in engaging with the initial student voice data of Action Cycle One and their learning from students in Action Cycle Two. Together the teachers and their students worked to align one area of the classroom programme with these findings. The teachers and their students implemented action research cycle processes over ten weeks to formatively co-construct the strategic action of their project.

In Action Cycle Three the New Zealand Council for Educational Research (NZCER) *Me and My School* student engagement survey was also re-administered to students within the participating and comparison classes at the end of the action

cycle to generate comparative student engagement data with baseline data from Action Cycle One.

4.3.2.4 Research Processes Across the Three Action Cycles

Collective teacher action research meetings were held across the three action cycles. In these meetings the teachers reflected on their beliefs and their practices related to effective teaching for the young adolescent age group and related to student voice. They also analysed and reflected on data generated with the SRG and with the students in their classroom research, shared aspects of their classroom research with each other, and reflected on common issues the research engendered for them within their working conditions.

Discussions with the SRG were also held across the three cycles of the research. Within these sessions students reflected on aspects of their particular class action research projects as these progressed. These SRG focus group discussions were transcribed and transcripts forwarded to the relevant class teacher to inform their ongoing reflection and planning once identifiability issues were addressed.

The SRG worked together as a combined class group at the beginning and the end of the research. They also worked in smaller class groupings throughout the research e.g. Chicken's SRG, Betty's SRG and Lincoln's SRG group. This enabled the research to generate a general and a specific view of the class action research activities as these unfolded. For example the SRG as a whole generated the data that was identified as the initial student voice data of Action Cycle One. However the three SRG sub-groups generated reflections on how aspects of the teachers' learning from this initial student voice data informed the resulting action within their specific classroom programme.

For the purposes of this thesis each of the three classes represented in the research is conceptualised as an individual case within a multicase approach (Stake, 2006). McNiff and Whitehead (2010) note that "most projects in action research turn out to be case studies, in the sense that they are studies of singularities (an individual 'I'), in company with other singularities" (p. 165). Each of the three class cases represents a singularity in its own right. But taken together, analysis and construction of each case contributed to understanding the quintain (Stake, 2006) of enacting student influence within classroom practice. It is important to note however that this research is not case study research. Case study research is non-

interventionist (Stake, 1978) and this research was overtly political, advocating for the enactment of student voice as preferable to the exclusion of students from educational design and decision-making.

4.4 Data Generation Techniques

Data in this research encompasses the social action and sense-making teachers and students engaged in primarily to understand how to enact student voice into classroom pedagogy and decision-making through student/teacher governance partnerships. Given the social constructionist underpinnings of the study, discourse was privileged. In this sense I refer to classroom talk as little ‘d’ discourse (section 3.2), students’, teachers’ and researcher talk, interaction and collaboration; as well as discourse about action and about learning from action. Data included also material artefacts that recorded learning and reflection on learning such as class charts and learning journal entries. Finally data included the scaffolds I developed to promote my action partners’ learning (reflective frameworks, readings, processes), the scaffolds the teachers put in place in their classroom work with their students (matrices, questions), and the scaffolds students put in place as they engaged with their teachers and with each other in the research (class meeting minutes, rules for speaking).

Data generation methods were selected for the collaborative action research congruent with the following four principles:

1. Reciprocity;
2. Multi-vocality;
3. Dialogic interaction; and
4. Critical reflexivity.

Reciprocity in this research refers to establishing mutual educative benefit of research activities for all research partners. For participating students this meant utilising research methods and foci that involved them exploring their own viewpoints as well as those of their peers in creative and pedagogically engaging ways (David, Edwards, & Alldred, 2001). This involved also utilising research processes that scaffolded students’ capacity to form as well as express a view (Lundy & McEvoy, 2011). For the participating teachers this meant involving them in research foci and processes that addressed salient issues in their teaching

work, dove-tailed with expectations of them as teachers beyond the research and involved them in personally meaningful learning. Reciprocity also involved utilising data generation methods that shifted the locus of control of data generation from the researcher to the participants in order to enact the student voice ideals of the research. These ideals included amplifying teacher voice as an aspect of enacting student voice (Fielding, 2001a).

Multi-vocality refers to the elicitation and presentation of multiple voices within the research; that is teachers, students and the researcher, but also acknowledging the often contradictory, fragmentary and incomplete nature of voice as it emerges in dialogue with other voices (Cook-Sather, 2007; Ellsworth, 1992; Gore, 1992; hooks, 1994; Orner, 1992). It also meant preserving complexity of perspectives in the analysis and presentation of findings rather than identification of common themes at the expense of divergent or minority perspectives.

Dialogic interaction refers to research partners – teachers, students and researcher – constructing, sharing and reflecting on each other’s viewpoints as a core research activity across the study (Bakhtin, 1981; Lodge, 2005).

Critical reflexivity refers to locating the perspectives of research participants within the broader social context (Lincoln, 1995), reflecting on the influence of the doctoral researcher, and examining how the research processes as configurations of power shaped student voice (Bragg, 2007b; Kothari, 2001) as it was enacted within the three classrooms. As part of troubling passive positioning for students research processes were selected for their potential to scaffold student research capacity and privilege the exploration of their worldview (Lundy & McEvoy, 2011).

To enact these principles I utilised participatory research methods that promoted collaboration and interaction as well as those that were demonstrated to assist young people to actively construct meaning of their own experience (Lundy & McEvoy, 2011). In addition to prescribed participatory methods developed in the design of the study, methods of inquiry also emerged generatively from the action research context, many involving the adaptation of familiar pedagogical strategies by teachers as research tools.

In the next section I introduce, discuss and critique the data generation strategies of the research.

4.4.1 Auto-photography and photo-elicitation interviews

Auto-photography (E. Taylor, 2002) and drawings were coupled with photo elicitation interviews (Capello, 2005; Clark-Ibanez, 2004; Clark, 1999) and focus group discussions (D. Morgan, 2004) in Action Cycle One to explore participants' perceptions of concepts central to the research. Visual research methods were used by both teachers and students, however given the student voice intention of the research I focus on discussing their efficacy for use with children and young people.

When conducting research with children and young people research methods are needed "which respect children's agency and participation rights, and which are sensitive to the need to study children's participation in context" as well as "show that ...children can communicate about their views, intentions and difficulties" (Smith, 2002, p. 84). Auto-photography and photo elicitation interviews address these needs because they scaffold "the construction of shared situation[s]" (Smith, 2002, p. 81) between research participants and researcher.

Auto-photography as a strategy within the broader umbrella of visual research methods, involves research participants constructing photographic images that represent aspects of their perspective and worldview in response to research questions or prompts. This distinguishes the strategy from other uses of photography as a data generation tool, such as researcher-generated images used to stimulate participant perspectives (Prosser & Schwartz, 1998) and documentary photography (Becker, 1998) where participants are primarily providing responses within the parameters of the photographs constructed by others. In the case of child participants, auto-photography provides opportunity for open-ended self-positioning of children and young people in relation to the research foci. In this way the data generation technique addresses the intent of UNCRC participation rights for children to express a view free of pre-determined outcomes (Lundy & McEvoy, 2011).

Photo elicitation interviews refer to image-supported interviews where the image-creator, the participant, leads the interviewer through an explanation of the meaning they have assigned to their photographs. Primarily the images and the

order in which the participant chooses to explain them, comprise the interview protocol.

Auto-photography coupled with photo elicitation interviews are argued as especially efficacious for research with children and young people for the following three reasons:

1. Photo elicitation interviews shift the locus of control within the interview from the adult researcher to the student photographer, helping to mediate differential power relations based on perceived status and age (Clark, 1999).
2. Images coupled with dialogic exploration create a mutual context and cultural bridge between the worldview of the author of the images and the audience (Capello, 2005); and
3. Images function as a ‘third party’ in the interview, taking the focus off the interviewer/interviewee relationships and placing it on exploring the photos – mimicking looking through photos as a familiar social process (Musello, 1980; Punch, 2002). This supports young people with the often unfamiliar research process (Barnard, 2002; Graue & Walsh, 1998).

Visual methods reverse “the normal role of [students] having research done to them” (Lodge, 2009, p. 366). Lodge (2009) argues “unless the young people themselves are active in the research processes – for example helping to create and to derive meaning from images – then the tendency for adults to create their own answers will endure” (p. 366). The insertion of students’ perspectives through their image-supported explanations can also, for educators, render “the familiar strange through familiar scenes being seen from another’s point of view” (Lodge, 2009, pp. 366-367).

Visual data generation methods nested within action research frameworks have been used in school-based student voice research to bring students and teachers together to explore each other’s viewpoints as a precursor to changing pedagogical practice (Kroeger et al., 2004).

However, auto-photography as a means to redress unequal power relations between adults and young people is increasingly problematised as notions of power beyond binaries become more prevalent (Gallacher & Gallagher, 2008).

However, although a set of techniques might not transfer or confer power, they can assist to generate the kind of research space where viewpoints not traditionally explored can be shared and engaged with.

Image-supported interviews have been found to maintain a consistent response quality in participants not evident in traditional verbal interviews where response quality ebbs over time (Croghan, Griffin, Hunter, & Phoenix, 2008; Worth & Adair, 1972). Images also stimulate recall and tangential recollections of events, thoughts and memories associated with the focus of the images and discussion. Effectiveness of photo elicitation interviews is not dependent on the linguistic sophistication of the interviewee because aspects of the image can be used to convey and stimulate their perspective without having to be able to create a linguistic mental picture for the interviewer (Capello, 2005).

4.4.2 Drawings

Drawings can complement auto-photography as a data generation strategy to explore student perception (P. Bishop & Pflaum, 2005a, 2005b; Ehrlen, 2009). Drawings are inherently more flexible than photographs, they can be added to and scribbled on, and are also a familiar activity of childhood (Punch, 2002). However, drawings as a research tool in qualitative research are under-studied with the method more established in psychology and therapeutic domains (P. Bishop & Pflaum, 2005a; Literat, 2013; Tay-Lim & Lim, 2013). Literat (2013) notes that one limitation of using drawings with children and youth is that pen and paper drawings have been overtaken technologically with digital photography and video, that engage participants more deeply. Drawings are also constructed within the scopic regime (G. Rose, 2007) available to participants. That is, drawings are constructed by drawing on available cultural symbols and resources to represent meaning.

In this research drawings were adopted as a strategy to stimulate thinking, to aid student participants to communicate concepts important to them in a way complementary to auto-photography coupled with photo elicitation interviews. The students' drawings were constructed in a group setting amongst other members of the SRG who were also producing their drawings in response to research prompts. The drawings were informally explored collectively through group discussion as they were constructed and individually within photo

elicitation interviews. Affording the students opportunities to individually and collectively explore the meaning they ascribed to their drawings addressed social dynamics that influence group discussions (Bloor, Frankland, Thomas, & Robson, 2001). But also the group opportunity was in line with a commitment to reciprocity within the research, the SRG members could hear each other sharing their various perspectives and participate in a relevant collective exploration of topics and personally meaningful experiences.

4.4.3 SRG focus group discussions

Focus group discussions were utilised as an approach to working with the SRG across the three action cycles of the research. These were conceptualised as “a research technique that collects data through group interaction on a topic determined by the researcher” (D. Morgan, 1996, p. 130). The focus and activities within each of these sessions were responsive to the particular action cycle of the research and the classroom practice in each of the three participating classes. Primarily the focus of the SRG discussions were around a particular innovation the students were involved in.

SRG focus group discussions were transcribed and transcripts forwarded to the relevant class teacher to inform their thinking and reflection on their students’ perceptions of the innovations within the research. The SRG students consented to this practice and were aware that their reflections were being used to inform their teachers’ learning and thinking.

4.4.4 New Zealand Council for Educational Research: *Me and My School* student engagement survey

I utilised the NZCER *Me and My School* student engagement survey within the research to generate baseline data around patterns of student engagement within the participating classes at the outset of the research and again at the conclusion of the research also. I posited that in line with student voice as enhanced learning discourse introduced in Chapter Two, the focus and the research activities of the study would positively impact student engagement especially for those students included in the SRG.

To generate a comparison between student engagement patterns of those students involved in the research and those involved in conventional class programmes I recruited three ‘comparison classes’ to take the *Me and My School* survey at the

outset and at the conclusion of the research so that I could compare student engagement patterns between classes that participated in the action research and classes that did not. The three remaining class teachers in the learning team that the participating class teachers were members of volunteered to act as comparison classes for the survey.

4.4.5 Video

Video snapshots of participating teachers' practice were utilised to stimulate collaborative teacher reflection in the research (Cowie, Moreland, Otrell-Cass, & Jones, 2008; Maclean & White, 2007). Borko (2004) identifies the potential of video snapshots of practice to act as bridges bringing the classroom work of teachers into the professional development domain. Viewing video data provides an opportunity for teachers to see their practice in action and to reflect on what they might have done differently as well as providing for multiple viewings and reflection on different aspects of the practice captured (Lesh & Lehrer, 2000; Maclean & White, 2007). Reflecting collaboratively allows teachers to benefit from the collective experience of their colleagues in making sense of their teaching and possibilities for re-construction of their practice, focuses teachers' learning on the development of effective pedagogy and builds a shared language and focus on what effective pedagogy might look like in practice (Maclean & White, 2007).

Use of video clips of teaching practice in teacher professional development is underpinned by various purposes. Some programmes share exemplary practice with teachers with the intention that this practice is emulated, some programmes use clips so that teachers can investigate and reflect on students' thinking within lessons and some programmes utilise video clips for the purpose of developing teachers 'professional vision' (Sherin & van Es, 2009) where scaffolding frameworks are used to attune teachers to notice aspects of their pedagogy. This research utilised video clips for the purpose of developing teachers' ability to notice aspects of their pedagogy and how their teaching strategies influenced observable student participation, and how their pedagogy changed over the action research project.

For this purpose the reflective framework devised plays an important role in sensitising viewers to certain aspects rather than others when interpreting and

reflecting on the video data generated (Lesh & Lehrer, 2000). The development of the scaffolding framework to guide reflection on video snapshots questions sensitised teachers to aspects of their theories of action (V. Robinson & Lai, 2006), pedagogy and professional identity(ies) evident in their talk and actions with students (Gee, 2000-2001; Hoekstra, Brekelmans, Beijaard, & Korthagen, 2009; Sherin & van Es, 2009) and how these identities and pedagogical strategies appear to position, afford and constrain (Norman, 1999) student participation in intended and unintended ways.

Teachers produced the video data for reflection and selected specific clips within this footage for reflection. The research adopts a view of video as a tool for teacher reflection and learning where video “becomes a mirror for those who are videotaped to reconsider their actions.” (Goldman, 2007, p. 9). Empowering teachers to select and videotape excerpts of their own practice “breaks hegemonic practices of capturing video records and shooting others” (p. 15) a practice Goldman describes as ‘colonialist’ and perpetrating an imperialist approach to research using “video representations as dissociated objects to display others” (p. 7).

In this way through collectively viewing classroom video snapshots participating teachers and the researcher are invited into each of the classrooms to view how the interventions take shape throughout the research. The video snapshots serve as anchoring artefacts to promote reflective and reflexive talk (Cowie et al., 2008) and “a reminder of the specific learning context under discussion ... a stimulus” (Wall & Higgins, 2006, p. 42).

The three participating class teachers were asked to video aspects of their classroom action projects and to select brief snapshots that demonstrated:

- Desired student involvement;
- The actions teachers had taken that contributed to the desired student involvement; and
- Aspects of challenge that they might want to address differently in future action.

These video snapshots created mutual context for the class teachers and the researcher that provided multiple opportunities to view and reflect on aspects of

practice, discourse, and interaction patterns within the classroom action projects. In a similar way to auto-photography the participating teachers led the explanation and exploration how their pedagogical interventions were influencing their practice, student positioning and their developing class culture.

4.4.6 Documentation

I collected and generated project documentation as data across the action cycles of the research. Project documentation included: photographs of action research documentation on classroom walls, samples of students' project work, samples of teachers' planning and action research recording and field notes.

As my research design did not involve classroom observation, field notes consisted largely of my reflections on research activities I engaged in with the teachers and the SRG. In this respect they represented my positionality in relation to the research context (Rudge, 1996). In these reflections I described the research activity, aspects of the activity that were salient to me, and impressions, emotional responses, questions and thinking provoked by the activity.

4.5 Data Analysis

Data analysis was conducted throughout the research programme in each of the three cycles of action. Regular action research meetings acted as feedback loops within and between action cycles where analysis could inform teachers' timely reflection on effects of their practice interventions and their students' perceptions of these to inform their next steps. Data analysis also extended beyond the completion of the action research over a two-year period.

The data analysis approaches of the research can be distinguished into four broad types:

1. Constant comparative analysis of data during the research in action (Silverman, 2005);
2. Indirect analysis of images through analysis of student and teacher photo elicitation interview transcripts (Collier, 2001);
3. Discourse analysis conducted during and after completion of the fieldwork; and
4. Survey analysis (conducted by New Zealand Council for Educational Research).

4.5.1 Constant comparative analysis

Constant comparative analysis was utilised as a method for comprehensive data treatment (Silverman, 2005). The approach was applied to the analysis of Action Cycle One teacher and student photo elicitation interview data. The approach comprised three elements:

1. Identification of categories, patterns, and relationships within the data through a process of coding;
2. Testing and revision of the emergent conceptual analysis to progressively larger corpus of data, to account for all aspects of the data; and
3. Application of new codes that emerge to previously analysed data.

Themes and categories are identified within the data and used to build a conceptual framework based on one initial interview transcript until data saturation is achieved. This framework is successively applied to the wider corpus of transcript data. With each widening of the analysis to include new interview transcripts, earlier transcripts are reviewed and the emergent conceptual analysis revised to take account of new themes and categories that emerge until data saturation is achieved. Constant comparative analysis identifies prevalent themes but also emphasises the need to identify and take account of divergent perspectives that emerge. This ensures that the complexity and diversity within data are accounted for and reflected in the emergent conceptual framework.

4.5.2 Indirect analysis of images

An indirect analysis approach was taken to the analysis of images (photographs and drawings) generated within the research (Collier, 2001; E. Taylor, 2002). In practice this meant that photographs and drawings generated by participants were not interpreted by the researcher. Instead, the participants assigned meaning to the images they produced. The assumption with this indirect approach is that images do not stand alone, cannot be taken at face value, and need the explanation of the image creator to bring meaning to them. In this respect images are used as a sense-making tool rather than as a means of documentation as they have been more traditionally used in schools (Lodge, 2009). This also conceptualises the photo elicitation interview as the initial image analysis by the participant. The

researcher analyses the transcript of the elicitation interview but not the image itself.

Adopting an indirect image analysis stance was part of shifting the locus of control over data generation and initial analysis to participants. The participating students and teachers control the data generation process and the initial sense of made of this data. The researcher contributes to shape the focus of what will count as relevant data by devising photo and drawing prompts but once the camera or pencils are in the hands of participants what is generated and selected for presentation as data is in the control of the participant.

4.5.3 Discourse analysis

The approach taken to discourse analysis in this research was compatible with notions of discourse as a social practice linked to power (Gee, 2012). As Gee and Green (1998) note,

people do not talk for talk's sake or write for writing's sake. Rather, they talk (and write) for a purpose (i.e. to communicate with others in order to accomplish "things" with them or to show what they have learned. (p. 136)

In this respect discourse analysis in this study focused on what social actors were accomplishing with their language rather than "functioning solely on language form and function" (Gee & Green, 1998, p. 122). The discourse analysis approach developed for this research drew on elements from key discourse analysis approaches (Gee, 2012; Gee & Green, 1998). Additionally other discourse frameworks were drawn on as the data suggested elements that needed further unpacking through a process of theoretical sampling (Thornberg, 2010). These frameworks and elements are presented in section 4.11.7.

Throughout the project I shared findings from the discourse analysis of interview transcripts, video snapshots, SRG discussions with teachers during the action research workshops. Findings were also presented to participating students as a strategy for establishing the robustness of the analysis and as an opportunity for reflection towards the end of the action research.

4.5.3.1 NZCER survey analysis

The NZCER *Me and My School* Surveys were analysed by NZCER and the analysis returned to teachers in the form of class reports showing patterns in the students' responses.

4.6 Establishing Robustness

I adopt the term 'robustness' to describe the processes I utilised within the research to establish the credibility of the design and analysis. In this respect I utilise processes conventionally associated with interpretive research but from the perspective that they aid in establishing confidence rather than certainty in the approach. As Delamont and Atkinson (2009) argue of research conducted within the poststructural paradigm, "it is not necessary to imply a radical break with past practices, or to invoke a distinctively postmodern slant" (p. 674). In this research I opted for utilising established qualitative research methods but from a perspective that acknowledged the partial and socially constructed nature of the research process (Aguinaldo, 2004).

As part of building robust and transparent research processes I engaged in thick description (Geertz, 2003) so that readers could judge the ecological plausibility of the interpretations I made in the data analysis as reflective of classroom practice within a New Zealand intermediate school context (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). This involved describing contextual factors in the school and classrooms of the research that influenced teachers' and students' interaction and strategic action. Examples of contextual factors include lesson duration, physical organisation of the students and teachers within the classroom space, time of day, interruptions to class sessions, and over-arching school-wide curriculum and timetable expectations.

I addressed robustness through generating multiple types of data on multiple occasions over the nine months of the research. This enabled identification of patterns over time to emerge as well as identification of the changing perceptions and perspectives of participants. Data was generated from multiple sources, perspectives, and feedback loops built into the action research design so that the students, the teachers and myself were able to validate the extent to which the emergent analysis reflected the sense we were making of our ongoing experiences within the research (Angen, 2000). These triangulation processes, rather than

building certainty as in a realist ontology, were used within the anti-foundationalist ontology of the research design primarily to facilitate the presentation of divergent perspectives (Angen, 2000) and an ongoing dialogic negotiation of the analysis over time among the participants and myself.

The key strategy I employed to build this ongoing dialogic negotiation of meaning over time was to involve the participating teachers and the SRG students in data analysis. The participating teachers took part in analysing the Action Cycle One student voice data and the SRG students gave the first analysis of their photos as part of the photo elicitation interviews and the indirect analysis stance adopted in the research.

Additionally I facilitated ongoing dialogic negotiation of meaning by disseminating:

- Interview and SRG discussion transcripts to SRG students and participating teachers throughout research;
- Summaries of ongoing data analysis throughout the research to participating teachers and SRG students for feedback and amendment within research meetings; and
- Papers (conference and journal articles) written about aspects of the research to the participating teachers.

These dissemination strategies were in keeping with the action research framework of the research and enabled aspects of the ongoing emergent analysis to cumulatively influence thinking, reflection and planning for action across the three action cycles. Dissemination also challenged the ‘self-evidence’ of the data by opening up debate amongst the participants about ‘absences’ and differing interpretations in the analysis process (Adams St Pierre, 1997). I preserved the multiple voices that shaped the findings of the research by ‘bookending’ each of the reported case events with the reflections of the participating teachers and the SRG members from each class.

Critical reflexivity (Bragg, 2007b) formed a key aspect of building robustness in the research design. The power analytic frame introduced in Chapter Three (section 3.4) was applied to Action Cycle Three data to generate a nuanced analysis of power dynamics at work in the research. The SRG students reflected

on aspects of the class action research across the study to ensure the shape and influence of power dynamics from their vantage point was included in ongoing reflexive examination in the research. I conceptualised my beliefs, values and practices around student voice, classroom pedagogy and my role in the research as socially constructed discourses and included these for inspection as part of my ongoing reflection on the research (Burr, 2003).

4.7 My Positioning Within the Research

I positioned myself as an insider and outsider within the action research (Dwyer & Buckle, 2009; Luke & Gore, 1992). This meant I considered myself personally engaged in the research and research context (Delamont & Atkinson, 2009) and an outside researcher also. As an outsider to the school, I participated within the collaborative action research as the doctoral researcher, and coordinated, monitored, analysed and disseminated emergent findings between the participating students and teachers through multiple feedback loops and research activities. However, I also brought my insider experience as a teacher, professional development facilitator and researcher to the investigation. Within the social ecology of the research classes, I supported the teachers to investigate and improve their particular pedagogical practice with their students, I made pedagogical suggestions, I shared my own puzzlement at times, and I affiliated as an educator with the teachers when we discussed matters of national education policy.

As this research also was intended to result in a doctoral thesis I acknowledge that I have taken responsibility for overlaying an argument on participating teachers' and students' perspectives and classroom action; this has privileged my sense-making over theirs in the final account of the research. It also prioritised how I engaged with my teacher and student research partners and the questions I explored with them. The bigger thesis purpose always influenced my interaction and research relationships. To illustrate this purpose explicitly in the cases reported in this thesis I have include the questions I asked and the responses I contributed where these initiated a topic or where these influenced a participant's response.

I kept a reflective research journal throughout the study in order to make explicit my responses to events in the research, my beliefs about concepts key to the

research, surprises, triggering events etc. I referred to these in the construction of cases.

Acknowledging my insider-outsider status in this research contributes to developing critical reflexivity within the research process but also signals my active intervention in the research. Burr (2003) argues disclosure and analysis of the political and biographical location of the researcher and the participants on the research is essential to acknowledging the socially constructed nature of the research. Delamont and Atkinson (2009) argue also that taking this reflexive stance “implies the recognition that social researchers ... are always implicated and engaged in the process of inquiry” (p. 673). I make no claims to being a dispassionate observer. On the contrary I embraced a position as vitally interconnected with my research partners, influencing the action, analysis and findings of the research. For these reasons I included a section in Chapter One outlining my personal perspective in relation to student voice (section 1.4).

4.8 Ethical Considerations

From a post-structural perspective negotiating ethics is an ongoing relational process where researchers are “in play” living “in the middle of things, in the tension of conflict and confusion and possibilities” (Adams St Pierre, 1997, p. 176) in research projects. To navigate ethics in action I applied moral norms (Wiles et al., 2008) such as ongoing respect and care for participants (Graue & Walsh, 1998) and autonomy including “voluntariness, informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity” (Wiles et al., 2008, p. 7). These values are important in any research but especially so in research with children and young people who are not used to being invited to ‘teach’ adults or operate autonomously, especially in school settings (Graue & Walsh, 1998). It is essential in voice research with students to adopt a humble approach, viewing being invited into the research context as a privilege (Graue & Walsh, 1998) and eschewing an authority role more typical of teachers or other adults working with students within schools.

Ethical considerations within this research also included issues of identifiability and anonymity associated with visual data generation methods (Wiles, Coffey, Robinson, & Heath, 2012). Anonymity has been identified as the ‘core issue’ of research using visual methods (Pauwels, 2008). Photos and video snapshots taken

by teachers had the potential to identify their students, themselves and their practice within dissemination of research findings within the school and local educational context. Photos taken by students participating in the research had the potential to identify them and their peers with particular perspectives shared. The research school was one of seven Intermediate schools in the area so any images taken by students and teachers participating in the research had the potential to identify the school.

I addressed this issue of identifiability and anonymity of participants in six ways:

1. Restricted use of any images used in the dissemination of the research to those that did not depict participants face-on;
2. Translated photos into line drawings using photo software and removed features such as school logos before these were used to disseminate findings of the research;
3. Formulated specific permission guidelines for teachers and students in preparation for their photo assignments;
4. Ensured that teachers analysing student photo elicitation interviews were not assigned transcripts from students in their class;
5. Developed an Image Consent Form to cover the use of particular images in the dissemination of the research findings of the research; and
6. Restricted the viewing of video snapshot data to myself and the participating teachers.

These strategies were informed by guidelines for ethical issues in visual research (Crow & Wiles, 2008; Wiles et al., 2008).

The other focusing ethical issue was around ensuring students in the participating classes were afforded a way to opt out of the research. As collaborative action research the research in action involved teachers making changes to their classroom programme and pedagogies. These changes necessarily involved their students. Students within each participating class participated in research activities as part of their classwork and could not opt out of these. However they could opt out of having their contributions to classwork included in the research as data. This approach was in line with similar classroom-based student voice research where aspects of the research were conducted as part of the classroom programme but students were enabled to opt out of optional research aspects

(Alderson & Morrow, 2004; R. Frost, 2007). All students were invited to give informed consent to being captured in visual data, and for the use of samples of their classwork as data within the research. Students who chose to opt out of the research (3-4 students in each of the three classes) sat out of shot when class sessions were video recorded and were not included in any photos. No samples of class work that could be identified to them were used as data in the research. Gaining specific consent around the use of particular images generated through the research from those captured in the photographs addressed incidents of inadvertent capture of students in group photos who had opted out of the research, because those captured were able to decline use of the image in disseminating research findings.

Informed consent procedures with young people need to go beyond consent forms and embody an attitude of negotiation – informing participants and gaining permission on an ongoing basis (Graue & Walsh, 1998). Given the duration of the research over three terms of the school year, ongoing verbal consent processes were utilised with SRG students before any research activity.

In this research an ‘educated consent’ approach was adopted (David et al., 2001). This meant that research strategies were designed with potential educative benefit for students. For example initial consent processes afforded potential SRG participants extended opportunities to explore what participation in the research might mean for them. They were also able to gain prior practical experience with the visual data generation strategies of the project before deciding whether or not to participate.

Perceived conflict of interest was an ethical issue in the research. At the time of the research I worked as a professional development facilitator in the area of inquiry learning within a cluster of schools that included the research school. The Ministry of Education funded the cluster professional development. In 2010 my involvement with the school amounted to four days across the year paid for out of cluster rather than school funds. In my facilitator role I did not have management responsibilities for any teachers or work with any of the teachers involved in this research.

However, to mitigate any perceived conflict of interest, my invitation letters to the Principal and to potential participating teachers clarified explicitly my collegial

and research role in the study. I explicitly stated that any advice offered during the collaborative action research could be accepted or discarded at the teachers' discretion.

4.9 Part Two: The Research Enacted

In this section I describe how the research design was enacted into practice within the research context.

4.10 The Research Setting and Participants

The research was conducted within one Decile 8 New Zealand Intermediate School² between February – October, 2010. Students were organised in Year Seven/Eight composite classes. Classes within the school were organised within three 'houses' or learning teams of around six classes in each. The school had been involved in professional development initiatives focused on developing 'rich, real and relevant' curricula and pedagogical approaches for the young adolescent age group prior to the research. They had also acted as the lead school in a Ministry of Education *Extending High Standards Across Schools (EHSAS)* project that funded six schools to collaborate around developing inquiry learning pedagogy school-wide.

I employed opportunity sampling (Cohen et al., 2007) to select the research school, participating teachers, their classes and the SRG. I invited the Principal of the school informally to participate in the research. I followed up this informal invitation with a formal School Information Letter to the Principal as Board of Trustees representative. The principal agreed that the school would participate on the basis that six teachers were willing to participate as an addition to their professional work load.

4.10.1 Recruiting participating class and comparison class teachers

To recruit participating class and comparison class teachers I presented the research at a staff meeting in February 2010. At this meeting I outlined the research questions, aims, design, criteria for participation and anticipated

² New Zealand schools are assigned a decile rating that describes the extent to which they draw students from low socio-economic communities. A decile rating of 1 indicates a school is one of 10% with the highest proportion of students drawn from the lowest socio-economic communities. A decile rating of 10 indicates a school is one of 10% that have the lowest proportion of students drawn from low socio-economic communities. A School's decile rating is devised from national census data and updated every five years (Ministry of Education).

professional commitment requirements of the research to all staff. I was looking to recruit fully registered teachers working preferably within the same learning team. I preferred to work with teachers in the same learning team to generate a critical mass within the team where teachers could collaborate easily and support each other within the research.

I distributed a research information pack related to all teachers that included an Information Sheet and Teacher Consent Form. I asked teachers to indicate their willingness to participate to me either in person, via email or via telephone within a week following the staff meeting. Six teachers agreed to participate in the research – three as participating classes for the duration of the research and three as comparison classes for the NZCER *Me and My School* student engagement survey at the beginning and end of the research. The six teachers together constituted one of the school’s three learning teams. I met with the learning team during a team meeting and re-stated the aims and processes of the research again in more detail, obtained informed consent, and established the organisation for recruiting participating and comparison students from their classes.

Table 1 presents details of the three participating teachers: their gender, years teaching, relevant responsibilities and experience and their espoused reasons for participating in the research.

Table 1 Participating Teacher Details

Teachers	Gender	Years teaching	Responsibilities & Experience	Reasons for Participating
Betty	Female	6	Class teacher	Investigate her students’ perceptions of good teaching as reflective professional opportunity
Chicken	Female	15	Team Leader Prior student voice professional development	Learn more about being an effective teacher from her students
Lincoln	Male	8	Digital class teacher Lead teacher for e-learning	Utilise technology in as a means to engage and enhance student learning. Enact students as teachers philosophy

4.10.2 Recruiting participating and comparison class students

This section describes the processes I used to recruit participating and comparison class students to gain their educated consent to participate in the research. I presented the focus, questions and activities of the research to the students in each of the three participating and three comparison classes. For students in the participating teachers' classes I prepared a short animation that communicated the focus and intent of the research, and what participation in the research would entail (Figure 4).

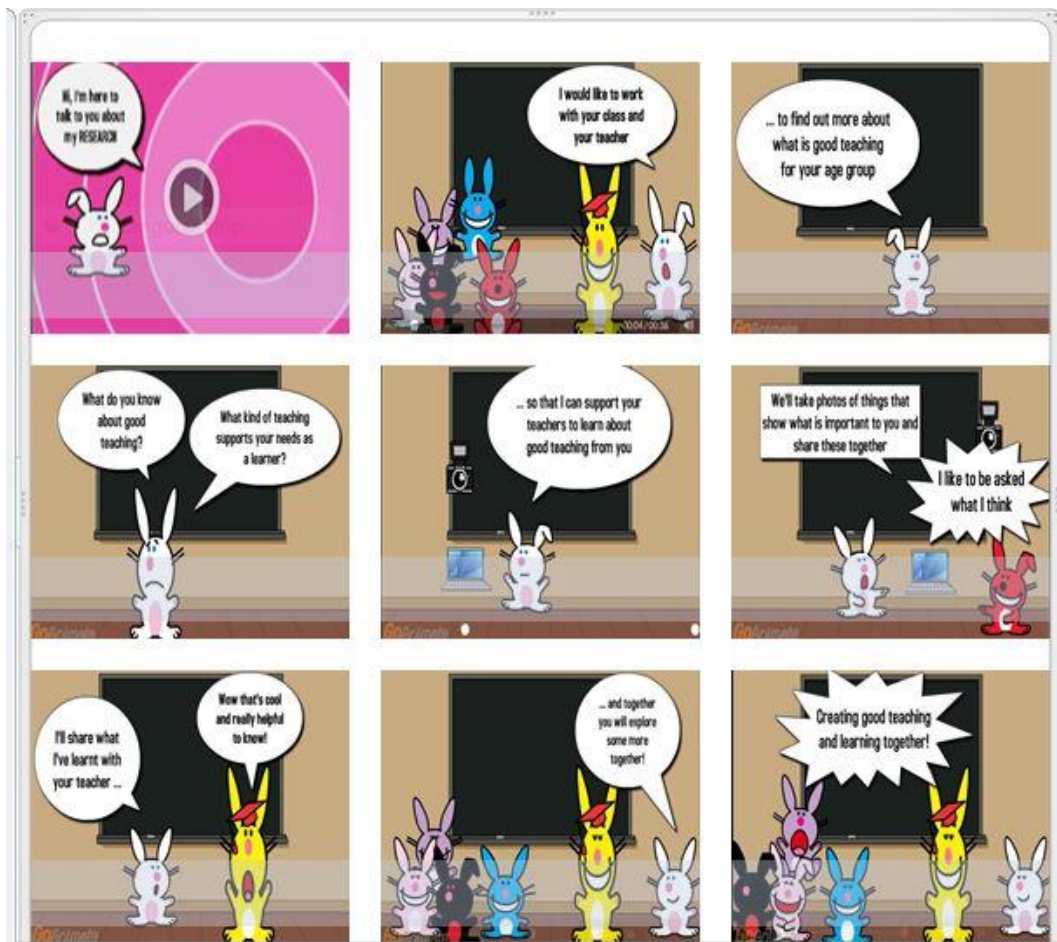


Figure 4 Animated Introduction to the Research. Screen shots

I distributed a Student Information Sheet during the session for students to refer to as I talked. The Information Sheet included a question and answer section (David et al., 2001) to ensure that information essential to the research was accessible to a broad range of readers. I also mailed a Student Information Pack to all students and their parents/caregivers in the participating and comparison classes that included a:

- Student Information Sheet and Consent Form; and

- Parental Information Sheet; and Consent Form

The comparison class Information Pack focused on gaining consent to take part in the NZCER *Me and My School* student engagement survey in Action Cycle's One and Three of the research. The participating class Information Pack was more extensive and focused on the collaborative action research activities.

The Information Packs were mailed home to ensure that all parents received information about the research and to expedite the consent process. Class teachers received and collated completed student and parental consent forms and distributed additional Information packs to students who lost these or whose parents/caregivers did not receive packs sent via the post.

4.10.3 Recruiting the student research group

To recruit the student research group (SRG) of 12 students from within the three participating classes, originally I organised an open lunchtime meeting for interested students to attend. I had described the purpose, focus and activities that the SRG would be involved in throughout the research during the initial introduction of the research to the participating class students. I produced 60 SRG Information Packs based on initial indications from students as to who might be interested to join the group.

In practice the lunchtime meeting clashed with the students' existing extra-curricular commitments. Only two students attended and registered their interest for participating in the SRG through the lunch meeting forum. I repeated the lunch session again at a different time with similar results. I consulted with the participating teachers and we decided that the teachers would invite four students in each of their classes who had indicated informally they would be interested to participate. The teachers were asked to invite a mix of students on criteria of gender, class level, and ethnicity. I also asked the teachers to approach students who varied in perceived engagement with school and capability to articulate their perspectives.

In practice some of the students approached by the class teachers declined to participate because they perceived the research would involve 'more work'. This included a number of Maori students approached in order to ensure ethnic diversity in the SRG. The final makeup of the SRG became those students who

were interested to participate initially, and those who consented after being approached by their teachers.

Twelve students agreed to participate in the research. Table 2 shows the demographic characteristics of the group.

Table 2 Student Research Group Demographic Characteristics

Criteria	Gender	Chicken's Class		Betty's Class		Lincoln's Class		Total
		Year 7	Year 8	Year 7	Year 8	Year 7	Year 8	
Year Group								
Gender	Male		1	1	1		1	4
	Female	1	2	1	1	2	1	8
Ethnicity	NZ European		3	2	2	2	2	11
	Maori	1			1			2

Table 2 shows that four of the SRG were male and eight were female. Eleven of the group identified as New Zealand European ethnicity and two identified as Maori. One student identified as both Maori and New Zealand European. Five of the SRG group were Year 7 students and seven of the group were Year 8 students.

Once the SRG students were selected, I met with them to re-state the aims, focus and questions of the research and to introduce them to the visual research methods and photo assignment. I used a visual chart to highlight the main information of the session that students could refer to throughout the meeting, reviewed information students had already been given and answered the students' questions about the implications of participating in the research. I brought along two digital cameras that the students used to explore the process of auto-photography.

I distributed the SRG Information Pack to students in this meeting also. The Information pack contained a:

- SRG Student Information Sheet and Consent Form;
- SRG Parental Information Sheet and Consent Form; and
- Demographic Questionnaire.

I presented information about the research in the information and consent forms in a question and answer format for reasons outlined in 4.10.2. The students returned their consent forms to their class teachers and these were passed on to me for collation and storage.

The SRG students selected pseudonyms for the research to protect their identity and anonymise their contributions. Table 3 outlines their pseudonyms, an abbreviation of these that I use to associate data examples with them throughout the research account, and their classroom.

Table 3 Student Research Group Pseudonyms and Abbreviations

Class Teacher	Pseudonym	Abbreviation
Betty	Timmy Star Sandy Dee Tim Bob Jim Bubbles	TS SD TBJ BB
Chicken	Flippinschnip Short Stuff Pocket Rockit Honey Bunny	FN SS PR HB
Lincoln	Lulabelle Asheley Green Hityu Captain Underpants	LL AG HT CU

4.11 Data Generation and Analysis across the Three Action Cycles

In this section I describe how processes of data generation and analysis were enacted across the three action cycles of the research.

4.11.1 Collaborative teacher action research meetings

Four collaborative teacher action research meetings and one collaborative data analysis day were held over the course of the research to share learning, reflect on data and findings and to plan next strategic action. Table 4 shows the focus and date of these sessions, and how they related to the three action cycles.

Table 4 Collaborative Action Research Meetings

Collective Action Research Meetings (AR)	Focus	Data Code & Date
Action Cycle One	<p>Action Research One</p> <p>Reflecting on Teacher Photo Elicitation Interview Analysis</p> <p>Planning for Action Cycle One student photo assignment data generation and NZCER survey administration</p>	<p>AR1 (23/3)</p> <p>1.30-2.45pm</p>
Action Cycle Two	<p>Collaborative Data Analysis Day</p> <p>Analysis of SRG photo elicitation interview transcripts</p>	26/5 – all day
	<p>Action Research Two</p> <p>Planning for Action Cycle 3</p> <p>Reflection on learning so far</p>	<p>AR2 (29/6)</p> <p>1.30-2.00pm</p>
Action Cycle Three	<p>Action Research Three</p> <p>Teachers collaboratively sharing research question and data collected (video snapshots)</p>	<p>AR3 (12/8)</p> <p>11.30-12.30pm</p>
	<p>Action Research Four</p> <p>Final sharing and reflection on class action research projects</p> <p>Thank you cake</p>	<p>AR4 (15/9)</p> <p>2.10-2.40pm</p>

Collaborative action research meetings were held on either Tuesday afternoons between 1.30-2.45pm or Thursday mornings 11.30am-12.30pm during the teachers' classroom release time (CRT). Although the teachers agreed to use their CRT for the research, the use of this time slot created a significant tension in practice. The teachers preferred research meetings within the Thursday morning slot so that could address their ongoing professional responsibilities outside the research in the longer Tuesday afternoon CRT timeslot. The teachers also preferred to meet with me individually to plan and reflect on aspects of their own classroom action research to maximise their release time. As a compromise individual planning and reflection meetings were scheduled predominantly during

the Thursday morning slot and collaborative action research meetings were scheduled once per term in the longer Tuesday afternoon slot.

4.11.2 Data generation: Action Cycle One (February – June)

In this section I describe how data was generated specifically in Action Cycle One. The Action Cycle One research programme involved five key activities:

1. Teacher photo assignment
2. Teacher photo elicitation interviews
3. SRG photo assignment
4. SRG photo elicitation interviews
5. NZCER *Me and My School* Student Engagement survey

Table 5 below presents the data and data sources generated through the five Action Cycle One research activities.

Table 5 Action Cycle One Data Sources

Data Sources	Betty	Chicken	Lincoln	Total
Teacher Photo-assignment	BT1-14	CN1-4, 26-35	LN1-16	40
Teacher photo-elicitation Interviews	BTI1 (10/3)	CNI1 (11/3)	LNI1 (15/3)	3
Student Research Group Photo-assignment photos	TS1-13 SD1-21 BB1-11 TBJ1-21	FN1-14 PR1-14 HB1-4 SS1-22	AG1-8 LL1-20 CU1-10 HT1-9	167
SRG Photo assignment engaged/disengaged drawings	TS14-15 SD22-23 BB12-13 TBJ22-23	FN15-18 PR15-16 HB5-6 SS23-24	AG9-11 LL21 CU11-12 HT10-11	24
SRG photo-elicitation Interviews	Bubbles BBPEI (28/4) Timmy Star TSPEI (26/4) Tim Bob Jim TBJPEI (26/4)	Flippinschnip FNPEI (27/4) Short Stuff SSPEI (27/4) Pockit Rocket PRPEI (27/4)	Hityu HTPEI (28/4) Captain Underpants CUPEI	12

	Sandy Dee SDPEI (26/4)	Honey Bunny HBPEI (26/4)	(28/4) Lulabelle LLPEI (28/4) Ashleigh Green AGPEI (26/4)	
NZCER Survey*	20 respondents (29/3)	16 respondents (29/3)	16 respondents (1/4)	52

*The NZCER student engagement survey was also administered within the three Comparison Classes generating 56 surveys across the three classes.

4.11.2.1 Teacher photo assignment

The first research activity of Action Cycle One was the teacher photo assignment completed by the three participating teachers in February 2010 over a two week time frame. The assignment brief is detailed in Figure 5 below.

Teacher Photography Assignment

1. When you think of teaching young adolescent students what images come to mind? (Capture these images as a photographic series)
2. When you think of effective teaching for this age group what images come to mind? (Capture these images as a photographic series)
3. When you think of your role as a teacher of young adolescent students what images come to mind? (Capture these images as a photographic series)
4. When you think of student voice what images come to mind?

If you can't capture the image you want with a photograph, you can create a drawing, poster, or anything visual.

Guidelines:

- It's up to you how many photographs you want to take for each photographic task but as a rough guide 3-5 would be good.
- Always get people's permission **before** you photograph them and let them know the photo is being used for research and might be shared with others or published (with their written permission).
- If you take photos of people try and take photos of their **profile** (side-on) so that they are not easily identified.
- Avoid taking photos that could identify your school e.g. take photos of people from the shoulders up, don't take photos of the school sign or the emblem on your school uniform
- When you upload your photos to your personal folder give the image a name or number that makes it easy to remember e.g. photo of your cat "cat - important to me" OR "cat - number 4".

Figure 5 Teacher Photo Assignment

The photo assignment was designed to generate data in relation to Research Question One *'How do teachers of young adolescent students perceive and define effective teaching and student voice in relation to the needs of the age group?'*

The teachers utilised their own digital cameras to generate images as well as sourcing images from available online photo stocks as necessary.

4.11.2.2 Teacher photo elicitation interviews

The second research activity of Action Cycle One was the Teacher Photo Elicitation Interview. These individual 45-60 minute teacher photo elicitation interviews followed the Teacher Photo Assignment. The teacher-led photo elicitation interviews involved the teachers assigning meaning to the images they generated in response to the teacher photo assignment prompts. The Photo Assignment functioned as the interview protocol with the teachers deciding the order in which the prompts were addressed and when to move the interview on to

a new topic and/or image. Supplementary prompt questions were generated as needed to further probe teachers' perceptions, explore aspects of the photographs in more depth, and explore tangential issues that teachers' perspectives raised. Photos were displayed on either the class interactive white board or teachers' laptop screens.

Electronic copies of each photo were lodged on the research portable hard drive. Photo elicitation interviews were audio-recorded on a digital voice recorder. The sound files were transcribed verbatim by a commercial typist. The typist completed a Confidentiality Agreement. Transcripts were returned via email and I listened to these and amended them for accuracy. I inserted the teachers' photos into the transcripts at the appropriate places to contextualise the interview dialogue. Transcript copies were then forwarded to each teacher for checking and reflection. The three teachers agreed that the interview transcripts reflected the photo-elicitation interviews in which they had participated.

4.11.2.3 Student research group photo assignment

The third research activity of Action Cycle One was the SRG Photo Assignment. I met with the SRG for a 30 minute session during class time towards the end of Term One to prepare them for the Photo Assignment outlined in Figure 6 below.

Student Research Group Photo Assignment

Your guide to taking photographs

The aim of the photo assignment is for you to capture what you think is important in response to each of the six prompts below.

You can use school digital cameras, an ipod, your camera from home or a disposable camera to take the photos you need for the research (disposable cameras and film processing will be organized and paid for by the research).

1. Take a series of photographs (3-5) that show what good teaching means for you.
2. Take a series of photographs (3-5) that showcase you as a learner (You can ask others to take photos of you as you need to if this makes things easier).
3. Take a series of photographs (3-5) that show learning you are involved in beyond school.
4. Take a series of photographs (3-5) that capture something of who you are and what's important to you.

The next two prompts are drawing activities and encourage you to think of memories. Use A4 paper. The memories you choose to draw can be from any school year.

5. Draw a time when you were really engaged in learning at school.
6. Draw a time that did not engage you as a learner at school.

If you can't capture the image you want with a photograph, you can create a drawing, poster, or anything visual. You can even ask your friends to freeze-frame a scene you want to capture, then photograph them.

Things to remember:

- Always get people's verbal permission **before** you photograph them and let them know the photo is being used for research and might be shared with others or published as part of reporting the research findings. Also let them know that I will contact them to ask for their written consent using the Image Consent Form developed for the research if the photo is likely to be published and that they are free to decline.
- If you take photos of people try to take photos of their **profile** (side-on) so that they are not easily identified.
- Avoid taking photos that could identify your school e.g. take photos of the school sign or the emblem on the school uniform.
- Avoid taking photos that capture illegal activity or harm of another person. Any photos included of this nature in your Photo Assignment will be given to the Principal.
- When you upload your photos to your personal folder give the image a name or number that makes it easy to remember e.g. photo of your cat "cat - important to me" OR "cat - number 4".
- If you are using your camera from home bring the download cable to school.
- You can email photos taken at home to yourself at school.
- You can ask questions or discuss your ideas with me as often as you need to.

Figure 6 Student Research Group Photo Assignment

The photo assignment was developed to address Research Question Two '*How do young adolescent students perceive effective teaching in relation to their needs*

and aspirations as learners? The photo prompts provided a broad agenda within which the students could interpret and generate images of relevance to them. For example photo prompt One asked the students “take a series of photographs (3-5) that show what good teaching means for you”.

I distributed the Photo Assignment to each student along with a 35mm, 27 exposure disposable camera. Each student also received a project scrap book that they could use to: record ideas for photos, complete the drawing task of the assignment, mount photos, and annotate their photos in preparation for the photo elicitation interview.

The students were given a one week time frame to take their photographs during class time. This timeframe was designed to focus the photo taking, to complete the photography assignment before the end of the school term and to limit intrusion into their primary learning within class.

In practice the one-week timeframe for the photo assignment was too short. Many students forgot to take photos during class time as they were absorbed in their class learning. Some students took their cameras home and forgot to bring them back to school and other students forgot to take their cameras home to take their learning beyond school photos. Also the timeframe limited the students to photographing aspects of learning at school that were happening within that specific week. To address these issues the photo assignment completion date was extended an extra week to the end of Term One.

I met with the SRG group during class time over the photo assignment week to check how they were going with the focus prompts and to check any issues with cameras. I also collected disposable cameras as the students completed the photo assignment so that the films could be processed commercially. A set of photographs was returned to each student to mount in their project scrapbooks in preparation for the photo elicitation interview, and a digital copy of all student photographs was recorded to CD at the photo lab as project data. On the occasions I visited the school to collect student cameras I became aware that some students needed more time to complete the Photo Assignment and that some students had forgotten to use the flash function on the camera, resulting in dark, grainy photos. The student photo assignment timeframe was extended to include the first two weeks of Term Two. During the first and second weeks of Term

Two I visited the school every day to: check in with students' photo progress, collect cameras and distribute processed photo packs to students until all students had completed the photo assignment.

The students met with me as a group during the first week of Term Two to complete the drawing task included in the Photo Assignment (Figure 6). I provided the students with colour pencils to produce their drawings in their project scrapbook. I photographed each student's drawings so that they could keep their project scrapbook, and so that I could also insert their drawings into their photo elicitation interview transcripts. These drawings were discussed informally within the group drawing session but were also explored in depth during the photo elicitation interviews early in Term Two.

4.11.2.4 Student photo elicitation interviews

The fourth research activity of Action Cycle One was the SRG individual photo elicitation interview. Student photo elicitation interviews were conducted over three days 26-28th April, Term Two, 2010. Each student met with me individually and brought their photos mounted in their project scrapbook organised in relation to the photo prompts of the Photo Assignment. Students were offered the option of presenting their photo assignments in pairs to mitigate the potential unfamiliarity of the interview activity but no students took up this option.

The interviews were structured in three parts:

1. Outline of students' interview participation rights;
2. Exploration of students' reasons for participating in the research; and
3. Student-led exploration of their images in relation to the photo assignment prompts.

Student photo elicitation interviews were audio-recorded using a digital voice recorder. Interview transcription and checking transcripts for accuracy followed the same process as outlined for the teacher photo elicitation interviews. The students reviewed their photo elicitation interview transcripts and were invited to make notes to clarify or elaborate any of their perspectives. None of the students chose to add to their transcript although some did identify photographs incorrectly ordered, ensuring I was able to correct these errors.

4.11.2.5 NZCER *Me and My School* student engagement survey

The final research activity of Action Cycle One was the administration of the NZCER *Me and My School* student engagement survey to consenting participating and comparison class students by their class teachers. Students who gave written consent completed the survey during class-time. The survey took approximately 15 minutes to complete. Those students who did not consent to the survey continued on with independent classroom activities during the survey.

SRG members were asked to identify their SRG affiliation by writing ‘SRG’ on the top corner of their anonymous survey form. In this way, the identities of individual students remained anonymous but the SRG group could be identified within the larger class group of which they were members. Duplicates of these completed SRG survey forms were made and sent to NZCER accompanying the completed class surveys. This meant that engagement patterns amongst this group could be analysed in addition to their engagement patterns in the context of their class across the research. NZCER analysed the surveys and sent the analysis back in the form of class reports for the participating and comparison class teachers and a separate SRG ‘class’ report also.

4.11.3 Data analysis: Action Cycle One

Data analysis within Action Cycle One focused on analysing the data generated in the five research activities of the cycle presented in the previous section.

4.11.3.1 Teacher photo elicitation interviews

The teacher photo elicitation interview transcripts were analysed utilising the constant comparative approach outlined in section 4.5.1. I coded the data to identify themes, summarised these themes and identified illustrative data examples. I defined a code as “a word or abbreviation sufficiently close to that which it is describing for the researcher to see at a glance what it means” (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 478). Themes generated through this analysis, presented in Table 6 below, were distributed to the three teachers and formed the focus of our reflective discussion during Action Research Session One (AR1) (Term One, 23.3.10).

Table 6 Data Analysis Summary of Teacher Photo Elicitation Interviews

Summary: Initial Teacher Photo Elicitation Interview Transcripts 23/3/10

Topics	Betty	Chicken	Lincoln
Research participation (reasons)	Feedback from students Opportunity to reflect and move on as teacher	Professional development Know what the students want to be taught Become a more effective teacher Teachers' role in supporting students as effective learners Improving as a teacher in response to student feedback on teaching	Area of personal interest Integrating ICT as a means to enhance student learning Personal development
Teaching Young Adolescents	Effects of puberty - hormones, mood swings Need for boundaries but also room to move Co-constructing class expectations (class treaty) Hands-on learning	Making connections with kids Providing a safe environment for student risk taking - physical, intellectual and emotional Intellectual difficult - supporting students to stand strong with their peers - value own opinions Risk - students teaching each other - stepping up doing skills teaching "kids making connections with kids and teacher making connection with kids" co-constructing success criteria no secrets - shared understanding of criteria and expectations student ownership of learning process - purpose, expectations own good experience of Intermediate school influences current philosophy	A journey based on engaging students personal interests and agenda to create unity of direction Sometimes students can take the wheel and create the pathway Need to align teacher and student expectations When the plan goes awry it can lead to 'carnage' Things go wrong when they are not relevant or students are not buying in
Different/similar to younger	Lots of similarities but way of teaching different	Older students - more pressure to conform to peer pressure - around	Each age group has own development differences

students	More independence with skills Teacher can 'step back and watch from a little bit back'	having a say Older kids just think differently Aging opens up different perspectives Older - more awareness of impact of own actions on others	Philosophy of intermediate differs from secondary - not a preparation for high school but a preparation for lifelong learning Lots of opportunities for different engaging activities Platform for learning at high school Technology provides an insight into student potential that is not offered by more traditional methods such as exercise books. Students of this age have lots of experience with technology use beyond school eg. Cell phones, computers, gaming
Effective teaching	Questioning skills - teacher and student Hands-on learning Integrating ICT tools Peer teaching - skills lessons	Co-learning "you teach me ... I'll show you" "effective teaching for this age group is the teacher having their finger on the pulse but not the children under the thumb" working with students to identity - hooks, personal interest and motivation developing partnership teacher taking risks - letting students teach each other Students give feedback that peer-tchg allows them to participate in ways traditionally only open to teacher Preparation for secondary - relevance of learning for now and in the future	Working in groups Promoting student collaboration and interaction using technologies e.g. ipod touch, netbooks and web 2.0 tools - googledocs, blogs Peer teaching - skills Students as experts - spreading ICT knowledge High engagement tasks - topic suits age group, process suits age group e.g. pick-a-paths via googledocs Students as teachers Use of digital medium enhances student interest and access to wider audience which is engaging - sharing blogs, animations, photo story, short film Access to real feedback - e.g. comments from

The analysis summary enabled the teachers to compare and contrast each other's initial perspectives around effective teaching for the young adolescent age group and student voice.

4.11.3.2 Student photo elicitation interviews

The SRG photo elicitation interview transcripts were analysed by the teachers and myself utilising the constant comparison approach (Silverman, 2005) presented in section 4.5.1. The aim was to produce an emergent conceptual framework of student voice that would inform teachers' thinking on effective teaching and engagement and focus their first pedagogical responses to students in Action Cycle Two.

The teachers and I analysed the SRG photo elicitation interview transcripts over the course of 18 May, 2010. Tim Bob Jim's (TBJ) photo elicitation interview transcript was identified as the initial transcript for our collective analysis. Individually we coded Tim Bob Jim's transcript in relation to the six etic focus areas related to the prompts of the student photo assignment:

1. Good Teaching (GT),
2. Self as a Learner (SL),
3. Learning Beyond School (LBS)
4. Important to Student (IMP),
5. Engagement (E) and
6. Disengagement (D).

Three additional emic coding categories emerged from this analysis of the students' photo elicitation interview transcripts: view of learning (VL), role of the teacher (RT) and role of the student (RS). These three codes captured aspects that the students emphasised as they described good teaching and themselves as learners.

Once we had individually analysed the TBJ transcript, we discussed our analysis as a group to develop a robust consensus on the codes and data that exemplified each of these. This process also generated dimensions within each coding category. The coding categories and themes within these were recorded as an initial emergent conceptual framework, presented in Figure 7 below.

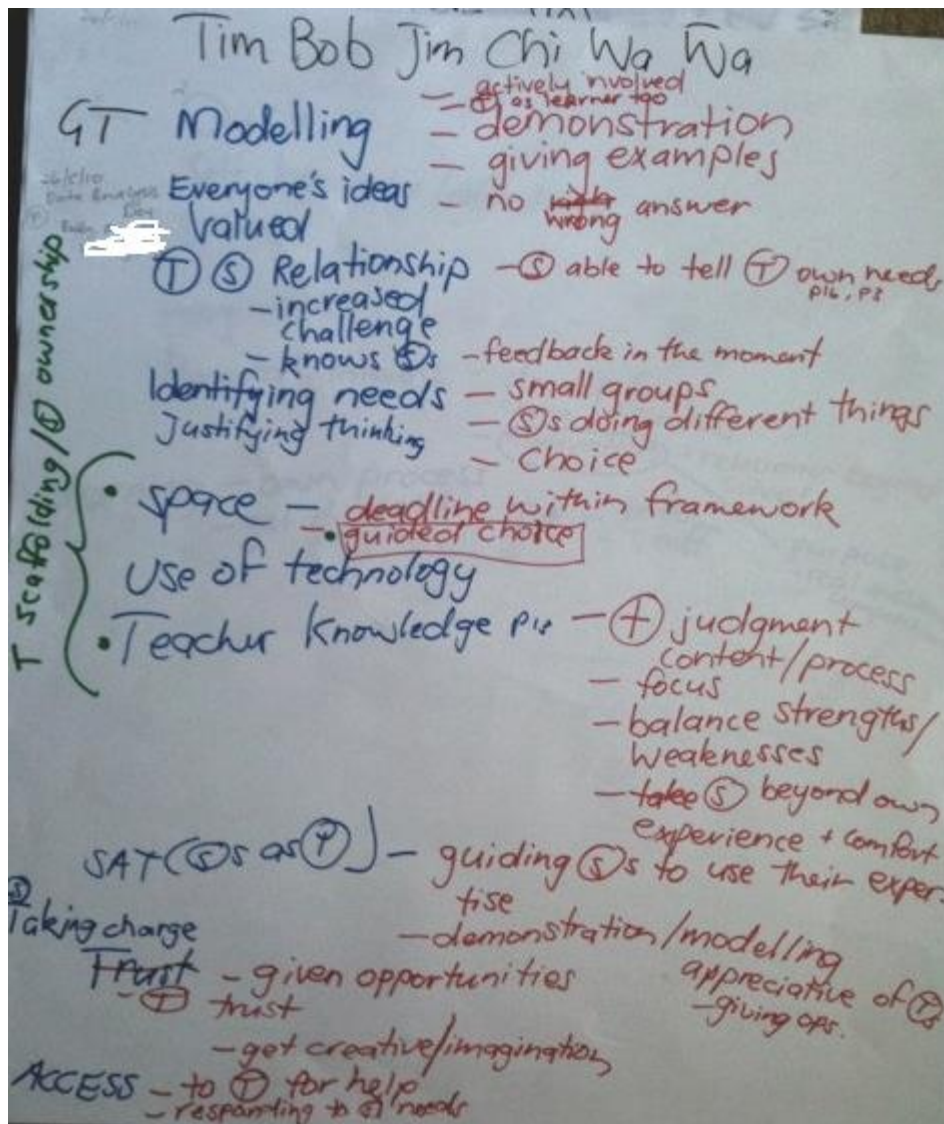


Figure 7 Initial Emergent Conceptual Framework – TBJ Transcript

We then broadened the analysis to include the remaining 11 student photo elicitation interview transcripts. We applied the emergent conceptual framework developed from analysis of the TBJ transcript to the broader corpus of student interview data. We divided the remaining student photo elicitation interview transcripts amongst the group members, ensuring that each of the class teachers did not receive transcripts of students within their classes if this could be avoided.

The broadened analysis increased the dimensions within each coding category. As new dimensions emerged we returned to the TBJ transcript to analyse this transcript for these new dimensions also. Within the timeframe of the data analysis day, students' perceptions of: good teaching, views of learning, self as a learner, learning beyond school, and aspects important to students were analysed. However students' perceptions of conditions for engagement and disengagement

were left incomplete although these aspects were discussed. I undertook to complete this analysis on behalf of the group and return the analysis to the teachers for reflection at our second collaborative action research meeting.

In the latter part of the data analysis day the emergent conceptual framework produced from the analysis of all twelve student photo elicitation interview transcripts was discussed by the teachers as a reflection activity to feed into planning for Action Cycle Two. The emergent conceptual framework at the stage it was developed to during the collaborative data analysis day is presented in Figure 8 below.

Codes	Dimensions/descriptions
Good Teaching (GT)	
Modeling	teacher actively involved teacher as learner too demonstration giving examples
Everyone's ideas valued	No wrong answer
Teacher – student relationship Knows students	Students able to tell teacher own needs Increased challenge Feedback in the moment
Identifying needs	Small groups Students doing different things choice
Encouraging justifying thinking	
Teacher scaffolding/student ownership: Space Teacher knowledge frameworks	Guided choice Flexibility within frameworks Deadline within framework Teacher judgment content/process/focus <i>Balance student strengths/weaknesses</i> <i>Take student beyond own experience and comfort zone (I'm wondering if these were more our discussion about the role of the teacher in addition to what the students were saying – I'll check it out)</i>
Students as Teachers (SATs)	Guiding students to use their expertise with other students Student demonstration/modeling Appreciative of teachers giving SAT opportunities
Students taking charge	Teacher trust – given opportunities Get creative/imagination
Access	To teacher for help Teacher responding to student needs
Students as Learners (SL)	
Self-knowledge/reflection	
Space	
Imagination	
Pace	
Personal interest	Develop focus

	Choice of process Motivation for learning - relevance beyond school - purpose, real audience, competition
View of Learning	
Own process	
Get it right	It = stuff/information
Engaged	
Personal interest	
Favourite thing	Creative writing PE Learning about others
Group work	Talking about ideas
specialist	Doing stuff rather than learning stuff
Disengaged	
Distracted	
Not clear of purpose	
Beginning of day - organization rather than getting on with learning	
Focus/process/subject don't like	
Dynamics within group	

Figure 8 Emergent Conceptual Framework

Initial thoughts of how each teacher might find out more about the students in their class as learners and how they might apply their learning from the data analysis were brainstormed and recorded (see Figure 9).

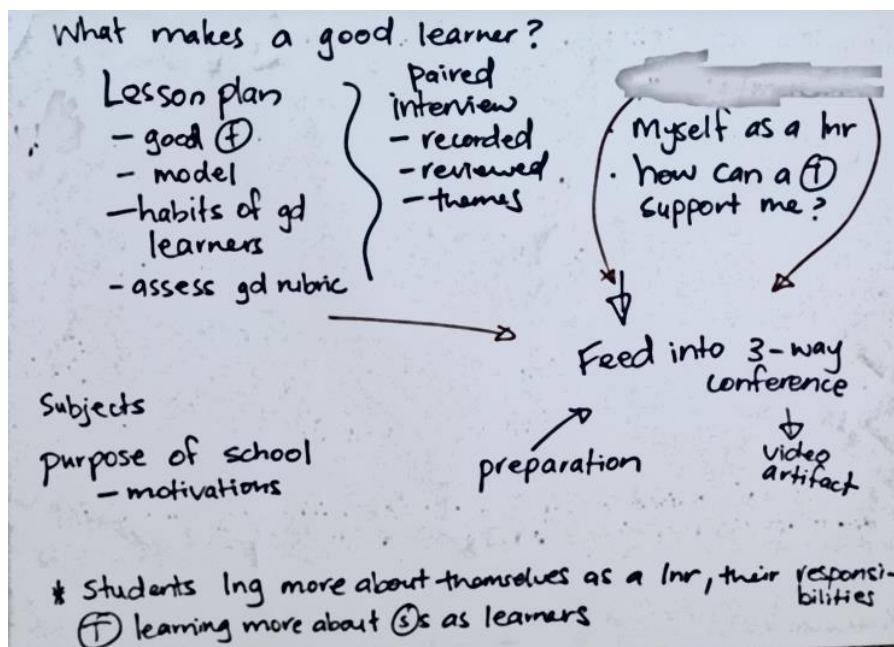


Figure 9 Ideas for Action Cycle Two Foci. Photo of chart 18.5.10

For the purposes of this thesis I present only the analysis of students' perceptions of good teaching, conditions for engagement and conditions for disengagement in Chapter Six. This is because these were the aspects of the data analysis that the

teachers returned to as they planned and reflected on their class action research in Action Cycles Two and Three.

I continued analysing the Action Cycle One data to develop the analysis of conditions for engagement and disengagement in learning that the students identified as important to their needs, preferences and aspirations as learners. This analysis summary presented in Table 7 was fed back to the teachers.

Table 7 Analysis of Conditions of Engagement and Disengagement

Conditions of Engagement	
Condition	Dimension/Examples
Opportunity to follow personal interest within set task	Choose writing focus, select learning strategy (Tim Bob Jim) Follow up curiosity (Lulabelle) Doing what you want (Captain Underpants) Ideas sparked (Pockit Rockit) Home - school alignment of interests (Hityu) Space and choice (Tim Bob Jim)
Challenge	Intellectual e.g. needing to 'try to work it out', working with teacher to 'get it' Organizational - manage own learning process, meeting deadlines (Flippinschnip)
Fun Needed to learn (Captain Underpants)	Thinking of new ideas, Drawing option, Learning new words (Hityu) Planning and implementing process independently e.g. interviewing a buddy (Lulabelle) Devising own questions (Lulabelle) Exercise Learning new skills Learning to work with others (Asheley Green, Captain Underpants) Encouragement - of others, and receiving encouragement Doing what you want (Captain Underpants) Exercise imagination (Timmy Star; Shortstuff)
Deep engagement - Opportunity for 'flow'	"I am just really focused on the story and I don't really take notice of what's happening around me" (Pockit Rockit, p. 13) "If someone poked me or anything I wouldn't even know (Shortstuff, p. 21)
Working cooperatively with teacher	Students and teachers work together for students to understand concepts/task focus (Honey Bunny) Teacher open to helping students as they need (Honey Bunny; Tim Bob Jim) Teacher role: rove and check for student understanding (Tim Bob Jim)
Real purpose/audience	Writing for competition (Bubbles) Acting - performance (Captain Underpants) Trialling for magazine (Flippinschnip) Once meaning is established learning becomes fun (Hityu, p. 19)

	Involves independence (Lulabelle, Flippinschnip, Timmy Star)
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Contexts
Netball, classroom working, story writing (3), homework - designing underwater city, maths, trialling for magazine, reading, interviewing buddy in library, hockey during PE, acting in class play

Conditions of disengagement	
Confusion	Not 'getting it' (Honey Bunny)
Teacher unwillingness to help	Student understanding (Honey Bunny) Result: annoyed, not wanting to go to maths, confusion (Honey Bunny)
No room for student input	Strategy choice (Tim Bob Jim) Task focus/direction (Tim Bob Jim)
Pace mis-match	Focus on pace and meeting deadlines shifts emphasis from quality to completion (Tim Bob Jim)
Mis-match teacher-initiated task and student personal interest/preference	"I can never think of things to write" (Bubbles, p. 9; and Timmy Star) Listening to class story (Bubbles) "[Teacher] tries to teach us to spell ... I find that really, really dull because I read so much I know how to spell the majority of words" (Flippinschnip, p. 19)
Mis-match teacher-initiated strategy and student personal interest/preference	Watching teacher-selected movie - stifles imagination (Shortstuff) Working on paper when prefer computer (Captain Underpants)
Distraction	Missing vital instructions/purpose of lesson (Sandy D) Worrying about being in trouble (Sandy D)
Held up from task	Teacher talking about 'unnecessary' things - not related to personal goals needs (Pockit Rockit; Asheley Green) Teacher talking to one person - class having to wait (Pockit Rockit)
Challenge mis-match	Tasks too easy (Captain Underpants; Flippinschnip) - display of boredom: puts head on arms, message "I'm tired, let's do something else" (Flippinschnip, p. 20) Concept/content covered in previous years (Tim Bob Jim)

Contexts
Maths, classroom working, listening to class story, writing, hard materials, in class - teacher talking (2), spelling lesson, watching teacher-selected moving in class, worksheet (1 student did not complete a drawing due to lack of time, 1 student did not complete a drawing because she loves school and is never disengaged and could not recall a memory of being disengaged)

	Concept/content covered in previous years (Tim Bob Jim)
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Contexts
Maths, classroom working, listening to class story, writing, hard materials, in class – teacher talking (2), spelling lesson, watching teacher-selected moving in class, worksheet (1 student did not complete a drawing due to lack of time, 1 student did not complete a drawing because she loves school and is never disengaged and could not recall a memory of being disengaged)

4.11.4 Data generation: Action Cycle Two (June – July)

Action Cycle Two represented the first pedagogical response of the teachers to their students, based on the initial student voice findings of Action Cycle One. It was also an opportunity for teachers to check the analysis with their wider class and extend their understanding of students’ perceptions of effective teaching and engagement in relation to their needs and aspirations as learners. The Action Cycle Two research programme involved two research activities:

1. Class research activities; and
2. SRG discussions.

Table 8 below presents the data and data sources generated through the two Action Cycle Two research activities.

Table 8 Action Cycle Two Data and Data Sources

Data Sources	Betty	Chicken	Lincoln
Pedagogical Activities - Classroom Documentation	Successful Learner Traits Goal Setting Sheets (BTD1)	Utopia Task Outline (CND1)	About Me – visual maps (LND1)
SRG Discussion	BTSRG1 (28/6)	CNSRG1 (28/6)	LNSRG1 (28/6)

The first research activity of Action Cycle Two involved the teachers sharing the emergent conceptual analysis framework back to their classes in a way of their choosing and exploring further students’ aspects of themselves as learners and their perceptions of good teaching through discussion and pedagogical activities. This data is presented in Chapter Seven.

The second research activity of Action Cycle Two was the SRG discussions. I met with the 12 SRG students within their smaller class groupings (Betty SRG, Chicken SRG, Lincoln SRG) once during Action Cycle Two to explore the pedagogical activities of Action Cycle Two from the students' perspectives. I focused the students' reflection by asking them to describe what they had been doing in their classroom research and the value they were gaining from the process.

These sessions were audio-recorded, transcribed, stored, and amended for accuracy following the same process as outlined for the interview data of Action Cycle One. SRG discussion transcripts were forwarded to class teachers to inform their thinking and reflection.

The three teachers devised different pedagogical activities in Action Cycle Two to explore the perspectives of their students as learners about effective teaching and themselves as learners. At the end of Term Two I met individually with each teacher and asked them to sum up their learning from Action Cycle Two and to frame their research question for Action Cycle Three. These sessions were transcribed and a copy returned to each teacher.

4.11.5 Data analysis: Action Cycle Two

Data analysis in Action Cycle Two consisted of the teachers summarising their learning from their students as a result of the classroom activities and discussions that they initiated.

Transcripts from each of the SRG discussion sessions were forwarded to the relevant participating teacher to read and reflect on to further inform their planning and decision-making for Action Cycle Three. This approach was used also by Kane and Maw (2005) to inform teachers' reflection "providing a way to bring together understandings of both teachers and students with respect to learning and teaching" (p. 317).

4.11.6 Data generation: Action Cycle Three (July – October)

In Action Cycle Three the three teachers worked with their classes to design and implement a class action research project based on the focus they identified at the end of Action Cycle Two. These projects were conducted during Term 3, 2010 (10-week duration).

In Action Cycle Three data were generated from six main sources:

1. Classroom video snapshots;
2. Individual teacher planning and reflection meetings;
3. SRG focus group discussions;
4. classroom documentation;
5. Collective teacher action research meetings and
6. NZCER *Me and My School* student engagement survey.

Table 9 presents the data generation programme for Action Cycle Three.

Table 9 Action Cycle Three Data and Data Sources

Data Sources	Betty	Chicken	Lincoln	Total
Teacher planning Interviews	BTI2 (22/7) BTI3 (29/7)	CNI3 (22/7)	LNI2 (29/7)	4
Class Video Snapshots	BTV1 (2/9)	CNV1 (26/7) CNV2 (16/8) CNV3 (31/8)	LNV1 (12/8) LNV2 (14/9)	6
Video Snapshot teacher reflection interviews	BTI4 (2/9)	CNI4 (29/7) CNI5 (31/8)	LNI3 (15/9)	4
Documentation	BTD1-10	CND1-9	LND1-5	24
Student Research Group (SRG) discussions	BTSRG2 (16/8) BTSRG3 (20/9)	CNSRG2 (16/8) CNSRG3 (20/9)	LNSRG2 (16/8) LNSRG3 (20/9) SRGCU (23/9)	7
SRG Final engaged/disengaged drawings	TBJ24 BB14-15 SD24-25 TS16-17	FN19-20 HB7-8 PR17 SS25-27	AG20 CU13 HT12 LL22	18
Final SRG	SRGF8/11	8/11	8/11	1
NZCER Survey*	27 respondents	26 respondents	21 respondents	74

*The NZCER student engagement survey was also administered within the three Comparison Classes generating 48 surveys across the three classes.

The three teachers took responsibility for video recording snapshots of their class action research in accordance with guidelines that I constructed and distributed (Figure 10).

Notes for Video Data

Purpose of videoing your practice in this project is to capture changes you are making to your teaching practice in relation to your research question and show the outcomes of these changes on student involvement in decision-making related to their learning.

Only capture students who have consented to being involved in the research.

Recording

- If using students to video a lesson mount the camera on a tripod and ask the student to capture wide angle footage as much as possible – this lets you see the wider context and interaction that happens in the lesson.
- If you want to capture yourself talking with groups or groups of students working together the student videoing should alternate between zooming in on the group – not individuals as they speak – and then out again to keep a record of the wider class interaction.
- Two cameras – You could set up one camera on a tripod that captures wide angle footage but also enlist a student to carry a camera and follow you during the lesson, focusing in on groups you are working with or groups of students working together. This will give you an overall view of the lesson as it unfolds and some close-up record too. The following camera will also capture better sound by being able to get up close.

Sound quality – wear an easi-speak mic during the lesson that is being recorded, this will allow you to capture a good sound record of what you were saying and of the student conversation that is happening immediately around you. If you have microphones that can be plugged into the camera or transmitted to a receiver on the camera use these.

Selecting clips for research meetings:

View the footage before meeting with me or the group. Identify 3 short clips that together demonstrate:

1. Desired student involvement and/or qualities you were aiming for
2. Teacher actions that helped open up possibilities for student involvement
3. Potential to do something different next time – opportunities missed

Figure 10 Guidelines for Video Snapshots

The Action Cycle Three video snapshots were shared in individual action research meetings between the researcher and each of the three teachers. The number of video snapshots taken across Action Cycle Three varied according to the teacher. The three foci (Figure 10) formed the reflection protocol for these discussions. Each video snapshot, and each individual teacher video reflection discussion were transcribed.

4.11.6.1 SRG Meetings

Three SRG meetings were scheduled during Action Cycle Three. The purpose and focusing activities of these sessions is presented in this section.

SRG Two – 16.8.10

I met with each of the SRG on 16.8.10 during class time to reflect on the class action research projects from the students' perspectives. The following three questions focused the discussion:

1. Tell me about the changes happening in your class programme
2. Your teacher has made these changes to give you more input and ownership into the class programme and your learning - how does it feel being involved in this way? How does it suit you as a learner? What are the benefits? Drawbacks? What are the things that are making the most difference for you?
3. What other opportunities can you see for you and the other students in your class to take even more responsibility/ownership within this class project?

These sessions were audio-recorded and transcribed following the same process as followed with interview data across the research.

SRG Three – 20.9.10

I met with each of the SRG towards the end of the classroom action research projects in Action Cycle Three. The purpose of the session was to reflect on students' perceived engagement with the classroom pedagogical and research activities of the research. Each student was asked to complete a drawing of a time in the research when they had felt engaged as a learner and a second drawing depicting a time in the research when they had felt disengaged or less than engaged. The students then discussed these drawings with each other and with me in the group context. These sessions were audio-recorded and transcribed following the same process as followed with interview data across the research.

Final SRG Meeting – 8.11.10

I met with the full SRG (12 students) at the conclusion of the research. The purpose of the session was two-fold: 1) to present the analysis of Action Cycle One photo elicitation interview data formally to them for checking and reflection;

and 2) to explore how the students evaluated overall their positioning as decision-makers in their Action Cycle Three classroom action research projects. I utilised Hyde's (1992b) (section 2.4) four categories that typify student responses to being consulted and involved in curriculum negotiation:

1. Thankful and amazed;
2. Suspicious but open;
3. Contempt; and
4. Dismayed.

I asked them to place themselves physically in a grid on the floor; each square labelled in relation to one of the four categories and then asked them why they had positioned themselves where they had.

4.11.7 Data analysis: Action Cycle Three

I constructed three case accounts from the analysis of the Action Cycle Three data. Each case addressed the classroom action projects of one of the three participating classes. The cases were constructed in two analytic sweeps, 1) chronological, and 2) power analysis. The first sweep compiled a chronological account of each class action project. The second sweep applied the power analytic frame (section 3.4) to analyse how power conditioned possibilities for teacher and student action within the class action projects. The second sweep also analysed the classroom video snapshot data using discourse analysis tools selected for the study.

4.11.7.1 Sweep one

In Sweep One the data analysis focused on 'how did teachers' take account of students' perceptions of good teaching and engagement to co-construct a classroom action research project with them? (Research Question 3)

I first eventalised the data (Gee & Green, 1998). Gee & Green define an event as "interconnected chains of activity" (p. 134) around a discrete purpose. Activities are defined as "specific social activity" (p. 134) within these bigger events. They argue that discourse analysis of this nature "must include the moment-by-moment bit-by-bit construction of texts ... the chains of concerted actions among members ... and what members take from one context to use in another" (p. 149).

Activities are bounded by the changing focus and/or practices within action. For instance, ‘the teacher explaining a task to their students’ would be an activity within a broader event. An example of this eventalising process is presented in Figure 11 below. Activity boundaries are indicated by the ruled line and the focus of each activity is numbered and outlined in the left margin.

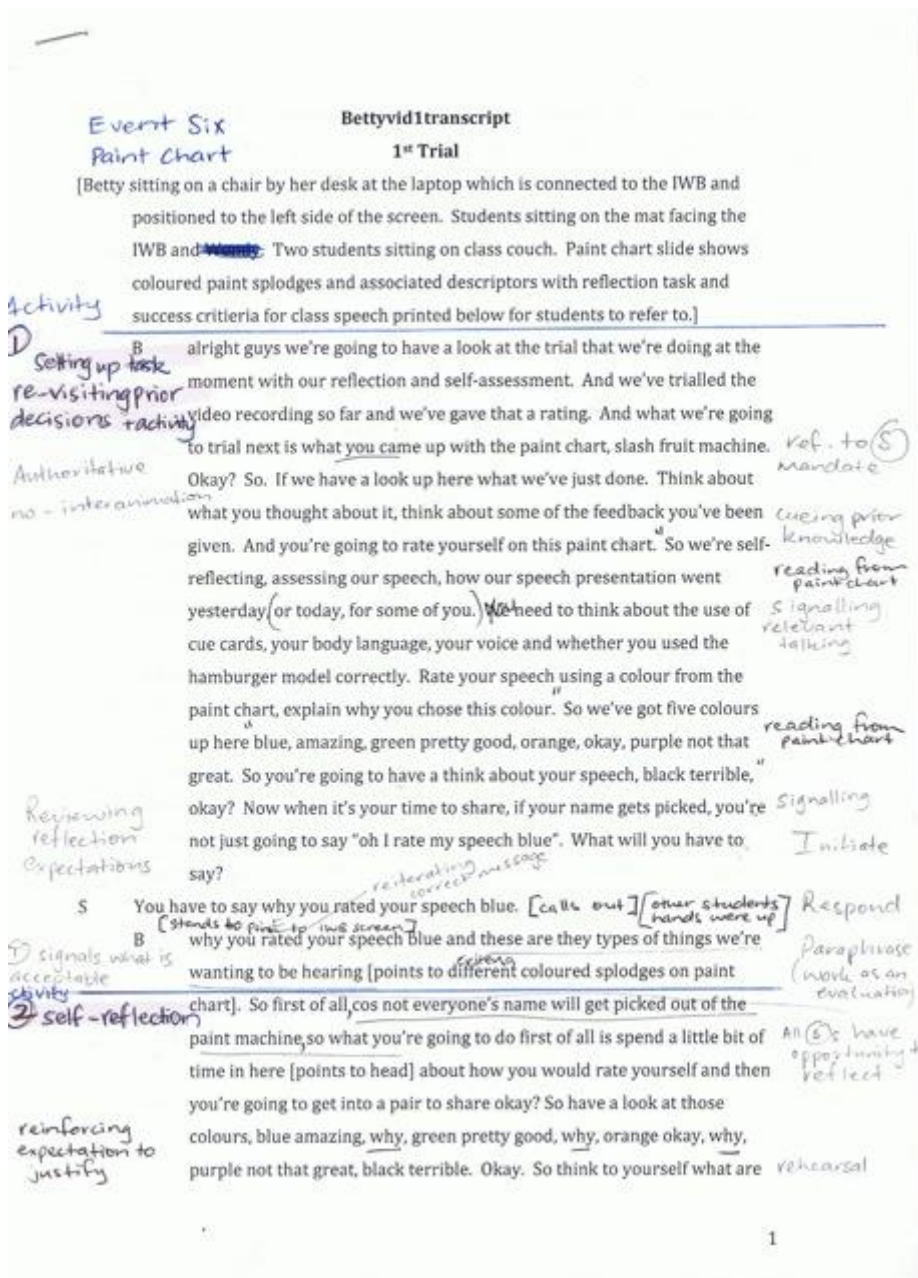


Figure 11 Eventalising the Data

I constructed event charts of the main events and interconnected sequential activities across each class action research to map the overall topography of the projects. These charts are included in the overview sections of each of the Action Cycle Three case accounts.

Organising the classroom data into activities and events enabled me to analyse activity in manageable but interconnected chunks. Within each activity I then identified the teachers' and students' intentions, decisions, strategies, and the discourse moves they utilised. Events that were discussed by the class teacher and/or the SRG, were included if these could be pieced together from available data.

Once the chronology of each case was finalised I overlaid teacher and student reflections onto each event. This enabled the construction of an annotated account that foregrounded the multiple perspectives of the class teachers and the SRG students on the classroom action. I also described contextual factors that formed the backdrop of each event in detail (Geertz, 2003). These contextual factors included: the spatial arrangements of the social actors, pedagogical tools used, pedagogical practices, classroom routines, duration, and placement of sessions within the class time table and across the school day. Describing contextual factors highlighted the situated nature of the classroom action and the influence of routine factors on teacher and student action.

In Sweep One I also coded the Action Cycle Three data to identify descriptive codes that emerged from the data (Cohen et al., 2007). The descriptive codes included emic codes that emerged from the data and etic codes related to Gee and Green's (1998) social building tasks of: world building, activity building, identity building, and connection building. Descriptive codes were combined into analytic categories – more abstract groupings that could contain the codes. An instance of this was the category 'Discourse' that enabled me to group the professional talk that teachers engaged in. Table 10 presents the codes identified within the data associated with the larger 'Discourse' category.

Table 10 Discourse Category Codes

Category	Codes
Discourse	Accountability Assessment Differentiation e-learning Goal setting

	Habits of Mind Individuality vs common good Inquiry Learning styles Negotiated curriculum Power Student ownership of learning Teacher identity Time
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This analysis enabled me to identify the ‘D’ educational and societal discourses to which the teachers referenced their classroom practice. In the Sweep One process I also wrote analytic memos to myself and used diagramming to explore potential relationships between analytic categories.

4.11.7.2 Sweep Two

The second sweep to construct the case accounts overlaid the power analytic frame generated from the power theory mash-up introduced at the end of Chapter Three (section 3. 4). The power analytic frame is presented in Figure 12 below.

Power Analytic Frame

Dimensions of Power*	Guiding Questions
Dimension One Identity & Positioning	How do teachers use their positional authority to scaffold more powerful student participation? How do students respond to their positioning?
Dimension Two Agenda & Mobilisation of Resources	Hidden Face – how are goals, positioning and desired participation achieved?
Dimension Three Prevailing Educational & Ideological Discourses	How do prevailing discourses condition possibilities for classroom practice?

* Analysed through discourse analysis and identification of micro-practices of power

Figure 12 Power Analytic Frame

This analytic sweep explored the question ‘how does power condition possibilities for students’ and teachers’ action within classroom-based student voice initiatives? (Research Question 4)

I grouped the descriptive codes generated in Sweep One as faced power categories. This process generated situated dimensions of each face of power within this research. Through this coding process I identified ‘power sharing through identities and positioning’ as Face One power, ‘processes of agenda control’ and ‘mobilisation of resources’ as Face Two power; and ‘school-level influences’ and ‘macro-level discourses’ as Face Three Power. For instance the Discourse category identified initially as a descriptive code (presented in Table 10) became associated with Face Three power in Sweep Two.

Table 11 shows how the dimensions of Face One power within the teachers’ talk were made explicit utilising this coding approach.

Table 11 Face One – Power Sharing

Dimensions	Aspects
Face One	Power Sharing through identities and positioning
Teacher student relationship	Co-learning

	Co-teaching
Metaphors of participation	Hot seat (students driving) Ball – throwing things back in their hands Destination Deep vs surface learning Students in teachers’ shoes Step back Reins – letting go
Identity	Students as experts Students as teachers Teacher as scout Teacher as professional
Teacher/student positioning	Teacher going in and out of roles Student voice interrupting teacher as continuous talker
Teacher vulnerable to students	Reciprocal student to teacher feedback on their practice

The second sweep also analysed the classroom video snapshot data for the interplay of power relations in teacher and student interaction utilising discourse analysis tools. The focusing analytical question for this sweep was ‘what job did the teachers’ and students’ discourse do, and how was this achieved?’ I selected discourse analysis tools through ongoing theoretical sampling of the discourse analysis literature during the analysis (Thornberg, 2010).

Table 12 presents the discourse analysis tools I utilised and defines these.

Table 12 Discourse Analysis Tools

Discourse analysis Tool	Definition
Authoritative vs dialogic discourse (Hackling, Smith, & Murcia, 2010; Scott et al., 2006), Interanimating discourses (Seymour & Lehrer, 2006)	Authoritative Teacher focuses students on one official message. Dialogic Meaning is open to influence from student and other points of view. Interanimating

	Interaction between ideas that produces mutual understanding and/or new ideas. Teacher is open to disagreement and other points of view.
Strategies of discursive dominance (van Dijk, 1993)	Topic setting Interrupting turn taking pattern Use of directives
Interpretive vs evaluative listening (Brodie, 2010)	Evaluative listening – listening to students in relation to their own goals as teachers. Interpretive listening – listening to students in order to understand students’ thinking so that they can support learning.
Teacher presses (Brodie, 2010)	Teachers invite students to justify and elaborate their ideas e.g. can you tell me more about that?
Closed and open elicitation (Black, 2007; Mehan, 1979; Myhill, 2011)	Closed elicitation – closed questions asked to produce the correct answer. Open elicitation - questions asked to encourage divergent responses.
Revoicing (Carroll, 2005)	Interactive talk that develops a ‘collaborative floor’ Conversation participants pick up and build on each other’s ideas to jointly construct meanings
Re-formulation (Black, 2007)	The teacher ‘re-packages’ a student’s contribution by re-stating it using correct vocabulary

I tabulated and tallied instances of different discourse moves identified within the teacher discourse within events. This enabled me to identify how discourse patterns changed and shifted across the classroom action research.

Table 13 below presents an example of this discourse analysis process from within the Event Six of the Betty case of Chapter Eight.

Table 13 Analysing Discourse Moves across Activities within an Event

Activity	Evaluative			Interpretive		
	Discourse move	n	Typical example	Discourse move	n	Typical example
5	Reinforce official message	2	Remember to say what you did well as well, cos you all did great things	paraphrase	2	Okay. So you were happy with that because you didn't need to use your cue cards too much.
	Praise	5	Well done. Good self-reflecting there.			
	Closed elicitation	1	Which colour's that?	Open elicitation	1	Okay. What did you do well?
	Total comments	8		Total comments	3	
6	Praise	1	That's quite a good idea	paraphrase	2	So you think maybe more options?
				Clarification	1	Fantastic?
	Neutral	1	Okay.	Acceptance	2	Okay so we maybe will adapt that for the next one.
				Observation	1	And no one rated themselves terrible either, so we didn't have anyone right on these ends.
	Total Comments	2		Total comments	6	

This tabulation approach enabled the identification of a shift in Betty's discourse over Event Six from evaluative listening (Brodie, 2010) associated with authoritative discourse (Scott et al., 2006) to interpretive listening (Brodie, 2010) associated with dialogic discourse (Scott et al., 2006; Seymour & Lehrer, 2006).

In Sweep Two I also coded the data within the chronological case accounts to the eight techniques of power introduced in Chapter Three (section 3.1) drawn from the theorising of Foucault (1977) and the research of Gore (1995, 2002). Coding the data to these techniques was consistent with the approach advocated by Foucault and practised by Gore (2002) but I found that whilst this ‘flat’ (Foucault, 1982) process enabled me to build situated dimensions of these techniques in my research it obscured how these techniques were deployed by teachers and student in their interaction. For this reason, I eventually discarded this approach and in preference, read the case accounts repeatedly using the techniques of power as lenses to think with. In this way I was able to preserve the analytic focus of interaction and explore how the techniques of power were utilised as discursive tools to deploy power by teachers and students within the framework of the three faces of power.

4.11.7.3 NZCER *Me and My School* student engagement survey

The NZCER *Me and My School* student engagement survey was administered to participating and comparison class students in October 2010 at the conclusion of Action Cycle Three using the same procedure outlined in Action Cycle One (section 4.11.2).

For three reasons this student engagement data was not utilised as intended in the research and is not reported in the thesis: (1) contamination of the data set in Action Cycle Three – students outside the SRG group wrote SRG on the top of their survey sheet resulting in more SRG survey forms than SRG members; (2) the survey was not fine-grained enough to provide classroom engagement patterns relevant to the teachers and to the focus of the research; and (3) NZCER aggregated all six class sets of data into one ‘Emily’s School’ report which meant that patterns could not be separated out easily into individual classes. Although I did not incorporate this data in this thesis, given these shortcomings, in the spirit of reciprocity I did produce comparative reports for each teacher from the beginning and end of the year using excel spreadsheets as I had promised to at the outset of the research.

4.12 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the methodology, research design and a description of the enactment of the research. The research was designed to promote joint teacher

and student action through collaborative action research to co-construct responsive and reciprocal pedagogy that aligned with students' perceptions of effective teaching and engagement for learning. The design utilised visual research methods to facilitate student consultation in the first instance that fed into teachers' learning in the second instance and the development of iterative and dialogic class action projects across three cycles of action.

The design foregrounds the socially constructed meanings the research partners made of their experiences through the action research. Applying the power analytic frame to Action Cycle Three data enabled also the examination of how power worked to condition and influence possibilities for student/teacher action. Adopting a case structure to report the data analysis enabled foregrounding of the unique decisions, actions and contextual factors that influenced possibilities for the teachers' and students' joint inquiry into what it might take to enact student/teacher governance partnerships as student voice in their classrooms.

Chapter Five: Action Cycle One: Teachers' Perceptions of Effective Teaching and Student Voice

This chapter presents the perceptions of effective teaching for young adolescent students and student voice held by Betty, Chicken and Lincoln at the outset of Action Cycle One (see Figure 2 in section 4.3.2), before they began to deliberately enact student voice with their students. It also illustrates how the circulating New Zealand student voice and effective teaching for middle years' discourses are taken up in the classroom practices of the three participating teachers. Taken together the data presented in this chapter provides insights into the teachers' beliefs, values and practices that comprise the cultural backdrop of the research at the outset of the research. Findings presented in this chapter also address Research Question One 'How do teachers of young adolescent students perceive and define effective teaching and student voice in relation to the needs of the age group?'

5.1 Betty's Perceptions of Effective Teaching

Betty's perceptions of effective teaching for young adolescent students incorporated five dimensions:

1. Awareness of physiological effects of adolescence on student behaviour;
2. Co-construction of class boundaries and expectations;
3. Learning through hands-on, practical and relevant experiences;
4. Developing student independence; and
5. Including students as teachers.

Betty foregrounded the importance of teachers taking account of the physiological effects of the onset of adolescence for teaching young adolescent students. She took a photo (Figure 13) that represented students' hormonal changes as early adolescents and noted the importance of building in pauses when dealing with student behaviour related to moodiness and expressions of anger.

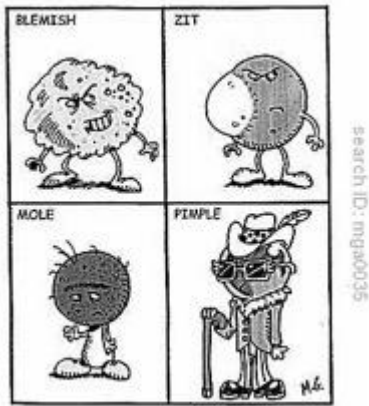


Figure 13 Hormones. BT5

They can be quite moody at times. And the anger side of things, I think it's really important they need to be given time out before situations are dealt with when you can see that they're sort of hot under the collar and angry. (BT11, p. 2)

Betty noted that clear but negotiated boundaries were important to address students' needs as adolescents.

I think boundaries are important. They need to know how far they can go. We want to make the boundaries big enough but they need to know that there is a line and when they need to stop. (BT11, p. 2)

As part of negotiating boundaries Betty involved students in co-constructing the class culture expectations and conditions for learning through a class treaty (Figure 14).



Figure 14 Class Treaty BT14

That's a photo of the class treaty that we talked about and to me that's student voice as well. That's them saying "this is what we want in our room ... I think they feel more ownership of this because they actually got to go up, dip their hand in there [in the paint]. (BT11, pp.11-12)

The class treaty captured the norms the students considered important in a supportive learning environment. Betty developed an accompanying ladder of consequences to address any breaches of the treaty. Betty and the students co-constructively enacted consequences for these breaches, such as students running at lunchtimes.

They do remind me at lunchtime who should be running which is quite good because sometimes I get down there and I completely forget about it and they say 'such and such should be running'. 'Oh good', and half the time I'll go to get them and they're already running so ... so they do take it on themselves to get into it. (BT11, p. 3)

Betty perceived voluntary participation by students in consequences incurred with breaches of the class treaty as student ownership of the class culture they helped to create.

Betty identified the provision of hands-on practical experiences as a core aspect of effective teaching for the young adolescent age group. She represented this hands-on aspect in a photo depicting a student measuring in the playground (Figure 15).

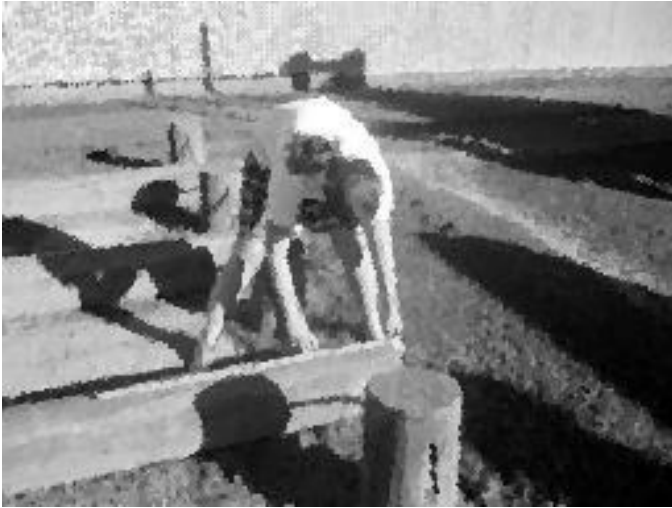


Figure 15 Hands-on Practical Experiences BT7

This was related to establishing a purpose and relevance for learning but also linked to students' increasing self-management and independence skills at this age.

These guys can be let go to do a lot more and you can step back and watch from a little bit back. (BT11, p. 5)

She also worked to develop students' independence as learners through focus on building their questioning skills, their capabilities to conduct personally relevant inquiries and setting up opportunities for reciprocal peer teaching.

Betty perceived that early adolescent students demonstrated increasingly specialised skills and expertise in areas such as PE and ICT. On this basis she invited students to participate as teachers within her class programme as an aspect of effective teaching practice. The photo below (Figure 16) depicts students sharing ICT expertise with each other, and with Betty, to create photo stories related to their recent class camp.



Figure 16 Students as Teachers BT10

Well at the moment we've been doing photo stories from camp and I've shown them what I've known and this is, you know how you go about it and things. And then one of the boys will put up their hand and say 'oh you can also add this by doing this'... So next time I teach it then I can add that in there as well so it's building on everyone's knowledge. (BT11, p. 7)

Areas of teacher knowledge and skill deficits appeared rich opportunities for the sharing of student expertise.

5.2 Betty's Perceptions of Student Voice

Betty's perceptions of student voice centred on four dimensions:

1. Find ways to learn about students from students directly;
2. Differentiate teaching to respond to students' thinking, preferences and needs;
3. Include students in co-constructing classroom norms around culture and conditions for learning; and
4. Promote student self-assessment and goal setting to generate student ownership of their learning.

Finding ways to learn about students from students directly involved Betty employing pedagogical strategies that elicited students' existing thinking and learning preferences. The 'wonder wall' depicted in Figure 17 below was identified by Betty as once such strategy.

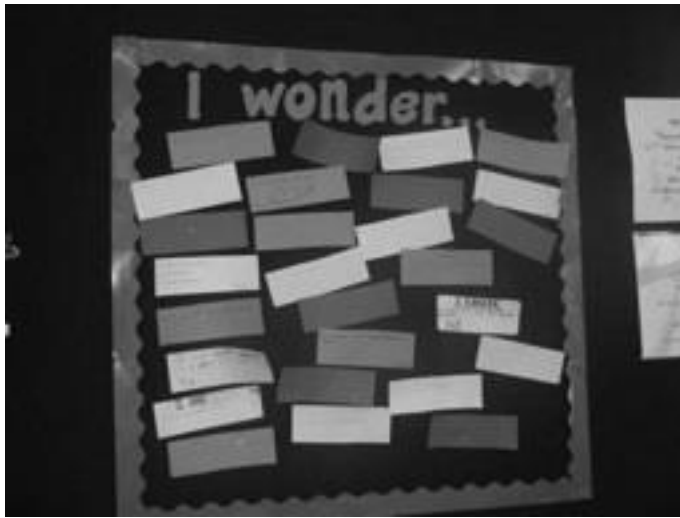


Figure 17 Class Wonder Board BT13

When you think of student voice what images come to mind? So this was down at the start of the year the ‘I wonder’ wall so just finding out from kids what their wonders are. (BTI1, p. 10)

The wonder wall enabled Betty to find out about her students’ wonderings and areas of interest so that these could inform the direction of the class inquiry.

Betty coupled learning from students with a professional commitment to address the perspectives and preferences students espoused. This commitment created a tension for Betty in her practice because she perceived that all student preferences required follow up.

The only thing I wonder about these sorts of walls. Here’s thirty different things they want to find out about, how am I going to cater to that, yeah. So that’s what sort of scares me a bit. Because I feel like, okay I’ve put up, you know, we’ve put up what you want to find out about and now yeah ... I don’t really see the point of putting it up there and then we don’t cover it. (BTI1, p. 10)

For Betty not addressing individual student wonderings and preferences within the inquiry process would communicate to students that she did not value them.

I think it sort of, it makes me feel bad that we’re not covering it all but then I also feel bad for the kids because they think “oh I wanted to know about this, and you know we haven’t bothered covering it and maybe she doesn’t value my opinion”.

You know like I wonder if it makes them feel like that? (BTI1, p. 11)

Betty described involving the students actively in decision-making about their learning through the inquiry process as a dimension of enacted student voice. She

described this also as a way to shift responsibility to students that most commonly rests with the teacher.

They're going to put forward proposals to [principal] and [deputy principal] about different activities that could be done on camp ... They have to go and approach companies, find quotes, find out what equipment we'd need, whereabouts at [campsite] could it happen, all that type of thing ... you know, they're excited about it and yeah, they're into it. It's quite hard. It's very extending them, that's for sure. (BTI1, p. 12)

Creating greater student ownership involved Betty not stepping in where traditionally she might have to vet student ideas,

Some of those things I look at straight away and think there's no way that will happen up there but I'm not going to tell them that. (p. 12)

She felt that feedback from adult professionals other than her, such as the Principal, would give the students a sense of the efficacy of their ideas.

Betty mentioned very briefly that she also considered student self-assessment and goal setting a dimension of student voice.

Also in their books like with their self-assessing and stuff, to me that's student voice when they're looking and setting goals and things" (BTI1, p. 14).

The students participated to identify their learning needs so that Betty could work with them to provide assistance, teaching and a learning plan "because we should teach to the kids' needs not to what someone else says the kids' needs are" (BTI1, p. 10). This commitment to student involvement in setting their learning directions through goal setting was in reference to the introduction of National Standards (www.nzcurriculum.tki.org.nz/National-Standards) and the possibility that these standards would steer teachers' focus away from acting responsively to students' needs.

Betty identified student voice as a 'should' promoted by her colleagues and within professional development domains.

You hear all this, you know you go to PD [professional development] courses and stuff and it's all about student voice and you just think 'I'm sure I don't do enough of it and what does everyone else do?' You know you sort of wonder if you do enough. (BTI1, p. 14)

She identified the research as an opportunity to address these expectations. In considering how student voice might be enacted pedagogically Betty posited her role as a teacher was “to set up for something to be done” (BT11, p. 11) to address students’ opinions and thinking once these had been elicited.

In summary, Betty’s perceptions of effective teaching for the early adolescent age group appeared to foreground their biological development. Her perceptions of effective teaching overlapped with her perceptions of student voice in the area of including students as teachers within the classroom programme. She appeared to view this inclusion of student expertise as an opportunity for student-student collaboration as well as an opportunity for her own professional learning.

5.3 Chicken’s Perceptions of Effective Teaching

Chicken’s perceptions of effective teaching for young adolescent students incorporated four dimensions:

1. Create a safe environment to support students as risk-takers;
2. Promote student ownership of learning process through co-construction;
3. Teacher as co-learner; and
4. Involve students as teachers.

Creating a safe intellectual, emotional and physical environment was central to Chicken’s perception of effective teaching for the young adolescent age group and her role as a teacher. She noted that students should feel safe to express their views within the classroom context among their peers.

Basically for me it’s about making connections with kids. That’s really important and you’re doing that through providing, for me it’s about providing an environment that children can take risks in. And the risks I look at are physical, intellectual and emotional. (CNI1, p. 1)

She viewed supporting this intellectual and emotional risk taking as important for overcoming peer pressure.

Peer pressure ... if you have an opinion then other kids will either, I don’t know if they won’t have an opinion, but they won’t want to say what they really, some kids will just go with what other children say. And it’s sort of okay to have your opinion and then change it ... it comes down to like taking a risk, getting out of your comfort zone. It’s okay to change, it’s okay not to be the norm. (CNI1, p. 2)

Increased student ownership of learning represented a core dimension of effective teaching practice for Chicken. She described a ‘no secrets’ approach to learning and teaching depicted in Figure 18. In the photo the students and the teacher are co-constructing success criteria and through this process sharing ownership for what counts as successful learning in the classroom.



Figure 18 No Secrets Approach CN26

We were just mind mapping some ideas to do with our enquiry learning. We were thinking about success criteria and how we will know ... And I said ‘okay so what, how do you know you’ve achieved success in your written presentation?’ And they were just coming up with criteria for me ... And that was, we went through and they said because the presentation will be, it will be colourful, it will have these things in it. So it wasn’t a secret to them what the success criteria is ... They know why they’re doing it and what they’re working towards and they’ve had a part in producing that. (CNI1, p. 3)

Chicken viewed the success criteria as the way to create transparency in and co-construction of expectations around student learning.

Chicken viewed learning as a reciprocal process. She described herself as a learner and the students as her teachers. This co-learning process is depicted in Figure 19.

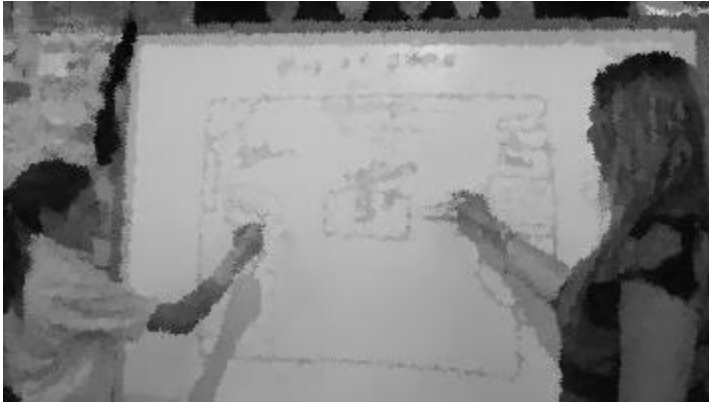


Figure 19 Co-learning CN29

Here is co-learning. You teach me ... and then I'll show you. I've never had a smart board before in my room and the kids know more than me. Here I'm being taught how to use it ... you know effective teaching is about not the teacher knowing everything and being the only source of knowledge in the room. It's about that co-learning in your classroom, the kids are teaching you skills as well. (CNI1, p. 7)

Chicken described the co-learning relationship with her students as a partnership "I'm giving you so I'm sharing some knowledge but then other kids are sharing knowledge as well with their peers and with the teacher" (CNI1, p. 8). She talked about how she changed roles in the co-learning process:

Co-learning, you're a facilitator, your roles change. Like the teacher, you're not in that role of you know everything, your role, you go in and out of roles. (CNI1, p. 12)

Chicken characterised teaching as going in and out of facilitator, learner and risk-taker roles. She described risk-taking for the teacher as allowing students autonomy to take on a teaching role when the outcome and student problem-solving capacities are uncertain.

It can be really difficult and you have to let kids, you can see something happening... you're thinking 'I'll just see where they go or how they tackle that'. (CNI1 p. 12)

Chicken identified the importance of student voice in a context where teaching itself was changing.

Teaching's changing and well it's just the roles of the teachers and the kids they're not what they used to be. We'll be doing the kids a disservice if we didn't have PD in it [student voice]. (CNI1, p. 18)

Chicken also made reference to the power of feedback from the students as an important dimension in improving the clarity of her teaching.

And the kids will say this, this and this and it's good because we're often giving feedback to the kids and 'I think you could do this and I think you could do this' and sometimes it's good for them to give you a bit of feedback. (CNI1, p. 13)

Chicken argued also that involving students in teaching roles with each other increases students' awareness of themselves as learners.

By putting kids in roles as well they get to know other kids in the class and their strengths and weaknesses and they also themselves know where their weaknesses lie. (CNI1, p. 13)

Chicken identified existing opportunities for students to participate as teachers within the PE programme (Figure 20).



Figure 20 Students as Teachers Risk-taking CN27

What they're doing is they're teaching the kids and they are doing skills teaching. It's about them making connections with other kids as well, kids making connections with kids, and teacher making connection with kids. (CNI1, p. 2)

Chicken described how her role changed as she supported her students to take risks in the context of teaching each other.

My role was really a facilitator, I gave the kids a brief ... There's six of them and they've taken a leadership role and they have worked with a small group and they have facilitated a skills based session where they talk about what the kids are going to learn. They organise the skill that they're going to teach and then they run the session. And so these guys here, we meet and critique, we are going to be talking about what worked well, what didn't work well. (CNI1, p. 2)

As students took on teaching roles with each other, Chicken's focus shifted to facilitating the students' capacity to teach. Chicken described the positive feedback she had received from the students in her class for the opportunity to participate.

I got some feedback yesterday from the class, they said 'we love doing this because all the time we've only had the teacher standing at the front telling us what we're doing. (CNI1, p. 3)

Scaffolding students to participate as teachers with their peers involved Chicken explicitly identifying the teaching and management strategies that teachers employ, and making these explicit in order to build students' capacity to lead.

5.4 Chicken's Perceptions of Student Voice

Chicken's perceptions of student voice centred around three dimensions:

1. Sharing power;
2. Students as active participants, researchers and co-researchers; and
3. Extend the learning environment beyond the classroom.

Chicken identified sharing power with her students as an aspect of enacting student voice. For her, sharing power referred to teachers 'letting go' and allowing students limited autonomy to make decisions about their learning around personally relevant goals.

The biggest thing ... um teachers letting go – what is it? I just thought of this the other night “finger on the pulse but not children under the thumb” ... And for some it's really difficult because it's about the power – they want to know exactly what's going on and sometimes kids go off on tangents and you have to let them. (CNI1, p. 7)

Chicken viewed sharing tools and spaces traditionally associated with the role of the teacher with students as power sharing with students also.

I just like getting down to their level. I think, and I wasn't actually holding a pen either. Like the kids do the scribing. The kids get the ideas down ... it's not about me. It's about they're helping me, we're sort of co-teaching, we're helping each other. (CNI1, p. 5)

She described positioning herself as a partner by working with the students at their level, either sitting on the mat with them or bobbing down to work beside them at their desks.

Chicken described positioning her students to participate as ‘active participants, researchers and co-researchers in classroom decision-making as part of enacting student voice. She referred in her own practice to ‘The Ladder of Pupil Participation’ (Flutter & Rudduck, 2004) as a key student voice heuristic (Figure 21).

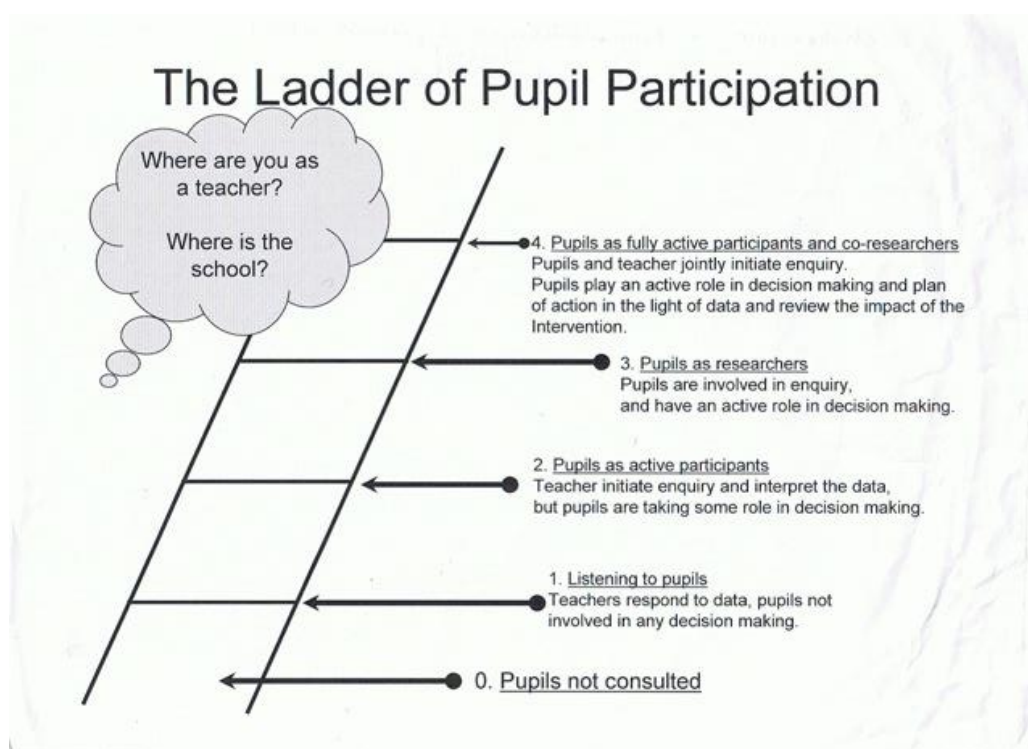


Figure 21 The Ladder of Participation (Flutter & Rudduck, 2004). Reprinted with permission

Pupils participating as fully active participants and co-researchers jointly initiating inquiry (Level 4) represented an aspirational goal for Chicken.

You're jointly initiating something where they want to go. It's not all about the teacher. (CNI1, p. 15)

She used the description of this level to reflect on the degree to which she positioned the students actively and powerfully in her teaching practice.

Chicken invited her students to participate actively in collaborative learning in online learning contexts, depicted in a screenshot of the wikispaces website (Figure 22).



Figure 22 Online Learning Contexts CN34

It's wikis - and I was thinking of, like student voice to me is about the kids, pupils as active participants, researchers and co-researchers because I was thinking about what the kids do. (CNI1, p. 13)

Chicken described how she utilised online spaces to extend the learning environment so that her students could collaborate with others within a wider learning community.

What you've got to do is you've got to use other voice, you know, wiki discussion boards, a forum to be able to talk and to get their ideas out there ... 'cos student voice, it's about you're giving the kids, creating an alternative environment too, that doesn't have to be in a classroom, where they feel they're being heard. (CNI1, p. 14)

Chicken viewed this as responding to young adolescents increasingly connected in their lives beyond school through social media and web 2.0 tools. She viewed this expanded learning community as a way to position students in more agentic and generative relationships with adults at and beyond school.

Researchers, participants, that their view counts as much as the scientists... again it's that pupil/teacher thing. You're jointly initiating something. (CNI1, p. 15)

To summarise, Chicken's perceptions of effective teaching for the early adolescent age group focused on co-construction; of student and teacher learning; and of a supportive risk-taking learning environment. Chicken identified the importance of aligning opportunities for student learning in the classroom with the

opportunities and practices in which students engage in their lifeworlds beyond school.

5.5 Lincoln's Perceptions of Effective Teaching and Perceptions of Student Voice

Lincoln's perceptions of student voice mapped onto his perceptions of effective teaching so extensively that I have merged them here in this presentation of data. Lincoln's perceptions of effective teaching and student voice incorporated six dimensions:

1. Collaborate with students to co-construct learning direction and relevant curriculum;
2. Negotiate classroom expectations;
3. Hands-on learning;
4. Incorporate digital technologies, web 2.0 tools and online collaboration;
5. Extend the learning environment beyond the classroom; and
6. Students as teachers.

Lincoln took a photo to show how he worked to enact effective teaching and student voice practice by making opportunities available within the class programme for students to work collaboratively together (Figure 23).

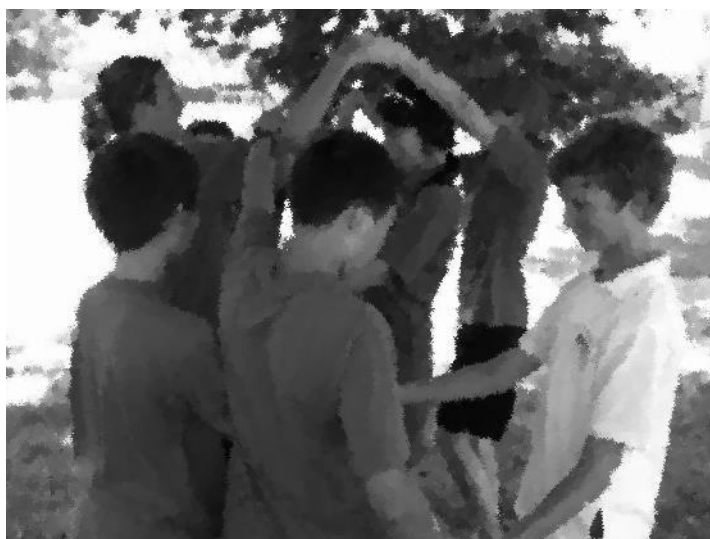


Figure 23 Students Working Together LN1

So thinking of student voice, what comes to mind? That one's ... relating to students collaborating and working together. (LNI1, p. 21)

Collaboration included also Lincoln and the students co-constructing decision-making together.

Giving them an opportunity I guess to co-construct things together. It's not all just always coming from the top. That they feel that their ideas and their input is being valued and if there's an opportunity that maybe rather than you making the steps a to z and them working through them, if there's an opportunity whereby some of the students can ... share where their interests are and the things that they want to work with. (LNI1, p. 22)

Lincoln introduced online collaborative spaces for learning and the expression of student voice within his classroom. Students were encouraged to post in online class forums and in other forums within the general internet to engage with the perspectives of others.

Given the experience that a lot of the students have had using cell phones and computers at home and gaming and different computers and things, when they're able to use that different medium to share their ideas and their thinking, often they can come up with some really exciting things. So I think having an understanding of that can lead to utilising technology well and allowing the students to display some of that potential. (LNI1, p. 6)

Lincoln referenced his e-learning-influenced student voice practice back to societal changes in communication and knowledge construction facilitated by the internet.

The nature of knowledge is different ... 40 years ago you got the full set of encyclopaedia Britannica's and you tried to memorise them and you had all that knowledge in your head ... now with mobile technologies and also the internet, the access to the information is bigger than it's ever been before ... So what becomes important is how you engage with that material and what new meaning or new learning you can make from that yourself. (LNI1, pp. 22-23)

This e-learning discourse influenced his thinking about student voice and effective teaching practice to address broader societal changes.

Lincoln described co-constructing classroom pedagogy and curriculum with students as an important aspect of effective teaching practice. He utilised the metaphor of a car journey to illustrate how students and teachers could work with each other co-constructively. Figure 24 depicts a stationary car containing a

frazzled looking driver surrounded by monkeys pulling out luggage from within a suitcase. For Lincoln the teacher was the driver and the students were the monkeys inside and outside the car.



Figure 24 Car Journey LN11

If you've got your ideas and you're trying drive them through and your kids have got completely different ideas and different expectations then it could lead to, yeah maybe a little bit of carnage like in the picture. Whereby I think with understanding your students and their prior knowledge and experiences, and interests as well, and allowing them to maybe grab the wheel now and then ... I think you might find you've got more of the monkeys inside the car than outside tearing it apart. (LNI1, p. 5)

From his perspective students who were included in classroom decision-making became 'excited', 'interested', and 'on-board' (LNI1, pp. 11-12).

Students sharing expertise and teaching each other was a central dimension of Lincoln's beliefs about student voice and effective teaching for the young adolescent age group. This aspect was depicted in an image of two students sharing expertise on ipod touch devices (Figure 25).



Figure 25 Students Sharing Expertise and Teaching LN13

Part of effective teaching for this age group would be identifying the philosophy of students as teachers as well. Identifying the strengths and utilising those, and giving those students an opportunity to work with each other. (LNI1, pp. 8-9)

Lincoln described how positioning students as teachers required a shift in his professional identity. He exemplified this in an image showing him standing on the sidelines in relation to his class (Figure 26).



Figure 26 Stepping Back LN7

At times I see myself as being able to take a step back and almost working as a facilitator. So identifying students' experience and skills within the group and where possible, yeah working with the students as teachers. So this is a boy that's played rep hockey for years and as well as supporting him and having two other students that were also supervising the drills and giving pointers. This student had vast amounts of experience than I did and through him demonstrating some of the skills, the students were engaged. (LNI1, p. 19)

In contrast, Lincoln contrasted scaffolding student voice through negotiating classroom possibilities with students with a ‘top down’ authoritarian teacher identity. He parodied this identity,

I mean like I’m the boss and you’re going to do what I say. ‘Cause I went through four years of teachers college and I know everything so you’re going to sit down and shut up and this is how it is. And I’ve got all the knowledge and I’m going to impart all my knowledge on you. (LNI1, p. 22)

Lincoln promoted individual student learning that contributed to the learning of everyone in his class.

It’s allowing for students to maybe branch off a little bit but then bringing that back to collectively share that with each other as well. (LNI1, p. 24)

He illustrated this idea with a practice he had completed with his class about the value of sharing learning.

We drew it up on the board the other day that if each of the students finds out three good ideas and puts it down in a book then they’ve got three good ideas in their book. If we make up a class wonder wall [www.wallwisher.com] and they each have three different good ideas on there then we’re going to have 90 different notes on that web page ... So yeah it’s just finding out ways for students to share their input and have it valued. (LNI1, p. 24)

In sum, Lincoln promoted student collaboration as a central dimension of effective teaching practice and student voice. He linked his practice to e-learning discourses, in particular to the changing nature of knowledge and the potential students bring to school as participants in a broader social media context beyond school. Involving students as teachers formed a central expression of his commitment to collaboration as well as engaging with students to co-construct curriculum in the form of the class programme.

5.6 Chapter Summary

All three teachers advocated students’ participation as teachers within their class programmes as a dimension of effective teaching practice and enacting student voice. Each teacher discussed the implications of students acting as teachers for their role as teachers. The teachers variously described this as: letting go, stepping back and as a process of co-construction between students and between students and teachers. They identified needing to respond to the influence of

social media and students' increasingly technologically connected world beyond school as an imperative for student voice. Inquiry learning and assessment for learning also featured in their thinking around student voice and effective practice for the young adolescent age group. Betty also introduced the contextual tension that the introduction of National Standards into the New Zealand education context generated for perceived possibilities for teachers' engaging responsively with the espoused needs of their students in classrooms increasingly required to address arbitrary student achievement standards.

Chapter Six: Action Cycle One: Students' Perceptions of Effective Teaching and Conditions for Engagement

This chapter presents the sense the three participating teachers made of the twelve Student Research Group (SRG) members' perceptions of good teaching, and conditions for student engagement and disengagement with learning at school at the end of Action Cycle One (see Figure 2 in section 4.3.2). The themes and dimensions within these were identified by the teachers, but I have expanded out each of these to illustrate the richness of the student perspectives that informed the teachers' thinking about effective teaching across the research. The analysis was distributed amongst the teachers as a summary at the end of the data analysis day (see section 4.11.3). The analysis summary was vital to the ongoing research because it became the touchstone that the teachers returned to, to reflect on their practice and beliefs during the research, to anchor discussions with the students in their classes, and to plan their class action research projects in Action Cycle Three (Chapters Eight, Nine and Ten)

The data presented in this chapter addresses Research Question Two 'How do early adolescent students perceive effective teaching in relation to their needs, interests and aspirations as learners?' The data was referred to throughout the project as 'the initial student voice'.

6.1 Good Teaching

The SRG students were asked to take photos that represented good teaching for them and to lead me through their perceptions in their photo elicitation interviews. Within the photos and discussion around good teaching the three participating teachers identified the following nine themes as coding categories within their analysis of the photo elicitation transcripts.

6.1.1 Modelling, interaction, engagement and challenge

Nine students identified teacher modeling as a core aspect of good teaching. The students' descriptions of teachers modeling were characterised by illustrations of teachers interacting and engaging with students. The most direct description of this was provided by Captain Underpants.

Good teachers have to be engaged as well with things, not just say what to do and then just let them do it and you just sit there drinking your tea. (CUPEI, p. 15)

When asked how he would know if a teacher was engaged Captain Underpants responded,

Because they are going around seeing if people need help. (CUPEI p. 15)

One student took a photo of the teacher demonstrating the PE skill she was teaching as an example of active teacher involvement (Figure 27).



Figure 27 Teacher Demonstrating PE Skills TBJ18

I thought this one was good teaching because in the actual thing she was giving examples, she was actually doing the sit up ... she was actually showing us how to do it. (TBJPEI, p. 2)

For two students the teacher valuing everyone's ideas was an aspect of good teaching. Tim Bob Jim took a photo of his teacher making room for group members within a reading lesson to share their ideas without fear of censure (Figure 28).



Figure 28 Valuing Everyone's Ideas TBJ17

She was letting everyone speak. There was no wrong answer type thing. She'd ask the question and kind of everyone would get to put their answer in. (TBJPEI, p. 3)

Flippinschnip also described his experience of students having their ideas valued in his class.

[Teacher] invites other students to come up and write their ideas on the whiteboard and that's quite good I think. It is really good teaching. (FNPEI, p. 4)

Within this aspect of good teaching teachers know their students. To the students this meant that teachers created the climate and relationships where students felt they could share their needs with the teacher, pitch challenge in learning tasks to these needs and give students timely feedback on their learning. Hityu discussed these aspects when she shared a photo of students sharing their needs with their teacher (Figure 29).



Figure 29 Students Comfortable to Share their Needs HT9

All the boys came around and they were just showing [teacher], their ideas and some of their, for the last couple of days when they have been in [TV production]. It has kind of been a muck up so they needed to like really practice and [teacher] was just like listening to their ideas and telling them if it was a good idea or a bad idea because [TV Production] has to be like all planned out perfectly and everything. (HTPEI, p. 7)

Tim Bob Jim addressed the importance of timely feedback on student learning as he discussed the importance of being encouraged by teachers.

If the teacher's saying "hey, you're not doing it right" and then he walks off ... you want to stop. If they're kind of saying "hey you're not doing it right, you're doing it wrong, maybe do it like this" maybe even give you another example or get someone else to example it. They get it so that you can do it right before they leave. (TBJPEI, p. 10)

He expanded on his preference for timely, in the moment teacher feedback by contrasting this practice with written feedback on his learning.

But I don't like written feedback ... all that stuff when you know you've got it right, the teacher said you've got it right, and then they make you do this big sheet thing saying why you think you got it right ... it wastes time. Disengages. (TBJPEI, p. 10)

Six students discussed the importance of teachers identifying students' learning needs and preferences as a basis for grouping and task design.

Pockit Rokit described the 'class brainstorm' as one such strategy that addressed her preference for working collaboratively with her peers.

The class brainstorm was cool because we all contribute as a class ... kind of hearing what other people have to say and it's just interesting ... It gives you new ideas and it's not just your thinking, you can use other people's thinking to help you.

(PRPEI, p. 4)

This theme also involved teachers affording students choice within tasks, and choice with working arrangements.

[The teacher] lets you work in groups that you want to work in, so that you are comfortable working in because if you work with people that you are not comfortable with, then you usually don't achieve things as good.

(CUPEI, p. 3)

In sum, effective teaching from the students' perspective involves teachers knowing the students well enough to select and tailor the working arrangements that would best support them as learners.

6.1.2 Scaffolding student ownership

Seven students identified scaffolding student ownership of their learning as an aspect of good teaching. From their perspective, scaffolding student ownership involved the teacher providing clear guidelines around task expectations that would then enable the students to participate in the task independently or with peers (Figure 30).



Figure 30 Students Deciding the Plan LL15

This is our group. Those girls are just deciding how to plan out, because they are doing the intro of our video and so they are like just deciding what to do.

(Lulabelle, LLPEI, p. 8)

Scaffolding student ownership also involved teachers building flexibility into task choice and deadlines.

Giving kind of space type thing. Like, not saying 'you have to do this by an hour, and if you don't you're in trouble'. Just letting you do it. And if there is a deadline, just, not saying, 'you have to do this every single second of your day', just make sure it's finished. (Tim Bob Jim, TBJPEI, p. 8)

One key aspect the students described was the teacher using their knowledge of the students as learners and people to extend them beyond their current comfort zones and build up their capacity in their areas of weakness.

6.1.3 Students as teachers

Involving students as teachers within the class programme was identified by five members of the SRG as an aspect of good teaching. The students as teachers theme included teachers guiding students to share their expertise with each other through student demonstration and modelling opportunities.

Tim Bob Jim noted that the teacher could ask students to demonstrate the skill or knowledge needed.

Maybe ask who knows how to do this and if maybe you know how, the teacher could say okay, 'you do it as a demo' because that would even be better because then kids could see that it's not an adult that can do, kids can do it too.

(TBJPEI, p. 2)

Overlapping with 'students as teachers', students taking charge was identified as an aspect of good teaching that involved teachers trusting students to make decisions on their own behalf.

The teacher is letting us decide for ourselves what to do ... just getting to do what we want to do and getting to do it ourselves is something that is good ... it feels cool, because it feels like I am taking, like in charge, doing it myself. (Lulabelle, LLPEI, p. 7)

Students taking charge also included teachers involving students in peer assessment. As an example Luabelle explained how students in her class were

giving feedback on the performances of their peers who were involved as television anchors in the daily school TV production.

They took us through the show and we got to write like if they had bad lines or stuff like that ... Getting everyone to write what, like what we thought about it and not just [teacher] telling us what was bad and good. (LLPEI, pp. 10-11)

In this way peer assessment was linked to 'students as teachers' by students.

6.1.4 Teacher organisation

Two students identified a well-organised teacher as an important aspect of good teaching.

Short Stuff took a photo of her teacher's desk to illustrate how she was well organised each day (Figure 31).



Figure 31 Importance of Being Organised SS19

It's good for a teacher to be organised and that's why I took this ... photo of her desk because she's got everything she needs with little sticky tabs, so it shows what she wants. (SSPEI, p. 2)

Teacher organisation was also extended to include teachers organising clear lesson structures and classroom spaces.

6.1.5 Access

The final theme to emerge around good teaching was access. Seven students discussed aspects of this theme which included the importance to students of: access to teacher assistance as they needed this, access to pertinent resources to support their learning, and teachers acting responsively to students' needs as these emerged.

Hityu shared a photo that depicted a teacher within the school providing one-to-one assistance to a student who needed her support (Figure 32).



Figure 32 Correcting Stuckness HT1

She was taking two people out and she was helping them read because like some of the words they got a bit stuck on, so she took them out and was doing a little activity with them ... and she was helping him really good with it. (HTPEI, p. 11)

One aspect of students gaining access to teachers for help was that teachers should be prepared to help students as many times as they need.

Some teachers only say things once and then people get stuck but [teacher], if you are still stuck, he tells you again and tries to help you (CUPEI, pp. 2-3).

I didn't really get it at first so [teacher] took time and explained it to me a bit more. (HBPEI, p. 3)

Access to enough resources to support learning was identified as important. Lulabelle referred to this in the context of discussing a PE (physical education) lesson,

We got heaps of balls, so that was good, we had one each ... because you wouldn't be like grabbing stuff off other people, other classes. (LLPEI, p. 18)

Other students referred to having lots of ICT technology available to them in order to quickly access the information they needed.

I have got an Ipod Touch and like there is a dictionary on it, so and like you can just pull it out of your pocket and then type it in, rather than going to a dictionary and finding it. (CUPEI, pp. 6-7)

In sum, good teaching involved teachers modeling sound organisation, teachers knowing students well, teachers building in time for students to participate with each other as teachers, scaffolding student ownership of their learning and teachers providing ongoing access to appropriate resources and assistance to support student learning.

6.2 The Role of the Teacher

One theme that ran through the student data was the students' perceptions of the role of the teacher. The students that addressed the role of the teacher identified teaching as a key responsibility of the teacher.

Emily What about if [the teacher] is not busy, do you still think it is a good idea for kids in your class to teach each other?

Hityu Yes it is but it is also good for [teacher] to teach because he is the teacher and everything.

Emily Primarily that is his job?

Hityu Yeah to teach the kids.

(HTPEI, pp. 4-5)

Students discussed the importance of teachers telling students what to do when they were unsure (Figure 33).



Figure 33 Teacher Telling Students What to Do HT4

[Teacher] is telling the group how to do it, like because they got a bit confused for the [TV production] and so he is talking to them about what to do specifically and everything and then there is them, doing it the right way ... if a child gets stuck

on something and they don't know what to do, the teacher needs to tell them how to do it correctly. (HTPEI, p. 2)

Although students preferred explicit teaching from their teachers they also preferred teachers to assist students without taking over (Figure 34).



Figure 34 Students Doing It Themselves HT8

So [teacher] has told them, they have been stuck and he has helped them. And then this one here is showing them doing it themselves ... the right way. (HTPEI, p. 3)

Tim Bob Jim noted it was important for the teacher to retreat after helping students.

In that one she was just helping the rest of that group 'cause they needed help so she didn't actually do it, she showed them how to do it, then exited out, which I don't think one of them really liked ... I think it was kind of the best thing because that means they learn how to do it themselves. (TBJPEI, pp. 7-8)

Teachers teaching students also involved the teachers creating trust with the students that the teacher would teach them in a way that suited their needs and most importantly in a way that did not embarrass them (Figure 35).



Figure 35 Helping One-on-One CU6

[Teacher] does stuff one on one as well, he like helps people one on one rather than telling the whole class again, he brings them down to the mat, again and he tells them one on one so they get it properly. (CUPEI, p. 5)

6.3 Conditions for Engagement

As part of their photo assignment the SRG students constructed drawings that represented a time when they were engaged in learning at school. Exploration of these drawings in the photo elicitation interviews generated conditions of engagement identified as important by the students. I present these conditions of engagement in this section. A summary of this data analysis was produced for the participating teachers (see section 4.11.3) which they referred to as they planned and reflected on the research activities in Action Cycle Two and Three.

Seven SRG members identified fun as a condition for engagement with their learning. They described fun not so much as a summative assessment of particular activities but as an ingredient that enhanced their motivation to learn.

Discussing a photo of his PE teacher teaching his class Flippinschnip noted that the teacher,

makes time to show us what to do but then she also makes time to have fun with us as well ... she jokes and is just a really nice person to be around. (FNPEI, p. 5)

For Flippinschnip this made a difference to his learning,

she makes you want to learn ... making it fun, makes children actually want to participate with what she's doing. (FNPEI, p. 5)

Captain Underpants described the necessity of fun in learning by describing the effects of its corollary, boredom, “if you are bored then you don’t really learn very much” (CUPEI, p. 13).

Six students identified having the opportunity to follow their personal interest within set tasks and creative tasks as an important condition of engagement. Following personal interest included: choosing topics, selecting learning strategies, following up ideas sparked by learning activities, and alignment of home and school interests. Their perspectives suggested that having the opportunity to follow their personal interest engendered feelings of autonomy and agency.

Hityu described the link between home and school interests and her engagement in class while discussing her engagement drawing (Figure 36).



Figure 36 Opportunity to Follow Personal Interest HT10

That was when we were in class, we had to write four mini scary stories of really interesting and describing words, and I like writing and drawing and stuff so it was quite easy because I always write stories at home and things. (HTPEI, p. 19)

Bubbles also described her engagement with story writing because the topic aligned with a topic of personal interest (Figure 37).



Figure 37 Story Writing: Alignment with Personal Interest BB12

This picture here was when I was engaged and it was when I was doing story writing 'cos like for once I really enjoyed the story I was writing about. (BBPEI, p. 9)

She also enjoyed this particular episode of story writing because it was for a competition and it had real purpose beyond learning at school.

Real purpose and audience was a condition for engagement identified by five students. In his drawing Flippinschnip depicted trialling as a journalist for the school magazine and being accepted as a time when he was engaged in learning at school (Figure 38).

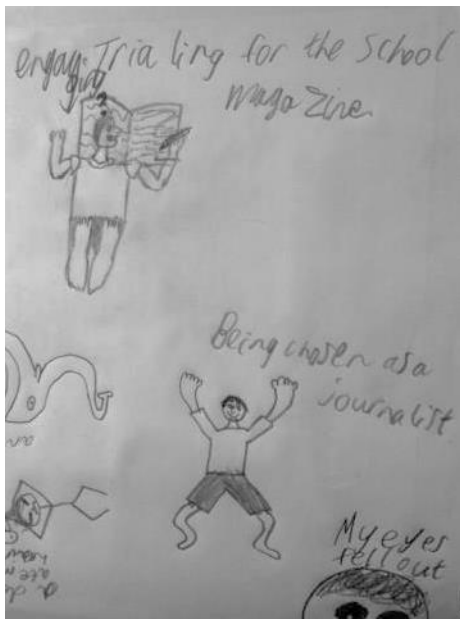


Figure 38 Trialling for the Magazine FN18

I was trialling for a magazine editor, oh, journalist and I really had to think about the best way that I can go about this if I want to be a journalist. So I had to write an article about the new [learning team] block and ask questions ... all this in a space of just under two hours ... and I got it done and I have been chosen as a journalist, yay! (FNPEI, p. 19)

Flippinschnip found the pressure motivating, “I flourish under pressure” (p. 21), and working towards a personally relevant goal engaging.

Students also identified integrated curriculum tasks engaging because these enabled them to achieve a sense of coherence amongst the many subjects and learning experiences across the school day.

6.4 Conditions for Disengagement

The SRG also produced one drawing that represented a time when they were disengaged with learning at school as part of their photo assignment. In this section I present the conditions of disengagement the students identified.

Six students focused their diagrams and discussion around aspects of task and/or strategy mis-match between classroom expectations and their personal interests or preferences (Figure 39).



Figure 39 Mis-match Between Expectations and Personal Preferences BB13

That's when I was not engaged because I just don't engage when I am sitting on this mat and then like a teacher is reading a book to you, I find it quite boring. (BBPEI, p. 11)

For Flippinschnip classroom activity that was not responsive to their skills and capabilities was disengaging (Figure 40).

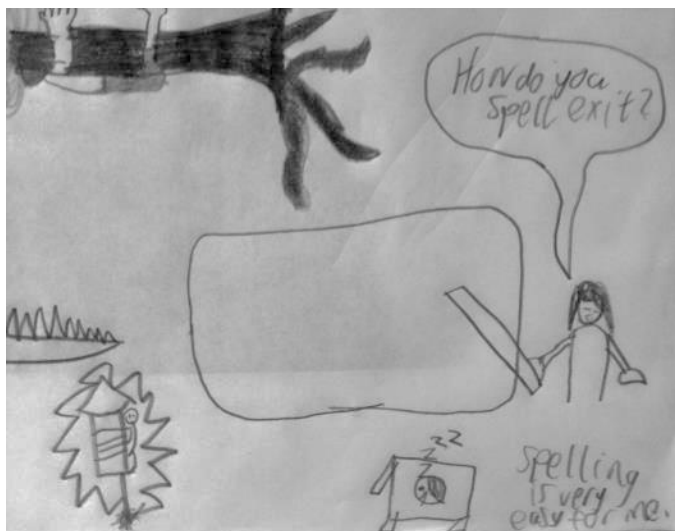


Figure 40 Class Activity Not Responsive to Skills and Capabilities FN17

When I wasn't engaged as a learner was when like the teacher shows us the long letters, vowel sounds, like 'A' and she tries to teach us how to spell. I find that really, really dull because I read so much I know how to spell the majority of words. (FNPEI, p. 19)

Three students identified distraction as disengaging for them as learners. For Sandy Dee the distracting influence was a classmate trying to talk to her while she was trying to listen to the teacher (Figure 41).

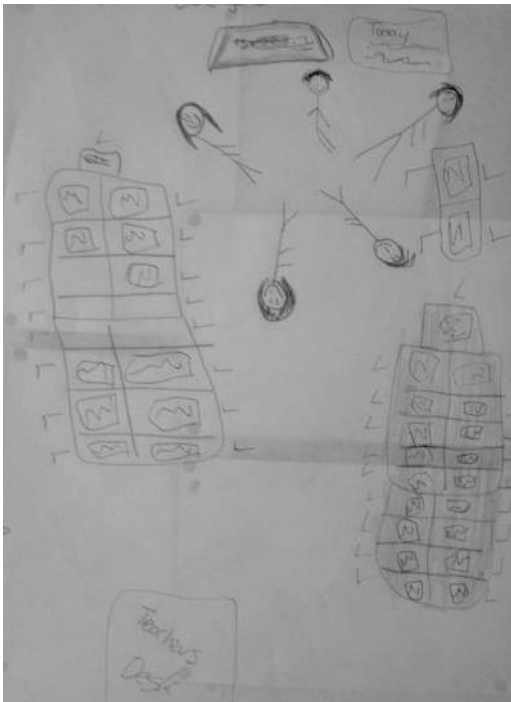


Figure 41 The Influence of Distraction SD22

I was in hard materials and Ashleigh Green kept on distracting me ... she was talking to me and I was trying to listen to the teacher ... and then he sent us away and I didn't know what to do, and Ashleigh Green didn't know what to do and she kept on asking me what to do. (SDPEI, p. 18)

In this instance the distraction compounded because Sandy Dee then began to worry that she would get in trouble for asking a classmate what she should have been doing. Her worry became distracting.

Timmy Star noted that class conditions such as noise level could distract him as a learner. "It's really hard to concentrate if there is loads of talking" (TSPEI, p. 4).

Pockit Rokit identified irrelevant teacher talk distracting (Figure 42).

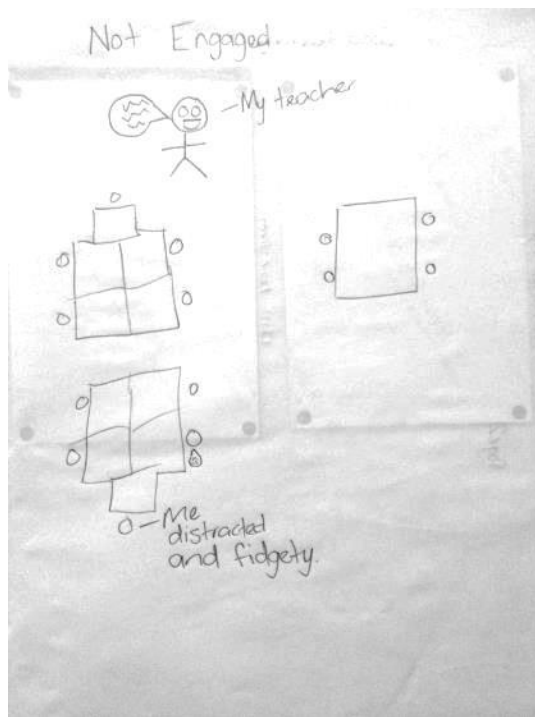


Figure 42 The Distraction of Irrelevant Teacher Talk PR15

That's my teacher and this is my class and that's where I sit and that's my group. And sometimes I feel the teacher talks about unnecessary things and my classmates will be talking and I get distracted and fidgety. (PRPEI, p. 14)

Unnecessary teacher talk included “things she needs to remind herself about, not really so much the class” (p. 14) as well as having conversations with one person while the class waits, “she might talk to a single person and then the rest of the class gets all distracted ‘cos she just starts talking to one person” (p. 14).

Other conditions of disengagement included: confusion, no student input into decision-making, pace mis-match between student understanding and the teacher moving on, pressure around deadlines, and teacher unwillingness to help students.

Tim Bob Jim expanded on the disengaging aspect of pace mis-match.

You've got to actually learn to get it right. And if your teacher is doing this and then you're finally starting to get it, and they go on to the next thing, you kind of lose all the info. (TBJPEI, p. 9)

Tim Bob Jim also argued that a focus on students meeting deadlines shifted students' attention from quality in their learning to task completion (Figure 43).

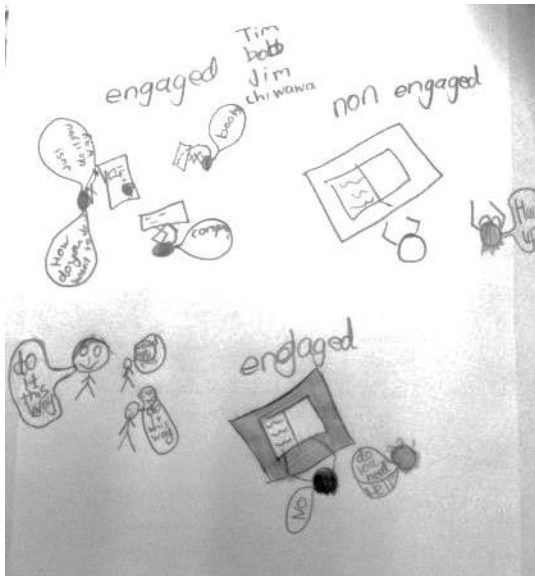


Figure 43 Deadlines Shift Attention from Quality to Task Completion TBJ22

And the not engaged ... would be teachers going around telling people hurry up and just saying ‘do this before now or you’re in trouble and have it ready’ and everything. ... Cause you’re focusing on getting it to the deadline not on actually getting it to be good work. Focusing on bad stuff. (TBJPEI, pp. 29-30)

In sum, conditions for disengagement that students identified emphasise a mismatch between their needs and preferences and conditions for learning in the classroom.

6.5 Chapter Summary

The students’ perceptions of effective teaching convey a sense that good teaching is essentially interactive – teachers need to engage with students, know their learning needs, and adapt their teaching to address these. Within good teaching teachers also make space for students to teach each other, and to co-construct learning goals, assessment and learning experiences. Students seeing each other teaching and sharing expertise affirms their thinking about their own capabilities.

The students described engagement with learning through opportunities to follow their personal interests but also in a way that challenged intellectually in the process. They also highlighted the opportunity to experience deep engagement through tasks, and pedagogical strategies that they identified with fun. Rather than being a light element, fun as the students described the notion encompassed novelty, imagination and inventive opportunity, intensified especially within learning linked to real purpose and audience.

The SRG students' emphasised alignment as a strong theme for engagement and a key element of their disengagement with learning at school. Class activities, topics, teaching strategies, working arrangements and pace, need to align with students' preferences in some way, to support their engagement with learning.

Chapter Seven: Action Cycle Two: Focused Exploration with Wider Perspectives

This chapter presents the classroom action the three participating teachers enacted to explore the wider perspectives of their class in relation to effective teaching and their students' about needs and aspirations as learners in Action Cycle Two (see Figure 2 in section 4.3.2). This classroom action was an extension of the initial student voice research and a vehicle for checking the themes that emerged from analysis of the initial student voice data of Action Cycle One. Each teacher decided individually how they would engage with their class within their programme. The data in this chapter can also be read as the first pedagogical response the teachers made to the initial student voice data of Action Cycle One (Chapter Six). In this respect it partially addresses Research question three: 'How might teachers utilise their students' perceptions to co-construct responsive and reciprocal pedagogy with their students in their classrooms?'

7.1 Betty: What Makes a Successful Learner?

In response to the Action Cycle One student voice findings Betty decided to explore the question 'What makes a successful learner?' with her students. This question was aimed at broadening her understanding of her students as learners as well to increase the students' awareness of themselves as learners.

The class brainstormed a list of traits and behaviours that they felt characterised successful learners. They used Wall Wisher (www.wallwisher.com) to record their contributions. Wall Wisher is a digital post-it note programme. The initial list was edited by the students and Betty in relation to how important and appropriate the traits were for their age group. Betty transferred a finalised traits list into a 'successful learner' goal setting template (Figure 44). Each student attached a copy of the successful learner template to the inside of their desk lid and highlighted goals related to the identified traits to focus on improving each week.

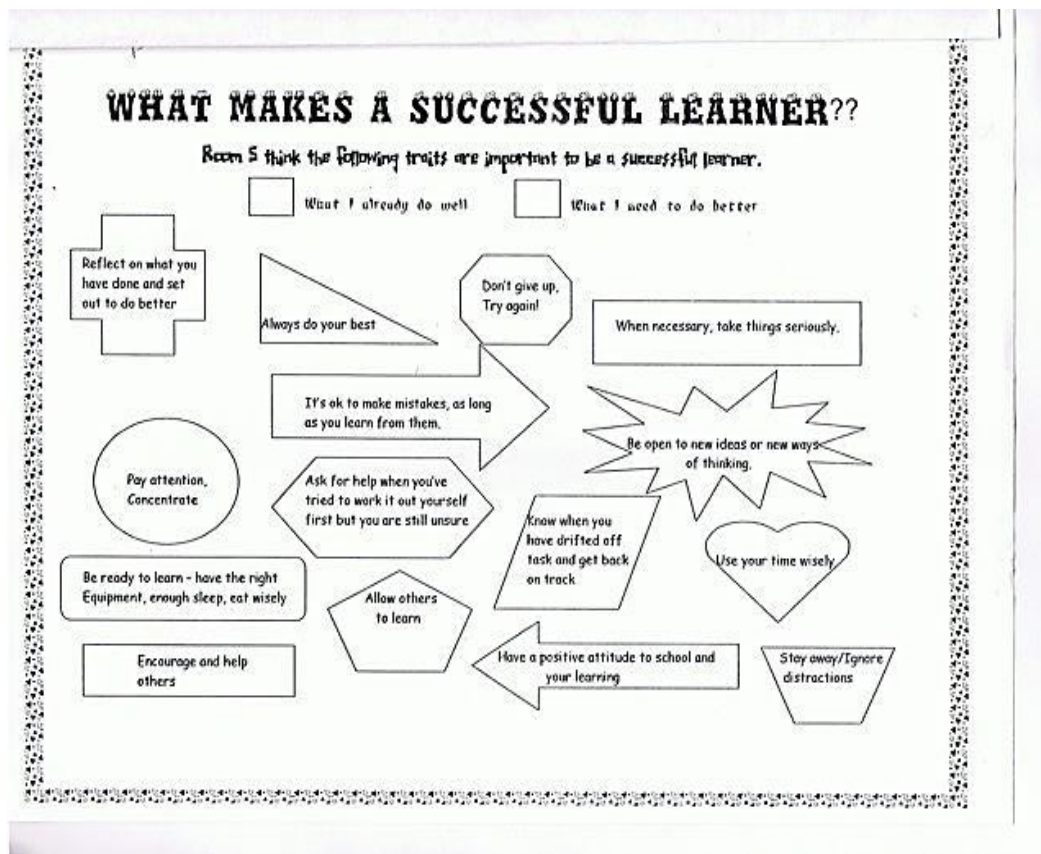


Figure 44 Successful Learner Traits BTD1

The students coloured in the traits they felt they already did well and those traits left uncoloured became their learner goals across the term. The students also selected two of the successful learner goals that they were working to achieve to reflect on with their parents during three-way conferences towards the end of Term Two.

Three of the Betty’s four SRG students identified value in the successful learner goal setting and reflection process. Tim Bob Jim was however largely undecided. He questioned the need for students to be aware of successful learner traits because these were something the teacher would be able to identify when she was roving among the students “because [teachers] can see all these things, you can just walk round and see that they’re not using their time wisely; this is just kind of them saying it” (BTSRG1, p. 10).

For Bubbles the successful learner chart kept her learning goals explicit and foregrounded.

So we know what to work on and like so then we can like do that and we know what they are. Sometimes you just make some [goals] and you forget about it and this is like a sheet to prove what you need to work on. (Bubbles, BTSRG1, p. 6)

The students valued reflecting on themselves with their parents. They perceived this goal setting and reflection process helped to forge a link between school and home: “well, it helps us, like at home our parents help us ... to achieve” (Sandy Dee, BTSRG1, p. 6). Although unsure of its long-term value Tim Bob Jim felt that having the goal sheet attached to his desk lid might be more effective than “stuck in a book that you don’t have to look at every day” (BTSRG1, p. 7). Bubbles noted “I reckon it sort of helps ‘cos like then you know like what ones you need to work on and then you like sort of try and work on them - you’ve set them basically” (BTSRG1, p. 15).

The students perceived the benefit to their teacher of the ‘successful learner’ focus would be largely organisational - she would be able to better group students working on similar learner goals or focus her assistance on goals that were relevant to the whole class. However the students agreed that the teacher might learn something about them as learners through engaging with their self-identified goals. From this the teacher would have a more focused idea of “what you actually want to work on” (Tim Bob Jim, BTSRG1, p. 10), “like what to improve” (Sandy Dee, BTSRG1, p. 10).

The successful learner charts assisted the students to see the metacognitive aspect of learning, important to a student voice as enhanced learning discourse. Bubbles reflected “well I sorta didn’t realise that ‘reflect on what you’ve done and set out to do better’ was like a goal” (BTSRG1, p. 11). Bubbles felt that although self-reflection was hard she probably would not have done it had without the explicit focus that the successful learner goal setting process offered. Sandy Dee illustrated how the process had made her aware of a trait she needed to focus on ‘be open to new ideas or new ways of thinking’ (BTSRG1, p. 11) as a goal. She noticed also that as a result of the successful learner process that she was much more aware of being closed to ways of thinking especially in maths where she perceived she had difficulties.

Well to be open to new ideas and new ways of thinking cos like I’ve got this one way and sometimes I like in maths our teacher does this strategy and I don’t like it so I go to the one I like which I think is algrams [algorithms] ... well um, our teacher in maths, he teached [sic] us how to like split up but I don’t like using that way – yeah ... I’m starting to like it. (BTSRG1, pp. 11-12)

Despite this useful metacognitive aspect Tim Bob Jim noted:

Reflecting's really boring and I don't remember that sort of stuff like what didn't work and that ... I'd rather do it like that just think to yourself you don't like have to have a certain time and you have to think 'oh what have I done well what have I done this and that'? (BTSRG1, p. 11)

The students' perspectives on reflection influenced Betty's decision to focus on developing relevant and meaningful reflection practice as the focus of Action Cycle Three classroom action research project as well as adopting a dual focus on scaffolding students to reflect on their learning and on themselves as learners.

7.2 Chicken: What Makes Effective Home Learning?

In response to the findings of Action cycle One student voice data Chicken had intended to explore with her students the foci 'myself as a learner' and 'how can a teacher support me?' However based on what she had noticed in her classroom around students' perceived disengagement from the current home learning programme she shifted her focus in Action Cycle Two to exploring the question 'what makes effective home learning?' with her students. Through this focus Chicken hoped to address Action Cycle One student voice findings around conditions for student disengagement, specifically fragmented learning tasks rather than coherent tasks integrated around a theme; a student preference for creative opportunities and shifting focus from task completion timeframes to a focus on quality within student work.

Chicken constructed the Utopia home learning project as an initial response to the Action Cycle One student voice data (Figure 45).

UTOPIA

Room Four Homelearning/class assignment

The dictionary says the **UTOPIA** is:

- *An imaginary island state with perfect social and political conditions*
- *The ideally perfect place*

Your task is to create your own UTOPIA- an ideally perfect place for you and your friends. Think about the things you like and enjoy and design and create your own island paradise. Make sure your UTOPIA has a theme that is unique to you and represents your dreams. You may choose to present your work as either a book or a poster- something to be shared and celebrated by all.

Below are the tasks you need to complete to create your UTOPIA. They do not need to be completed in order but some may need to be completed before others. Have fun creating your ownUTOPIAN paradise!!!!

- Decide on a theme and think up a name for your UTOPIA
- Create a circle map showing your ideas about your UTOPIA.
- Create a map of your UTOPIA- mark in important places like schools, shopping centres, hospitals, housing areas, recreation places and parks and other major places you can think of.
- Describe the weather and seasons in your UTOPIA.
- What currency/money is used? What does it look like and how much is it worth?
- What are schools like in your UTOPIA? Either draw a map of a classroom in your school or create a timetable for a week outlining the different subjects they do.
- Is music important in your UTOPIA? What instruments are played? Draw a picture of a popular instrument and give it a name. How about making a model of the instrument.
- Write the words to the National Anthem of your UTOPIA.
- What do the clothes look like? Draw and label a diagram of a typical girl's outfit and a typical boy's outfit.
- What do houses look like in your UTOPIA? Design a house you might see and write about its special features it has.
- Complete a double bubble map comparing and contrasting one aspect of your UTOPIA to real life. EG your house or your clothes.

- YUMMY! So what do the people like to eat where you come from? What is UTOPIA's best crop, is it a fruit or vegetable? Draw what it looks like and write a description what it tastes like.
- Include a recipe using your fruit or vege or write the menu for your most popular restaurant on UTOPIA.
- What kind of pet do you own? How is it specially adapted to your UTOPIAN paradise? Draw a picture of it and label its features.
- Create the most famous piece of artwork in your art gallery. Is it a sketch, painting, sculpture, collage or something else?
- What types of technology have you invented to meet your special needs? Create a catalogue page for your appliance store, what can you buy there? Describe each appliance and its features and give it a price.
- What laws does UTOPIA have? Present 3 laws as a cause and effect map showing why the law was created.
- Every country has its own special words. Write down 10-15 words that are important in your UTOPIA. What do they mean?
- Create a new alphabet and write a short message to a friend using the alphabet. Include in your message some of your important words.
- Write a story set in your UTOPIAN paradise. Make sure it is exciting!

If you have thought of something else would like to do let me know!!!

You will be expected to complete a range of activities, at least one every two days.

PRESENTATION IS VERY IMPORTANT!!!

Good luck

Figure 45 Utopia Home Learning Task CND1

The three-week project had an integrated theme 'utopia' that required the students to design a fantasy island through a series of imaginative and creative tasks. Some tasks were mandatory 'vegies' and some were optional 'desserts'. I introduced Chicken to a 'vegies and desserts' heuristic in response to her wish to design a home learning project that built in a high degree of student choice and tasks to suit diverse learning preferences but also addressed mandatory aspects of home learning that Chicken believed were necessary. To further increase the

potential for student input into the home learning Chicken included the option “if you think of something else you would like to do let me know” (Utopia task).

Chicken noted that with the Utopia home learning project she saw increased engagement from unexpected students. She received positive feedback also from parents about their children’s engagement levels.

I’ve got every kid focussed. I’ve got work out of kids that I don’t normally get work out of and I know it’s not always what they want because life isn’t about what you always want but it was giving their, they were owning some of this homework because they’d had a say in the direction that the home learning was going to take... and the feedback from the parents is ‘wowie, my kid is so engaged at home now’, you know it’s not the stress. (CNI2 p. 1)

Chicken utilised the Action Cycle One emergent analysis framework to assess to what degree she had acted responsively to address her students’ learning preferences.

‘The teacher - no room for student input, pace mismatch’. Yeah, ‘focus on pace and meeting deadlines shifts emphasis from quality to completion’. And that’s where this is oh ... you know become more ... I’ve just seen kids, they’ve bought their own scrap books. Like there’s one boy who, I don’t get a lot of work out of him, and he has done the most amazing things with his and it’s quality. (CNI2, p. 3)

Designing the home learning project to respond to student-generated criteria for engaging and relevant home learning also opened up opportunities for Chicken to learn more about the potential of some of her students as learners. The divergence of the task opened up possibilities for students to engage with their personal interests.

Setting divergent tasks with increased student choice also opened up Chicken to learn new things about her students also,

I’ve tapped into the kid’s creative side and I actually like the piece of work I showed you. I didn’t even know that child could draw and that came out of it and the parents actually said to me, ‘yeah he’s just really engaged in school’. You know that’s all good feedback for me and you know there’s a lot of things I’m going to work on. (CNI2, p. 7)

In reflecting on the effects of the Utopia task on student engagement Chicken identified indicators of increased student engagement. These included:

- Students showing initiative beyond the expectations of the task in areas such as presentation;
- Students putting their own resources into the task, e.g. buying a special presentation book;
- Students completing more tasks than they were required to; and
- Parental feedback indicating student enjoyment and engagement with the task.

Increased student engagement increased Chicken's engagement and espoused commitment to building in more student choice within curriculum tasks. However, although Chicken judged the Utopia home learning assignment successful she noted that the majority of the tasks were teacher-designed and that although the tasks promoted high student choice and interest the students were not included in their design. She identified her next learning during Action Cycle Three as including the students in the design of responsive home learning curriculum tasks.

7.3 Lincoln: What makes the students unique as learners?

In response to the Action Cycle One student voice research findings Lincoln explored the question 'what makes me unique as a learner?' with his students. The purpose of this task was to, "represent us as a learner and what makes us a good learner and how we're different to the other people" (Lulabelle, LNSRG1, p. 1). The students each constructed a visual map entitled 'all about me' that depicted their learning preferences and uniqueness as a learner. The maps were constructed also as artefacts for the students to share with Lincoln and their parents at student-led conferences later in Term Two.

The students decided what to include in their visual maps and most were a combination of words and pictures. In one SRG example Captain Underpants distinguished his school interests from his out of school interests and included aspects that helped him to learn (demarcated by the wiggly line running through the centre of his map) (Figure 46).

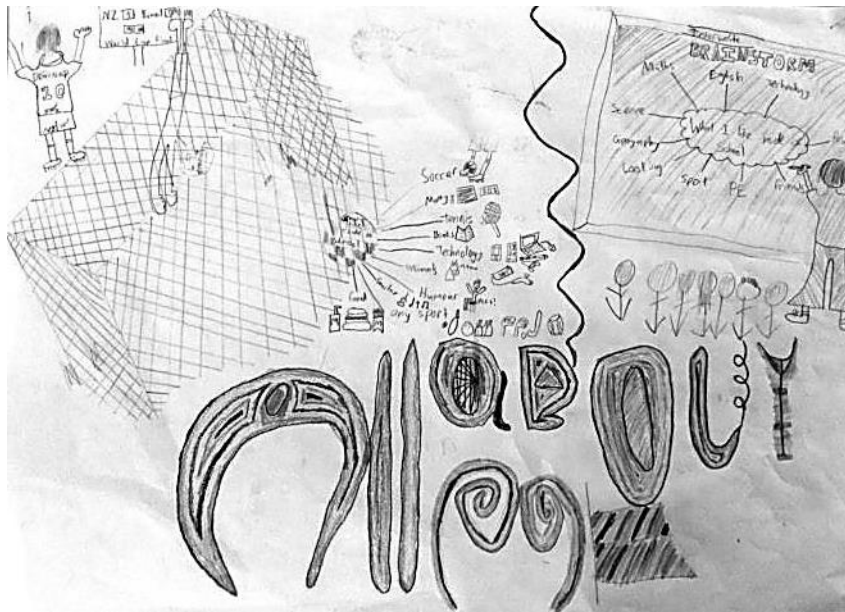


Figure 46 All About Me Maps LND1

The other three SRG students included information about their learning preferences, family and friends, hobbies, sports and achievements.

Oh I added in friends and family because they help me ... but some things like what I love I put like shopping and clothes, shoes, lip gloss. (Lulabelle, LNSRG1, p. 2)

I also put in the stuff that I love as well, like Lulabelle did, that doesn't help me as a learner. Some of it does, like music, like when we're doing music stuff in class like it's fun because you like music. (Hityu, LNSRG1, p. 2)

Lincoln noticed that a number of students in his class were tuning in more deeply with their traits and preferences as learners through the mapping process (fieldnote 24/6/10).

The four SRG students agreed that the process of constructing their maps over two – four weeks helped their social life as students got to know each other better. More seriously they noted that in the process of constructing, explaining and displaying the maps they could share something of themselves with their peers and their peers could understand something of them. They noted that Lincoln could learn more about them as students and become more informed as to their interests so that he could increase the relevance of his teaching to their interests and preferences.

'Cos you know how sometimes you don't want to learn about something, you get bored like you just lose interest so he wants to know what you like so that he can

teach you that so you won't lose interest and not learn stuff. (Hityu, LNSRG1, p. 8)

The SRG students perceived value also in the metacognitive requirement of the task to make their thinking about school explicit to themselves,

It kind of makes you realise about school, what you actually do like. Cos you just say 'oh I like this subject' but when you write it down and think about it you think why do you like the subject? (Hityu, LNSRG1, p. 10)

To enhance this metacognitive aspect of the mapping task the students video recorded themselves explaining their maps to a partner. These video records were intended for sharing with parents during student-led conferences later in the term and were included as an artifact in the students' e-portfolios.

Because we were going to have interviews and so we do some of the stuff on technology we could video it and put it on the whiteboard and show it to our parents. (Lulabelle, LNSRG1, p. 5)

None of the SRG student shared their visual maps with their parents during the student-led conferences because they all ran out of time. However other students in the class not involved in the research did share these records with their parents.

7.4 Chapter Summary

Each of the three participating teachers responded to the Action Cycle One student voice data pedagogically. Principally they investigated the perceptions their students held about themselves as learners. The initial intention behind Action Cycle Two was for teachers to learn more about their students as learners and check the veracity of findings from Action Cycle One with the SRG with their classes. Action within Action Cycle Two suggests that in practice the teachers utilised the opportunity not only to learn more about their students as learners but to increase the students' metacognitive awareness of themselves as learners. Betty's 'successful learner trait goal sheets and Lincoln's 'All About Me' visual maps engaged their students to better understand themselves and their needs as learners a dimension of student voice as enhanced learning discourse. The teachers' learning from their students became secondary. The Action Cycle Two classroom activities related to the research were adapted also to address school-level curriculum goals. For instance during the time period for Action Cycle Two

preparation for student-led parent, teacher, student conferences to report on student learning and achievement were a school-wide focus. Betty and Lincoln both identified these conferences as a focus and audience for their Action Cycle Two work with their students. This potential audience guided their students' preparation through the visual maps and identifying their goals as successful learners. In this respect, Betty and Lincoln's involvement of their students in ownership and communication of their learning links with formative assessment discourses at play in the New Zealand education context as a resource for enacting student voice.

In contrast Chicken utilised the opportunity of Action Cycle Two to make an initial pedagogical intervention in the form of the Utopia home learning project that addressed and responded to student learning preferences expressed in Action Cycle One. Through this intervention she communicated her commitment to taking account of student learning preferences, but similarly to Betty and Lincoln, the intention to find out more about her students as learners was subsumed within the intention to respond to students. The creative opportunities and expanded choice within tasks offered within the Utopia home learning project appeared to produce new student engagement patterns within Chicken's class. These engagement effects in turn enabled Chicken to see aspects of engagement in some students who had been disengaged within the conventional home learning programme, as they flourished within the environment of increased creativity and student choice.

Chapter Eight: Action Cycle Three: Betty – Making Room for Student Voice in Classroom Decision-making

This case describes how Betty made room for students to participate as pedagogical decision-makers through co-constructing a reflection trial in Action Cycle Three (see Figure 2 in section 4.3.2). Together they identified, implemented and assessed the efficacy of a range of reflection strategies as a classroom action research project.

The case is organised around the key chronological events of the classroom action research project. Within the description of these events I present details also of the mundane; including the context, the spatial arrangements of the teacher and the students in relation to each other, the timing of the event, school-wide activities where these impacted the classroom action within events and the documentation that supported the pedagogical unfolding of events. I do this to highlight the way in which power played out in the routine milieu of classroom and pedagogical organisation and to foreground the classroom action of the case as nested within the broader institutional context of the school.

The case weaves four main threads into a story (1) how Betty and her students interacted to negotiate governance partnerships across the classroom action research project; (2) how the students discursively developed a collaborative reflection community with each other within the classroom research; (3) how Betty came to trust the contributions of her students about effective reflection; and (4) how broader institutional discourses and arrangements influenced possibilities for teacher and student action in the reflection trial and Betty's perceptions of the efficacy of her student voice practice. I first present the events of the case then present Betty's reflection on her learning around effective teaching, engagement and student voice organised in relation to the four threads. I intersperse SRG student reflections on aspects of the classroom research as these occurred chronologically and towards the end of the case account.

8.1 Overview of the Reflection Trial

In this section I describe how the reflection trial emerged. Betty and I met at the end of Term Two to reflect on what she had learnt about her students as learners

during Action Cycles One and Two of the research in order to formulate the class action research project research question.

What did I learn about my class as learners during Phase Two? I learnt that they didn't like reflecting on their learning and they didn't see the point of it at times. (BTI2, p. 1)

Betty noted that her view was stimulated from reflecting on the initial student voice data of Action Cycle One.

Yes it was from the [student research group] ... but I do always feel like on Fridays, before assembly we have sort of have a twenty minute slot and that is when we do a written reflection about our week, about something we enjoyed, something we learnt, something we are looking forward to ... At the start it wasn't too bad. But now I can sort of start to see them going "oh here we go again", and so I do get it as a whole class feeling. (BTI2, p. 1)

Betty picked up a general sense of dissatisfaction with reflection from students as the year had progressed. This sense resonated with perspectives of the SRG students shared within the Action Cycle One student voice data. This mutual dissatisfaction prompted the focus of Betty's action research question.

How can I include kids in designing self-assessment and reflection that is motivating and relevant to them? (BTI2, p. 3)

This research question focused the classroom action research project. Table 14 provides an overview of the eight key events of the reflection trial and the sequenced activities within each event.

Table 14 Reflection Trial Event Overview

Event	Focus	Activities
1	Reconnaissance of the Reflection Trial	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Posing the noticing – self-assessment and reflection is boring 2. Defining reflection: Think, pair, share strategy 3. Record student contributions thoughts Interactive Whiteboard (IWB) 4. Rationale for reflection: think, pair, share 5. Collate student contributions 6. Teacher proposes the trial 7. Possibilities for reflection – sharing teacher selected strategies
2	Selecting reflection strategies	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Students contribute own experiences of reflection 2. Brainstorm top strategies 3. Record top strategies on IWB 4. Select top four strategies to trial – class vote
3	Video Reflection Strategy Trial One Dress rehearsal for parent performance of inquiry learning work	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Teacher video record class inquiry group dress rehearsals 2. Students reflect on video footage 3. Identify strengths, weaknesses, and improvement steps
4	Video Reflection Strategy Trial Two Post-performance reflection video diary	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Teacher video recorded individual student reflections on what they learnt and on their performance
5	Evaluate Video Recording reflection strategy	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Re-cap video strategy 2. Class blind vote: enjoyment 3. Class blind vote: usefulness 4. Class blind vote: time effectiveness 5. Additional student comments about video recording strategy
6	Paint Chart Reflection Strategy Trial One Class Speeches	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Teacher frames the task 2. Think: self reflection 3. Pair share (1) peer reflection 4. Pair share (2) peer reflection 5. Class sharing using the fruit picker machine to select speakers 6. Evaluating the strategy – enjoyment 7. Evaluating the strategy – usefulness

		8. Inquiring for contradictory feedback 9. Evaluating the strategy – time effectiveness 10. Concluding remarks
7	Paint Chart Reflection Strategy Trial Two Inquiry learning paired research	1. Set-up task 2. Think 3. Pair share (1) 4. Pair share (2) 5. Whole class share 6. Evaluate the paint chart strategy through a class blind vote 7. Evaluate the paint chart –additional comments 8. Cueing next reflection strategy
8	KnowledgeNET Forum Strategy Trial One	1. Class relocate to computer suite 2. Students respond to teacher reflection prompts in relation to successful learner goals 3. Students engage each other’s comments

Betty identified that a focus on developing responsive reflection practice with her students could extend her professionally as well as address the students’ learning preferences.

I felt that it was in myself as a teacher as well, like I was sort of getting to a limitation of ideas on how to reflect ... just coming up with different ways of reflecting than always just written. (BTI2, pp. 1-2)

In this respect the student voice data created space for Betty to action a pertinent professional growth opportunity. As a starting point, Betty described four main shortcomings of her current reflection pedagogy:

1. the time delay in reflecting on the week’s learning on a Friday afternoon rather than at the moment of learning;
2. the formality of the written reflection process;
3. the generality of reflection foci prompts; and
4. the constraints of a busy classroom timetable on possibilities for regular oral reflection.

At the outset of the project Betty did not always know whether or not the students were reflecting and if they were what the content of their reflection involved.

I mean I would hope that kids are reflecting as they do things and right along the way but we don’t always ask what their reflection is, for everything and we can’t

do it for everything, I mean you sort of hope that they are doing it in their heads.
(BTI2, p. 2)

Betty linked reflection to students' development as learners through involving them in personal goal setting. She was concerned however that student goal setting was often 'done to death' and that under these conditions students' goals could lose their potency.

Sometimes I think goals can be done to death and kids are just, "oh we are doing goals for the sake of it" and it doesn't mean anything to them and they forget them. (BTI2, p. 2)

Student goal setting also addressed broader school expectations. Students were expected to reflect on their learning in relation to goals they had set within three-way student/teacher/parent conferences. From this reflection they were expected to formulate new learning goals to extend their progress.

To encourage student reflection on learning Betty linked goal setting with reward. The students received 'economic' gain for being able to remember their goals. These goals included the successful learner trait goal setting sheet from Action Cycle Two (section 7.1) that had been incorporated into ongoing classroom practice.

We've got the goals that we did, last term, the successful learner sheet, and their goals that they shared at three-way conferences there. And each day, in accordance with our reward system, which is pretend money, I will just pick up desk lids and say, "okay such and such, what is your writing goal?" And they need to be able to tell me, so that they actually know what it is. (BTI2, p. 2)

In this respect embedding the value of goal setting and reflection at the outset of the classroom action research project appeared to normalise reflection as compliance, even though initially the successful learner goal setting sheet was generated based on student voice intentions.

Betty hoped that the reflection trial would motivate the students to reflect on their learning and come to understand that reflection was important to learning.

I just want to get some more new ideas of ways to reflect so that kids are actually motivated by it and see the importance of it. (BTI2, p. 3)

Although Betty was motivated to generate relevant and meaningful reflection practice with her students she was initially not convinced that including the students in what this might look like would be productive.

I don't know if the 'how could I include kids bit' ... I mean I will do that and I will ask but it's all going to come down to what I come up with isn't it? ... I think they would come up with ideas like, they will say, 'don't make it writing', 'do this', 'don't do that'. I don't think they will be able to come up with actual ideas about what we could do, you know they will say what they don't want in it but then it is, yeah so that I mean student voice too, that point, but then to come up with the actual things, I don't think they will go that far. I don't know, I might be surprised but yeah. (BTI2, pp. 3-4)

What is notable in these initial views is that although Betty was sceptical of her students' capability to contribute viable and relevant reflection strategies, she was open to the students challenging her perceptions of them.

8.2 Event One: Reconnaissance

Once the over-arching research question for the action research project was settled, Betty introduced a reflection trial as a possible focus to her students. She began by sharing her research question and her perceptions of the students' disengagement with current reflection practices with her class.

I said to them "this is the feeling that I get and ra ra ra self-assessment, reflection is boring and you don't see the point in it." I said "is that a fair comment?" and there was a big 'yip' so we went from there. (BTI3, p. 1)

Betty's class began the reflection trial by defining their existing understandings of the term 'reflection'. They utilised a 'think, pair, share' strategy to achieve this. The students' contributions from the 'share' phase were recorded on the interactive white board creating a record of their initial definitions of reflection that could be referred to throughout the project (Figure 47 depicts a screenshot of this whiteboard record).

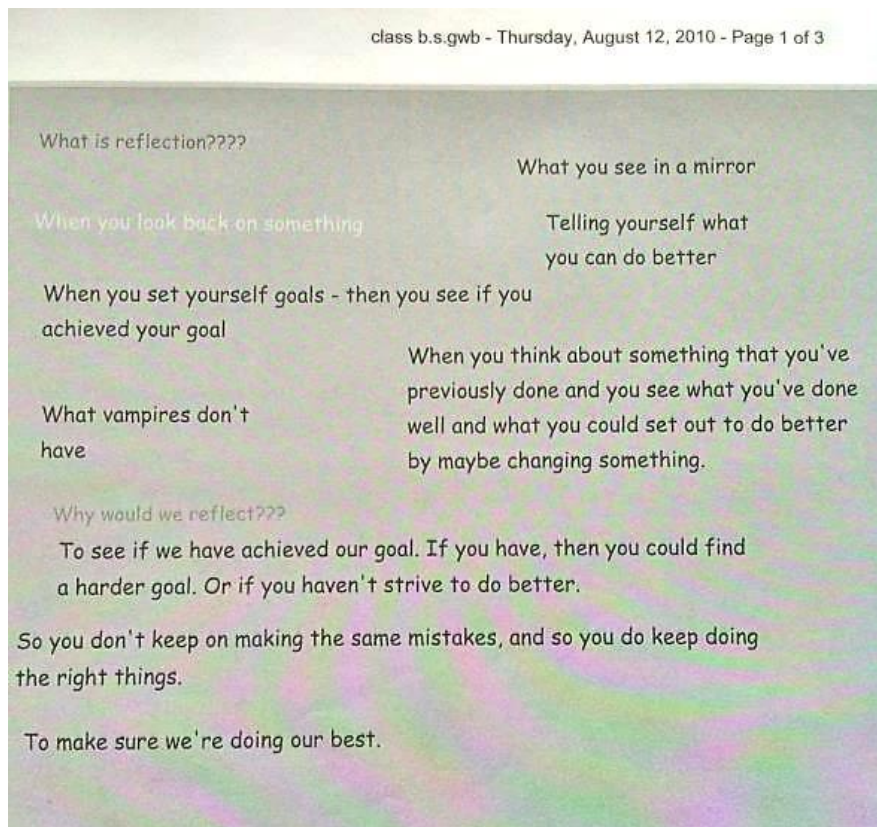


Figure 47 Defining Reflection BTD2

Betty noticed in reflecting on this brainstorm record that:

They all saw [reflection] as a negative, what you need to do better sort of thing, rather than what you have actually done well. (BTI3, p. 2)

Betty identified acknowledging strengths and achievements were important aspects of self-reflection that were missing from the initial student discourse on reflection. Developing balanced reflection practice – including an assessment of strengths as well as areas for development – became an important area of intervention for Betty. In this respect developing the students' capability to reflect correctly became the student voice curriculum for the reflection trial.

8.3 Event Two: Reflection Strategy Selection

In Event Two the students and Betty selected the reflection strategies for the reflection trial. Including the students to select strategies to trial opened up space for the students to contribute their past experiences of reflection.

They were like, "oh at my old school they used to do this" ra ra. (BTI3, p. 3)

Figure 48 depicts the class brainstorm of possible reflection strategies generated by Betty and the students.

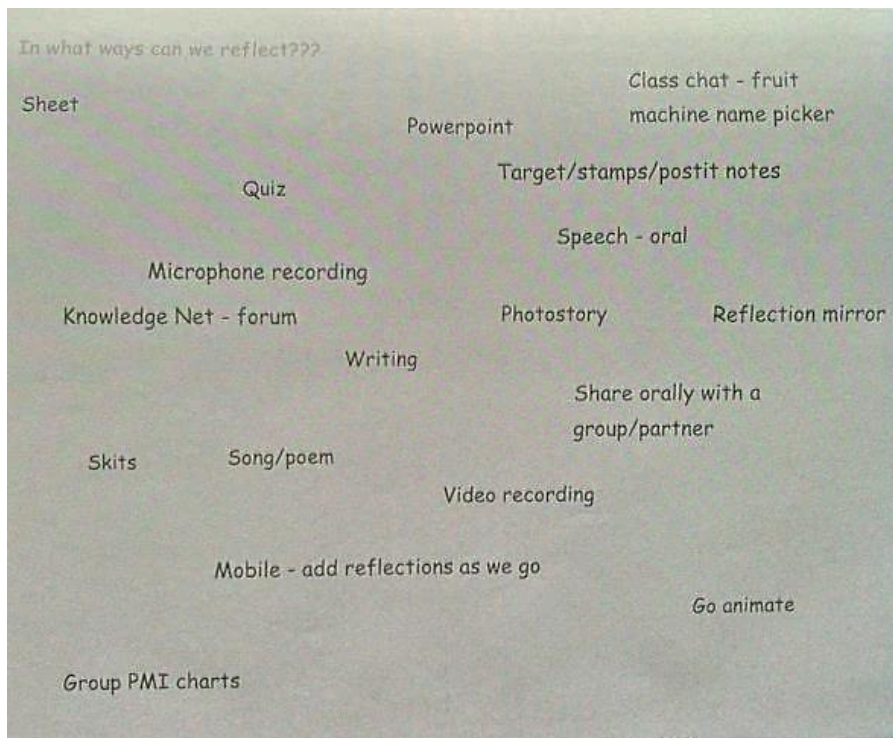


Figure 48 Ways to Reflect BTD3

The students' contributions surprised Betty and challenged her initial conception that they would not be able to contribute viable suggestions.

They came up with way more than I thought they would, so that is good... I think now they will be more into it and know that this is the purpose of [the project], we have to report back and we get a say. (BTI3, p. 6)

She noted that expanding student involvement in decision making into the pedagogical design of the trial built on her existing current classroom practice but incorporating a new agenda, that is modelling her responsiveness to the students' ideas and openness to their co-constructive assistance.

We do quite a bit of this stuff, but I think it makes them feel like, 'oh she actually does care ... When I said "this is what I think, that you find [reflection] boring radirahdira", that shows that I am reflecting on myself, which is modeling too ... and saying to them "I am not perfect, help me out". (BTI3, p. 6)

Four reflection strategies were selected to trial by class vote. To prepare for the vote Betty gave the students an opportunity to discuss the possible strategies amongst themselves before voting. The vote is recorded on a screenshot in Figure 49.

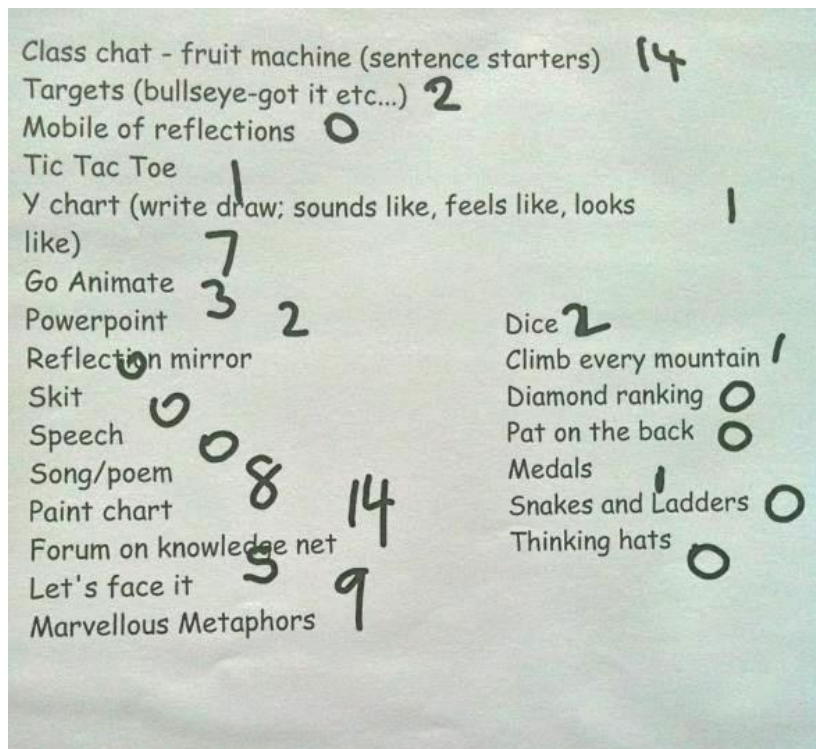


Figure 49 Reflection Strategy Selection – Voting Results BT4

The top five strategies selected by the class to trial over the remaining eight weeks of the school term were:

1. Class chat – facilitated by fruit picker machine using sentence starters;
2. Video recording (does not appear on voting record in Figure 49 above);
3. Paint Chart (Murdoch, 2005);
4. KnowledgeNET Forum; and
5. Marvelous Metaphors (Murdoch, 2005).

Betty planned that each strategy would be trialled twice, in two different curriculum contexts. Once each strategy had been trialled in action the class would meet to evaluate the efficacy of the reflection strategy in relation to co-constructed criteria.

Three criteria were identified against which each reflection strategy would be evaluated: enjoyment, usefulness and time effectiveness. Betty devised the first two criteria: enjoyment and usefulness. She defined usefulness for the students,

Will this help you with your future learning or are you just going to forget about it and that is that - you did it for the sake of doing it? (BTI3, p. 4)

The third criterion ‘time effectiveness’ was identified by the students as they discussed the viability of certain reflection strategies such as dramatic skits and stop motion animation.

Some people were going to do these skits to reflect on but it was going to take too long, it was going to take a couple of days [Tim Bob Jim: to reflect on the skit] and you can’t reflect on a skit. (Sandy Dee, BTRSG2, p. 5)

Stop motion [clay animation], it would have taken weeks to do, and so a kid was like, ‘but like that would take us all term’ and so we decided that [time effectiveness] would have to be one of the criteria. (Betty, AR3, p. 3)

Betty designed a strategy trial matrix (Figure 50) to track and evaluate each reflection strategy throughout the project.

REFLECTION/SELF ASSESSMENT IDEAS - TRIAL INFO

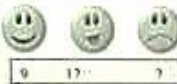



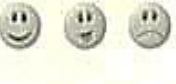

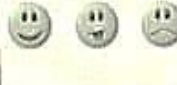
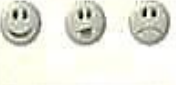
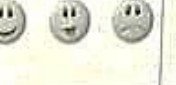



TYPE	ENJOYMENT	USEFULNESS	TIME EFFECTIVENESS	COMMENTS
Video recording	 9 17 7	 14 9 0	 15 8 1	Easy & efficient Good because we could do it while we were practicing so it didn't take up extra time. When 1 person was out doing diary Reflection others could still get on With their work.
Paint Chart - Fruit machine class chat				
Marvelous Metaphors				
Class forum On Knowledge Net				

Figure 50 Reflection Strategy Assessment Matrix BTDS

The ‘think, pair, share’ strategy was also selected by Betty as the pedagogical framework for reflecting on the efficacy of each reflection strategy. During the ‘share’ phase of the ‘think, pair, share’ process the fruit picker machine (Figure 51 below), would be incorporated as a way to select students at random to share their reflections with the whole class. Betty entered all student names into the electronic fruit picker and with a click the fruit picker rolled through the possibilities and a student name lit up at random with an accompanying ‘crowd roar’. The identified student would then share their reflection with the class. In

this way the fruit picker machine strategy was merged with each of the other reflection strategies.



Figure 51 Fruit Picker Machine www.classtools.net

Betty noted the fruit picker machine was a familiar and popular selection strategy already used extensively within the class programme, for example during impromptu speeches to assign students random speech topics.

8.4 Event Three: Video Reflection Strategy Trial One

In Event Three Betty and the students applied the video reflection strategy to the students' dress rehearsal of inquiry learning research presentations that they were working on. This involved Betty video recording each student inquiry group's dress rehearsal of their inquiry learning presentations. The students watched the footage and then reflected on their presentations, noting how they did, how their group did and what they could do better in their actual performance.

The SRG students found the first video strategy useful.

You could see what you needed to reflect on 'cos we did it with our inquiry and we could see if it needed more expression or if some bits needed fixing up ... I could like see what I had done wrong or what needed work, really fast. (Timmy Star, BTSRG2, pp. 1-6)

You pick up a lot of things that you like need to work on like looking up or something like that ... so if you need to improve anything or show. (Bubbles, BTSRG2, p. 2)

Like so you could see how you did it. (Tim Bob Jim, BTRSG2, p. 2)

These students' perspectives indicate that having a 'mirror' for their learning in the form of video footage enabled them to identify their own areas for improvement as learners that they could only see as the audience of their own performance.

8.5 Event Four: Video Reflection Strategy Trial Two

In the second application of the video recording reflection strategy Betty asked the students to summatively assess their learning and enjoyment in relation to their final inquiry learning movie presentations to their parents.

And then after the parent performance, I pulled one of them aside yesterday and did a little video diary about how they felt they went and what they learnt through the whole inquiry process. (Betty, AR3, pp. 1-2)

Each student completed a video diary entry that Betty filmed in the corridor outside the classroom. Betty formulated sentence starter reflection prompts for the students to respond to which were displayed on the wall inside the classroom (Figure 52).

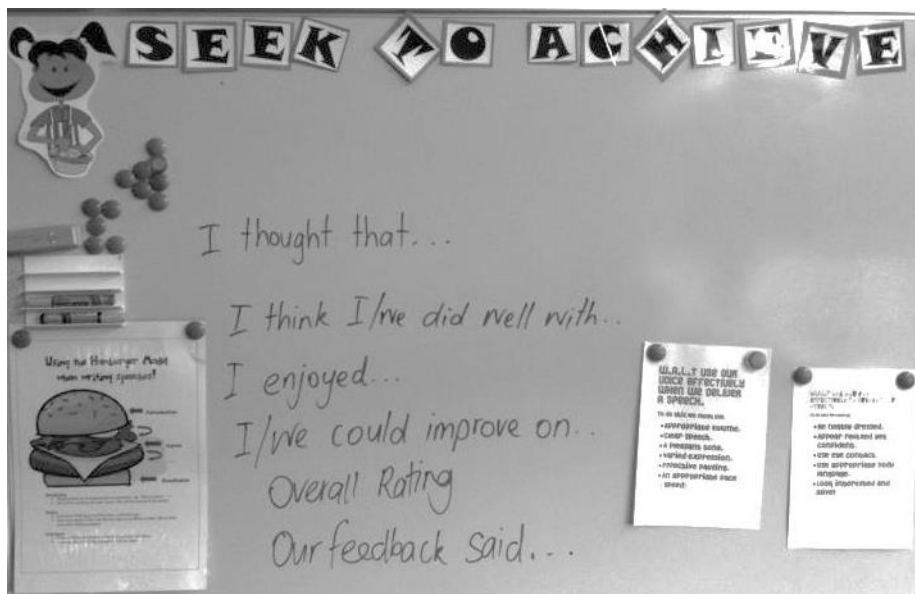


Figure 52 Sentence Starters BT1

While Betty recorded each student's contribution a teachers' aide oversaw the rest of the class. After each student completed their video diary with Betty they were sent back to class to alert the next student.

Betty shared an indicative example of a student video reflection diary with Chicken and Lincoln during a collaborative action research meeting.

- Student We did well in our presentation yesterday but I think we could have done a bit more, put some music into it. We could have put a bit more [pause]
- Betty A bit more effect?
- Student Yeah. Exactly what we should have done over the past few weeks was people down there and not coordinating on what we were doing properly so ...
- Betty Okay and what did you learn from this inquiry?
- Student Making a movie is harder than I thought
- Betty Okay and did you enjoy this inquiry?
- Student Yes very much.
- Betty Right. Thank you.

(AR3, p. 2)

Betty set the parameters of the reflection through the questions she formulated and posed. In the data example above the student contributed their perception of what their group might have done to improve their final performance product. When the student paused, appearing to search for an elusive idea, Betty supplied a possible response that the student accepted. On the strength of this exchange the student expanded on what they might have included in their movie to strengthen its impact. Aside from this initial exchange Betty did not interact with the student further to develop their capacity to work as a team or strengthen the impact of their video product.

8.6 Video Reflection Strategy Reflections

Betty's reflection on her learning from the student video diaries indicated that what the students chose to reflect on gave her insight into the efficacy of her teaching practice. In their reflections on their inquiry learning presentations the students made reference to curriculum messages in the form of deep understandings that Betty was working to embed within her class inquiry learning programme.

I was really happy ... I always worried with the deep understandings, like our one was communication and creative expression and so ... I said 'so what did you learn during this inquiry?' and a few said, like 'I learnt how to do movie editing

skills' or 'I learnt how to dance better', which they did, but I would say three quarters of them said 'I learnt that there are lots of different ways to communicate other than orally' and I was like, 'ooh'! And that was our big understanding and I hadn't prepped them into it and I didn't tell them that I was going to ask them what they learnt. (Betty, AR3, p. 4).

Betty noted that the students' reflections in their video diaries suggested they had grasped the deep understandings of the inquiry "because we had to assess the deep understanding, to me that's it right there, that shows me whether they got it or not" (Betty, AR3, p. 4).

However while the video diary strategy was useful for Betty's professional learning about the students as learners, the SRG students did not find the video diary strategy as enjoyable. Sandy Dee identified the second video strategy as the least engaging aspect of the reflection trial for her. She said this was because she was shy.

When I was out there, we didn't, couldn't have the sentences [sentence starters], so I kept forgetting what they were ... I froze for about a minute or two ... and then I said just like a couple of words, cause I didn't know, she [Betty] forgot to tell me what they were again. (Sandy Dee, BTSRG3, p. 12)

Tim Bob Jim noted he was the only student in the class who had voted that the second video reflection strategy wasn't 'time efficient'. The other SRG members found that the strategy did not take too much time and did not interrupt others in the class while they were working. Tim Bob Jim's perspective related to the time the strategy took to for Betty to administer "it wasn't really time efficient cos you had to get all the people up one by one" (TBJ, BTSRG2, p. 3).

8.7 Event Five: Video Recording Strategy Evaluation

The class evaluated the efficacy of the video reflection strategy through a blind class vote after it had been applied twice to their inquiry presentation dress rehearsal and to their final inquiry learning presentations to their parents. Betty described the blind vote process to Chicken and Lincoln in a collaborative action research session.

They just had to close their eyes and put their heads down so they didn't know what everyone else was voting as well. (Betty, AR3, p. 2)

The students voted in relation to each of the three criteria – useful/not useful, enjoyable/not enjoyable, and time effective/not time effective. The results of the blind vote and comments the students made about the video recording strategy were recorded by Betty in the Reflection/self-assessment matrix (Figure 53).

REFLECTION/SELF ASSESSMENT IDEAS – TRIAL INFO

TYPE	ENJOYMENT	USEFULNESS	TIME EFFECTIVENESS	COMMENTS
Video recording	 9 17 7	 14 0 0	 15 8 1	Easy & efficient Good because we could do it while we were practicing so it didn't take up extra time. When I person was out doing diary Reflection others could still get on With their work.

Figure 53 Video Recording Strategy Blind Vote Results BTD6

The comments recorded in Figure 53 indicate that the class decided the video strategy was ‘easy & efficient’, good because it was embedded in the learning task and did not take up extra time, and the strategy did not hold students up while others reflected. As Betty’s earlier comments indicate, the video recording strategy also opened her up to her students’ thinking about themselves as learners and to aspects of her classroom teaching that were becoming embedded within the students’ understanding also.

8.8 Event Six: Paint Chart Strategy Trial One

In Event Six Betty and the students trialled the second reflection strategy, the paint chart continuum, for the first time, using the strategy to reflect on their speeches.

The paint chart strategy is depicted in Figure 54. Betty adapted this reflection strategy as an interactive whiteboard resource from a commercial worksheet.

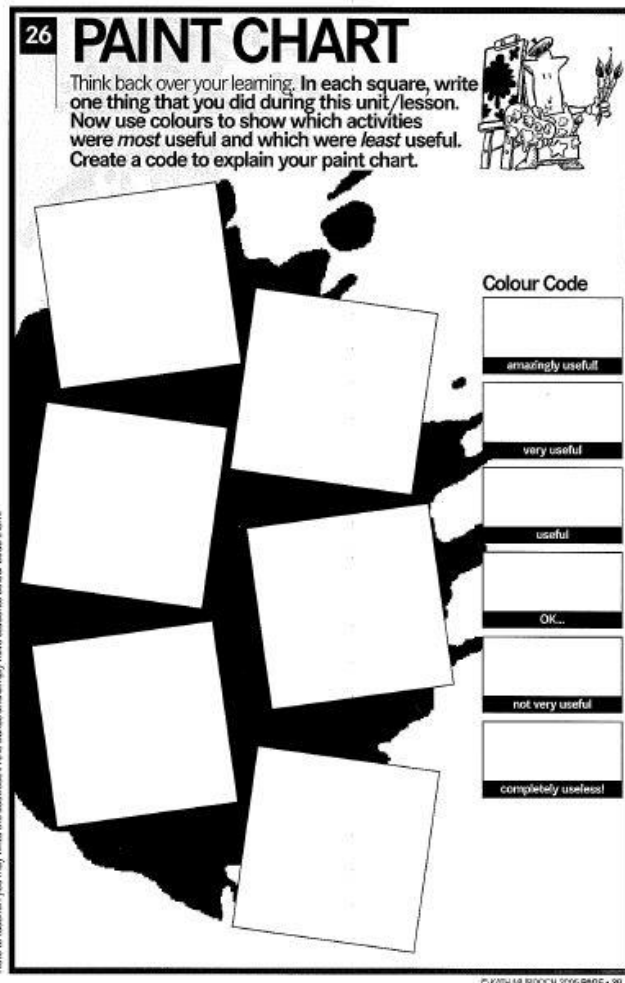


Figure 54 Paint Chart Commercial Copy (Murdoch, 2005). Reprinted with permission

The paint chart strategy comprised four aspects:

1. A visual continuum of coloured paint splodges each of which represented an overall rating of learning and/or performance from ‘completely useless’ to ‘amazingly useful’;
2. ‘Think, pair, share’ pedagogical strategy that organised students to reflect individually, in pairs twice and orally within a whole class sharing session;
3. Fruit picker machine to randomly select speakers during the ‘share’ phase of the session; and
4. Specific curriculum task criteria to guide student reflection and selection of a rating.

The paint chart was first applied to students reflecting on their class speech performances within the literacy programme. Each student had delivered her/his speech prior to this reflection session and each used the paint chart strategy in

pairs to reflect on their speech performance in relation to pre-set criteria (Figure 55).

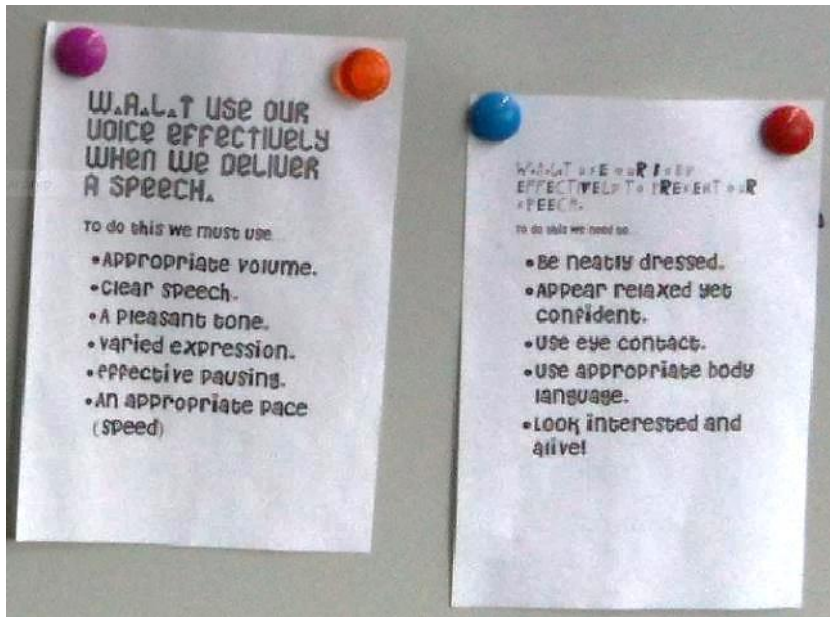


Figure 55 Class Speech Criteria BT D7

The students had also been expected to use the ‘Hamburger model’ to structure their speech (Figure 56).

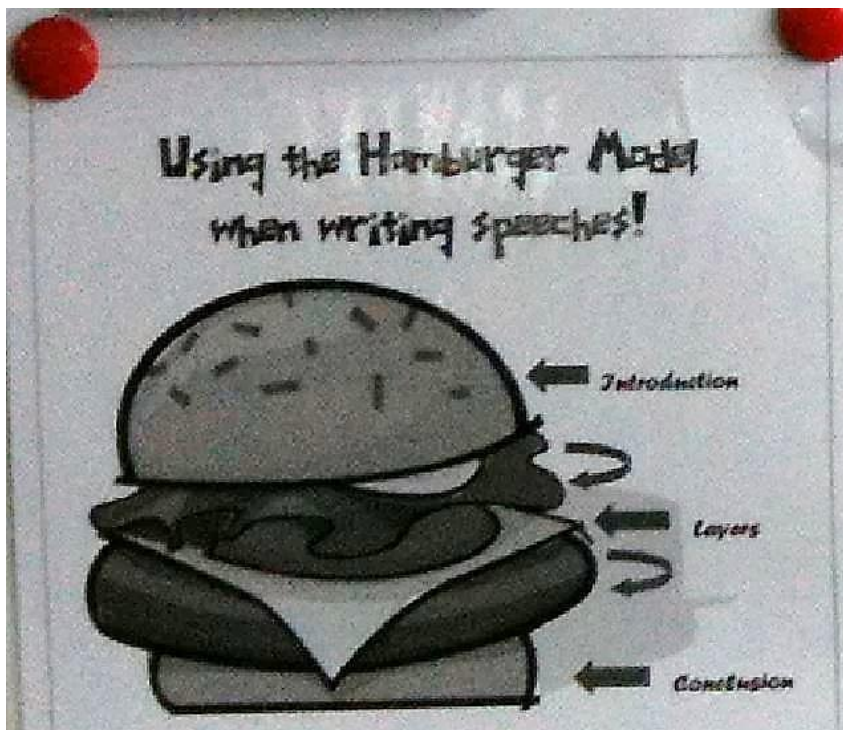


Figure 56 Hamburger Model BT D8

The students were spatially positioned on the mat facing Betty who sat operating the interactive whiteboard (IWB) computer. The IWB screen displayed the paint

chart continuum (Figure 54) as well as the criteria for effective speeches introduced in Figure 55.

Table 15 outlines how Betty framed the reflection task. She used her initial discourse to address several purposes: cue relevant prior student knowledge and past decision-making, signal and rehearse what would constitute relevant student talk, establish participation norms for the session, and provide an overview for the structure of the session.

Table 15 Framing the Task

Speaker: Betty	Purpose of Discourse
<p>Alright guys we're going to have a look at the trial that we're doing at the moment with our reflection and self-assessment.</p> <p>And we've trialled the video recording so far and we've gave that a rating.</p>	<p>Identify purpose of session</p> <p>Cue relevant students' prior knowledge and past decision-making</p>
<p>And what we're going to trial next is what you came up with the paint chart, slash fruit machine. Okay?</p>	<p>Set up task</p>
<p>So. If we have a look up here what we've just done. Think about what you thought about it, think about some of the feedback you've been given. You're going to rate yourself on this paint chart.</p>	<p>Cue reflection</p>
<p>So "we're self-reflecting, assessing our speech, how our speech presentation went yesterday (or today, for some of you). We need to think about the use of cue cards, your body language, your voice and whether you used the hamburger model correctly. Rate your speech using a colour from the paint chart, explain why you chose this colour". So we've got five colours up here "blue, amazing, green pretty good, orange, okay, purple not that great". So you're going to have a think about your speech, "black terrible", okay?</p>	<p>Re-cap speech criteria as criteria for reflection.</p>
<p>Now when it's your time to share, if your name gets picked, you're not just going to say "oh I rate my speech blue". What will you have to say?</p>	<p>Set discourse parameters</p> <p>Rehearse acceptable discourse</p>

Student: You have to say why you rated your speech blue	
---	--

(Betty, BTV1, p. 1)

The students began the paint chart reflection session with the ‘think’ task. ‘Think’ focused the students on mentally self-assessing their speech performance against the effective speech criteria. The students chose a colour from the Paint Chart continuum that best represented their overall performance. They were asked to indicate to Betty that they were complete with their mental assessment by placing their hands on their heads.

The students then moved into the ‘pair’ task of ‘think, pair, share’. This task required the students to interact together in pairs to share their perceived performance in relation to the displayed speech criteria and their paint chart rating. Snippets of student interaction captured the students using the rehearsed discourse pattern Betty introduced - “I rate myself...”. An example of how the students engaged with each other is presented below.

I reckon I was pretty good because I [looks at criteria on IWB] I did, my speech was okay but it could have been better. [Pause] I was too nervous when I did it. I was pretty nervous when I did it. [Grins at partner, partner smiles back and nods] So um [looks up at video camera] yeah. I needed more eye contact. (BTV1, p. 2)

A rating of ‘pretty good’ corresponded to the colour green on the paint chart continuum indicating a sound speech performance with room for improvement.

After around one minute of student interaction Betty instructed each student to find a new partner and the pair sharing process resumed. During these two pair sharing segments Betty roved among the student pairs to listen to them as they reflected with each other.

8.8.1 Discursive Shifts

Four and a half minutes into Event Six the class moved into sharing their reflections on their speech performance with the whole class. Betty introduced the reflection task and ‘spun’ the virtual fruit picker machine.

Now that you’ve shared with a couple of people some of you will get a chance to share with the class. So you should all know what to say if the fruit picker picks

you, you've just had a practice ... You don't have to stand up or anything like that ... alright, fruit machine what have you got for us today? (Betty, BTV1, p. 2)

Betty responded to each student after they shared their reflection. Initially Betty's responses to each student consisted of evaluative praise – “good remembering, cool bananas”, as well as re-iterating her expectations that the students include their strengths in their reflections – “remember to say what you did well as well ‘cos you all did great things”.

Most notably mid-way through the whole class sharing the students' discourse pattern began to change. Student speakers began to link their contributions by building on the content of previous speakers within their sharing turn, using the discursive move of re-voicing (section 4.11.7). For instance, the official speech criteria referred explicitly to ‘use of cue cards’, ‘body language’ ‘voice’ and the correct use of the ‘hamburger model’. Student One, the first speaker, utilised the topics of ‘moving around’, ‘use of cue cards’ and ‘voice’ in her reflection. Student Two referred to ‘cue cards’ but he also introduced the topics ‘well researched’ and ‘presentation’ into his contribution:

Well I think, oh, I rate myself orange ‘cos I think I did well researched and I didn't need cue cards and I needed to work on my presentation a bit. (Student Two (B), BTV1, p. 3)

Student Three introduced more topics such as ‘pace’ and ‘not knowing speech well enough’ as well as picking up on topics already in circulation such as ‘voice’ and ‘cue cards’. She noted that “I didn't know my speech well enough and I relied too much on my cue cards so when they were out of order it mucked up my whole speech” (Student Three (G), BTV1, p. 3). This pattern continued throughout the whole class sharing.

In response to the students' re-voicing in the whole class sharing Betty's discourse pattern began to shift towards ‘interpretive listening’ (section 4.11.7). Betty initiated this qualitative shift in her discourse by posing an open-ended question: “if we were to vote now based on these things, what are some comments you have about it [the paint chart strategy] so far?” (Betty, BTV1, p. 4). This question encouraged dialogic discourse and prescribed minimal discursive conditioning in the way of Betty setting expectations and rehearsing acceptable discourse. After posing this open-ended question Betty's discourse showed a marked absence of

evaluative praise and an increase in press moves, associated with interpretive listening, to encourage the students to explore, clarify and deepen their thinking. Although some teacher evaluations were included these were neutral acknowledgements of the speaker's contribution, such as 'okay', that did not praise or challenge it in any way. Betty also encouraged her students to continue making connections with each other's contributions, perhaps picking up that the students had already initiated this.

Along with a shift towards interpretive listening on Betty's part her open question invited the students to formatively assess the efficacy of the paint chart strategy as a reflection strategy before the more formal summative class blind vote of Event Seven. This invitation seemed to initiate a more informal co-constructive exchange between Betty and the students. This informal exchange included student interruptions of Betty that were tolerated, although they breached turn-taking rules of 'hands up to speak'. The students also offered suggestions on improving the paint chart strategy that Betty engaged with. The data example below illustrates this shift towards interpretive listening between Betty (B) and the students (S). Interruptions to speaking turns are indicated by the use of '/' where the interruption begins.

S11 (B) I think [the paint chart continuum] was pretty good but it just needed more colours, more options.

B So you think maybe more options?

S11 yes.

B Okay.

S12(B) Yeah just what S11 said, I thought it needed a colour between pretty good and amazing because there's quite a distance between them.

B So you think there's a/

S12 maybe fantastic.

B Fantastic? [S12 Nods] Okay so we maybe will adapt that for the next one and then/

S12 like pretty amazing/

B I think we could prepare that, that's a pretty good suggestion. S9?

- S9 No one will want to rate themselves amazing because they'll sound like/ [lots of students talking over each other giving suggestions as to what they would sound like] kind of like stuck up.
- B And no one rated themselves terrible either so we didn't have anyone right on these ends.
(BTV1, p. 4)

In this example Student 11 initiated the idea of adding more colour options to improve the paint chart strategy. Betty noted that this idea had merit and might be addressed in the second application of the paint chart strategy. Student 12 interrupted Betty twice as she was speaking to continue voicing aloud extra options for the paint chart continuum. Betty engaged with these suggestions even though the student talked over her and breached the expected 'hands up to speak' rule.

Although Betty's interactions with the students characterised interpretive listening, evidence does suggest that Betty missed one theme important to the students. In the data example above Student 9 noted that students would not rate themselves 'amazing' because that would indicate they were 'stuck up'. A number of students began talking en masse about this idea, indicating that Student 9's point resonated widely within the group. Betty's response to summarise the use of the paint chart strategy by the students implied that she viewed how the students rated themselves as a data issue – there were no outliers. However Student 9's contribution intimated a social perception dimension that might have influenced how some students' assessed themselves.

8.8.2 Developing student collaboration opportunity

Betty concluded the whole class sharing in Event Six by asking the students to evaluate how useful they found the paint chart continuum as a self-reflection strategy. The students' reflections indicated that the strategy introduced a collaborative opportunity for them that they found useful.

- B Um what about like so we've talked a little bit about enjoyment what about the usefulness? How useful do you think it is to rate yourself like that and say why you're at that colour [name]?

- S13(G) It's useful like because you don't have to write it down, you don't have to spend 5, 10 minutes writing it down and you can share it to everyone else whereas in your book you don't really get to share it so I thought it was quite useful.
- B Okay so you think it's important to share self-assessment? Why?
- S13 Um so your class knows how you feel about yourself so um when it comes to judging yourself they can like tell you um [laughs]
- B S7 can you add to that?
- S7 So like your friends can like help you out around the things you said you did bad.
- B Okay so they could remind you next time as well?
- S7 Yeah.
- B S14?
- S14 Um I thought it was quite good because um if you like people in your class or can tell you or to help you to try and get a step up, like to another colour.
- (BTV1, pp. 4-5)

The students' contributions intimated that they were interested to learn about each other as learners and to support each other as learners.

Once the students had introduced 'collaborative potential' of a reflection strategy into their evaluative reflections, Betty took up the opportunity to extend their thinking on this criterion.

When you shared with your partners did anyone have the experience like you might have said "I rate myself orange because I think I didn't use enough expression" did anyone have the experience that their partner said back to them "oh I thought you actually used lots of expression" did anyone have feedback like that? (Betty, BTV1, p. 5)

This question opened up an interactive dimension for reflection that the students had initiated through their collaboration comments earlier in the whole class sharing. Many of them had in fact received more positive feedback from their reflection partner than they had given themselves. For example Student 11

responded to Betty's question in the affirmative, "I rated myself not that great but [name] said I was pretty good" (Student 11). Betty then asked if this peer feedback had changed Student 11's self-perception and Student 11 replied that it had. In the ensuing discussion the students made explicit the value of the audience as a 'mirror' in the reflection process "because I didn't hear my speech like how other people would ... I wasn't in the audience ... and they commented it was pretty good" (S7). Establishing the value of peers as a reflective audience subtly altered the focus of the reflection trial towards an oral, public and collaborative process.

Although Event Six lasted just over 14 minutes, it was a notable event in terms of Betty's professional learning from the students, and the students learning more about each other's perceptions of themselves as reflective learners. In Event Six the think, pair, share strategy had been selected by Betty to give students the opportunity to 'practise' their reflections with each other before sharing with the whole class. However the features that emerged in the discourse of Event Six suggested that the repeated opportunities to rehearse their whole class sharing actually functioned to form and inform the students' views opening them up to the perspectives of their classmates.

8.9 Event Seven: Paint Chart Strategy Trial Two

In Event Seven Betty's class applied the paint chart strategy for the second time. The students utilised the strategy to reflect on their inquiry learning research which they had conducted in pairs. They used the paint chart continuum and pre-set inquiry learning research criteria to reflect on how well they felt their pair was doing overall with their inquiry research. The class also formally evaluated the paint chart reflection strategy against the enjoyment, usefulness and time effectiveness criteria through a class blind vote.

The pedagogical format of Event Seven was similar to Event Six. Rather than outline this event in detail I focus on notable discourse moves within the data. Two notable aspects of this event were Betty's use of paraphrasing to communicate responsiveness to her students' ideas, and the extension of student-student connections within the public class dialogue.

At the outset of Event Seven Betty introduced extra colour options for the Paint Chart continuum.

Now last time we did the paint chart you guys suggested we could throw in a few more colours in there so I've added two more colours in there for us. We've still got blue up here which is 'amazing' and last time it went straight to 'pretty good' so now we've stuck one in the middle for 'great', 'amazing', 'pretty good', 'okay', 'not that great', 'pretty bad' and then half off the page there 'terrible' ... we've now got a couple more options in there for you. (Betty, BTV2, p. 7)

Betty communicated these changes to the paint chart continuum to indicate to the students her responsiveness to their ideas: "I added in more colours, so like I took that on board" (Betty, BTI4, p. 4).

After think and pair sharing opportunities similar to those offered in Event Six the students met as a whole class to share their reflective comments on their inquiry learning research performance. Betty facilitated the class discussion. Continuing her professional learning, Betty experimented with using her discourse to indicate her responsiveness to the students' ideas.

She specifically increased her use of paraphrasing in her interaction with the students. For instance Student Six noted "I rated my group purple because we're really good at re-writing all the information in our own words but we have to use our time a bit better by getting more information". Betty responded with a paraphrase "So you've already started writing it in your own words have you?" In this way she picked up on the main achievement of the pair and reflected this back to them indicating that she had listened to their reflection attentively.

Betty also utilised paraphrasing as a re-formulation strategy to introduce official language related to the curriculum of inquiry learning into the discourse of the students. In this way her paraphrasing interanimated the official discourse of inquiry learning with the students' discourse. In these instances Betty reflected back the main message of the student contribution to them but altered the wording to produce a more technically correct statement. The re-formulations were all related to inquiry learning process vocabulary. For example Student 11 noted that she and her partner had found relevant information "but we're not checking it much like we're kind of just copying and pasting it because it came up on the google search. We kind of need to read it a bit more". Betty's response re-

formulated their contribution, noting that the students wished they had “skimmed and scanned” more than they had. This reformulation introduced correct inquiry language ‘skim’ and ‘scan’ to name the process of identifying relevant information within the ‘sorting out’ inquiry phase.

Betty’s use of paraphrasing as reformulations had both positive and negative effects on the student discourse. Negatively it encouraged closed minimal student responses such as ‘yip’ that worked against students expanding their thinking. On the positive side Betty was able to scaffold coherent participation from students that struggled to use correct inquiry learning language to communicate their reflections. An example of this occurred in the contribution of Student 12.

Student 12 was identified by Betty as a student who did not often participate in class discussions. During the whole class sharing of Event Seven Student 12 was seated behind the arm of the couch at the back of the class group with his chin rested on the arm of the couch when the fruit picker selected him to share his reflective comments. Table 16 presents a data example that illustrates how Betty used the discursive moves of elicitation and re-formulation to enable Student 12 to reflect coherently on how he and his partner had progressed with their inquiry learning research.

Table 16 Betty and Student 12 Interaction

Turn	Teacher Script	Student Script
24		S12 (B) Um I think we did okay ‘cos like we’ve just pasted like information onto our page and so we still just don’t have enough
25	So you think you should have more?	
26		Yip
27	You wish you’d gotten more?	
28		Yip
29	Why what held you back from getting more?	
30		Well we didn’t know that much names of the like stuff

31	Did you have trouble coming up with key words?	
32		Yes

(BTV2, p. 9)

Betty's discursive work supported Student 12 to 'stitch' his contribution together with her contribution of correct terms and her press to encourage Student 12 to reflect on why he and his partner might have experienced difficulties. The oral and public nature of the reflection afforded by the whole class sharing task offered Student 12 the discursive option to re-voice from other students' prior contributions to the discussion in order to compose his reflection. His reference to 'pasting information' drew on Student 11's previous statement that she and her partner were "just copying and pasting" information without making sense of it first. Using this peer and teacher assistance he was able to contribute to the whole class sharing.

Betty promoted deeper student thinking also through the use of press moves to encourage the students to think more deeply about what they might need to do next to move their inquiry learning research forward. An example of this is illustrated in Turns 16 and 18 in the data example presented in Table 17 below.

Table 17 Event Seven Betty and Student Interaction

Turn	Teacher Script	Student Script
4		S6 (G) I rated my group purple because we're really good at re-writing all the information in our own words but we have to use our time a bit better by getting more information.
5	Okay. So you've already started writing it into your own words have you?	
6		S6 Yip.
7	You've started the sorting out stage?	
8		S6 [Nods]

9	Okay. I just forgot to mention and S6 did well there that you don't use your partner's name there you can just say "my partner" or "my group" okay? Right [turns back to the fruit picker] so we had a purple then, let's have a look next [spins fruit picker] S7	
10		S7 I think my partner and I are great but real close to amazing 'cos we learnt some new facts and I learnt some new research skills and like looking up all the information and we're almost up to making our, like sorting stuff out.
11	Okay. So do you think you've gathered enough information?	
12		S7 Yeah we've got quite a bit of information out of books and internet.
13	Great. [turns to fruit picker, spins fruit picker]	
14		S8 Oops ... Yay! [students and teacher laugh]
15		S9 (G) I rated my partner and I in between red and pink 'cos we're not working very well as a team and we haven't found very much information.
16	Okay so what are you going to do to move yourself up that paint chart rating?	
17		S9 Um we're going to try to find heaps more information and do some stuff that we can both do
18	So make a plan so that you could be doing that and [name] can be doing that, so you're not wasting time?	
19		S9 Yeah
20	[Turns to fruit picker, spins] Okay.	

21		S10 I rated my partner and I between green and red because um I think we're getting better at researching skills and our key words are getting better but I think we need to work better as a team cos we're not getting along well.
22	Okay and you're going to be stuck with them for four more whole weeks so you just work on that aye. [Smiles. Spins fruit picker] S11?	
23		S11 Yay!

(BTV2, pp. 8-9)

Results of the class blind vote on the paint chart strategy (Figure 57) indicated that the majority of the class found the paint chart reflection strategy enjoyable, useful and time effective.

Type	Enjoyment	Usefulness	Time Effectiveness	Comments
Video recording	 9 17 7	 14 9 0	 15 8 1	Easy & efficient Good because we could do it while we were practicing so it didn't take up extra time. When 1 person was out doing diary Reflection others could still get on With their work.
Paint Chart – Fruit machine class chat	 8 9 4	 8 11 2	 16 5 1	Useful because you get to think it Through first and share. Good amount of time. Useful to be able to give yourself A colour rating. Maybe try either colour or words – Both. Fun – fruit machine Good to share your thoughts and feelings with peers.

Figure 57 Paint Chart Strategy Blind Vote Results BTD9

The students' evaluative comments recorded alongside the vote indicated that the strategy afforded students time to think their reflection through before they shared, they enjoyed the fruit picker machine selecting them to speak, and they found assigning themselves a colour rating and sharing their thoughts and feelings with their peers useful.

Event Six and Seven also proved important for Betty's learning. She deployed discursive strategies associated with interpretive listening deliberately to model her responsiveness to students and to deepen and extend their thinking as they self-assessed the efficacy of the paint chart to support them as reflective learners.

These discursive moves opened up space for increased student talk about what was important to them and what was working for them as learners. In this process of increased interaction Betty also learnt what was emerging as important to the students – peer collaboration as a valued part of reflection practice. In Event Eight Betty began to apply this learning to the development of the remaining reflection strategies in the trial.

8.10 Event Eight: KnowledgeNET Forum Strategy Trial One

In Event Eight Betty's class trialled the KnowledgeNET (<http://www.knowledge.net.nz/>) forum as a reflection strategy. KnowledgeNET is a School Learning Management System that provides an online portal for students, teachers and parents to store and access information related to student learning and school administration. The potential of KnowledgeNET as a learning management tool was being introduced into the research school during the time period of the research. Betty constructed a reflection question and a range of possible responses related to students' progress in relation to their 'successful learner' goals from Action Cycle Two.

The question was, 'have you achieved your two successful learner goals yet?' And so they had to give themselves a rating 'no I haven't been focussing on them at all', 'I haven't tried very hard', 'I have been trying but I haven't achieved either of them yet', 'I have been trying hard and achieved one of them already', 'yes I have worked really hard on them and achieved both'. So they had to rate it and make a comment. (Betty, BTI4, p. 11)

The students accessed the KnowledgeNET forum during their scheduled computer class time. Some of the student comments recorded in the forum included,

'I have achieved one of my goals', 'I've achieved one of my goals called use my time more wisely with maths and school work as well', 'I need to work on my getting organised before I get to school. I need to work on that because I have not been trying to remember my pencil case and have to use someone else's. I am slacking at it a lot and have to up my game right now because then I won't be able to achieve this goal'. [Betty reading student comments aloud from the KnowledgeNET Forum screen] (Betty, BTI4, p. 12)

Betty found the KnowledgeNET Class Forum useful as a reflection strategy because the students could access and contribute to each other's reflections:

And the kids can go in and look at each other's as well, so once again, you know like how they talked in the discussion on the mat, that they got to hear each other and they can help each other, now that they know what their goals are, etc so they find that quite good, even though it is self-reflection. (Betty, BTI4, p. 12)

However the SRG student feedback on the KnowledgeNET reflection strategy was mixed. Tim Bob Jim enjoyed the strategy as a way of reflecting on his goal progress. "I found the KnowledgeNET one was good 'cos you do it quite quickly, like it wasn't really wasting time, you could just go on there quickly, click the button, type up your comment" (BTSRG3, pp. 6-7). For Tim Bob Jim the engaging aspects were that "just the kind of the fact that it like didn't take long, so you did focus on it, cause if it takes too long you just lose focus" (Tim Bob Jim, BTSRG3, p. 7). In contrast Bubbles found the KnowledgeNET strategy boring "like, it was fast, but I found it boring and just clicking on something and then typing up, then doing nothing" (Bubbles, BTSRG3, p. 8). Timmy Star found the KnowledgeNET strategy was boring because it was like "normal reflection, where you just write down something" (Timmy Star, BTSRG3, p. 9).

For Bubbles the KnowledgeNET forum reflection strategy lacked potential for interaction among the students, "you can only see your reflection, you can't see anyone else's, so you don't know what their reflection is, so you can't help them" (Bubbles, BTSRG3, p. 9). Sandy Dee also noted that the rating options devised by Betty did not account sufficiently for options the students would have liked to reflect against. "There were about four [criteria], like you could choose, for your goals, yea. I couldn't choose one 'cos ... I am between one, not like on one yet" (Sandy Dee, BTSRG3, p. 10). Bubbles experienced the same issue with Betty's criteria,

If like you haven't achieved any then you haven't been trying. I have been trying but I have only achieved one. (Bubbles, BTSRG3, p. 10)

The students talked about how they would have liked more options that reflected what they perceived was important to reflect on in relation to their successful learner goals. They contested Betty's agenda in the application of this reflection strategy by positioning themselves in between rating options. The comments generated by the whole class that were included in the KnowledgeNET strategy

Vote record (Figure 58) support the perspectives of the SRG on the efficacy of this reflection strategy.

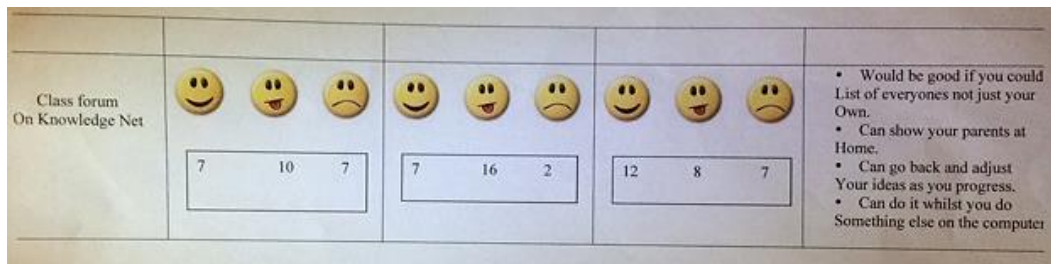


Figure 58 KnowledgeNET Strategy Vote Results BTD10

8.11 SRG Reflections on the Reflection Trial

In this section I draw together the reflections of the SRG students on their experience of being more involved in classroom decision-making across the reflection trial.

The SRG students expressed mixed responses to being included in classroom-decision making through the vehicle of the reflection trial. Tim Bob Jim (TBJ) felt that participating in decision-making was ‘boring’ because it took longer. He felt the teacher deciding was more time efficient “cos when the teacher makes up the idea and does it, it doesn’t take as long, you get the reflection over with” (BTSRG2, p. 4). Timmy Star (TS) challenged this view noting that the video reflection strategy was “pretty good ... it didn’t actually take that long ... and we could pick up, like see what we had to work on straight away without having to wait” (BTSRG2, p. 4). Tim Bob Jim agreed that the video reflection strategy bypassed “all the kids filling out forms ... when they don’t always say the right things” (BTSRG2, p. 4). Bubbles (BB) noted that students don’t always say what they mean on forms “yeah like if you say ‘any comments?’” they often say what they think they are expected to say. She rated the video strategy as more meaningful and relevant than written reflection strategies. Tim Bob Jim expanded on this view by reiterating the value the video strategy afforded to provide direct evidence of student performance to the students themselves, bypassing the need to rely on others to provide feedback; important because “sometimes they just say stupid stuff which isn’t helpful” (BTSRG2, p. 6).

Outside of the specific reflection strategies of the reflection trial the SRG students highlighted the input and ownership opportunities associated with student voice available to them within the inquiry learning framework.

- E Any other ideas or opportunities to take more ownership within the process?
- B No, I think we did most of our facts by ourselves or in groups.
- E Okay so there was a lot of input opportunity in there anyway? It wasn't your teacher telling you what culture was? It was you guys exploring that?
- SD Yeah.
- TS That's pretty much what inquiry is.
- E That's what inquiry is? So inquiry gives you lots of opportunities for input?
- SD Yeah cos that's/
- TS We go and look for the information not sit down and read a book.
- SD That's the main thing that we do, a brainstorm or a class thing.
- E Where your input comes in?
- SD Yeah.

(BTSRG2, p. 8)

Collaborative investigation of school inquiry concepts appeared to illustrate the context for the students to experience ownership and input into the class programme and each other's learning.

8.12 Is this student voice? Betty's reflections

In this next section I return to the four threads introduced in the introduction to this case to organise Betty's reflections on aspects of the classroom research as enacted student voice practice. Firstly, Betty's reflections on engaging in co-constructive governance roles with students highlight the importance of ongoing student and teacher negotiation. Secondly Betty's reflections on the development of a collaborative student community in her class highlight how the students came to influence increasingly how reflection was defined and what counted as important knowledge. Thirdly, Betty's reflection on the increased value she

placed on her students' contributions thinking about relevant and meaningful reflection practice highlights the importance of teachers coming to trust students' potential as part of enacting governance partnerships. Finally Betty's reflections on how her student voice practice might be perceived by others highlight the broader institutional influences on the action within the classroom action research.

8.12.1 Student voice reflection: The teacher's role

This section presents Betty's reflections related to the first aspect of this case: how Betty and the students negotiated co-constructive governance roles in interaction throughout the class action research.

At the end of our final reflective discussion Betty noted that in videos she was often positioned at the front of the class but that she was not dominating the talk.

Well I thought that those particular lessons, that is me, directing from the front of the room, I know, I don't do that all day every day, but in those lessons that is what I was doing. But in saying that, I was up the front, but 90% of the talking was them. (BTI4, p. 16)

In reflecting on the apparent contradiction in this Betty commented that anyone completing a four minute walkthrough as part of the school appraisal system would have misconstrued what was happening because they would not have been aware of the developmental process that the class had engaged in.

If someone had come in on that, they would have ticked, teacher directed, because the kids were on the mat and I was there. Even though it actually wasn't... Because the person coming wouldn't know all the background work that we have done that was initially voted in by [the students] and all that sort of stuff, yeah ... they don't know what happened before or what is going to happen next or anything. (BTI4, p. 16)

In these comments Betty highlighted the situated and temporal nature of student voice and governance pedagogy. She explained,

What I was running was what they had planned and wanted, I was just showing, 'right this is what you wanted, here it is, let's go for it', but I was, they were still there [mat] and I was still here [on chair at front of room] and that is what it would have looked like. (BTI4, p. 16)

Betty's reflection also opened a possibility to involve the students as facilitators of the reflection sessions. Betty decided that she would introduce the Marvellous Metaphor strategy on its first trial and then a student would facilitate the second trial of the strategy.

For Betty the teacher's role was not one of directing but of opening up possibilities for student voice within the current programme.

And it has to be, I don't know a different word for directed, but you know, you are not going to be in the middle of reading and the kid is going to stand up and say, "right let's do dirrara". So it is the teacher saying, "okay, this is our time to do this" and you still open up the possibility of it, so it is still directed by you, or maybe it is opened up by you and then directed by the kids. (BTI4, p. 17)

Betty theorised the teacher's role as opening up opportunities for student self or negotiated direction within teacher-defined boundaries.

It was still me who said right, you have got some options within self-assessment so it was still directed under the umbrella and that is what you have got the options under, you know ... so ... teacher guided might be a better word. (Betty, BTI4, p. 17)

8.12.2 Student voice reflection: Development of student collaborative community

This section presents Betty's reflections related to the second aspect of this case: how the students introduced and influenced the development of reflection as collaborative and a public process within a collaborative community. Over time Betty came to assess the potential of reflection strategies against their potential to promote collaborative student reflection. For example the final reflection strategy 'Marvelous metaphors' (Figure 59) would have involved the students identifying which animal from a selection of animals their learning best resembled.

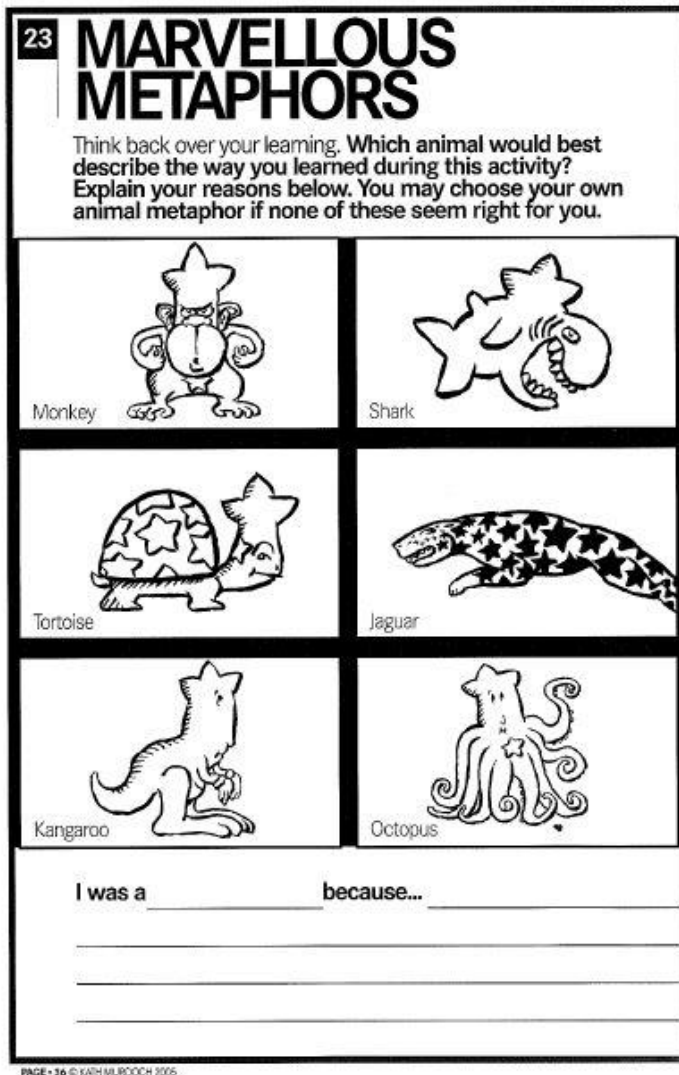


Figure 59 Marvelous Metaphors. Murdoch (2005). Reprinted with permission

This was a strategy the students had selected despite Betty feeling from the outset that the strategy was ‘babyish’ because it would not deepen the students’ thinking about their learning.

This is more go to your desk and pick which one you are and why and then stick it in your book. Like I don’t think this is going to be very effective at all but they chose this so we will give it a go. (BTI4, p. 19)

Betty explored how she might modify the strategy to challenge the students’ thinking and provide collaborative possibilities when it was implemented.

8.12.3 Student voice reflection: Coming to trust student contributions

This section presents Betty’s reflections related to the third aspect of this case: how Betty came to trust and value the contributions of her students about the nature of effective reflection. Early in the project Betty identified the possibility

that she might be surprised by the capability of her students. By the end of the project she classified her students' contributions as "quite advanced discussions for kids, some of the stuff, some of the stuff I was just 'wow'" (BTI4, p. 13). For Betty the increasing capability of the students to reflect on their learning and themselves as learners without teacher prompting demonstrated the desired student involvement in the project. Students were now able to identify strengths as well as areas for development:

How I have seen them move with this reflection is they used to always think and do reflection as 'what I need to do better, what I didn't do well' and they never congratulated themselves for what they have actually already done well but now it is natural and they know that they do both which I think is good. (Betty, BTI4, p. 13).

She noted that students were able to analyse their learning without being prompted:

So I was really happy, like I didn't give them any prompts on what to say, but they are bringing out stuff like what we are focusing on ... which is cool, because you always hope it is getting through but you don't know ... they just know the right stuff ... it just comes naturally to them now which is really cool. (Betty, BTI4, pp. 8-9)

Betty attributed this shift to her repetition of key messages and display of key criteria for students to refer to on the classroom walls.

8.12.4 Student voice reflection: Proof of learning

This section presents Betty's reflections on the fourth aspect of the case: the influence of broader institutional factors on Betty and the students' action within the classroom action research. One of the major realisations from the class action research project for Betty was that more of her classroom practices were aligned with a student voice agenda than she had initially realised.

I remember when we had our first interview and I said to you that I didn't think I did much student voice, but now that I have got on with this, I actually do, but I just don't, I never considered it that, if you know what I mean, I just thought that is what you did. But then after working with you and realising that is considered student voice, am I making sense here? I actually did more of it than I thought. (BTI4, pp. 15-16)

Betty agreed that working to enact student voice deliberately and practically within reflection practice in her classroom had been an affirming process for her as a teacher.

However, a tension emerged for Betty from the process of subtly adapting familiar classroom practices to her student voice goals. The shift from individualised written student self-reflection to an oral self and peer reflection culture challenged implicit expectations Betty felt existed in the school around teacher accountability for proving student learning through written evidence.

I know it is good, but I have got nothing to show unless I video every lesson like that and show whoever needs to see it. (BTI4, p. 15)

The external accountability demands Betty perceived clashed with her developing student voice pedagogy.

I think that's why as teachers that is why we quite often revert to, okay get out your book and write this, because then it is there and you know it can be ticked off that it is done and anyone that comes in can see that it is done, whereas anyone can say, oh well we did this paint chart and fruit machine and they have done all that and I found out this but I could be making that up too. (BTI4, p. 15)

I suggested this dilemma around accountability might form Betty's next research question and she replied "yeah how do I get this ticked off as done?" (p. 15).

8.13 Chapter Summary

This case has demonstrated that to enact student voice a teacher often needs to trust in her students' capabilities and to learn how to engage them in co-construction of the class programme. Betty pushed beyond her initial skepticism about the potential of her students to contribute viable options for the reflection trial. The unexpected value of the students' contributions acted as a feedback loop that confirmed that the students might indeed 'surprise' her. Student contributions challenged and enhanced Betty's understanding of them as learners and of the efficacy of her teaching practices. The 'think, pair, share' pedagogical strategy used to organise student reflection on many of the reflection strategies selected scaffolded the students to develop their self-reflections and communicate these collaboratively with their peers. The strategy opened Betty up also to hearing from and attending to the messages contained within the students'

perceptions on reflection; that is that they valued the opportunity to know and be known by their peers. Through this strategy authoritative messages about correct reflection promoted by Betty and messages developed by the students intermingled within the class discourse on reflection. Through this interanimating process reflection in Betty's class shifted from a tired, formal and irrelevant process to a largely oral, immediate, collaborative and public process.

Over the course of the reflection trial Betty was able to reconceptualise and reconstruct her own (public) role from one of directing to one of guiding student exploration and reflection within the frame of the classroom programme. Interestingly, she did not cede her position at the front of the class but the talk was no longer channelled through her. It seems she came to appreciate that student voice did not come at the expense of her role as teacher and could involve adapting familiar pedagogical practices to new goals around increased student co-construction. In this respect the class action research appeared to affirm Betty as a teacher and to identify a place for her voice within the student voice process. Initially it appeared to Betty that student voice was a pedagogical aspect that she did not do a good enough job of. By the end of the project she had come to see that many aspects of her practice were aligned with student voice. Also even though voice is more than the speaking person, in Betty's case she experimented with her discourse to engage differently with her students. The students contributed to this process also through their use of re-voicing and subtle disruption of channelling talk through the teacher, to enact their own agendas around collaboration to increase their knowledge of each other as learners.

Chapter Nine: Action Cycle Three: Chicken – Letting Go the Reins

This case foregrounds how Chicken let go the reins of overt teacher control to increasingly involve her students as pedagogical decision-makers and co-inquirers in her action research project in Action Cycle Three (see Figure 2 in section 4.3.2). Together they enacted effective home learning as part of developing responsive and reciprocal pedagogy. Three threads interweave through the case that taken together show how Chicken (1) enacted power sharing through positioning her students as researchers and co-researchers with her and with each other within a process of co-inquiry, (2) re-framed pedagogical decision points conventionally the exclusive domain of teachers, as opportunities for student decision-making, and (3) paradoxically used strong discursive scaffolding to enact student voice. The case also demonstrates how although the interventions of this action research were underpinned by student voice ideals, the students and Chicken perceived the effects of these very differently from their different vantage points, highlighting the nuanced and problematic nature of concrete instantiations of student voice as classroom practice.

9.1 Background to the Home Learning Project

The students in Chicken's class had expressed dissatisfaction with the current school-wide home learning programme during a class discussion in Term Two. The school-wide programme comprised a home learning 3x4 grid, each cell of which contained a discrete activity that students were required to complete over a three-week time frame (Figure 60).

Weeks 2,4,5 Homelearning Grid.
(Parents/Caregiver to sign when each activity has been completed)

SPELLING Make up a crossword with all the names of; the learning teams, the teachers' in your team, your name and the following words: <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> library, intermediate, specialist, assembly, timetable, seek, achieve, excellence.	Opouahi Our Destination. Can you find out what Opouahi means? What do you know about the history of the area? See if you can find 5 facts to share with your class. <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Te Reo In week 1 we celebrated Waitangi Day. What is Waitangi Day all about? Complete the days of the week in Maori: Two have been done for you. Monday Tuesday Wednesday Thursday Friday Saturday - Rāhoro <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Sunday - Rātapa <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Physical Activity Camp is coming up very soon. To enjoy camp you need to be as fit as you can be. Your challenge is to see if you can run/walk/bike to Opouahi and back (112km). Aim to exercise for at least 20 minutes a day. Keep a tally and let your teacher know how you are going. <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Make Your Own Lunch Plan, prepare and make your own school lunch for a week. Share with your parents what you are doing. Make sure it has balanced nutritional value. Is there a way of packaging your lunch so that it has less impact on our environment? <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Routines It is important to have your routines going to make good use of your time. Talk to your parents about what your routines need to be for: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Going home after school • Homelearning • If an emergency happens while you are at school. <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
EOTC Checks We are off to Opouahi next week! Yikes! Go through the gear list this weekend and tick off each item as you pack it into your bag. Make sure you have the correct gear for your day pack. <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Goals-This week we will be focusing on setting goals. Discuss these with your parents and caregivers. How can they help you achieve these? Write down your goals and ways you will achieve them. <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Creatively design a title for your Inquiry Book that says "Survivor Opouahi". Use your research to help. Think about lettering, colour and images. <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Camp-Home Baking You need to bring an ice cream container of home baking with you to camp. Choose a yummy recipe and get baking. Write the recipe into your home learning book with illustrations. <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Native Birds NZ has a large variety of native birds. You will see and hear a large number of native birds while we are at camp. Select one native bird to research. Include a sketch, description, diet, hunter or hunted? And where you might find it. <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	INTERNET LICENCE Every Student needs to have a signed internet licence before they are allowed access to the internet. Read through the conditions of this agreement with your parents and talk about anything you don't understand. Internet safety is extremely important. Discuss ways that you can keep safe in a cyber world. Record some of these ideas so you can share them with others. <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

Read *Everynight: Read the front pages of your diary. Are you familiar with everything in it? Record your reading in your reading log (In the back of your book)

Be organised *Everynight: Check your diary. Clear out your bag. Get your gear ready for the next day.

Reading	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Be organised	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

/ef

Figure 60 School-wide Home Learning Grid CND2

Chicken’s learning from discussing Action Cycle One initial student voice data with her class indicated that most of her students held a preference for creative activities and wanted increased opportunities to use their imagination in their home learning. The students did not feel the existing school-wide home learning grid offered them enough opportunities to engage these creative preferences in ways that were relevant to their interests.

I’m not bagging the homework grids at all but the kids saw it as “I have to do it, what’s the purpose and there’s nothing in this for me”. (Chicken, CNI2, p. 7)

Chicken perceived that as a result of this disconnection between the focus of the home learning grid activities and her students’ personal interests quality had

declined within home learning across Terms One and Two and this was the situation she wanted to address as the action research focus.

I do want the student voice, I want them to have more power and I have got to make it work for me. I want them to be more child-initiated and directed projects, so they are involved in the decision making. (CNI3, p. 4)

This view was reflected within the SRG group where Pockit Rokit noted “most people said that they wanted [home learning] to be more creative” (CNSRG1, p. 4). Honey Bunny concurred noting “it didn’t really work for me, like I’d rather do some creativity stuff” (Honey Bunny, CNSRG1, p. 2). Pockit Rokit indicated she would prefer “activities that can lead to being creative, thinking outside the square not things you would do every day” (Pockit Rokit, CNSRG1, p. 2). Short Stuff found that doing a separate activity each night fragmented home learning for her.

It’s better if you just have a longer time frame and you have one piece to do and it’s really exciting that you do it. (Short Stuff, CNSRG1, p. 2).

Creativity was the school-wide inquiry learning concept in Term Three so the decision to focus the class action research project on devising more creative, relevant and integrative home learning activities addressed school-wide curriculum expectations.

Before the home learning project students had been excluded from influencing home learning in the school.

We got told to suck it up because that was what home learning was. (Pockit Rokit, CNSRG1, p. 8)

In this respect Chicken let go the reins by opening up a space for student and teacher joint work that was until then off the improvement agenda. However she appeared to do so whilst also recognising the constraints the class was working under,

The reality is we have to do it, it has to be somewhere in the programme. (CNI4, p. 4)

9.2 Overview of the Home Learning Project

The home learning project took place over the last two weeks of Term Two and the ten weeks of Term Three. Table 18 below provides an overview of the key classroom events and activities of the project.

Table 18 Home Learning Project Event Chart

Event	Focus	Activities
1	Posing the Questions	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Class discussion – teacher poses the questions 2. Think – students record own perspectives on questions in learning journal 3. Pair 4. Share – discuss individual students’ views in class discussion
2	Table Groups Collaborative data analysis	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Re-cap prior learning and project progress to date 2. Students generate categories from individual written records on post-it notes 3. Class discussion – reference back to focus of Utopia 4. Students organise post-it notes in table groups into similar themes and category groupings 5. Students rove around other table groups and observe other categories and themes generated by other students 6. Class Q&A led by Chicken. What did the students notice? 7. Students in groups rank the themes in terms of importance 8. Class Q&A led by Chicken – debrief theme rankings across table groups
3	Ranking the dimensions of effective home learning	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Re-cap to previous session 2. Students discuss dimensions in table groups 3. Student input on dimensions and indicators 4. Blind vote preparation 5. Interruption – cross country organisation 6. Class blind vote – dimension one 7. Reflection on results 8. Seeking student mandate on what to do next 9. Blind vote to establish second, third, fourth and fifth dimension rankings 10. Teacher summation
4	Students plan home learning programmes	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Re-cap to previous session 2. Task outline 3. Students decide how home learning will look 4. Task clarification 5. Student sharing – round one 6. Student sharing – round two

An evolving synopsis of the home learning project was recorded each session in a class ‘learning journey’ scrapbook by Chicken (Figure 61).

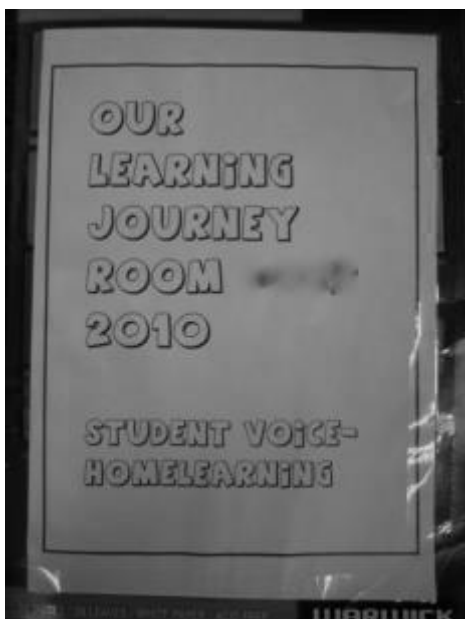


Figure 61 Home Learning Project Learning Journey CND3

This scrapbook recorded the main messages, processes and decisions of the project as it unfolded. The learning journey was stored on Chicken’s mobile teaching station at the front of the class and was used by Chicken to build connection and coherence between project sessions, and by the students informally as a reference point as they worked together on the project.

The home learning project was set up as a WALT (we are learning to) “design our home learning” in the learning journey. Blank bullet point spaces were left to record co-constructed success criteria as these were devised “we will know we are effective when our home learning reflects these points” (class success criteria) (Figure 62).



Figure 62 WALT and Space for Class Success Criteria CND4

Co-constructing these success criteria became the core investigation of the class action research project.

9.3 Event One: Posing the Questions

One key collective class discovery to come out of an initial class discussion was recorded in the learning journey and acted as a starting point for the class action research:

We have discovered that not all of us enjoy the grid style of home learning so we decided to look @ designing and implementing alternatives. (Learning Journey entry)

Chicken posed five questions for the class to respond to in writing individually in their learning journals:

1. I think effective home learning looks like?
2. I think the purpose of home learning is?
3. Who wants home learning?
4. Who needs it?
5. What is best for you?

The students recorded their individual responses to these questions as the initial ‘think’ step in a think, pair, share process. These responses were then discussed in pairs and shared as a whole class on the mat.

Recording the students’ thinking individually in their learning journals generated data from the whole class. Initially Chicken planned to analyse the data herself

over the school holidays but this ‘default’ teacher decision-making was recognised as a pivotal opportunity for initial student decision-making.

You’ve looked through them [students’ answers to home learning questions] and you’ve got a sense from the class discussion, is it possible for them to look through them and write some things or get a highlighter and say what are some of the main points from what I’ve said here? (Emily, CNI2, p. 5)

Involving the students in analysing their own perspectives on effective home learning positioned them as researchers in the home learning project.

9.4 Event Two: Table Groups Collaborative Analysis

In Event Two Chicken positioned the students to collaborate as researchers to analyse their individual responses around effective home learning. The collaborative analysis process devised and implemented became known as the ‘table groups’ process. The students worked together in their class table groups to identify themes within their individual perspectives on home learning in response to the first question ‘I think effective home learning looks like’.

The table groups process occurred over the course of one 45 minute classroom session and was video recorded by two students from another class.

To initiate Event Two Chicken used her introductory talk to build continuity between Event One and the table groups session of Event Two. She introduced the session by reminding the students that the project, turned into classroom tasks, built progressively on their earlier contributions and desire to take more ownership of their home learning.

Okay. Guys what we’re going to do this session is we’re going to be looking at something we actually started last term. And you might remember, in our learning journals we had, I gave you a series of questions, I gave you a series of about five questions. And how this came about was that we were looking at you having, I had some of you talking to me about those homework grids. They weren’t working for you. So you wanted to have more involvement in your home learning and what was going to be in it, the content. (CNV1, p. 1)

Following the introduction to the session Chicken asked the students to identify key categories and themes in their learning journal answers to the home learning questions. They were given sticky post-it notes so that they could record their

categories on the post-it note and move these around as they changed their grouping ideas.

What is notable about Chicken's participation in Event Two was her overt use of meta-commentary to set task and discourse norms for students within the table groups activity. This meta-commentary included modeling to the students what they might write.

What I want you to do is on the little stickies I've given you, what I want you to do is write down what your response was. So if you had written down [reading from one student's exercise book] "I think effective homework looks colourful" you would write on the sticky "colourful". (CNV1, p. 1)

She also set the norms for students working collaboratively with each other within the table groups process.

Everyone's ideas are acknowledged and accepted. That's part of doing this table group activity. (CNV1, p. 2)

Chicken also set the discursive expectations during the different activities of the Event "you don't have to talk in this one what you need to do is get the stickies and just write your ideas" (CNV1, p. 2). Her participation in the table groups process oscillated between introducing and rehearsing each aspect of the collaborative analysis process and providing a meta-commentary of things she was looking for and reinforcing.

Chicken also utilised discourse moves of elicitation, modelling, paraphrasing, and pressing (section 4.11.7) to extend the students' understanding of the data they were working with, to encourage them to elaborate their thinking and to build their capacity as researchers. I present illustrative examples of these discourse moves in Table 19 below that preserve the overall coherence of the student/teacher dialogue across Event Two.

Table 19 Teacher Discourse Moves to Elaborate Student Thinking

Activity	Thinking Skill <i>Discourse Move</i>	Data Example	Commentary
1	Remember <i>Elicit</i>	Who can remember us writing about these five questions? [some student hands go up in the group] (Chicken, CNV1, p. 1)	Introducing the task
2	Summarise <i>Model</i>	So if you had written down “I think effective homework looks colourful” you could write on the sticky ‘colourful’. (Chicken, CNV1, p. 1)	Rehearsing the task
3	Recall <i>Press</i>	C What else did you enjoy about [Utopia project] [student name]? S1 It was fun and it was different. C It was fun, why was it different? S1 Like it’s not like our normal home work. C what was our normal homework? S1 Like we’ve got like the sheets and you’ve gotta like when you’ve got a sheet and you’ve gotta write on it like this we could just do like pictures and that. C Okay. What side did it appeal to in you [student name]? (CNV1, p. 2)	Class discussion – reference back to Utopia project (Action Cycle Two)
4	Part-whole thinking <i>Press Elicit</i>	C So boys you’ve got here ‘borders’, ‘good borders’, ‘colourful’, ‘coloured borders’ there. It that one group there? Or is that part of that group? ... What would you call that? What theme is there then if this is a group? S1 Borders	Teacher roving among table groups as students work.

		<p>C Borders. But what maybe is a, instead of putting 'borders' what are borders part of?</p> <p>(CNV1, p. 6)</p>	
5	Compare/contrast	<p>What I'm going to get you to do is walk around each group and have a look at what other kids have put down on the post-its and what themes are coming through. Are there some commonalities? Are there some themes in every group? I want you to have a look at that.</p> <p>(CNV1, p. 7)</p>	Teacher setting up students to walk around each other's groups looking at ideas.
6	<p>Synthesise</p> <p><i>Paraphrase</i></p> <p><i>Press</i></p>	<p>C Okay [student name] what did you see?</p> <p>S It was all different but most of the stuff was the same.</p> <p>C So you saw different stuff on each table?</p> <p>S Yeah.</p> <p>C So what did you see that was different from your table on another table?</p> <p>S Um, like [indistinct] friendship and stuff.</p> <p>C Okay. [makes link between student's contribution and contribution of another group]</p> <p>(CNV1, p. 8)</p>	Teacher debriefing student learning from table groups visiting.
7	<p>Rank</p> <p><i>Press</i></p>	<p>C Can you see any little sub-groups within this group?</p> <p>S Um</p> <p>C See what about this one? Who wrote 'well-researched'?</p> <p>[student hand goes up]</p> <p>C What do you mean by that?</p> <p>S Because when you have hard work sometimes it's hard to find the sources you need to get the actual information and if you have like different sources to see which one is the actual source that you need to help you</p>	Teacher modeling how to rank and identify sub-groups within the data categories

		<p>find the right information</p> <p>C So you're saying that effective home learning looks like someone who is well researched because they've used lots of different varieties of sources of info? [pause]</p> <p>Great.</p> <p>(CNV1, p. 12)</p>	
8	<p>Define</p> <p><i>Press</i></p>	<p>C Meeting the standard. What do you mean by 'meeting the standard'? [student name]</p> <p>S like not rushed and they're like meeting the criteria that is/</p> <p>C So there's success criteria there?</p> <p>S Yeah.</p> <p>(CNV1, p. 14)</p>	<p>Debriefing student learning during question and answer session.</p>

After the students had categorised their individual responses to 'I think effective home learning looks like' they combined their post-it notes to identify themes and patterns across the group. One group's chart is included in Figure 63 below.

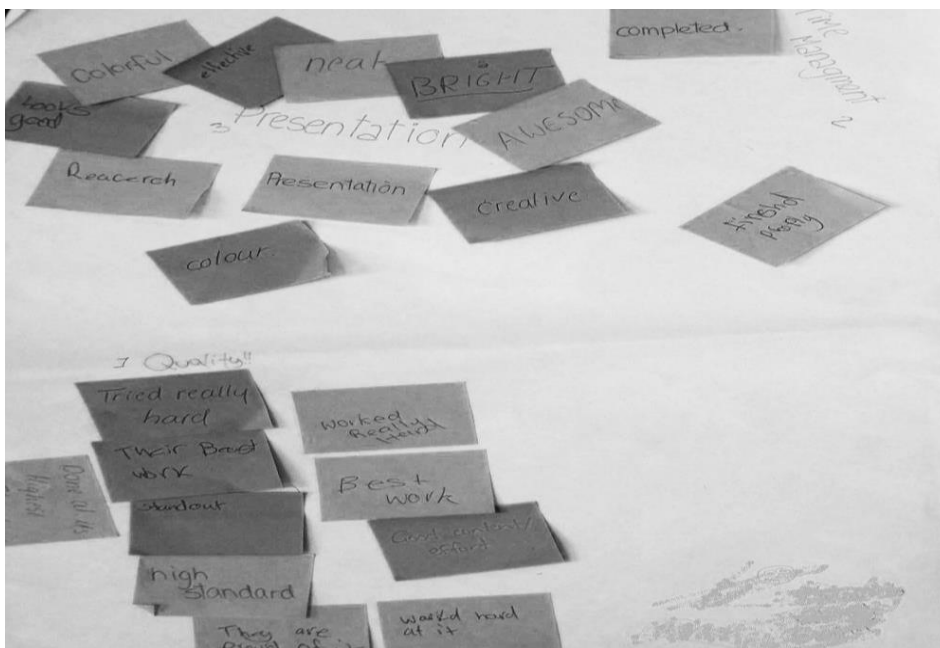


Figure 63 Coding CND5

An example of Chicken's (C) discursive interaction with the group of four students (S) is included below to exemplify her use of the discourse moves identified in Table 19 above in context.

- C Okay guys. So tell me what you've got here. You've got three quite distinct groups, what are the commonalities in this group here? What are the themes here?
- S1 That one's like our work like 'high standards' so it's 'neat'.
- C Okay so what would be a theme that you could have that encompasses all of those ideas there? Do you think they're all very alike?
- S1 Yeah.
- S2 Yeah.
- C Or could you split it a bit more?
- S1 No, they're all really alike.
- C Okay. So what's a theme? If you were to give it a name what would you say?
- S3 Best effort? Or?
- S2 Or like 'quality'.
- C Quality? That's a great word. So you could call that quality. So you might just write that there 'quality'. Okay. [Chicken moves off to another group]
- S4 That could be time. [Taps a group of post-it notes]
- S1&2 Time management.
- S4 And that could be presentation. (CNV1, pp. 3-4)

Paradoxically part of building student capacity as researchers involved Chicken using strong framing and discourse moves associated with social dominance to scaffold their participation. Chicken set the topic, defined acceptable discourse, set participation parameters for the students and utilised directives.

"I want you to group ideas together for me" (CNV1, p. 3)

"So do that for me now" (CNV1, p. 1)

"All eyes this way" (CNV1, p. 1)

Chicken's pedagogical intention to build student capacity as researchers was evident in her discursive interaction with students. As the students were organising their post-it notes collaboratively Chicken joined each group and used press moves to make explicit the students' thinking behind the categories they had

assigned to their data. I describe this episode in detail, because it shows an example of how a group of students (S) declined Chicken's (C) suggestion to modify their coding, showing Chicken's openness to the students negotiating ideas with her.

C Okay guys so tell me what you've got here. You've got three quite distinct groups, what are the commonalities in this group here? What are the themes here?

S That one's like our work like 'high standards' so it's neat.

C Okay so what would be a theme that you could have that encompasses all of those ideas there? Do you think they're all very alike?

S yeah/

C Or could you split it a bit more?

S No they're all really alike.

C Okay. So what's a theme? If you were to give it a name what would you say?

(CNV1, p. 3)

In this excerpt the student might have been expected to defer to Chicken and refine the category in question by splitting it. Instead the student disagreed with Chicken that splitting was needed and justified their disagreement. Chicken accepted this justification, indicated in the data by her response "okay" and then moved to change the topic.

In contrast in Activity Six, the teacher-led question and answer session followed a more conventional discursive pattern associated with student compliance. Chicken appeared to lead the students towards a desired answer. At one point multiple students give her an unexpected answer before they appear to realise, then pause, then change their response.

C I think it was you guys here again, talked about, they had one group here 'met the standard when it's fully finished' and I said "well how do you know when it's fully finished?" And they said 'cos I've met the ...

[waits for the students to fill in the word]

S [Multiple students] Standard.

C Or criteria set. Do you need to know a criteria before you do something?

- S [multiple students] No. [pause] Oh yes.
- C Why do you need to know a criteria before you do something?
- S Because then you know what you have to do.
- C Yeah. So you know what you have to do.
- (CNV1, p. 10)

It appears that the interaction pattern of leading the students to a pre-set answer that conventionally might be associated with generating student conformity was used in the table groups process as a connection building strategy designed to cue earlier learning around the function of criteria to produce quality work.

9.5 Table Groups Reflections

From Chicken's perspective the table groups process scaffolded active student negotiation over their perspectives as data.

I love that table group, I do, that was so cool. They loved the stickies though but they love sticking them and then taking them and moving them. You can hear, all the language, you can hear things like, "oh no I think that one goes best here." I just wandered around and I was just, because the kids were all engaged like, moving the stickies around into new areas and I think they liked that, they liked doing that kind of thing. (Chicken, AR3, p. 7)

Chicken also based her positive assessment of the table groups activity on feedback she received from the student videographers as well as a teacher visiting the classroom.

My kids were so focussed, it was so good. It was so good, even the boys filming thought it was groovy ... and one teacher came in ... and she thought it was really good, but they were talking, they were discussing." (Chicken, CNI4, p. 4)

The student contributions within the table groups process also highlighted for Chicken a theme within the student discourse that for some, home learning was a superficial activity that called for presentation rather than learning.

Interesting how some of them had no concept of research and it was about presentation and how others were talking about it, about showing the facts ... I think with some kids, it is about ... they are only worried about presentation, that is one part of it, it is about getting the whole, it is about the meat in the middle isn't it, the burger. (CNI3, pp. 5-6)

This theme focused Chicken to deepening the students' understanding beyond the superficial to explore the 'meat in the middle of the burger'; that is, what counts as effective home learning.

The table groups process appeared to reinforce for the SRG students that Chicken valued their input.

You get a say in what you're doing and it's cool because there's lots of things that you don't like in here [home learning book] and you do something different and you feel happier, and with a happy attitude it's fun to do the other things. (Short Stuff, CNSRG2, p. 3)

Honey Bunny noted that because Chicken invited her to share her perspective she felt listened to by the teacher,

Ah I liked it cos we got our say and like the teacher listened to what we wanted. (Honey Bunny, CNSRG2, p. 4)

She indicated that she knew the teacher had listened to her because Chicken asked the students questions about their perspectives.

She asked us questions, like after the table group she asked us what we liked about it and we tell her ... she's asking us questions about what works and that. (Honey Bunny, CNSRG2, p. 4)

Short Stuff concurred:

[I] liked how the teacher listens and asks us questions ... because we actually know she's listening to us. (Short Stuff, CNSRG2, p. 5)

However, Pockit Rockit questioned whether Chicken involving students in decision-making about the home learning programme would potentially lessen the rigour and challenge of the activities. She felt the teacher should retain the grid home learning structure but negotiate with students over the content of one square.

I prefer kind of that she just kept it the way it was but every week we just had a discussion about the square that changed in our home grid. 'Cos then it would be kinda easy and some of the kids in our class might just, say, have not the best ideas and make them really easy ... and we wouldn't really get anything out of them. (Pockit Rockit, CNSRG2, p. 4)

Honey Bunny (HB) and Pockit Rockit (PR) expressed dissatisfaction with classmates copying ideas from each other and both thought the collaborative analysis process would have worked better had the class worked as one group on the mat with the teacher than in student table groups.

- PR I think we needed to do it individually/
HB or on the mat, like all our class together so like no one copies.
E Oh okay.
HB So you get more ideas.
(CNSRG1, pp. 7-8)

Pockit Rockit felt her classmates had contributed ‘random’ ideas with very little focus.

Because everyone was distracted and just saying random ideas as they felt like it ... people are just putting their hands up and saying, different grids that they can do, like random, some people said Utopia again, some people said keep the same grids and it was just really confusing. (Pockit Rockit, SRGCU, p. 1)

She seemed to prefer the rigour teacher-direction brought to class decision-making.

I kind of preferred the teacher doing it, because I feel it’s a bit too, like you can do anything you want. I think people would take advantage of that and I think people did take advantage of that. (Pockit Rockit, SRGCU, p. 8)

Honey Bunny was disappointed with the duplication of ideas in the group in which she participated.

Like someone writ ‘fun’ and it would be ‘fun’ again so there wasn’t really enough ideas. (Honey Bunny, CNSRG2, p. 8)

This perspective might indicate the students’ unfamiliarity with research practice where the repetition of the same idea among a number of participants would indicate a strong theme.

In contrast having too many ideas put forward appeared to be the issue for Pockit Rockit “there were so many ideas it was hard” (Pockit Rockit, CNSRG2, p. 8). Group censorship of ideas impacted Flippinschnip’s enjoyment of the table groups process, as his smiley face contribution was removed from the group chart by

another group member. Flippinschnip also found the table groups strategy “took a long time” (Flippinschnip, CNSRG2, p. 8) indicating that his view of acceptable activity pace was disrupted by the new collaborative analysis strategy.

In sum, from Chicken’s perspective the interaction of the students and high levels of student negotiation indicated student engagement with the table groups task. For the students, Chicken’s involvement in questioning and engaging with them as they worked collaboratively in peer groups indicated her interest in their perspectives on home learning. However students responses to working collaboratively in groups to identify criteria for home learning highlighted their unfamiliarity with research data analysis processes. Their focus on the working conditions these collaborative analysis processes created indicated the existence of different criteria for determining engagement among Chicken and the students and among the students themselves.

9.6 Event Three: Ranking the Dimensions of Effective Home Learning

In Event Three Chicken’s class finalised the dimensions and indicators of effective home learning that emerged from the table groups process of Event Two, and ranked these in order of importance.

Four unranked dimensions for effective home learning emerged from the table groups collaborative analysis of Event Two:

1. Structure;
2. Quality;
3. Facts and knowledge; and
4. Presentation.

The students ranked the four dimensions during a 40 minute classroom session. The session was originally scheduled as a 50 minute time slot but this was shortened by 10 minutes to accommodate preparation for the school cross country race in the afternoon. The session was interrupted also by a small number of students leaving for a final running practice. I was also present in the classroom as an invited observer of the ranking process.

Chicken selected a blind vote strategy in order to generate a collective student consensus around the ranked importance of the four dimensions of effective home

learning. The students were asked to bring their table groups charts to the mat and to sit with the students they worked with in Event Two (Table Groups). Chicken oriented the students to focus of the session, to finalise the dimensions of effective home learning in order of importance through a class vote. She afforded them the opportunity to discuss the dimensions in their table groups first and rehearsed what this would involve.

So what I want you to do now in your table groups is just talk about these four things. And in your mind know when we do a ranking, in your mind know which one you want to be first and then down to the fourth idea. Remember these are the four things that you've chosen as being able to help us meet the success criteria. Effective home learning has to have these things and I'll give you one minute to do that and then we'll come back and we'll talk ... so we'll just do it individually but you need to talk about it in your group first. (CNV2, p. 1)

As a result of this initial student discussion the students noticed that 'happy kids not stressed' and 'time management/Planning' were missing from the dimensions drawn together from the Event Two process (Fieldnote, 15.8.10). Chicken facilitated a class discussion where the students decided to include 'Happy kids not stressed' within a new dimension of 'Time Management/Planning'. This increased the number of dimensions of effective home learning to five:

1. Structure;
2. Quality;
3. Facts and knowledge;
4. Presentation; and
5. Time management/planning.

What is notable about this data is that Chicken signalled her commitment to building a collective student understanding of effective home learning by affording time for the students to revisit and discuss the dimensions they had identified in Event Two. She then updated the dimensions to reflect the students' identified priorities.

The wider school cross country race influenced the ranking session pedagogy throughout, modifying what was possible. After orienting the students to the blind vote process Chicken reflected in-action to me about the efficacy of her intended blind vote approach.

I should actually scribe, I'll be needing to write down numbers here. Is this going to work if I've got people going out to ... runs and things? ... That's going to be quite a lot to record isn't it? I should have actually got them to write it down.

(CNV2, p. 2)

At this point two students appeared to view Chicken's reflection as an invitation to contribute their ideas. They interjected to suggest,

"Can we write it down?" (Student 1)

"We write it down and you tally them." (Student 2)

However, Chicken did not acknowledge these student process suggestions. She got up from her seat to find a sheet of paper on her desk. As she moved away from her seat at the mobile teaching station the students on the mat began to talk among themselves. Chicken responded to this student activity with "sorry guys, we've got to get this done" (CNV1, p. 1).

Once Chicken had located a piece of paper to record the students' votes she initiated the blind vote.

I'm going to ask you, make sure you know which one you want to be first, which one you want to be second, which one you want to be third, fourth and fifth ... Right, I'd like you to close your eyes so nobody's looking at me. So if you're looking at me you haven't closed your eyes. Closing your eyes. (CNV2, p. 2)

This first vote identified the most important dimension of home learning as 'structure' which the class had defined earlier as "having creative activities in them" (CNV2, p. 3) and an integrated "theme/focus". Chicken then re-framed the result of the first part of the vote as the collective student message to her:

So you've told me you don't want me to tell you, or you don't want to create something where you're doing a study on cats and you just go away and do whatever. You want some sort of scaffolding with it, would that be what you're thinking? (CNV2, p. 3)

She also made space for students to contest her interpretation through the use of the tag question "would that be what you're thinking?" (Chicken, CNV2, p. 3)

After the initial vote Chicken and the students reflected together on the results. What is notable about this data is that during their discussion student and teacher

discourses intermingled to produce a negotiated understanding. Table 20 presents Chicken’s interaction with her students about the result of the vote. The data example shows how the students drew on previous class discussion and decision-making to contest Chicken’s use of the term ‘criteria’ in Turns 13 – 30. They counter-proposed that the term ‘standard’ would have been more appropriate and interrupted her at times to assert this (indicated by ‘/’ in the transcript). In this instance the students’ thinking prevailed (Turn 30).

Table 20 Dialogic Discourse Development

Turn	Teacher Script	Student Script
1	So that’s really an interesting result. What do you think about the structure being ranked as number one? [Pause – waiting for student hands to go up. No hands up or visible in frame] What do you think Craig?	
2		Craig I think [indistinct] because I reckon you need structure to be able to do the [indistinct].
3	So you think you needed to have a structure to be able to meet the criteria?	
4		Craig Yip.
5	Because you guys said it was really important that you met the criteria/	
6		Craig You need to know/
7	Who’s going to be setting the criteria? [pause] Who’s going to be setting the criteria?	
8		S x2 Us.
9		Bonny The person who creates it

10	You yeah. The person who creates it. So therefore they've set a ...	
11		Craig Goal.
12	Therefore the criteria is like a/	
13		S They're gonna set a standard
14		[multiple students] Wasn't it a standard?
15	Wasn't it a criteria? When I said to you you're going to be doing Utopia/	
16		S The criteria was the [indistinct] work.
17	But criteria, criteria creates a ...	
18		S Standard.
19	A standard yeah. And does it create a structure or not?	
20		S No.
21	Cos what does a criteria make you do? I'm just thinking about the Utopia activity you were to make your, you were made to make your own imaginary place but you still had/	[indistinct over-talking]
22		S A structure/
23	A structure with it. And that was you had to meet the criteria of doing this, this, and this. Craig?	
24		Craig I thought that with the Utopia, most of the kids did it, each thing about it was about the same thing. Like there was like doing the same thing
25	So everyone was, so you're saying you got a, there were different activities with criteria you needed to meet?	

26		Craig About one thing
27	But it was about a thing/	
28		Craig It was put into one/
29	That was where you, so you're saying structure is about a theme, about a focus.	
30	Okay, I see that. [Student hand goes up] Eric?	
31		Eric A criteria is pretty much like completing all the objectives to do
32	And whether you meet that criteria to a high standard or not comes under the quality doesn't it?	

(CNV2, pp. 3-5)

From turns 13-30 the students countered the authoritative teacher discourse, challenging the way in which Chicken was using the term 'criteria'. They understood the correct term should have been 'standard'. At first Chicken worked to justify her usage of 'criteria' with reference to the past Utopia home learning project (Turn 21). However as the students persisted with their argument that 'standard' was the more appropriate term Chicken's discourse pattern changed. She began to paraphrase and reflect back the students' views to them in what appeared to be an attempt to understand their position through interpretive listening. At turn 21 Chicken's question "Cos what does a criteria make you do?" seems to invite the students to think this through with her. She continued to link back to the Utopia project as a common reference point but her discourse appeared more exploratory than it had earlier in the interaction.

In this turn sequence some of the students interrupted Chicken, without censure, to make their points and they too referred back to shared reference points within the development of their knowledge about effective home learning to ground and justify their arguments. This disagreement over the definition of key terms and their appropriate use was resolved in favour of the students, demonstrating the

growing influence of student discourses on what counted as effective home learning in the class action research.

Given the shortened length of Event Three due to the cross country run Chicken asked the students what to do with remaining unranked dimensions.

- C Okay structure has come out as the first one. What do you want to do with these other ones? What are we going to do with them?
- S Chuck them away.
- C Throw them away? So you only want to have quality?
- S No.
- C And that is sorry you only want structure so what are we going to do with the rest of these?
- S [more than two talking over each other] Put them in an order.
- C So you're saying order like the most important one is the structure so now we have to do what with them?
- S Put them into order.
- S Second and/
- C Second and third, so rank them. Okay so have a look up there and we'll do that.
- (CNV2, p. 5)

In this exchange Chicken offered the students the opportunity to influence the pedagogical process. This affordance was in contrast to earlier in the session where the students' ideas were overlooked. The students indicated they wanted to proceed with the vote and the blind vote proceeded despite the shortened time available for voting due to the cross-country. Voting on the remaining four dimensions appeared to test the endurance of some students to stay focused. Towards the end of the blind vote process a number of students had disengaged from the decision-making process. These students were involved in side discussions with each other while Chicken was talking; and others were engaged individually in their own activities, either not maintaining eye contact with Chicken or having physically turned their back on the group.

Despite an interruption to the voting process with students leaving for cross-country running practice, the class persisted to rank the five dimensions of effective learning in order of importance. The dimensions became the success

criteria for effective home learning in the project. These are presented below in Figure 64.

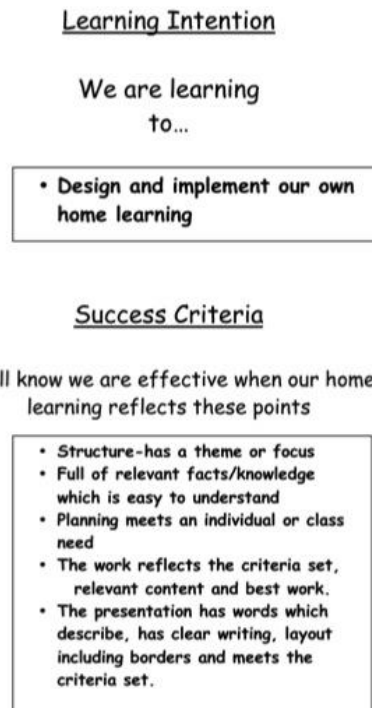


Figure 64 Finalised Home Learning Success Criteria CND6

The success criteria incorporated also the indicators the class had discussed and identified through their work together.

9.7 Ranking the Dimensions Reflections

Chicken reflected that she should have “got [the students] to write down instead of doing a blind vote” (CNI5, p. 6). For Chicken facilitating the blind vote involved ‘thinking on the feet’ as she juggled the interruptions to the session, the appropriateness of the strategy and the ‘mood’ of the students.

If I hadn’t have done the blind vote I think I might have lost the kids, they would have got too over it, they wanted to get into the planning of it. They wanted to get in and own it, they really wanted to have the power. (CNI5, p. 7)

Here Chicken makes explicit the tensions she wrestled with in-action during the ranking session but also a criterion important to her - that she make pedagogical process decisions based on the potential of strategies to facilitate power sharing with the students.

9.8 Event Four: Students Plan Home Learning Programmes

In Event Four the students developed plans for one week home learning programmes that addressed the success criteria they had developed collaboratively as a class (Figure 64).

Chicken described Event Four as “the children taking ownership of their home learning” (CNI5, p. 1). The students decided to trial a one-week home learning project around the common integrated theme of ‘discovery’, the school-wide inquiry learning concept for the school term. Mandatory and voluntary activities were included as a way to increase student choice and to address non-negotiable teacher and school expectations.

We worked out that the mandatory activities which were spelling, reading and poetry would be half hour to three quarters of an hour a week and one to one and a half hours of the self-planned stuff. (CNI5, p. 1)

Chicken described the students’ plan to Betty and Lincoln,

It is about them designing and planning what their home learning is going to look like and then the kids sort of said, ‘well how are we going to, how is someone that works on a one week time frame, how are we going to design something for them as opposed to someone who likes a two week time frame?’ Because we had a bit of an even split about some things and some kids started jotting down ideas and that is where we are up to. We are in the planning stages now. (Chicken, AR3, p. 4)

Chicken stepped back from a direct teacher-in-charge role during Event Four. She recorded the expected pedagogical process that had been negotiated through class discussions over the course of the project as a written brief (Figure 65) that the students were expected to follow.

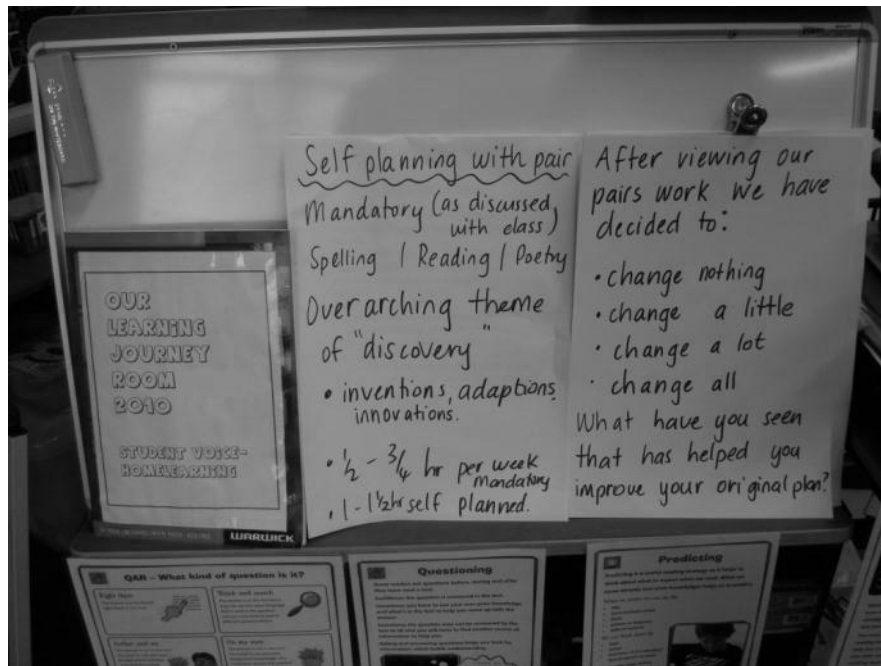


Figure 65 Brief for Designing Home Learning Programmes in Pairs CND7

I thought the qualities I was aiming for was collaborative learning with pairs, negotiation of ideas as well, in their pair and in a class. They'd developed success criteria and they have had an active role in discussion and now they are in the making of their home learning. So they're using what they have, their success criteria, what they have made up, they are using that to help them. (CNI5, p. 1)

She used her initial discourse in the session to shift the onus of responsibility for the home learning projects to onto the student pairs.

So you've decided in your group how it looks and we looked at what the grid looks like and it doesn't have to look like a grid – you said that. You can have it however you want to have it. You're trialling this with your pair for a week. (CNV3, p. 1)

Chicken introduced the Event Four pedagogical process to set the students up for working in their pairs and to rehearse possible student discourse.

What we're going to do is one pair is going to go and sit with their information, they're going to go and sit with the plan, just one of the pair [holds up one finger]. Okay so they're going to be ready to talk to another pair, the other half of a pair who comes around and they're going to say "well this is what we're doing in ours, we're having this, this, this and this, and we're having it divided up into this, whatever. So it should be a few minutes that you're talking to that pair about

what they're doing. That pair's gotta take it all in and the other pair is actually going to be talking to everyone. (CNV3, p. 1)

The students referred to the written brief as necessary during their planning process.

They would come up and they would come back to that ... our journey which is all written in there, that's all written in here. Our journey of how our home learning has the process of what the kids have gone through to adapt their home learning. (CNI5, p. 4)

She noted also that at this point in the home learning project the students did not need much teacher preparation to start planning together. She described her decision, on the strength of this student confidence, to 'let go the reins'.

I just let go of the reins, it was great, it was like they just went ahead once I told them, we were on the mat and I told them that's what we were going to do really briefly 'cause I wanted to get into it and once they got into it, it just flowed really nicely. (CNI5, p. 5)

The students interacted with five-six different pairs to share their home learning project ideas, spending three-four minutes with each. After returning to their partner the students decided which new ideas they might incorporate into their home learning plan. Most of the decisions the students made were around activity content, time frame for individual activities, or the original grid structure. I present a selection of the home learning planning ideas the students shared with each other as they interacted.

Figure 66 below shows how one pair of students used a pyramid to organise their home learning tasks. They also involved their family, designing a treasure hunt for family members to complete with them.

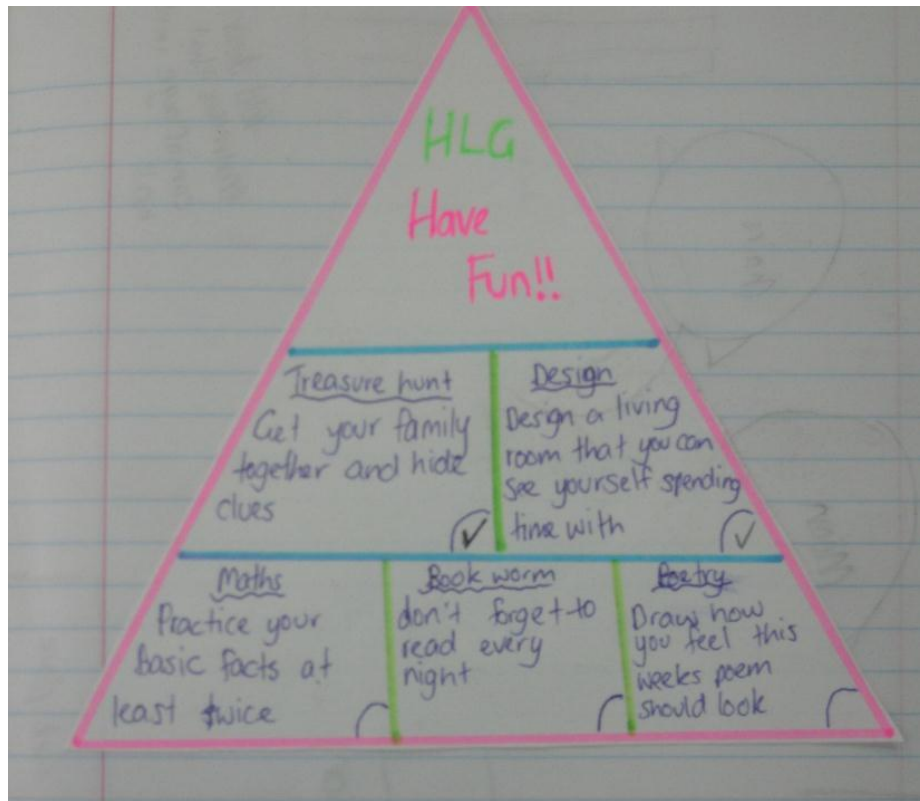


Figure 66 Pockit Rockit Home Learning Programme CND8

Make a model of your own [indistinct] it doesn't have to be real like [pencil moving across words as she talks]. Not like Utopia but like [indistinct]. And then like do a treasure hunt with your family so like you hide stuff for like treasure, (Pockit Rockit, CNV3, p. 2)

Figure 67 below presents the home learning programme of another pair of students. These students focused on including creative activities alongside the mandatory literacy activities they were required to include.

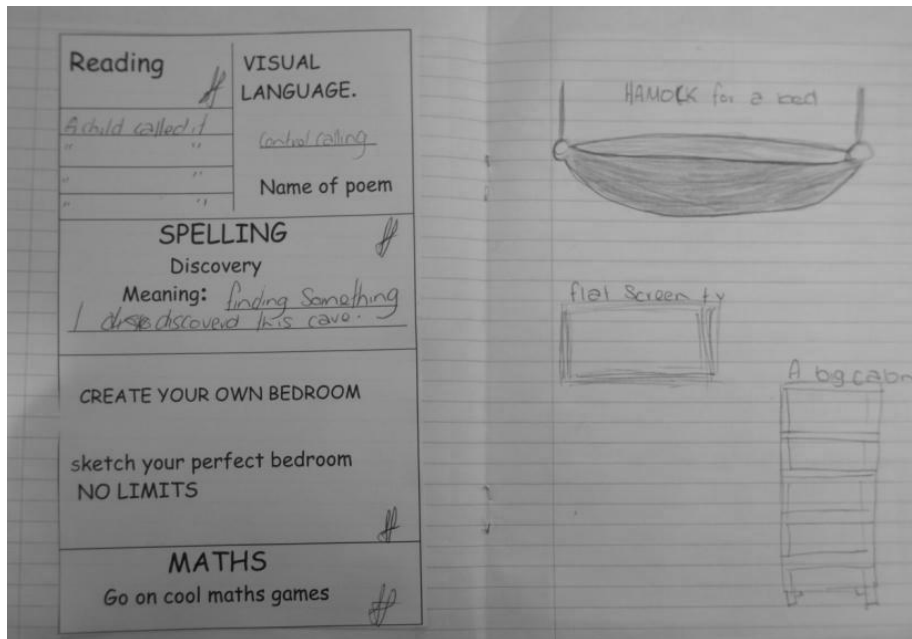


Figure 67 Honey Bunny's Home Learning Programme CND9

This is our, we've done reading log, spelling, poetry, maths, art, and squares that we haven't added in yet. They'll come. And we liked this maths. (CNV3, p. 3)

Chicken (C) also joined in to talk with the pairs (S) while they worked.

[Teacher discussing the home learning grid with one pair sitting with students at a table group]

C Recyclable wearable arts as your discovery?

S Yeah, yeah. So you make an item of clothing instead of a whole outfit cos it might.

C And do you think that's gonna work in with your timeframe of a week? Do you think you're gonna get all these things done and do that within the week?

S Yeah we thought so because if it's only an item of clothing it might only take you about 45 minutes and um yeah.

C Okay.

(CNV3, p. 3)

What is notable about this data was the ownership and excitement in the ideas the students shared with each other as they circulated amongst groups. Chicken's discourse also indicated that she engaged with students from a perspective of interpretive listening.

9.9 Reflections on Students Planning Home Learning Programmes

Chicken reflected on her positioning in relation to the students in Event Four. She perceived that increasingly she interacted with the students as a learner and observer as they became more confident and competent as decision-makers.

I was the person learning from each group and taking their ideas and just really listening, I just became more of an observer. (CNI5, p. 4)

This observer positioning appeared to enable Chicken to notice the decisions her students made, the preferences they expressed and their ability to defend their decisions.

I've just gone around groups, I've just roamed around and had a look at what they were including and what the format of their home learning looked like... and I said to a group "it's interesting you've stuck with the same grid that we've used for the school-wide one" and the response was "but it's not the same activities and it's more what we want to do"... Yeah it was interesting, it was good, because when I did pose questions they did have answers and they were able to justify what they thought. (CNI5, pp. 3-4)

Chicken noted that the co-constructed success criteria focused the students' planning and decision-making.

It was interesting 'cos they had the success criteria by them and you could see them making sure that it had this and this, 'cause they were conscious of the fact that they'd made the success criteria so ... they needed to use it. (CNI5, p. 3)

The success criteria document embodied the decisions negotiated between the students throughout the project.

Chicken described her strong sense of student engagement as they worked to plan their home learning programmes.

Honestly when we did the last filming, it was this buzz in here, these kids just all in groups just working and really on task but talking. Then when we did the changes they were eager to go and look at other people's and had seen some really cool ideas that they wanted to adapt. (CNI5, p. 10)

Chicken identified a number of features on student interaction that indicated the students were engaged.

They're listening, they're talking, they're working collaboratively kids, that some kids that struggle in other areas are really working together in a group in a pair, more so than I see them in other work. It's giving a chance for kids to have their voice, it's not always directed by me. (CNI5, p. 10)

Chicken linked withdrawal of teacher direction with student voice and student engagement.

9.10 SRG Home Learning Project Reflections

The student research group's reflections presented in this section yield insights into how these students experienced the pedagogical interventions of the home learning project in terms of power. Their reflections are relevant to the first aspect of the case: how positioning students as co-researchers highlighted the potential of student/teacher co-inquiry and co-learning as vehicles for power sharing. The student research group (SRG) reflections highlight how the same pedagogical practices, motivated ostensibly by student voice goals, can be experienced diversely from different vantage points.

9.10.1 SRG: What's the point?

In this section I present the SRG views on power relations and ideal student/teacher positioning that underpinned how they perceived and evaluated the events and pedagogical activities of the home learning project.

Flippinschnip questioned the efficacy of involving students in pedagogical decision-making in light of the teachers' skill and efficiency in this area.

I just don't see the point, why should the students create the home learning when teachers can make a perfectly good job of it? (CNSRG3, p. 4)

Honey Bunny concurred,

When the teachers do it, it seems a bit more organised than when we do it. (Honey Bunny, CNSRG3, p. 4)

The SRG students reflected on power relations between students and teachers in general terms arguing that teachers held all the power in the student/teacher relationship "they hold all the cards" (Flippinschnip, CNSRG3, p. 9).

Flippinschnip perceived that as a student he held "a horrible hand" but would like to hold "six kings and a queen" (Flippinschnip, CNSRG3, p. 11). This 'horrible

hand' was exemplified in description of how the students thought teachers wanted them to behave.

Teachers like it when you listen to them, they don't like it when you ignore them. (Flippinschnip, CNSRG3, p. 9)

They like it when you are quiet because you haven't said anything and they can just blah, blah, blah, blah, blah. (Short Stuff, CNSRG3, p. 9)

However Short Stuff explored the notion of power sharing between teachers and students noting this would be represented as a flush poker hand.

You hold a flush, an ace, a king, a queen, a jack and a 10. 'Cause a flush you get in the teacher side of you and then the kids' side of you and you both vote for which side you want to do. Then you do the teachers' side. (Short Stuff, CNSRG3, p. 11)

In this arrangement the agendas of both teachers and students would be addressed. Honey Bunny perceived that teachers should hold a powerful hand because of their positional authority as professionals.

They're the teachers ... because they went to university and they got their degree so they are teachers, that's their job. They come here to teach us and we come here to learn. (Honey Bunny, CNSRG3. P. 12)

She thought that students should have some input into how programmes develop but "we shouldn't be the ones that say what we should do all the time" (p. 12).

In sum, the students' perspectives indicated that they perceived that power was vested in the role of the teacher within the student/teacher relationships but that ultimately this was as it should be. They indicated that they would like more influence in the relationship but that teachers should take responsibility for decisions in the learning and teaching process on the basis of their qualifications and positional authority.

9.10.2 SRG perceptions of student voice

The reflections presented in this section show how the SRG students defined student voice as a co-construction with teachers and as an oral process of students collaborating with each other.

Student voice. You actually get to do the same things the teacher does, but you also get to do a few things that you want to do as well. So it's like the teacher and you actually doing it together, you're having student voice and you're planning it. (Short Stuff, CNSRG3, p. 5)

They expressed a preference for student voice as oral collective decision-making that enabled all the students to benefit from each other's thoughts and ideas.

Rather than our student voice is writing stuff, like why don't we actually say it, 'cause that would give everyone a chance to say everything at the same time, so everyone knows what everyone else is saying. (Flippinschnip, CNSRG3, p. 11)

The students identified class discussions as an appropriate vehicle for student voice.

We could have done it in a class discussion instead of writing it in our learning journal so everyone could like kind of come up with ideas together. (Pockit Rockit, CNSRG1, p. 7)

Paired negotiation of ideas was also identified within the SRG group as a fertile process for student voice and engagement.

I felt engaged when we all got in pairs and sat around the room, started talking about ideas about what could be in our home learning grid that we were designing and how we were going to present it, and things like that ... you could actually just sit down and talk with one person, not the whole class. (Pockit Rockit, SRGCU, p. 1)

Although a range of scales of student interaction conducive to student voice were identified by different SRG students, the students were unanimous in their view that student voice should involve students speaking and collaborating with each other.

9.11 Is This Student Voice? Chicken's Reflections

In this section I present Chicken's reflections on the home learning project as enacted student voice practice in relation to the first aspect of the case: how Chicken positioning students as co-researchers highlighted the potential of student/teacher co-inquiry and co-learning as vehicles for power sharing. The two

other aspects of the case were not the focus of Chicken's reflection at the end of the home learning project but have been interwoven throughout the case.

9.11.1 Student voice as co-inquiry – gradually letting go the reins

Reflecting on the home learning project as enacted student voice, Chicken came to view the home learning project as a co-inquiry,

I think we both initiated the inquiry, the kids and myself, you know I see it sort of as inquiry, like it's actually taken over my – not my classroom – but we do this more [than the official class inquiry]. (CNI5, p. 10)

Chicken linked co-inquiry to student voice through *The Ladder of Pupil Participation* heuristic that underpinned her student voice thinking (section 5.4).

Yeah it's that you both initiate the inquiry, so "pupil and teacher jointly initiate inquiry, pupils play an active role in decision making and plan of action in light of the data and then review the impact of their intervention". So the kids have intervened in the home work, and we've both initiated it together 'cos we both sort of had the same thoughts. They just made it known to me and then we talked, and I felt it wasn't working for me. And then they've intervened in it. (CNI5, p. 15)

Chicken foregrounded the teacher scaffolding required to build student capacity to participate as researchers and co-researchers with her and with each other. This scaffolding occurred gradually over the course of the home learning project.

And it's not going to happen overnight, like I knew getting into it I thought just little steps each time because it's not the sort of thing you can go "hey guys, so you tell me you didn't like the home learning, let's change it", there had to be a process you had to go through. (CNI5, p. 12)

Introducing a collaborative research process enabled the students to increasingly initiate decision-making within the home learning project.

They decide[d] ... 'cos it's through their feedback, well they've owned it, they owned everything from the ranking, the justifications to the rankings, to the whole [home learning] grid. (CNI5, p. 15)

With the students owning more of the decisions of the home learning project Chicken was able to shift her positioning to engage with them as a co-learner.

I became a learner. I became someone, I wasn't the person with all the answers. It was good because when I did pose questions they **did** have answers and they were able to justify what they thought ... I enjoyed that. I enjoyed that and I just let go the reins. (CNI5, pp. 4-5)

Chicken viewed the decision-making that the students were involved in as different from their conventional decision-making within a class inquiry. Positioning students as researchers from Chicken's perspective enabled students to participate within the conventional teacher governance realm.

I was looking at my ladder of pupil participation and I was thinking that you would definitely, the kids are definitely right up the ladder, they are pupils as researchers 'cause I thought they were involved in the inquiry and they've got an active role in the decision making, they're not just in the inquiry they're actually involved in the decision making. (CNI5, p. 11)

In this way Chicken made the distinction between students participating as learners in the home learning project and the students participating as decision-makers who created the home learning curriculum,

It's just more than creating activities ... they're owning all the criteria, they've made it. (CNI5, p. 9)

In this respect letting go the reins through a gradual shift to student responsibility for governance-level pedagogical decision-making supported students to shape what counted as important knowledge within the class curriculum, within their own learning and the learning of their peers.

9.12 Chapter Summary

This case has described how Chicken enacted a pedagogical process to 'let go the reins' of overt pedagogical control in order to scaffold student participation as governance partners responsible for pedagogical and curriculum decisions within the class action research. It has outlined how Chicken drew on a student voice heuristic to guide her as she worked to build student capacity as researchers and co-researchers. However SRG reflections highlight how these collaborative research processes, while they provided valued student opportunity for input into the class programme, also challenged students' perceptions of group work, norms around pedagogical pace and the role of the teacher. These SRG perspectives

highlight how pedagogical interventions underpinned by student voice ideals can be experienced differently from different student and teacher vantage points. For Chicken the collaborative analysis process and collaborative negotiation processes enabled her to hear the perceptions of her students in relation to effective home learning. For some students these same processes that were empowering for Chicken disrupted the classroom conditions and conventions that worked well for them. The teacher engaged primarily with the global pulse of the class, with the ‘buzz’ of students working productively together. However the SRG students focused on the conditions these strategies and positioning generated for them as learners.

The case has also illustrated how familiar New Zealand assessment discourse (WALT and success criteria) and an inquiry learning framework could be coopted to a student voice agenda. These familiar pedagogical processes were used to scaffold the students into the process of co-constructing what counted as effective home learning in their class. The student voice intention of students participating as pedagogical and curriculum decision-makers seemed to expand the potential of these assessment and inquiry practices to involve students within a classroom governance role with Chicken. They were involved in a level of decision-making that extended beyond their own learning to consider the learning of the whole class and what would count as important knowledge on which to base their home learning programme.

By the end of the project ‘Letting go the reins’ served as Chicken’s metaphor for power sharing with students. She used this metaphor in concert with the Ladder of Pupil Participation to extend decision-making participation and responsibility to the students. However paradoxically, in order to achieve this ‘letting go the reins’ initially within the project she adopted strong discursive scaffolding associated with social dominance. However coupled to a student voice agenda, overt rehearsal of discourse and working expectations, and a non-negotiable commitment to deep student learning, facilitated a gradual expansion of student responsibility for pedagogical decision-making for the home learning project. This ensured that the tasks devised for the final trial of the students’ home learning programme designs at the end of the project reflected the norms and criteria important and relevant to students in Chicken’s class rather than the norms

of conformity and standardisation characteristic of the school-wide home learning grid that was their starting point.

Chapter Ten: Action Cycle Three: Lincoln – Scaffolding Student Ownership

This chapter describes how Lincoln increased student ownership of learning by involving his students in planning the class programme through the context of a movie-making project in Action Cycle Three (see Figure 2 in section 4.3.2). This case interweaves three main threads that taken together show: (1) the importance of scaffolding student capacity to govern if student ownership is going to translate into successful action; (2) how the students in charge utilised techniques of power to manage the project and each other; and (3) the benefit of focused feedback from students to inform teacher assistance and learning. This case describes the twists, turns and tensions involved in this venture. Ultimately effects of decisions made by Lincoln and the students meant the movie was not made. Despite this outcome the students and Lincoln engaged in significant learning about what it takes in practice to scaffold student ownership of learning as an enactment of student voice.

10.1 Overview of the Movie-making Project

Lincoln's research question that underpinned this class action research project was:

How to [get] the students to take a little bit more ownership of what they were doing and how they could feed into what is happening in class so that it wasn't just teacher directed. (Lincoln, LNI2, p. 3)

Increasing student ownership of learning within the class programme emerged from student learning preferences expressed in Action Cycles One and Two, namely:

1. Building curriculum around student interests;
2. Integrating the class programme around a 'theme' to create coherence for students;
3. Utilising ICT technology within learning experiences; and
4. Creating an engaging purpose for learning through a 'real world' focus and audience for learning.

Lincoln identified professional development goals for the integrated classroom action research project also. Figure 68 identifies three over-arching goal areas that Lincoln identified the movie-making project design could potentially address through his classroom practice: (1) developing as a co-constructive practitioner, (2) meeting school-wide pedagogical and curriculum expectations, and (3) addressing the expressed learning preferences of his students.

Lincoln	School	Students
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Integrate class Curriculum • Reduce teacher direction • Promote student autonomy • Develop students' content knowledge of movie-making process • Develop students' technical film-making expertise • Develop students' organisational skills • Promote student ownership of learning • Promote student involvement and engagement • Develop teacher professional inquiry learning PCK • Develop curriculum around teacher expertise 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School-wide Inquiry Learning Programme expectations • School-wide timetable 	Preference for: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • integrated curriculum around personal interests • Practical use of technology • Practical projects – making a movie • Real audience
Movie-making		

Figure 68 Goals Addressed Within Movie-making Project

Initially Lincoln was motivated to more effectively implement a curriculum inquiry and to include students more centrally in decisions related to curriculum and classroom programme planning.

I was interested in ... the whole idea of giving students more choice in the planning and the decisions of what we were doing in class ... I wanted to think about how I could get the students really involved from the onset and get them really engaged in what they were doing but then make it so that the whole experience ... was based around inquiry and anything else that we were doing would kind of feed into it. (Lincoln, AR3, p. 7)

Lincoln decided to address the challenge of integrating the class curriculum and increasing opportunities for the students to participate in classroom decision-making through making a class horror movie.

Lincoln had previously attempted to address student learning preferences through a gaming curriculum project earlier in the year but this had not been successful,

The whole gaming idea didn't fully encompass what we did and we weren't able to theme everything that we did and really get a driving force behind it. What I was quite interested in was finding out how to really get the kids involved in and bought into something. (LNI2, p. 12)

The movie-making classroom action research project focused on exploring ways for students to feed into curriculum design in the classroom in order to experience ownership of their learning.

It was a little bit of student voice I think and it was getting the students to take a little bit more ownership of what they were doing and how they could I guess feed into what was happening in class. So that it wasn't just teacher directed. (Lincoln, LNI2, p. 3)

To achieve this goal Lincoln transferred decision-making authority within the movie-making project to students.

The movie-making project unfolded through six main events outlined in Table 21 below. Each event comprised a series of sequential and interrelated activities across a number of classroom and lunchtime sessions.

Table 21 Movie Making Project Event Chart

Event	Focus	Activities
1	Scoping the Movie Elements of making a movie	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Class discussion of movie ideas and genres; 2. Laying down the story plan; 3. Students share movie ideas through KnowledgeNET forum; 4. Film study – watching ‘The Princess Bride’. Key question: ‘what do we want to get out of watching this movie that is going to help us in our project?’; 5. Students devise questions to focus the investigation into movie making; 6. Students research their questions (Finding Out) individually and in pairs; 7. Students feedback learning to ‘expert groups’ within the whole class;

		<p>8. Reflect against school inquiry model ‘where are we?’</p> <p>9. More finding out; and</p> <p>10. Students share what they have found out with each other.</p>
2	<p>Production Team Selection (whole class meeting)</p>	<p>1. Class meeting led by Lincoln;</p> <p>2. Call for student volunteers for Production Team roles;</p> <p>3. Class vote for Producer;</p> <p>4. Lincoln negotiates with Jerry – solo or shared leadership?</p> <p>5. Producers select Director; and</p> <p>6. Producers select executive producers.</p>
3	<p>Selecting Heads of Departments (whole class meeting)</p>	<p>1. Lincoln orients the class then withdraws;</p> <p>2. Producers focus the meeting – explain the purpose;</p> <p>3. Invite students to volunteer for Head of Department responsibilities;</p> <p>4. Inform the class about selection process for potential actors;</p> <p>5. Record names of students wanting to audition for acting roles; and</p> <p>6. Question and answer opportunity.</p>
4	<p>Writing the Script (at school and at home)</p>	<p>1. Students contribute ideas through KnowledgeNET forum; and</p> <p>2. Captain Underpants writes the script at home.</p>
5	<p>Audition Preparation (Production Team lunchtime meeting)</p>	<p>1. Discussion to decide the audition process;</p> <p>2. Decide the audition group size; and</p> <p>3. Explore fairness of proposed process – gender opportunities within roles;</p> <p>4. Explore how each person might audition;</p> <p>5. Exasperation; and</p> <p>6. Dispute between Jerry and Mark.</p>
	<p>(Production Team in class time)</p>	<p>7. Devise selection criteria;</p> <p>8. Develop audition entry slips;</p> <p>9. Distribute selection criteria to potential actors; and</p> <p>10. Casting roles (lunchtime).</p>

6a	Planning Logistics (Production Team lunchtime meeting with Lincoln)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Discussion: how to achieve specific film effects; 2. Students negotiate more assistance from Lincoln; 3. Dahlia negotiates a budget; and 4. Decision to scale back the movie to a trailer.
6b	Supporting the two thirds (Lincoln in charge in class)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Develop mini film projects; 2. Story board ideas; 3. Devise screen shots; 4. Lincoln critiques feasibility of mini film plans; 5. Film mini projects; 6. Self and peer assessment of mini film projects; and 7. Movie posters.

10.2 Event One: Scoping the Movie

In Event One, Lincoln and the class scoped the focus of movie-making through an initial movie-making inquiry.

Together in a whole class discussion the students' prior knowledge of movie genres and their ideas for a possible class movie focus were explored. After the class discussion, the students posted their further ideas to a KnowledgeNET forum.

Lincoln focused the students in on specific aspects of film making through a film study of *The Princess Bride*.

As a class we probably spent the first three weeks ... finding out about movie making, looking at credits of movies, finding out about all the different roles and the involvements. (LNI2, p. 2)

The students influenced the direction these initial activities took and the content, through expression of their interests and personal connections within the film industry.

We had one of the girls' uncles come in and talk to us about set design, working on movies, and when he met Nicholas Cage and all these different actors that they know about. It made things a little bit more real for them. So there has been this

whole big tuning in stage of which we have all been finding out things. (Lincoln, AR3, p. 8)

The students' enthusiasm to apply their learning 'about' movie-making to making a movie initiated the practical movie-making project, although Lincoln had anticipated this desire to make a movie would occur.

At the start of the term, it wasn't set in concrete that we are definitely going to make a movie ... I guess, as soon as you talk about movie making, it is going to be the way the students want to move but when it started out, it was, 'let's find out a little bit about it' and then that was definitely the way they wanted to take it. (Lincoln, LNI2, p. 5)

Lincoln noted the movie-making focus 'grabbed the attention' of the students "[they are] really owning it at the moment" (Lincoln, LNI2, p. 3). They showed high interest in making a horror movie in particular.

The initial movie-making inquiry informed the students' knowledge about the movie making process (Figure 69).



Figure 69 Class Brainstorm on Movie-making LND2

The inquiry also made explicit what they needed to plan for in making the class movie, illuminated the various ways they might contribute to the overall project

and familiarised the students with a film industry decision-making hierarchy (Figure 70).

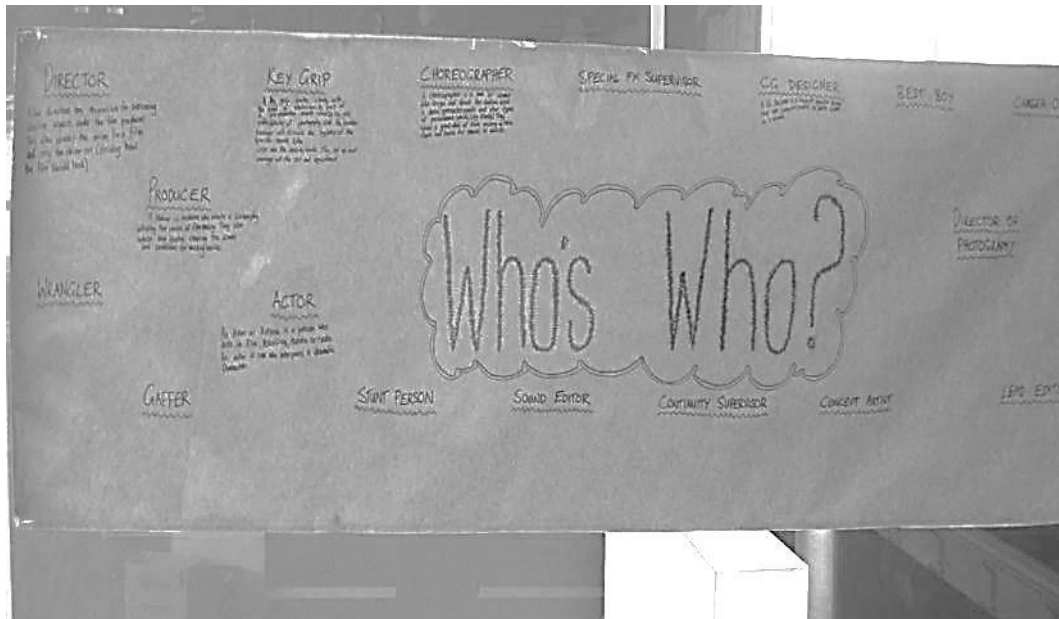


Figure 70 Film Industry Roles LND3

The movie-making inquiry also decentred Lincoln as the expert on movie-making. Instead, through student questions and the inquiry learning process, the students were encouraged to build their collective knowledge of the movie-making process directly from the internet and other credible experts. Lincoln perceived this decentring promoted student ownership of the project.

Rather than it being me speaking the whole time we would stop and get the kids to talk about different things that they have found out. (Lincoln, LNI2, p. 4)

Lincoln utilised elicitation and press moves to focus the students in on what they needed to find out next in order to develop a sound understanding of the movie-making process.

It has been throwing things back into their hands and saying “right what are the things that we need to know about this?” Going back to our big wonderings and “what do you want to know about our project” and “what kinds of things are going to be useful for us?” (Lincoln, LNI2, p. 4)

Lincoln appeared to scaffold student-led inquiry without taking over control of the project.

Once the class had decided specifically to make a horror movie, Lincoln distributed the students in certain ways in relation to each other to maximise student participation and engagement. He organised the students to work in pairs to research their interest areas within the horror genre and to report their findings back to the whole class.

Some kids were looking up gory special effects and things that had to be done, others were looking up green screen and how we could do that to have some more realistic scenes, others were finding out about, how do you make it look like somebody has been shot or hit with an axe in the head. (Lincoln, LNI2, p. 4)

In this way he also developed the norm that individual student learning could and should influence the collective learning of the whole class.

The students have been able to start to choose the things that they are interested in and they have all got a common goal that they are working on. So there is a real sense of, 'I am not just doing this for me, I am feeding my ideas back into the whole'. (Lincoln, LNI2, p. 4)

Lincoln viewed the students sharing expertise from their individual investigations together as building collective understanding and positioning students to act as teachers with each other.

We talked about the whole 'students as teachers' thing as well, which I think was one of the focuses as well. (Lincoln, LNI2, p. 4)

Through this planned student sharing process a horizontal student-to-student dialogic discourse developed and supported the students further to 'drive' the investigation.

Giving them opportunities to stand up and say, "this is what we found out and this is what we have been looking at". I think that is one of the key ideas this term was, taking me out of the hot seat and then letting the kids drive it a little bit. (Lincoln, LNI2, p. 4)

Inquiry learning prompts such as questioning, student-driven research and an expectation to share individual learning for the benefit of all learners enabled Lincoln to participate as a 'back-seat driver' during the initial inquiry.

Two SRG students found the practical focus of the movie-making project engaging “because we actually get into it, we get into it like the movie” (Asheley Green, LNSRG1, p. 1) and others found that making a movie for an audience added an engaging element.

Well it is quite a big responsibility ‘cos like when we’re got our parts you’ve got to be always ready to do it and also like ... you’ve got to be ready. (Hityu, LNSRG1, p. 6)

Interestingly Asheley Green, one of the SRG students, whilst finding the practical nature of the movie-making project engaging, also found the scale of the project daunting,

It’s a pretty big job to make this movie ... and there’s so much to do in making the movie ... it’s kind of a bad thing because you’ll probably get tired heaps. (Asheley Green, LNSRG1, p. 6)

Central to the success of the movie-making project from Lincoln’s perspective was the ability to integrate the fragmented subject-based classroom programme and regimented timetable.

I guess the whole idea to me, is that is kind of taking away the idea of, you have got a little bit of learning between morning tea and the start of the day between morning tea and lunch and afternoon. (Lincoln, LNI2, p. 8)

To achieve curriculum and timetable coherence the class was re-conceptualised as child actors and film workers within ‘Techno Pictures’ production studio. When the students entered the classroom each day they ‘clocked in’ and took up their movie-making role on ‘studio time’.

Lincoln also used the clocking in device to shift between ‘teacher-in-charge’ and a co-constructor identity. He positioned himself as a consulting facilitator to the students, responding to their calls for assistance as invited.

That is when I step back. At the moment I am just working as a facilitator. So there are students who are above me in class and they get to make the final decisions. (Lincoln, AR3, p. 8)

Finally to create coherence within the movie project, any class work that was not related to the movie but was required as part of broader school expectations was conceptualised as ‘correspondence school’ work.

Trying to find ways to tie everything in, like we have got speeches this term. So it is trying to find a way that we can time our speeches so that we can write into the movie somehow or some way, just so that you don’t have these little things on the side. (Lincoln, LNI2, p. 8)

Lincoln introduced this ‘correspondence school’ idea by asking the students to read a journal story about child actors who act in film and television and complete schoolwork unrelated to their acting job through correspondence school.

For Lincoln, the learning to learn aspect of the movie-making inquiry was just as important pedagogically as producing a finished movie.

Hopefully we are going to get to the point that we will finish the movie but that is not the only important thing this term, like there is the whole process of how we are learning these things. (Lincoln, LNI2, p. 5)

Lincoln described his approach to curriculum design as ‘organic’ and argued that he adopted this approach in order to flip control over curriculum to the students and to scaffold students as decision-makers.

I think often in school, the kids will just do things. They will sit down and do the activities that they have been given because it is school and that is what you do at school. You do, you learn stuff that you are told to learn, whereas at the moment it is completely sort of flipped around to be, when they come to school, there is no set plan of what we are doing in certain sessions. It is, this is what we did last time, what is our next step? I have a loose idea of where things are going, but yes it is quite organic at the moment. If the kids have an idea, things will move towards that particular area and grow that way. (Lincoln, LNI2, p. 5)

The focusing question ‘what is our next step?’ guided the development of the movie and integrated the personal interests and growing movie-making knowledge of students into design of the class programme.

10.3 Event Two: Production Team Selection

In Event Two the class selected a student Production Team to act as the decision-making team for the movie.

Lincoln led the process for devising the key student decision-making roles and the process for electing these student decision-makers.

I had given the kids the vote, who they thought, first of all, who would want to be a producer or an executive producer and sort of have an overseeing role of the project and quite a few kids put up their hand ... A big number of kids wanted to get involved in it, about eighteen. (Lincoln, AR3, p. 9)

Figure 71 depicts the student decision-making framework that emerged through this process of volunteering and voting.

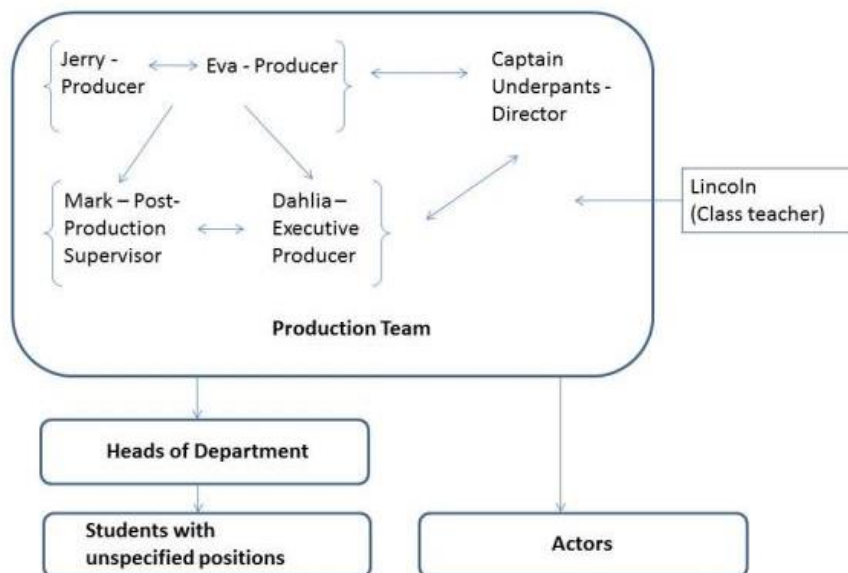


Figure 71 Techno Pictures Decision-making Hierarchy

Jerry was voted the movie Producer. Lincoln intervened at this point to give Jerry the choice of whether to share this overall responsibility with another class member or to carry out the responsibility himself. Jerry decided to share the role and Eva was voted to join him as Co-Producer. The two producers then decided on the number of Executive Producers they would need and selected these from among volunteers within the class group. Together these students formed ‘The Production Team’.

The first decision the Production Team made was to expand their membership to include a movie Director. At this point rather than vote on the Director position

as the class wanted, the Production Team invoked ‘an executive decision’ to exclude the class from the appointment of the movie Director.

They just said “no we know who is going to be perfect for this job” and they chose them and explained it to the class that sometimes you have just got to make decisions. They chose Captain Underpants. (Lincoln, AR3, p. 9)

Captain Underpants was selected to exercise overall responsibility for directing the movie. The selection of the Director positioned Captain Underpants and the two producers ‘above’ Lincoln in the decision-making hierarchy for the movie. This meant that Lincoln was subject to the decisions these students made in the movie, consulting to them as invited. Captain Underpants took this decision-making power at face value and moved immediately to direct a fellow Production Team member to record the movie-making process in a series of ‘production diaries’. He dispatched Mark (the Post-production Supervisor) to the task.

So the little video here was done by Mark who came up and quickly asked me if he could borrow a camera. It turns out afterwards that Captain Underpants who was going to be the Director had said, “you should go and get a camera and video the production diaries”. (Lincoln, AR3, p. 8)

The idea to record the progress of the movie-making process into a series of video production diaries was inspired by Peter Jackson’s published production diaries. The students had looked at these online in the Finding Out phase of their inquiry into film-making. The production diaries were organised into clips and the classroom footage was accompanied by a soundtrack overlaid in post-production, as is the case with other production diaries. Clips often began ‘in the middle’ of a particular interaction. The production diary was a performance in the genre of production diaries, deliberately crafted and shaped. Examples of genre features included use of transition slides to name, comment on and/or narrate the interaction or position in the clip e.g. The End; insertion of teacher expressing exasperation; ending of clips mid-way through interaction; soundtrack suggesting a certain kind of mood; panning across the room including zooming in on individuals and cutting to close-ups of specific artefacts.

Lincoln positioned the production diary as a device to shift responsibility for tracking the movie and checking in on progress to the students.

Partly through the interviews with the key people, the producers and things that, through the comments that they would be having and the conversations with the camera that they would be kind of sharing, where things were going and what the process was, rather than it being me, taking out the unit plan and saying “right today we are going to be learning about such and such”. (Lincoln, LNI2, pp. 6-7)

In this way film industry practices functioned as a disciplinary device to record, monitor and track the movie-making process of the students by the students. However this diary process also assisted Lincoln to retreat from the teacher-in-charge role and establish the movie as student-directed.

10.4 Event Three: Selecting Heads of Department

In Event Three the Production Team assumed the authoritative mantle for the movie-making project by leading the first class movie making meeting. Lincoln oriented the class to the concept and purpose of the class meeting. However it appears the Director interpreted this teacher orientation differently. The following entry was recorded in the minutes taken by Captain Underpants and captured in opening footage of the first Production Diary.

Meeting starts 3 minutes late.

Mr [teacher] closes mouth 3 minutes later.

(LNV1, p. 3)

This brief snippet suggests Lincoln’s reputation for long talking was overt within the classroom culture and that it was acceptable for the students to comment on this satirically.

Lincoln shared some of the context behind the comment in discussion with his fellow teachers.

As soon as I stepped out of the picture the kids were way more tuned in. The first thing on the meeting agenda was that I made them write “meeting started three minutes late” because a few students who were mucking around were a little bit too slow. And the next thing they wrote underneath was meeting started another three minutes late because Lincoln was talking too much. (Lincoln, AR3, p. 11)

This commentary suggests to me that the students' entry was a light-hearted retaliation for Lincoln's imposition into the minutes that some students were late for the meeting. However it is interesting to note that Lincoln insisted on the inclusion of this note even though he had handed over control of the project and the meeting to the students. The comment suggests that Lincoln's participation in the meeting was perceived by the Production Team as incompatible with their 'owning' the process of making the movie.

After his three minute contribution Lincoln tried not to participate actively in the meeting.

This is their first meeting as a film studio, I am trying to keep myself out of the shot and trying not to interrupt or say anything. (Lincoln, AR3, p. 8)

Instead the two producers, Jerry and Eva led the meeting. They began by stating the purpose.

Okay. So we're just having this first meeting now and um we're just explaining now what the roles we've got already. (Eva, LNV1, p. 1)

The producers asked students to volunteer for Head of Department roles. They set normative expectations for formal turn-taking. Students could participate in the meeting by raising their hand and waiting for one of the producers to select them to speak.

And then, um, now we'll ask well everyone can put up their hands and they can tell us what job they want but it's not really for acting it's sort of head of department, so like art department and special effects department which Ken is doing. And then so who wants to sort of have a big role in our head of department, put up your hand now. (Jerry, LNV1, p. 1)

This repeated use of the procedural 'now', 'and now', and 'and then' suggested the producers established a level of formality in leading the class that distinguished them from their positioning outside the movie project as peers. It also might indicate that leading a meeting was an unfamiliar activity to them and their focus was on procedure and how the meeting would unfold.

As the students volunteered for movie-making roles the two Producers recorded their requests in a class movie scrap book and Captain Underpants, the Director,

took minutes, recording these into a laptop connected to the interactive whiteboard so that all the class could keep track of the decisions made and the movie roles assigned.

The roles and responsibilities within the movie were volunteered 'into being' as the students indicated their preferences. A movie-making responsibility structure emerged from their movie-making learning organically within the student group rather than being imposed externally through a list of pre-ordained and fixed roles. In this way the students generated the classification system that distributed them to act in certain ways during the project with each other, with the teacher and in relation to the various tasks of the movie.

What is most notable in this data is that the Producers appeared to adopt a conventional authoritative teacher-student interaction pattern to run the class meeting. Eva and Jerry positioned themselves at the front of the classroom space to the right of the interactive whiteboard screen. Eva sat on a high bar stool and Jerry stood beside her. As leaders of the meeting the Producers physically sat higher than the majority of the class group who sat on the floor. Captain Underpants as the Director sat at a desk to the left of the interactive whiteboard screen.

Most students complied with the norms set for participation by raising their hands to speak and waiting to be selected by one of the Producers. Some students sat with their hands raised for extended periods without being called on to speak. However, some students seated on the mat challenged this formality by calling out. These students' contributions were recognised by the Producers. For example Jerry asked the class "so who wants to sort of have a big role in our head of department, put your hand up now" (Jerry, LNV1, p. 1). Ron's (R) hand shot up and he called out "me!" Lots of other students' hands shot up at the same time as Ron but they were not selected to speak. I took this interaction to imply that Jerry (J) acknowledged Ron initially because he called out and advocated for himself. Table 22 shows how other students then adopted this calling out practice in Turns 3-5 while others waited patiently for the producers to select them to speak.

Table 22 Calling Out for Attention

Turn	Name	Dialogue and Commentary
1	J	Ron what do you want to do? Like have you got any idea of what you want to do?
2	R	Nup.
3	Boy behind R	I'll be xxxxxxxx [indistinct]
4	Boy on couch	xxxxxxx
5	Girl from left of couch	xxxxxx
6	E	Yeah you can be head of make up department
7	J	And then:n R?
8	R	Well can you tell us some of the [possibilities] so we get an idea of what we could do?
9	J	Cool. What are you into? Like sort of like do you have any idea about what you would want to do during this movie?
10	R	Artwork
11	J	Art? Good. [Records in book] we won't really need that much sort of art but you can always help with the props.
12	S	Oh props! Oh yip!

(LNV1, p. 2)

Ron appears further to position Jerry as an expert in his identity as Producer. The focus of his question in Turn 8 “well can you tell us some of the [possibilities] so we can get an idea of what we could do?” suggests that Ron expects the Producers to have knowledge of the potential roles needed to make the movie. The expectation given to the group at the outset of the meeting was that each student would volunteer the roles they wanted. Ron’s question indicated possibly that the students might need guidance in the possibilities available to them so that they could make their choices – a strategy that might be expected of a teacher. Jerry refused to act as an expert on the roles needed for the movie. In Turn 9 he pressed Ron for his personal interests – indicating implicitly that student participation in

the movie would be based on personal interest and that the structure of the movie would be built organically from the contributions of the collective student group.

After the heads of department roles had been devised and volunteers recorded, the producers invited the students to suggest which acting roles they might like to volunteer for.

Okay, and now we, for the actors, we will have an audition but we don't know when, so we'll let you know, 'cos we know lots of people will want to do that. (Jerry, LNV1, p. 2)

Recording the large number of individual students' names and the acting roles they wanted to try out was a lengthy process. Video footage of the class meeting depicted Eva recording names in the movie scrap book with Jack standing beside her looking on. Most of the students seated on the mat had their hands raised indicating they would like to try out for acting roles. Captain Underpants was heard to exclaim, "I'm not writing all that down" (LNV1, p. 3). While they recorded these names the producers shifted their attention away from engaging with the whole student group and the class became restless, calling out and not following the participation norms set by Jerry and Eva. Table 23 records the student interaction as the class gets restless.

Table 23 The Students Become Restless

Turn	Name	Dialogue and Commentary
1	Student (G)	Have you got me?
2	Student	I want to be Mrs [indistinct] from the dental clinic
3	Student (G)	When she calls out your name put your hand down.
4		[Camera pans to teacher's office – Lincoln and another teacher are in the office talking to each other]
5		[As camera pans over a boy sitting at the back of the mat sitting up on his knees he smiles at the camera opens his mouth and raises his hands like a lion. Mark the videographer laughs]
6	Student	Ohh me, me! [Finger pointing purposefully to the left in the air]
7	Jerry	You're on [indistinct]

8		[Camera pans to Captain Underpants who looks into the lens with his hand up and smiles]
9	Student	[You look like] Pippy Longstockings
10	Student	[Indistinct] Pippy Longstockings
11	Student	Shh!
12		[One boy sitting on mat is swinging his arms up and down from side to side saying 'ow'. Also general talking amongst students as Eva and Jerry are focused on recording names in movie book]
13	Student (B)	Put me down for [indistinct]
14	Student (G)	You're very [unsettled] guys
15		[John mock stabbing another boy in the arm with his pen]
16	Student (B)	Did you put my name down?
17	Student	[Shouting] Allen!
18	Student (B)	[Same student as above] did you put my name down? [insistent tone]
19	Eva	Yes.
20	Student	Why don't you just be quiet?!
21		[Lots of students talking amongst themselves, volume rises.]
22	Lincoln	Ahhh!
		[Students fall silent]

(LNV1, pp. 3-4)

While the producers recorded student names, Lincoln was video recorded leaning up against the windowsill on the far left hand side of the classroom watching on still refraining from participating. However Lincoln intervened with a single 'ahhh' once when the class became rowdy and the students immediately fell silent.

At some point in Event Three Mark (the videographer) noticed Lincoln leaning on the wall watching the class meeting. He asked if he could record his expression.

Mark came up to me, Mark is in charge of the production diaries and he said, “can we get a shot of you shaking your head like ‘what am I thinking?’” And I was like “oh you are reading my expression, you can read my expression perfectly”. (Lincoln, AR3, p. 10)

This footage was edited into the Production Diary footage after the meeting. This example of splicing footage intimates that the students producing the production diary were aware of the footage as discourse within the production diary genre. They appeared to capture the teacher’s overall judgment of the students’ process of working out how to work together and positioned this explicitly within the edited footage as a social commentary. In effect it ventriloquised the teacher, using his expression to comment on the student collaboration process.

Toward the end of the class meeting a female student within the class group attempted to offer the producers a recommendation for how to manage the process of selecting actors for the movie.

Once you’ve decided on the characters that’s going to be like in the movie [moves palm up from side to side in front of her body], maybe like have a list up for people to write their names on, that would be more organised instead of [us] calling out random names. (Girl with blonde pig-tails, LNV1, p. 5)

Neither of the Producers acknowledged this suggestion in any way. Jerry after a slight pause moved the session on by asking the class “does anybody have any questions?” in what sounded like a resigned monotone. After a lengthy pause where no students asked any questions, Eva pronounced “okay we don’t. Alright we’ll leave it”. She turned in her chair to Captain Underpants and declared “this meeting is finished, closed”. One student within the class exclaimed “awesome” before the camera panned to the interactive whiteboard screen where Captain Underpants typed “this meeting is closed” (LNV1, p. 5) into the minutes.

10.5 Event Four: Writing the Script

A number of students were interested in participating as script writers. Initially Lincoln had planned that once the movie scenes had been identified a synopsis of each would be written and then a group of student script writers would write the script for particular scenes (Lincoln, LNI2, p. 2).

So [the students] have been coming up with the main key plot idea of this thing happening around the dental clinic and some sort of scary horror scenes, and those kids have really felt ownership with the activities and have been really keen. One of the girls was talking this morning about being in charge of screen writing, because she has written half of it and drafted it at home and done lots of story boards and things, which I hadn't known about, so the kids are right into that area of it. (Lincoln, AR3, p. 8)

However Captain Underpants the Director decided without consultation with the class, that he would write the script.

Captain Underpants had made a decision, that he later informed me about, which was that he was going to carry on and write the whole script and screen play for the whole movie as opposed to doing his normal home learning. (Lincoln, LNI3, p. 4)

Ultimately, Captain Underpants co-wrote the first scene of the movie with Jerry, one of the two producers.

Me and Jerry wrote the first scene of the screen play, so that's what we want the movie to be like. (Captain Underpants, LNSRG2, p. 2)

Captain Underpants identified writing the movie script at home as the most engaging aspect of the movie-making project for him. Figure 72 shows the drawing Captain Underpants completed showing him writing the script at home.

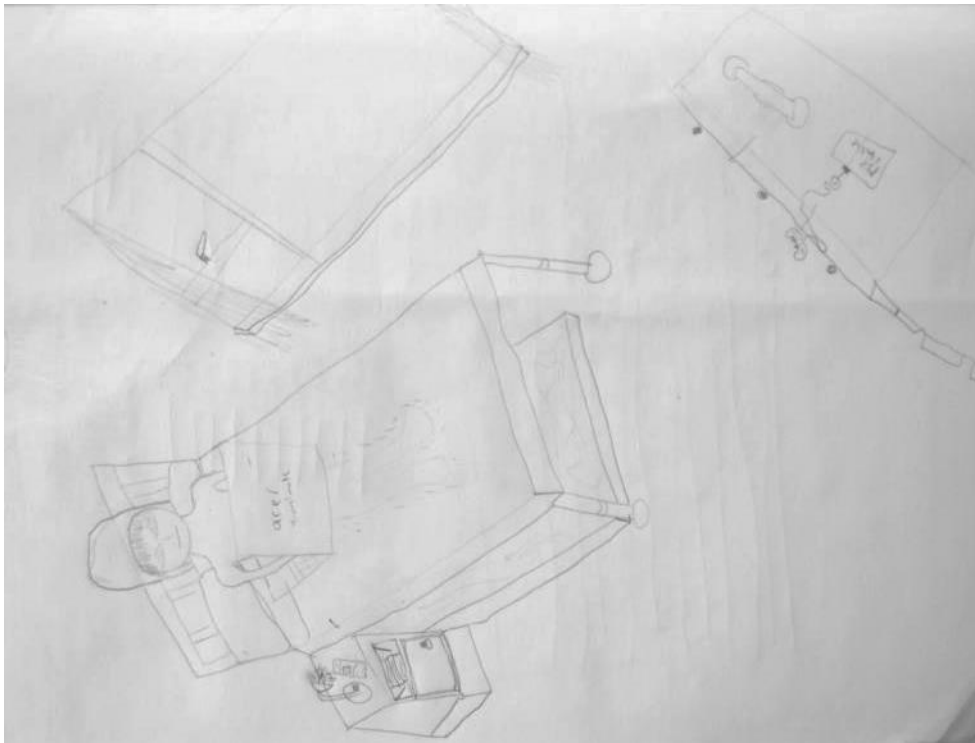


Figure 72 Captain Underpants Writing the Script CU13

Captain Underpants maintained the class had a say in the movie script because the script had been shared with the class and “no one put their hand up and said they didn’t like it” (Captain Underpants, LNSRG2, p. 2). Captain Underpants interpreted this lack of dissent as assent. However taking the script writing process over within the Production Team contracted the input students outside this team could make to the shape and direction of the movie plot as well as unilaterally undermining the existing efforts of the female student identified in the earlier data example.

Once the first scene had been written the Production Team filmed Captain Underpants reading the script to camera. He was recorded sitting on the floor of the classroom in front of two commercial movie posters promoting Hollywood films (Figure 73).

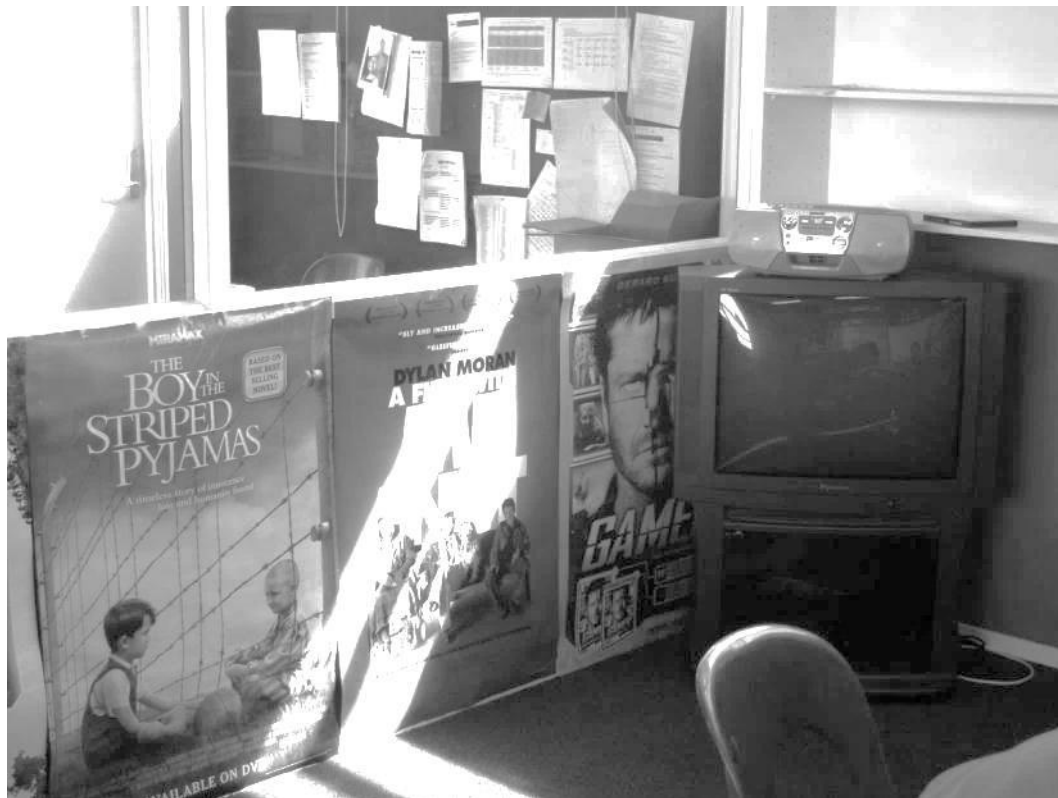


Figure 73 Backdrop for the Production Diary LND4

Mark (M) filmed the script reading, framing the shot to capture only Captain Underpants (CU). Other members of the Production Team (S) were present out of shot.

What is most notable about this data are the student inter-group dynamics that emerged as the group worked to prepare footage for the class production diary. Table 24 presents part of a transcript of footage that captures the first evidence of dissent within the student Production Team.

Table 24 Challenging Social Group Dynamics

Turn	Name	Dialogue and Commentary
1	CU	View from camera, switches to night vision, pan. [Places top sheet of script behind others, shuffles papers banging them on the floor to get them straight] Around [looks off camera to the left and pauses.] What? [Student arm grabs Captain Underpants' arm into shot] what? ["Your assistant". Student hand points 'toy gun' fingers at Captain Underpants "what?" Captain Underpants laughs] around the room goes past freaky girl and then back. Normal camera, close up/
2	M	Who's the freaky girl again?
3	S	We don't know yet.
4	M	I know but like/
5	CU	The one who looks freaky [laughs]
6	S	The one with the black hair.
7	S2	The one with the really/
8	M	It's the emo one eye.
9	CU	Yeah she's emo.
10	S	Sorry I moved it.
11	CU	Okay.
12	E	Go.
13	C	Close up, girl's face looking shocked. That's the normal girl by the way. Medium close up/
14	M	Which one, which one?
15	E	THE NORMAL GIRL!
16	CU	Passes the camera to boy, looks through camera. Boy, scream. View from camera/
17	M	Is it "boy scream" or/
18	E	Just, oh, boy!!
19	CU	Drop it. That's why I said 'boy' not 'girl'
20	E	Good God Mark! Just stop Mark, just shut up Mark!
21	J	Third warning!

22	CU	You're attracting attention. [Resumes reading] Dropping onto ground and under the cupboard. See body getting dragged past camera.
23	J	One more warning and you're fired.

(LNV2, pp. 1-2)

Throughout Captain Underpants' reading Production Team members other than Mark intrude into the script reading. An example of this occurs in Turn 1 where a student off camera reached into shot and grabbed Captain Underpants' arm and, after a short interlude, pointed 'toy gun' fingers at his head. These intrusions initially were treated as light-hearted and Captain Underpants laughed in response and continued with his script reading. In Turn 2 Mark interrupted Captain Underpants to clarify who the freaky girl mentioned in the script was. An exchange between Captain Underpants, Mark and a student off camera developed through Turns 2-9 to clarify the role of 'freaky girl'. In turn 12 Eva (E) directed Captain Underpants to continue his reading. However Mark continued to interrupt asking for clarification of the next role 'normal girl'. The contributions of the other Production Team members indicate that they became increasingly annoyed with Mark's interruptions to the script reading process.

The group regulation of Mark's interruptions intensified from Turn 14. Eva raised her voice in a seemingly exasperated response (indicated by the use of capitals) "THE NORMAL GIRL". The responses to Mark from members of the team then escalated to strong directives in Turn 19 "drop it" and "Good God Mark! Just stop Mark, just shut up Mark!" in Turn 20. In Turn 21 Jerry (J) invoked a formal warning "third warning" intimating that Mark had accrued two prior warnings for breaching group participation expectations and that an implicit 'three strikes' policy was in place. By classifying the warning as 'third warning' and noting that Mark would be 'fired' if he infringed again, the group appeared to draw the line on Mark's interruptions and distractions by imposing formal sanctions on his behaviour and invoking potential dismissal from his role within the Production Team.

10.6 Event Five: Audition Preparation

In Event Five the Production Team met in their lunch hour to organise the acting audition process for their classmates. The production diary video record of this

planning meeting edits the footage to create the impression the camera entered the meeting after it had started, in the midst of the negotiation of the audition process.

The Production Team audition planning meeting was captured within the Production Diary footage. Captain Underpants (CU), Mark (M), Eva (E), Jerry (J) and Dahlia (D) were present. Ostensibly the Production Team meeting could be characterised as informal because it was held during a lunchtime time slot, no minutes were taken, the students sat on comfortable chairs and couches and they ate their lunch as they planned together. The students also self-selected to speak within an implicit one-at-a-time turn-taking arrangement but often asserted their turn by interrupting the current speaker (indicated by ‘/’ in the transcript). Discursive turns seemed focused on persuading others of a particular viewpoint and negotiating meaning amongst team members. This is most evident in Turns 1-8 presented in Table 25 as the Production Team worked to devise the audition process.

Table 25 Turn-taking Interruptions

Turn	Name	Dialogue and Commentary
		[The meeting took place in Lincoln’s classroom and was video-recorded by Mark (M) the post-production supervisor. Eva (E) and Jerry (J) the two producers sat next to each other on opposite ends of the class couch, Dahlia (D) sat in between Eva and Jerry and Captain Underpants (CU) sat on the floor adjacent to the three on the couch. Mark (M) filmed the meeting with the camera directed at the team members sitting on the couch. Eva ate a sandwich and Jerry held the script that he and Captain Underpants wrote.]
1	J	Give it to them in the morning, give them 20 minutes to practice/
2	E	They should do it in pairs, oh wai wait how many oh no wai wait, pass it [reaches out for script, J hands script to E]
3	J	Nah because the girl’s only got/ [E hands script back to J]
4	E	[Raising her hand and talking directly to the camera] I’ve an idea, I’ve an idea, ooh I’ve an idea, ooh/ [holding sandwich]
5	J	[Sarcastic] oh oh.
6	E	[Looking up off to the left] Shut up. Okay. Okay we put them into groups of whatever character they want to play and then like we put them into groups of three like the girl freaky girl and that boy [gesticulating with hands] and then like random groups and

		then they have to practice with that sheet with the sheet shared between three of them and yeah, okay? [D eating and nodding her head in agreement with E's process idea]
7		[Raises thumb]
8	M	Nah I hate it.

(LNV2, p. 3)

In Turn 1 Jerry utilised an imperative “give it [the script] to them in the morning, give them like twenty minutes to practice/” to put forward the view that potential actors should receive the movie script ahead of their audition and have time to practice the roles they wished to audition for. He was interrupted (/) at this point by Eva who added “they should do it in pairs”. In Turn 2 she seemed to have a process thought around the number of parts available which she wanted to inject into the dialogue once she had clarified the script. She demanded to speak, “oh wai, wait, how many, oh no wai wait ... pass it” conveying an immediate imperative for Jerry to comply and pass her the script, which he did. In Turn 3 Jerry attempted to critique Eva’s suggestion that the actors audition in groups of two but Eva interrupted him in Turn 4 with the declarative “I’ve an idea, I’ve an idea, ooh I’ve an idea/” forcing the turn over to her. Jerry’s response to this interruption was to sanction Eva by mimicking her ‘ooh’ with his own ‘oh oh’. Eva responded to this sanction in Turn 6 by telling Jerry to “shut up”. She then continued sharing her idea for the audition process.

Even though it appeared that Eva was exerting dominance in the Production Team to get her ideas for the audition process across, evidence of interruptions, sarcasm and ‘shut up’ comments suggest that this discursive pattern within the team drew on acceptable discourse moves of the social group. Telling the teacher or the whole class to shut up in the formal lesson context would almost certainly invoke significant sanctions, but in this group the practice draws only sarcasm for Eva in response to her dominance.

Topics were not always brought to resolution within the group discourse but changed abruptly. In the example presented in Table 26 below the focus of the student discourse shifts from process prior to audition to audition group size.

Table 26 Negotiating Audition Group Size

Turn	Name	Dialogue and Commentary
9	J	But between three of them?
10	E	Yeah. Because there's three different parts.
11	J	Yeah but look that freaky girl doesn't even speak [holds out his hands palms up to emphasise his point – self-evident point]
12	E	Well it's not ... well
13	J	And the girl like only screams.

(LNV2, p. 3)

The focus shifts again to the issue of equitable gender opportunities within the audition process (Table 27).

Table 27 Negotiating Gender Opportunities

Turn	Name	Dialogue and Commentary
14	E	Yeah but what I'm saying is what if they want to try for the, what if they're a girl and they want to try out for a boy? Wait. That doesn't make sense does it?
15	CU	Well then they can't.
16	E	Exactly!
	M	Ohhhhhhhhhhhhhhhhhhhh [low moan of exasperation as M tips the camera to the ceiling and down again]

(LNV2, p. 4)

Some parts were written with a specific gender in mind and the effect this would have on the audition process had not been taken into consideration. Consequently Eva's contributions became more tentative rather than declarative. An example of this occurs in Turn 12 where she responded to Jerry with "well it's not ... well". Jerry confined his contributions to pressing home his point that each part offered qualitatively different opportunities for potential actors.

Eva rallied in Turn 14 changing the focus of the dialogue to introduce a gender factor into their considerations "yeah but what I'm saying is, what if they want to try for the, what if they're a girl and they want to try out for a boy? That doesn't

make sense does it?” The gender topic was shut down by Captain Underpants who declared “well then they can’t”. But the effect of Eva’s introduction of gender was to change the topic to a consideration of how someone might audition for each of the roles.

Finally the focus of the student discourse shifts to negotiating the actual audition process (Table 28). In this exchange the antagonist role shifted from Eva to Jerry as he speculated in Turn 17 “how do they try out for the freaky girl?” Then Eva made a suggestion that Jerry could agree with and Eva appeared to take this as a signal that her point was proven! It is not clear from the exchange what point Eva was referring to.

Table 28 Negotiating Audition Process

Turn	Name	Dialogue and Commentary
17	J	Ah yeah how do they try out for the freaky girl?
18	D	They can/
19	E	They just act like a freaky girl or they just like [indistinct]
20	J	Yeah true, true. Then someone acts out like that cool girl.
21	E	Exactly! My point proven. I haven’t eaten my sandwich [An aside to herself as she waves her sandwich and begins to eat it]
22	D	Yeah practice you’re lying down and being dragged across ...

(LNV2, p. 4)

In between Turns 22 and 23 a shot of Lincoln was inserted into the footage of the Event Five audition process planning meeting which is described in Table 29. The message appeared to communicate that Lincoln would be exasperated with the social dynamic within the Production Team as they worked to manage the movie-making project amongst themselves, as if he had been there.

Table 29 Ventriloquising Lincoln

Turn	Name	Dialogue and Commentary
		[New clip – Lincoln putting head in hands – no words, drags hand across face in mock despair and exasperation] [Back to audition planning session]

(LNV2, p. 4)

Mark had earlier asked Lincoln to pose as if exasperated with the student decision-making process in Event Three (section 10.4). The students had then taken this clip and inserted it into the Production Diary as a silent commentary of how the teacher would feel if he had been a part of the student planning meeting. Table 27 introduced earlier shows how Mark used a similar device in compiling the production diary record of the audition planning meeting. After Turn 16 he appeared to communicate his exasperation with the decision-making progress of the group. He utilised the camera as a face looking out and participating in the meeting by raising the ‘eyes’ of the camera to the ceiling and emitting a deep ‘ahhhhhh’ sigh.

Following the audition planning meeting the production diary footage captures a dispute between Mark - the videographer and post-production supervisor – and the rest of the Production Team. The dispute presented in Table 30 below captures an aspect of the ongoing challenge the Production Team experienced in relation to regulating behavioural expectations within their own group.

Table 30 Dispute between Jay and Mark

Turn	Name	Dialogue and Commentary
23	J	[J says something indistinct with the script covering his mouth]
24	M	You could tell what he was meaning behind that. You, he should have a warning. Fine you be rude.
25	J	[Looks worried, holds hands out palms up as if to say ‘what did I do?’] Stop it M [the video recording] please?
26	S	You’ll get another warning, then it’ll be three [Said to M]

(LNV2, p. 4)

Within Turns 23-26 Jerry appeared to comment to someone in the group, a comment that he did not want captured on film (he covered his mouth with the script). Mark who was the recipient of behavioural sanctions during the script reading session in Event Four, called attention to this comment and suggested that Jerry was being rude and should receive a warning from the group. In response Jerry asked Mark to turn off the camera so that he could talk ‘off camera’ but Mark did not stop the recording. This refusal in effect turned the tables on Jerry who had invoked the third and final warning on Mark in the earlier session. One of the team not captured on camera [possibly Captain Underpants] interjects and warns Mark “you’ll get another warning, then it’ll be three”. This warning to Mark about receiving a third warning appears to refer to the earlier Production Team issue of Mark repeatedly distracting the group from its purpose. At this point Mark turns off the camera.

The positional authority invested in the roles of the Production Team appeared to influence the interaction dynamics within the group as they negotiated the practical challenge of designing the audition process for their classmates. Negotiation of the audition process was conducted largely between Eva and Jerry the two Producers. Dahlia, Mark and Captain Underpants largely made discursive contributions related to the propositions of either Eva or Jerry. It appears the producers could not insist on their view but rather, established decisions through persuading and dominating each other. The dispute between Jerry and Mark illustrates however that the positional authority to warn and dismiss members did circulate within the Production Team. The threat of expulsion was only resorted to once other social sanctions such as sarcasm and imperatives to ‘shut up’ had been invoked.

10.7 Event Six (a): Planning Logistics

Event Six is divided into two parts. Event Six (a) presents aspects of student interaction within a Production Team lunchtime planning meeting. Event Six (b) describes what was happening at this point in the movie-making project for the rest of the class who were not members of the Production Team.

In Event Six (a) the Production Team met during lunchtime to explore how to set up and film scenes to achieve certain visual effects.

The Production Team were in the classroom planning aspects of the movie when Lincoln, on playground duty, came into the classroom to retrieve something he needed. The students took the opportunity to involve Lincoln to discuss a number of unresolved aspects of the organisation with him.

After Lincoln and the team discussed practical aspects of setting up film shots Captain Underpants shifted the focus of the discussion to their need for more guidance from Lincoln.

Another thing we decided was we think you should help us a little bit more ‘cos we’re not being really productive. (LNV2, p. 6)

Captain Underpants pitched his contribution as on behalf of the group. This is indicated by his use of the collective pronoun ‘we’ to preface his request for more teacher assistance. However, another student (it was not clear in the footage which Production Team member this was) immediately disputed this and attempted to individualise the request to Captain Underpants. This interaction is presented in Table 31 below.

Table 31 The Production Team Distances Itself from Captain Underpants

Turn	Student		Teacher
1	CU	Another thing we decided was we think you should help us a little bit more ‘cos we’re not being really productive.	
2			Okay, so/
3	Student	[To CU] you decided.	
4	CU	And you.	
5			Nah, nah that’s good.
6	CU	And you – you agreed.	
7			Remember it’s kind of gone from the point where I was probably leading it [Eva laughs] and throwing a lot of my ideas into it to now I’ve probably stepped back almost too much.

8	Student	Mm hmm	
9			What I want you guys to have a think about is, you guys are the producers, you guys are the executive producers, what you need to do now is maybe spend five or ten minutes and write down my role. So I'm one of your workers [student: oh] pretend that I'm the same as a head of department, write down what's my job responsibilities/

(LNV2, pp. 6-7)

Captain Underpants re-stated the collective basis of the request twice, once in Turn 4 and again in Turn 6. Lincoln accepted the legitimacy of Captain Underpant's request and agreed with the Production Team that he had stepped back too far. At this point Lincoln reinforces the students' positional authority by explicitly positioning himself as one of their workers "pretend that I'm the same as a head of department". In asking the students to 'pretend', Lincoln appears to acknowledge that although he holds positional authority as a teacher for learning, in the movie project he had stepped out of this authoritative role, deferring instead to the producers and executive producers. To further cement this positioning he asked the students to write him a job description that defined his role as a 'worker' for them.

As a result of Lincoln's request, the Production Team wrote guidelines for Lincoln as the 'consultant' expert on movie-making.

Mr [Lincoln's] roles: film with us at night, buy us pizza, resources guy and unbiased peace maker, help us make decisions. (Lincoln, LNI3, p. 2)

However, during this meeting Lincoln also scaled back the timeframe of the movie,

What I'll try and do is give you guys as much time as possible this week to plan everything out so that next week we can actually film it. If we can't get to the filming stage next week then it's probably, that's it ... it's game over. (Lincoln, LNV1, pp. 5-6)

For Lincoln, Captain Underpants raising the need for more assistance for the Production Team to lead the movie-making project impacted on him positively.

I think that was a good thing, for actually them to be the ones identifying what my part in the process needed to be and for them to come out and say, “hey look, we didn’t actually want you to come in and be the person that is going to tell us everything ... What we really needed you to do, was for that probably social cooperative thing and just to make sure people are getting along and if someone is getting a little bit off task, just quieten them down or resettle things”. (Lincoln, LNI3, p. 8)

It appears that by Lincoln devolving control of the organisation of the movie to a student group without providing the explicit scaffolding needed to build student capacity in this role, gaps opened up within the students’ capability to lead the project.

Eva reflected on the effects of Lincoln stepping back too much from assisting the Production Team with the logistics and social cooperative aspect of making the movie.

I think we kind of lost control, we kind of got off-task and stuff, so yeah, yeah. (Eva, LNV2, p. 8)

Offering feedback to a teacher on the efficacy of their positioning is not a discourse move often open to students. Through the interaction between Lincoln and the Production Team in the lunchtime meeting the students had their expressed needs taken seriously. Lincoln acknowledged to the Production Team that his level of participation had not worked to provide the scaffolding the students needed. But to address this, Lincoln reinforced the positional authority of the Production Team to define his role.

10.8 Event Six (b) Supporting the Two Thirds

In Event Six (b) Lincoln intervened in the movie-making project to engage those two thirds of students in his class that were not involved in the Production Team.

During the latter part of the term tension crept into the movie-making project. The Production Team of producers, director and executive producers were highly engaged with designing the various processes of making the movie despite their difficulties with managing each other and the whole class. However the other

students within the class were waiting for their opportunities to participate as heads of departments, actors and other such roles. The waiting produced a situation of ‘split engagement’ within the class group that Lincoln intervened to manage.

Within the SRG Captain Underpants, the Director, said he ‘loved’ the movie making project because “we kinda get to choose what we do in class without getting it chosen for us ... we get to learn what we want to learn not what the teacher wants us to learn” (Captain Underpants, LNSRG1, p. 2). He also commented, “I think I’m probably at the peak for responsibility and stuff since I’m the director” (Captain Underpants, LNSRG1, p. 3). However this was not the case for the other SRG students. Neither Asheley Green nor Hityu had a defined role at this point in the project and felt aimless. Hityu explained,

I think you’d get more excited when you know what you’re going to do and you’re planning for it, waiting to find out what you’re going to be is just like ... [waiting]. (Hityu, LNSRG1, p. 5)

As part of his intervention Lincoln involved the remaining two-thirds of the class in mock film studies, movie posters, and small filming assignments. These involved developing story boards, planning camera shots, filming, and assessing how well these mini-films produced the students’ intended effects (Figure74).

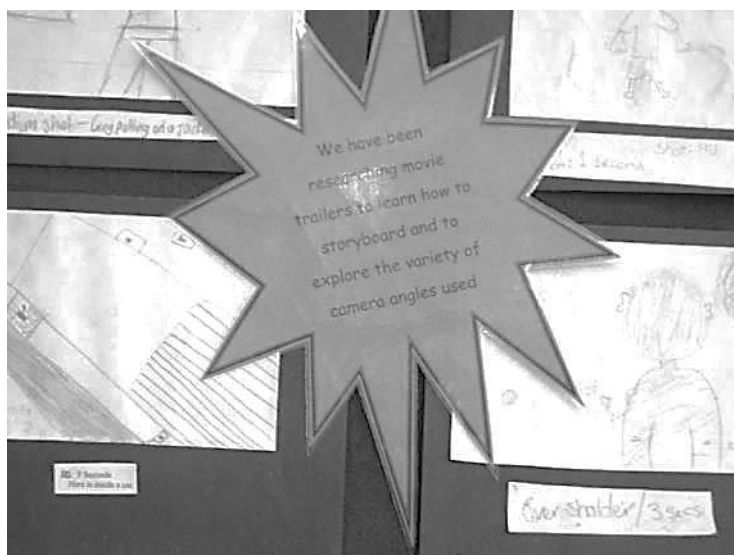


Figure 74 Storyboards LND5

However the class was resistant to the planning involved in these practical mini-film assignments.

As soon as I busted out the video cameras to try and bait them with something, all they wanted to do was to go out and film. I kept trying to say, look, the way that you have planned it out, these camera shots aren't going to work, I had to get them to stand there and actually act out this little scene here, and then "tell me how you are going to film all of that with the close up" and ... they are like, "oh no but, it is in our heads, we know how to do it!" (Lincoln, AR4, p. 4)

Even within the Production team tension emerged also between Lincoln's expectations of the technical quality of the movie and the students growing impatience with planning the movie when they really wanted to get started filming it.

The [students] that were directly involved of overseeing a number of things kind of indicated to me recently that they have wanted to just get into the filming and I think that is what a number of kids in the class wanted to get into as well. (Lincoln, LNI3, p. 3)

So although Lincoln had handed responsibility for the movie-making to the students in his class his student voice curriculum agenda clashed with this – in wanting his students to gain a thorough grounding in making a quality movie student engagement dropped off as students perceived they were spending too much time planning.

Yip, it's like we've spent a lot of time on the planning and everything, it'd be fun to MAKE the movie. (Hityu, LNSRG2, p. 3)

It appears that the hierarchical film industry decision-making structure did not work to support student ownership and engagement for the majority of students within the movie-making project. However the smaller film projects that Lincoln instigated did appear to scaffold student reflectiveness and self-assessment.

Reviewing footage of these films led to the students noticing the issues with the effectiveness of their film techniques. Lincoln explained,

It took for me to sit down beforehand and look at their storyboard and say "this isn't going to work and this is why". They couldn't really see it and partly they just wanted to get out and film. When they came back and watched the video they said "ah we see what you mean, it is not working". So sometimes they have needed to have that experience and to fail. (Lincoln, LNI3, p. 10)

Reviewing footage of their films with peers also introduced the students to audience critique,

When they actually sit down with their other class mates and they look at it and they look around and they see other people cringing and friends are getting dizzy watching it, and the camera is all over the place, then it kind of hits home with them, and that is quite powerful feedback for them. (Lincoln, LNI3, p. 10)

Peer feedback gained in collaborative assessment of their small film footage provided relevant and valued feedback for students on their product and informed their steps for improvement.

10.9 To Film or not to Film?

The class movie was not completed. The size of the movie was scaled back to a trailer. At the end of Term Three the script for the trailer of 'Murderhouse' had been written and acting roles cast.

We're just going to film the first scene first to see how it goes, like to see cos if it fails it's kind of pointless doing the whole movie, if it's only one scene that fails ... then we'll put that first scene out as a trailer. (Captain Underpants, LNSRG2, p. 7)

The Production Team had planned the logistics of filming the trailer and had organised an evening filming session at the school.

I have tried to say to them as well that when something is dying you just got to let it die. But they don't want to let it die at the moment and they are still determined to get this trailer done and they have got some great ideas for it. So at this stage, they will go ahead next Wednesday night. They have already told me they want four pizzas. I don't know if they have organised all the camera shots but they want four pizzas and two meat lovers and two something else. But they have got the whole script done. (Lincoln, LNI3, p. 8)

However this evening filming session was cancelled due to an unanticipated teacher professional development commitment that included Lincoln. This data example implies that even though the students were in charge of making the movie Lincoln retained control over the time they had available to them to work on the project.

At the final SRG group discussion Captain Underpants was still hopeful but resigned to the probability that the movie would not be made.

I really want the movie to get done, because it would be really cool if it gets finished. But I don't think it is going to happen, because I don't think anyone else in the class, apart from the producers and the directors and stuff, are actually wanting it to finish. (Captain Underpants, SRGCU, p. 6)

At this end stage of the term it appeared that outside the Production Team enthusiasm for making the movie had waned and was now restricted mostly to the core group who had experienced consistent ownership opportunities.

Production Diary #1 in effect became the trailer for the movie. The diary ended, in trailer-genre style, with the following fade-in/fade-out captions:

“Murderhouse”

“Coming soon”

“Maybe ...”

(LNV2, p. 8)

10.10 SRG Reflections

The reflections of the SRG members yield insights into the experience of the movie project from students within the class that were not involved in the Production Team. Lulabelle reflected that the student-led decision-making and project management were the most engaging aspects of the project for her.

[The teacher] wasn't taking part in it so it was cool that us kids got to hand over, then we would have like producers and directors and that like in charge of us ... it's cool, people your same age being in charge of you. (Lulabelle, SRGCU, p. 4)

In contrast Hityu experienced the student-led decision-making and project management the most disengaging aspect of the project because she felt the Production Team were not open to ideas from classmates outside their team or that they did not know how to take account of them.

The script, well if you put your hand up it wouldn't get changed and so yeah ... 'cause some people put their hand up and said different ideas and the producers are just like “yep” and just kept going and like you had a good idea and then

you'd tell them and they would just keep going and wouldn't really listen ... so there was really no point. (Hityu, LNSRG3, p. 4)

Asheley Green noted that the regular class production meetings led by the Production Team were overly long. "The producers and directors talked to us and they talked for a very long time ... like they talked for ages" (Asheley Green, LNSRG3, p. 4). She also indicated that the production meetings were irrelevant to her as she had missed out on a role in the movie due to her absence from school on the day Head of Department roles were assigned. This upset her and she cried in the SRG meeting as she recounted finding out that she had missed out on volunteering for a Head of Department role.

In contrast Captain Underpants who was positioned as the Director, with overall responsibility for the movie, found the whole experience highly engaging "because I get to choose what happens" (Captain Underpants, SRGCU, p. 7). He took this positional authority seriously, and the autonomy to act that it implied. He experienced this positioning as "fun" because "I got to choose like the little bits about the movie, and I got to do it by myself so there's no arguing" (Captain Underpants, SRGCU, p. 6).

The perspectives of the SRG group appeared to indicate that the positional authority embedded within the student decision-making hierarchy in the Techno Pictures Production Studio influenced the degree to which students experienced engagement and ownership within the project.

10.11 Is this Student Voice? Lincoln's Reflections

In this section I return to the three threads introduced in the introduction to this case to organise Lincoln's reflections on enacting student voice through building student ownership for the classroom programme. Firstly Lincoln's reflections on the students taking charge of the movie and themselves highlight the importance of scaffolding student capacity to govern if student ownership is going to translate into successful action. Secondly the case highlights how students deployed power to govern each other when they were placed in charge of a substantial project, without sufficient scaffolding, to build their leadership capacity from the teacher. Thirdly, the case highlights how despite the capacity building issues that emerged within the movie-making project Lincoln was open to, and gained benefit from, the focused feedback of his students on how he could assist them to make

pedagogical and organisational decisions as part of taking ownership for the classroom programme.

10.11.1 Student capacity to govern

This section presents Lincoln's reflections related to the first aspect of the case: the effects on classroom action of the students taking charge and the need for scaffolding student capacity to govern.

Lincoln highlighted the issues that arose for the Production Team when they were placed in charge of making the class movie but were unfamiliar with pedagogical decision-making and class leadership.

'This is actually hard, we are trying to lead the class and do these discussions and they keep talking and they want to fire you because you never shut up doing this, you know.' The kids are saying on the video before [Production Diary #1], "this is your third warning, we have had enough of you". And this is to Mark, like Mark is a cool kid but he is just distracting them all the time. (Lincoln, AR4, p. 4)

Lincoln learnt that to scaffold student ownership of learning he had to start off small and scaffold student autonomy more closely.

I am not going to say, "hey let's make a movie, hell no!" But it would be, starting smaller with that. But ... I felt I got those kids involved in it and it was yeah, respecting them, they do have abilities as learners and if they are going to work independently they do need a lot of support. (Lincoln, AR4, p. 7)

He identified co-constructing success criteria as a starting point for future class inquiries.

The students were coming up with success criteria and ideas for other students for parts of the project and that was giving them quite a lot of ownership for it. So I think for me, that would be my starting point, to carry anything on, to be looking into next term's inquiry. (Lincoln, AR4, p. 7)

Overall, despite issues with scaffolding student leadership capacity, Lincoln noted that many positive effects emerged from the movie-making project.

I think even there have been a lot of positives out of it but even I think some of the negatives have turned into positives in terms of the students finding out about themselves as learners and their expectations of me. (Lincoln, LNI3, p. 12)

Through negotiating the movie-making project amongst themselves the students appeared to have gained knowledge about themselves as learners.

10.11.2 Power and responsibility: Wielding influence

This section presents Lincoln's reflections on the second aspect of the case: how the Production Team deployed power to manage themselves and the class during the movie-making project.

Lincoln appeared surprised at the extent to which the Production Team accepted their decision-making authority at face value. They interpreted their responsibility for the movie to include responsibility for discipline within their team.

I had said to a couple of them "you are in charge of organising the production crew and who is in it" and they took that to mean that they could hire and fire people they wanted. They are all giving each other warnings because of their behaviour and it is quite funny ... they are thinking that it is their power and responsibility and that they are ready and willing to abuse it. (Lincoln, LNI3, p. 2)

Lincoln appeared to indicate that the positional authority invested in the Production Team film hierarchy was a scaffold intended to assist the team to manage themselves as well as their classmates. However, it appeared that the Production Team did not possess the capacity to manage the social dynamics within their group and lead the class also.

10.11.3 Benefits of student feedback for Lincoln's learning

Lincoln's reflections on the third aspect of the case indicate that co-constructive governance with students gave him the student feedback he needed to focus his pedagogy and learning.

Probably the big thing for me would have been the kids coming out at the end, telling me what they wanted from me, in terms of my support ... it was quite cool, having them actually say to me, "hey can you help us with this?" or "what you would do at this stage?" Then it is nice to actually feel appreciated, like hey, I have just taught you something. (Lincoln, AR4, pp. 6-7)

Student feedback on his practice helped Lincoln feel responsive, purposeful and appreciated.

10.12 Chapter Summary

This case has demonstrated that scaffolding increased student ownership of the classroom programme as an enactment of student voice through handing over power to students is a starting point requiring ongoing attention. Lincoln utilised a relevant and engaging film industry focus and structure to position his students as actors and film workers working together to make a movie. This focus and positioning responded to students' preferences for integrated curriculum, curriculum relevant to their interests, practical tasks and real world potential audiences for their learning. To engage with students in ways coherent with this imposed film making structure and expectations that he would continue to teach, Lincoln positioned himself as a film-making consultant, clocking in and out of studio time and assisting students upon invitation.

In practice however, the students' capacity to lead and enact the movie-making project was limited. Operating in practice as governance partners for each other meant students occupying and deploying decision-making, leadership and organisation processes of which they had little experience. Although the student Production Team were invigorated and engaged by this governance responsibility, their classmates who were not afforded the same positional responsibility became disengaged to varying degrees in the project over time. Increasingly Lincoln intervened to take charge of students outside the student production team, to focus their learning and re-ignite their engagement within the project. The Production Team also called on his assistance to scaffold their capacity to lead the project with their classmates and manage the social dynamics within their team. It seems that ongoing attention to scaffold student capacity to lead constitutes a vital aspect of enacting student ownership of learning and programme design.

This case also provides insights into the processes students adopt to exercise decision-making responsibility when they cannot draw on positional authority to insist. Although the mantle of authority was conferred on them by Lincoln, the Production Team utilised largely social discursive moves to regulate their behaviour within the team, such as making declarative statements, interrupting speakers, changing topics abruptly and threatening sanctions. In leading the class

the Production Team drew on their knowledge of meeting procedure and established pedagogical strategies of classroom management. They took their limited positional authority at face value to make unilateral decisions that at times excluded the majority of their classmates from decision-making. This indicates that when students are positioned to lead they draw on their existing knowledge unless they are engaged in explicit and ongoing capacity building around leadership and decision-making.

Finally the case also highlights Lincoln's openness to learn from his students. Although the Production Team intervened to suggest his stronger assistance was required he viewed this feedback as focusing his teaching responsively to address student needs. He also emphasised that although the movie ultimately was not made, the learning about film-making, the metacognitive focus on learning to learn and the experience some students gained in leadership and pedagogy, constituted just as valuable learning as a successful finished product.

Chapter Eleven: How Power Relations Conditioned Possibilities for Teacher and Student Action

This chapter examines the ways in which teacher and student action within the three class cases was conditioned by power relations. The three-dimensional power analytic frame introduced at the conclusion of Chapter Three was applied to the data generated through the three action cycles of the research but primarily the Action Cycle Three classroom action research projects. The chapter is organised in sections related to each of the three dimensions of faced power:

1. **First Face** – How desired teacher and student relationships were developed through identity work and positioning across the classroom research; that is, the goals and constructs that motivated teachers' identity work in order to share power with students whilst also negotiating their professional responsibilities and their perceived accountability demands. This section examines also the effects of teachers' identity work on student identity possibilities; that is how positioning students as pedagogical decision-makers disrupted the students' perceptions of normal student/teacher positioning.
2. **Second Face** – How the agenda for the classroom projects was shaped throughout the research. That is: what topics could be discussed and negotiated by whom, when, and in what ways as well as where agenda control boundaries emerged. This section also examines how teachers and students mobilised resources to enact student voice; including how they took up, resisted and critiqued their positioning; and
3. **Third Face** – How broader school (meso) level and policy (macro) level educational and societal discourses influenced teachers' classroom practice. This includes how they perceived themselves accountable to others outside the classroom for student achievement, how they perceived themselves responsible for student learning and enacting student/teacher governance partnerships.

Each of these faced dimensions of power was achieved in the research classrooms through the utilisation of various discursive devices and techniques of power (Gore, 1995). In this chapter the analysis that resulted from utilisation of these devices, as well as Gore's (1995) techniques of power, is interwoven within the three dimensions of power to illustrate how power relations were configured in

the student/teacher relationship, student voice agendas, discourse patterns and classroom activity of the classroom action research projects.

11.1 Face One: Identity and Positioning

The first face of power refers to most visibly powerful individuals and groups deploying influence to promote and maintain their interests (Lukes, 2005). These individuals prevail in decision-making over less influential individuals and groups, and are most visibly in charge. In this research the teachers were by convention and by position most visibly in charge. Teachers are invested with positional authority, responsibility and accountability for student learning, student achievement and student wellbeing by parents, school leaders and legislation.

In this section I illustrate how, as an expression of Face One power within the student voice classroom action research projects, the teachers appeared to expand their vested-interest – their positional authority as teachers – to re-position their students as co-constructive decision-making partners. I illustrate how the teachers moved beyond their conventional roles, to privilege student decisions and position themselves as subject to these decisions, albeit in different ways and to varying degrees. I also illustrate how engaging as a co-constructor involved teachers becoming vulnerable to feedback from students on their practice. The mutually constitutive nature of the student/teacher relationship meant that identity moves initiated by the teachers required responses by students. Hence, I also illustrate how being positioned within co-constructive identities with their teachers and with each other opened up new identity possibilities for students and at the same time this positioning challenged them. It made visible the students' discourses of student voice and their preferred positioning of themselves in relation to their teachers.

11.1.1 Co-construction as power sharing

All three teachers viewed co-construction of pedagogy and curriculum as a way to share power with students to enact student voice. In this respect their goals and constructs describe the nature of their will to power (Foucault, 1977) and were a vital aspect to explore within examining how Face One power conditioned possibilities for action within the classroom action research projects. In this thesis teacher-as-co-constructor is used to refer to the identity the teachers adopted to position their students as governance partners and to scaffold this student

positioning to persist during the classroom action research projects. Rather than relinquishing power so that students could become more powerful, findings suggest the teachers expanded the conceptualisation of their ‘vested interests’ as teachers (Lukes, 1974, 2005) to include students as decision-making partners through the adoption of a co-constructor identity. The ‘co-constructor’ identity enabled the teachers to share pedagogical and curriculum decision-making with their students. It enabled them to learn from and with their students as a legitimate part of their role as teachers who enact student voice.

The teachers associated co-construction with the notions of ‘co-learning’ and ‘students as teachers’ (see sections 5.1, 5.3, and 5.5). Co-learning referred to teachers learning from their students and learning to learn from their students. This is exemplified in the Betty Case when in Event Two (section 8.3) the contributions of the students on what relevant and meaningful reflection could look like surprised Betty. This was also apparent in Events Six and Seven where Betty’s discursive pattern changed to seek out the thinking of the students and to respond to their increasing focus on reflection as a collaborative, oral and public practice by maximising the collaborative potential of the remaining reflection strategies (sections 8.8 and 8.9). Students as teachers referred to students teaching and engaging reciprocally with each other in areas of their acknowledged expertise most explicitly exemplified by Chicken in her presentation of her perceptions of effective teaching in Chapter Five (section 5.3) and Lincoln in Chapter Five (section 5.5). The SRG students identified students as teachers as an important aspect of effective teaching also in the Action Cycle One data (section 6.1.3). These three interlinked notions – co-construction, co-learning and students as teachers – underpinned the teachers’ student voice intentions, the design of the classroom action research projects and focused their identity work across this research.

The teachers worked to engage with their students as co-constructors primarily by expanding students’ access into teachers’ conventional governance domain – that of deciding aspects of classroom pedagogy and curriculum design. Betty confronted her preconception that her students would not be able to contribute viable reflection strategies to trial and involved her students in generating potential reflection strategies to trial. The students delightfully surprised Betty by suggesting reflective strategies that had worked for them in the past (Section 8.3).

Some of these ideas were subsequently included in the reflection trial. In turn, the efficacy of including students in this way strengthened Betty's commitment to opening up further co-constructive opportunities with them.

To engage as a co-constructor with her students Chicken positioned them as researchers and co-researchers with each other and with her. Student perspectives on home learning were reconceptualised as data and analysed collaboratively by the students acting as researchers through the 'table groups' process of Event Two (section 9.4). In positioning the students in this way Chicken's identity work involved using discourse to scaffold what participating as a researcher would mean for the students in practice. Across the home learning project she worked as a co-researcher with her students to decide what counted as important dimensions of effective home learning.

Enacting co-construction within the Lincoln case occurred between the students rather than between Lincoln and the students. Lincoln interpreted becoming a co-constructor as taking a 'back seat', shifting out of direct control of pedagogy, so that his students could experience increased decision-making. He accomplished this identity shift by implementing a student decision-making hierarchy via a Production Team and positioning himself as subject to this hierarchy as a consultant. The Team made many decisions without consulting him such as deciding who would write the script (section 10.5), and devising and implementing an audition process (section 10.6).

In sum, enacting a co-constructor identity was the primary identity vehicle the teachers used to deploy Face One power in the classroom action research projects. They expanded their vested interests as teachers to include students as governance partners through 'co-constructing', 'co-learning' and 'students as teachers' strategies aimed at ensuring students could prevail in decision-making as co-constructors and researchers of pedagogy and curriculum.

11.1.2 Enacting governance partners through totalisation and individualisation

Enacting students as co-constructive governance partners involved the teachers deploying totalisation and individualisation techniques of power (Gore, 1995) in their classroom discourse to enact desired positioning. Totalisation was used primarily to position students and the teachers as working together as a collective

towards shared student voice goals within their class action research projects. Individualisation was utilised primarily to distinguish teacher roles from student roles and to reinforce how aspects of the classroom action research projects were unfolding in response to student voice.

Totalisation was most commonly achieved through the ubiquitous use of ‘we’ and ‘us’ in teacher discourse and displayed project documentation in the classroom, to create a collective identity. An example of this can be seen in Event Six of the Betty case where Betty was introducing the students to the new paint chart reflection strategy (section 8.8). (These totalising pronouns are highlighted in bold in the following data examples).

Alright guys **we’re** going to have a look at the trial that **we’re** doing at the moment with **our** reflection and self-assessment. And **we’ve** trialled the video recording so far and **we’ve** gave that a rating.

Chicken utilised totalisation to create a collective class research identity in documentation that plotted the foci, findings and joint decisions of the home learning project in the class action research learning journal.

We have discovered that not all of **us** enjoy the grid style of home learning so **we** decided to look @ designing and implementing alternatives. (Learning Journey entry)

Lincoln deployed totalisation in a different way to Betty and Chicken to create a collective class identity and to integrate fragmented subject areas in the movie-making project. Firstly he re-classified the students as child actors within the Techno film studio collective (section 10.2). This totalising move was designed to create coherence for students between movie-related inquiry tasks and non-movie-related class work required due to school-wide curriculum expectations. The totalising move also mobilised the students to relate to the film industry structure for their identity within the class action research.

Individualisation was most commonly achieved through the use of ‘you’ and ‘your’ pronouns or by the teacher distinguishing between ‘I’ and ‘you’. Betty deployed individualisation in Event Seven (section 8.9) to highlight to the students that she had implemented extra colour options in the paint chart continuum in response to their feedback at the end of Event Six. Chicken also

used individualisation throughout the class action research to make students aware of how the project design, decisions and content explicitly responded to their expressed preferences. For example in Event Four (section 9.8) Chicken oriented the students to the task of designing their home learning trial programmes in pairs by reminding them

So **you've** decided in **your** group how it looks and **we** looked at what the grid looks like and it doesn't have to look like a grid – **you** said that. (CNV3, p. 3)

Lincoln deployed an interesting use of individualisation in the movie-making project to distinguish himself as a consultant to the student collective film studio by requiring the students as film workers to invite his feedback as necessary.

Totalisation and individualisation also were deployed in concert as this example from the Chicken case demonstrates. In Event Three (section 9.6) Chicken positioned the class action research project as a co-constructive collective endeavour through the use of totalising pronouns

Okay. **Guys** what **we're** going to do this session is **we're** going to be looking at something **we** actually started last term. And **you** might remember, in **our** learning journals **we** had, **I** gave you a series of questions. (Chicken, CNV1, p. 1)

In this data example Chicken deployed individualisation to distinguish her action from the students' through the use of 'you' and 'I'. She used totalisation to establish the collective use of 'our' learning journals, even though she herself did not contribute answers to the four home learning questions that underpinned the class action research focus.

Totalisation and individualisation functioned as ubiquitous discursive tools to position students and teachers in relationships in the classroom action research projects. Findings suggest that teachers used these techniques to establish the message that they were responsive to the decisions taken and messages communicated by students, to build a collective class identity as researchers within the action research and to distinguish between teacher and student roles where necessary.

11.1.3 Co-construction – teachers becoming vulnerable

Working to enact co-constructor identities required teachers to become vulnerable to student views and feedback as a necessary part of sharing power with them. Sometimes this feedback was invited directly in the context of a whole class discussion and sometimes it was received indirectly via reading of transcripts from the SRG discussions. It appeared that the teachers interpreted student feedback through a teacher-as-professional lens. Teacher-as-professional refers to a positional identity whereby teachers are visibly in charge and responsible for provoking student learning through pedagogy informed by professional training, knowledge and judgment. The implicit norm (Gore, 1995) that seemed to circulate in their commentary and discussions of student feedback was that ultimately teachers design and own the classroom programme and so student feedback on that programme is, by implication, feedback on them and their practice. They found this challenging. Lincoln spoke for the group when he explained:

It is interesting, it is a little scary handing the kids the camera and saying ‘tell us what you really think’ ... ‘don’t hold back’. (Lincoln, LNI3, p. 12)

Despite experiencing student feedback as scary, Lincoln identified the ability to receive and reflect on student feedback as a necessary part of effective teaching and modeling reflectivity for students.

At the end of the day ... it is a big part the job, being able to reflect on what goes well and what doesn’t and if you can’t do that then it is not really modeling the right things to your kids is it? (Lincoln, LNI3, p. 12)

Throughout the study teachers reflecting on what went well included consideration of student feedback on what went well. This was one way in which teachers made room to learn from student feedback.

Becoming vulnerable to students often involved an element of ‘mea culpa’, with teachers admitting their mistakes as an opening for new possibilities to emerge. Chicken provided an example of this vulnerability.

I’ve even said to the kids ‘look, you know I’m sorry that was my mistake and what could I have done better in that?’ And the kids will say this, this and this.

And it's good because we're often giving feedback to the kids ... and sometimes it's good for them to give you a bit of feedback. (Chicken, CN11, p. 12)

The teachers appeared to view being vulnerable to students as them moving to experience the same vulnerability as students routinely experience in their identity as students. For the SRG students, experiencing the teacher being open to their feedback and reflections acted as visible proof of the teacher listening to them and of their growing influence. Chicken's SRG students made this this explicit in section 9.5 where they talked about how they knew that their teacher was taking their perspectives seriously.

There were however boundaries to teacher comfort with the vulnerability that came with being open to student feedback as part of co-construction of pedagogy and curriculum. These varied among the three teachers and in relation to the focus of the feedback and contextual pressures. Specifically, the teachers contrasted the experience of receiving more general student feedback with receiving specific student feedback on aspects of their practice or classroom programme. They were comfortable engaging with general student voice data but sometimes found specific student feedback difficult to engage with. One example was when Betty experienced her SRG student comments on the efficacy of the successful learner traits goal setting sheets from Action Cycle Two as a personal rather than professional critique.

[This research] is moving towards more like a personal study on me as a teacher and I feel judged, I am starting to feel a bit judged. That the kids are personally judging me and then you are going to come in and observe and video and judge me. And so that is how I am starting to feel about it, whereas before I felt that it was, in general, good teachers do this and I can reflect on it and I know personally what I do and don't do, but now I feel like I am getting hammered with what I don't do well. (Betty, AR2, p. 7)

When the teachers were working directly with their students in the class action research and student feedback was focused on next steps within the project, the teachers felt comfortable with this student feedback; they perceived it as pragmatic and connected to their shared investment in the project. But when feedback was directed around the efficacy of a strategy designed by teachers for

the students, this appeared to be interpreted at times as an evaluative judgment of them a person.

Teacher-as-co-creator appeared to operate in tension with teacher-as-professional identity and teacher-as-performer. Teacher-as-professional identity has been introduced earlier in this section. Teacher-as-performer refers to teachers' enactment of identity in response to external accountability demands on their practice. These three identities were present simultaneously in the classroom action research as each teacher negotiated the macro demands, school expectations and day-to-day nuances of their interaction with their students. Chicken described this interaction as 'going in and out of roles' (section 5.3) to adjust to the various needs of the students and the school. Teacher-as-co-creator is foregrounded in this section because it was the primary identity vehicle through which the teachers worked deliberately to enact governance partnerships with their students. Teacher-as-professional and teacher-as-performer are addressed where the teachers identified these created tension with their goal of enacting student voice.

In sum, teachers opening their practice up for feedback as part of engaging as co-creators with students, represented teachers becoming vulnerable to students. This teacher vulnerability appeared to extend evidence to students of their growing influence as governance partners.

11.1.4 Effects of positioning students as co-creators

Positioning students as co-creators with teachers required particular student capacities related to decision-making and leadership. However when positioned as co-creators the students did not necessarily possess the authoritative or persuasive competencies needed to support their new positioning. The teachers did not initially appreciate the breadth of new competencies their student voice curriculum with students as co-creators would require.

The most explicit example of this was in the Lincoln case where the student Production Team struggled to mobilise the leadership and organisational skills needed to make decisions within their team and to lead the class movie-making project. Only when the students asked for Lincoln's assistance did he offer possible solutions (section 10.7). Lincoln had not initially viewed scaffolding his students' new governance identity as part of his co-creator role.

In the Chicken case where the students worked together to collaboratively analyse their individual perspectives of effective home learning in Event Two (Section 9.4), the SRG students expressed frustration with the quality of their peers' contributions (section 9.5). The collaborative analysis process as implemented did scaffold the students to work together as co-constructors of what counted as effective home learning but it did not include a forum to reflect on the new norms (Gore, 1995) this would involve such as treating students' perspectives as data. Scaffolding the introduction of new norms meant also the need to open up spaces for the reflection on the implication of identity shifts for students.

In Event Seven of the Betty case (section 8.9) gaps in student capacity as inquirers emerged within student reflections on the progress of their inquiry investigations with their partners. All the students who shared their reflections identified aspects of their working relationships as holding up their progress. In some cases Betty did ask the students what they might do differently but this could also have been an opportunity to explicitly build student capacity to collaborate as part of enacting governance partnerships – an ideal expressed by the students in her class during the class action research project.

It appeared that the teachers deploying Face One power to position students as co-constructors of curriculum, pedagogy, research, and in some cases class leadership, also needed to implement an explicit parallel student voice curriculum that focused on building student capacity to govern in order to support the students themselves to exercise Face One power.

11.1.5 Teachers' ethical exercise of power

Although the teachers worked to enact co-constructor identities with their students, at times they deployed their teacher-as-professional authority to promote depth in student learning. All three teachers identified instances where they felt they had to intervene to provoke depth within the students' learning rather than let superficial learning persist unchallenged. This action can be seen as an indication that the teachers did not accept student perspectives uncritically in the classroom action research projects – they employed their professional judgment when they perceived there was an ethical imperative with respect to student learning.

For instance, Chicken challenged her students' understanding of effective home learning through an extended exploration and negotiation of what should count as

effective home learning beyond their home learning work being visually attractive (section 9.5). Betty also instituted an expectation that students would acknowledge their learning strengths as well as weaknesses as a pre-requisite for 'correct' reflection in her class reflection trial (section 8.2). This was in response to students defining reflection as identifying weaknesses to improve in the future without acknowledging their strengths. Lincoln insisted in the movie-making project that students planned out camera angles, story boards and logistical details before filming (section 10.8). This was in response to earlier class movie-making attempts that were unsuccessful due to the students' superficial film-making knowledge.

Although this teacher ethical exercise of their positional authority led to deepened student engagement, insistence on teacher-identified aspects also created an authoritative discourse that in effect constrained student expression. Teacher positional authority to insist on and set particular pre-requisites and outcomes was not matched by a corresponding positional authority to insist, on the part of students, thereby highlighting that students' identities as co-constructors were largely an effect of teachers' identity work. The teacher identity moves initiated student/teacher governance partnerships but in the process highlighted the challenge of positioning students agentially in an ongoing way to define their own preferred identities within student voice initiatives.

11.1.6 Student responses to co-constructive positioning

The SRG students' notions of student/teacher positioning at times clashed with teacher and researcher notions of student/teacher co-construction. They reflected overall on their co-constructive positioning with teachers within Hyde's four categories (see Chapter Two section 2.4)

1. Thankful and amazed;
2. Suspicious but open;
3. Contempt; and
4. Dismayed.

Seven students placed themselves in the 'thankful and amazed' category. These students emphasised the trust and respect of the teacher they experienced as a result of being encouraged to make decisions in relation to their own learning and the direction of the projects, "I'm thankful and amazed because our teacher

obviously respects us enough to make our own decisions and trust us, what we can do” (Captain Underpants, SRGF, p. 4). These students also identified that the opportunity to make increased learning choices that better reflected their personal interests and learning preferences, deepened their engagement with learning, “well it’s kind of better learning what you want to learn because you’re more engaged and you get to learn more” (Asheley Green, SRGF, p. 4). One of these students viewed participating in pedagogical decision-making positioned her as a successful future learner. She viewed decision-making as desirable skill in the job market, “that’s what’s going to help us learn ... in the future ... when we want to get jobs” (Lulabelle, SRGF, p. 4).

Four students placed themselves in the ‘suspicious but open’ category. The main theme emphasised by these students was one of ‘promises not delivered on’ where teachers had in the past promised much student involvement or promised experiences that sounded ‘fun’ but these were either forgotten about, eroded due to time constraints or made boring by how the teacher addressed them pedagogically.

Usually like the teachers’ say ‘oh we’ll do this’ and it sounds really fun and we’re like ‘okay’ and then they never get round to it or they forget about it or they just don’t do it. (Hityu, SRGF, p. 2)

Or they’ll pick an interesting topic and make it really boring and like you have to do this. (Tim Bob Jim, SRGF, p. 2)

One student placed themselves in the ‘dismayed’ category. The student felt that if the teacher did not set the learning direction the students would not know what to do, “[they’re] a teacher not a sit-around-and-watch-us-er” (Flippinschnip, SRGF, p. 2).

One student placed themselves with one foot in the ‘thankful and amazed’ category and one foot in the ‘contempt’ category because she preferred a balance between teacher direction and student autonomy and was not in favour of either extreme,

Sometimes I like to have like the teacher telling us what to do and sometimes I like to do my own thing but I wouldn’t like to have it all the teacher telling us what to do and I wouldn’t like to have it all like we want to do. (Bubbles, SRGF, p. 2)

It appears that the student voice discourses imposed largely by the teachers and the research design made visible student counter-discourses on student voice. This raises the question of whose discourses should prevail?

11.1.7 Summary

Sharing power with students as the primary deployment of Face One power within a student voice agenda was achieved initially through teachers adopting co-structor identities with their students. This identity work for teachers involved an expansion of their vested interest as teachers to include students as governance partners in pedagogical and curriculum decision-making. Rather than zero-sum (Foucault, 1982) conceptualisations of power where teachers would need to lose power for students to gain power, power sharing in this research involved teachers expanding their responsibility to include students participating successfully in pedagogical and curriculum decision-making through the class action research projects.

This expansion of Face One power through co-construction was not without its challenges for teachers, generating tension between the professional responsibilities and accountability demands of their work. Working co-constructively with students involved vulnerability to student feedback that at times was difficult and that showed up boundaries to their willingness to be open to students in the way that students routinely have to be open to teachers' feedback. Student/teacher identity re-positioning threw up the necessity for scaffolding students' capacity as decision-makers in their new roles. Although each teacher attended to some aspects of scaffolding this student capacity, student comments indicate more explicit attention was needed to support students to take up their new positioning and to influence what their positioning might look like.

Co-constructive power sharing created challenges for the SRG students also. Student co-structor identities were largely an effect of teacher identity work despite teachers' use of individualisation and totalisation techniques of power to create collective student/teacher governance identities and to reinforce students' ongoing influence in the classroom action research projects. Students could not draw on positional authority to prevail in shaping a co-structor identity and governance discourses in the same way teachers could. Although SRG students welcomed a chance to have input into learning tasks and co-construct conditions

for learning their responses to being co-constructively positioned were mixed. They preferred status quo arrangements where teachers made decisions around student learning and pedagogy but would take account of student views in the process and offer students choice within teacher-designed tasks. Co-structor identities disrupted the students' tacit beliefs around institutional student/teacher roles, instructional pace and efficiency of teacher decision-making. The SRG students' perspectives indicate they had their own discourses on governance and co-construction that at times highlighted the boundaries for them, of co-constructive student/teacher re-positioning.

11.2 Face Two: Agenda Control and Mobilisation of Resources

Face Two power refers to the 'hidden face' of power; the workings of power that are less visible than identities and relationships but are still exercised relationally and materially through agenda control and mobilisation of resources to vested interests. In this section, I present findings that suggest that Face Two represented the 'wrestle' within the classroom research, where teachers and students enacted governance partnerships in ways specific to them. This wrestling process included student responses to teacher identity moves, the ways in which decision-making agendas were expanded to include students in new ways, and in some cases the ways in which options were constrained or shut down as an effect of the deployment of specific techniques of power.

To explain and illustrate the enactment of Face Two power within student/teacher governance partnerships I present an analysis of student/teacher interaction that highlights what could be spoken about by whom, in what contexts and in what ways. I also show how the use of normalisation and exclusion techniques (Gore, 1995) influenced agenda control boundaries (Lukes, 2005). Student participation in agenda setting was sometimes shut down or ignored, and not all decision-making areas were open to negotiation. From a student vantage point, how the students took up, resisted and critiqued their positioning as governance partners with teachers is also discussed and illustrated.

11.2.1 The Student Voice Curriculum – normalisation and exclusion in action

Across the three projects the students were invited largely to participate in the ongoing development of the classroom action research project. However the

boundaries for participation were influenced by the norms and exclusions (Gore, 1995) the teachers set for the projects which I call the student voice curriculum. These norms – aspects of student learning and performance deemed essential for students to achieve depth of learning within each project – became the authoritative discourse (Scott et al., 2006) that conditioned student participation boundaries within the projects.

At the outset of their classroom action research projects the teachers defined what was normal and important through normalising some ways of thinking, participating and criteria whilst excluding others. These norms took the form of oral and written messages to students related to the teachers' perceptions of what was necessary to achieve the student voice intentions of the respective projects. These teacher-promoted norms became the authoritative discourse associated with a 'student voice curriculum' pertinent to each classroom action research project. The teachers monitored, reinforced and regulated their student voice curriculum norms with praise, and reminders when these were missing in student discourse. An example of this process can be seen in the Betty case where the normalisation of correct reflection practice became important to evaluating the efficacy of the reflection trial at the end of the research. Correct notions of reflection, that is, the students including assessments of their strengths as well as their weaknesses were promoted, monitored and regulated by Betty throughout the Events of the trial. Betty judged that desired student involvement was achieved because her students could engage in correct reflection discourse without teacher prompting; that inclusion of strengths had become 'natural' to students. Betty's use of the term 'natural' indicated that the practice had become normalised in her classroom (section 8.12.3).

Normalisation was practiced as a technique of power (Gore, 1995) by the teachers to define acceptable student working conditions in the project sessions. Again these teacher-defined norms defined student voice practice in each of the three projects. An example of this from the Chicken case occurred in Event Two (section 9.4) when the students were analysing their individual perspectives on home learning before embarking on collaborative analysis of these in their table groups. Chicken delimited acceptable working conditions within the table groups. Neither the students nor Chicken had used the collaborative analysis process before but rather than negotiate the discursive expectations with her students as

could have been one possible approach to engage them agentially, she set the discursive expectations. These norms included:

- No talking during coding of individual home learning perspectives;
- Encouragement of talking during collaborative analysis; and
- Everyone's ideas accepted as part of the collaborative analysis process.

In this way pedagogical practice to elicit student voice was paradoxically defined by Chicken without student involvement. Defining initial norms and working conditions was not opened up to students for negotiation, in any of the three projects, rather teacher authoritative discourse defined the norms of each project, at least initially to set out and establish the student voice curriculum.

Student/teacher wrestling over norms began once the authoritative discourse the teachers promoted within their student voice curriculum became embedded. As the class action research progressed, the students expressed their understandings of key terms and norms and shared these with each other and with their teachers during paired and whole class discussions. In this way the students' contributions gradually expanded the discursive agenda and involved them increasingly in setting the norms of the projects. This occurred in conjunction with a shift in teacher discursive interaction from evaluative to interpretive listening (Brodie, 2010) and an encouragement of active student-student collaboration over sustained timeframes. In short the teachers increasingly asked their students what they thought and student thinking interanimated (Bakhtin, 1981; Scott et al., 2006) with the teacher authoritative discourse about how the action research projects should proceed, under what conditions, to gradually influence the norms of each project and in some respects become the authoritative discourse.

Perhaps the best example of this occurred in Betty's case where the opportunity for the students to share with each other on a whole class basis within the think, pair, share pedagogical structure, surfaced a fourth unofficial criterion important to their developing understanding of effective reflection. For the students the opportunity to know and be known by their peers entered the class discourse through the think, pair, share strategy highlighted in Event Six (section 8.8.2). Over time this criterion, that I call 'collaborative potential' became more overt and was taken up by Betty and became included as a criterion for the adaption and

evaluation of subsequent reflection strategies such as KnowledgeNET forum and Marvelous Metaphors (section 8.12.2).

Increased student influence on the authoritative discourse of the projects seemed to link with the students' growing immersion and confidence with the knowledge concepts that underpinned each of the projects. As the projects progressed the students contested the agenda of the projects more overtly on the basis of their growing experience. One explicit example of this can be seen in the Chicken case where during Event Three (Section 9.6) the students and Chicken were reflecting on the outcome of the vote in terms of the most important dimensions of home learning. During the exchange Chicken used the term 'criteria' and a student challenged her and suggested the more appropriate term to use would be 'standard'. When Chicken drew on past class experience within the project to justify her use of the term 'criteria', the student countered, drawing also on an aspect of his experience drawn from Action Cycle Two to justify his choice of the term 'standard'. By interanimating their own understandings with Chicken's, shared ownership of the project's norms between the students and Chicken strengthened. This was evidenced by Chicken's acquiescence in the instance described to the students' justification. This example demonstrates that the students could prevail to decide key terms if they could justify their position – an underlying and tacit norm of the student voice curriculum in Chicken's class.

11.2.2 Mobilising pedagogical resources through intention and distribution

As part of expanding their vested interests to include students as governance partners the three teachers mobilised (Lukes, 2005) existing classroom practices, and adapted these to involve students in more collaborative decision-making activity with them and with their peers. Distributing (Gore, 1995) students within collaborative working and learning arrangements functioned as a pre-dominant technique of power in Face Two. When the students were organised to collaborate with each other the teachers were able to alter their discourse and participation patterns. Collaborative student-student arrangements allowed the teachers' discourse to shift from evaluative to interpretive (Brodie, 2010) as mentioned in the previous section. The combination of collaborative student working arrangements and teachers' increasingly utilising interpretive listening practices, such as press moves, and divergent and open questioning altered

student/teacher power relations and opened up the decision-making agenda in new ways. Interpretive discursive moves encouraged students to deepen and justify their thinking and reflection on their learning and themselves as learners and signalled the teachers' interest in what the students were thinking. As the students collaborated in pairs, small groups and in whole class discussions the teachers were freed from directing the pedagogical process overtly, to listen to and engage with students' thinking in ways that opened up emergent spaces for students to influence the norms of the projects, in turn influencing the teachers' thinking. This was an unexpected way that teachers learnt from students given that the primary intention for maximising student collaboration was to enable students to decide together. In this way the teachers mobilised their discourse as a pedagogical tool to deepen students' thinking and decision-making capacity in ways needed for their particular project.

The surveillance (Gore, 1995) aspect of the teachers' role – teachers roving amongst and overseeing student learning from the periphery – worked generatively to engage teachers in listening to their students talk and reflect together. In this way increased student talk, in the light of decreased teacher process control, teachers' growing understanding of students, through interpretive listening and press moves, understanding of the efficacy of their teaching from the students' perspective, and student contribution to what counted as important knowledge in the classroom action research projects, shifted the student voice curriculum qualitatively towards co-constructed norms.

However the teachers also mobilised their resources to shut down areas for student participation through agenda control. Evidence does suggest that at times teachers mobilised their resources against the stated aims of their projects. The Lincoln case provides an example of how this occurred. As the term progressed and the difficulties the Production Team experienced with leading the class movie-making project increased, Lincoln mobilised his messages to students and how he participated, away from the completion of the movie in five main ways:

1. After the Production Team indicated they needed more support Lincoln encouraged them to write his role but no data indicates that Lincoln deliberately assisted the students to make better decisions;

2. The evening filming session which would have been an actual start to the movie filming was postponed by Lincoln but not rescheduled;
3. Lincoln's messages to the students were to revise the scale of the movie;
4. Lincoln had originally communicated to the other teachers that the movie project would take more than one term but his messages to the students were to accept that it was dying and completion was expected within the term; and
5. Lincoln offered the Production Team the option to make the movie trailer in Term Four as an independent project extra to their classroom work.

Overall, the teachers' intentions – or their will to power (Foucault, 1977) – functioned to focus their mobilisation of pedagogical resources towards enacting student voice. Pedagogical resources comprised two aspects: the strategy and the distribution of students in relation to the teacher and in relation to each other that the strategy suggested. The teachers' intentions focused how resources were mobilised. In turn, the teachers' intentions were influenced by their broader understanding of student voice from available discourses and the particular student voice intentions of this research. These intentions were vital and a coalescing point for the deliberate crafting of power relations designed to position students as collaborative decision-makers. The intention governed which pedagogical strategies were selected and how these were adapted.

For instance one of Lincoln's student voice intentions was that students would take a greater role in planning the class programme (section 10.1). To re-position students as programme planners he decided to implement a class decision-making hierarchy adapted from the commercial film industry. This led to a classification (Gore, 1995) of students within certain film-related roles and a hierarchical distribution (Gore, 1995) of decision-making power amongst the students, especially concentrating the power to decide with the Production Team. Lincoln mobilised his pedagogical resources to advise the Production Team, contribute technical expertise as invited, provide relevant class work for those not directly involved in decision-making roles and to assist with organisational arrangements. Mobilising his pedagogical resources in this way generated desired autonomous student decision-making. The Production Team students made decisions about how the project would unfold without teacher input to an extent that surprised Lincoln. However this hierarchical student distribution in relation to each other

also produced unintended and unwanted effects on power relations within his class. Almost immediately after the producers and executive producers were selected by the class these students invoked an ‘executive decision’ excluding their peers from selecting the movie Director (section 10.3). The Production team appointed Captain Underpants unilaterally; power that they perceived went with the Production Team responsibility, but deployment of power in a way that as a consequence, excluded the majority of their peers as decision-makers.

One effect of this exclusion was that some students felt more engaged in the movie project than others (section 10.8). Captain Underpants identified this autonomous decision-making power on behalf of his peers as one of the aspects he enjoyed the most about the project because he did not have to argue with anyone to have his own way. In contrast, Asheley Green and Hityu who were not members of the Production Team had to wait until the Production Team offered them a role. They became disengaged with the project as they waited. Lincoln had to intervene to recover the engagement of two-thirds of his class who did not have specific responsibilities in the movie. To achieve this, again he used distribution (Gore, 1995) of students to enact re-engagement. He organised the non-Production Team students into small film groups where everyone was actively involved in aspects of filming and actively involved in formatively assessing their performance in small, defined film projects.

In sum, intentions were vital in focusing the projects in certain ways but how these were actualised through deploying particular techniques of power also influenced outcomes. These produced intended effects on the surface but in some instances also produced effects that ran contrary to the goals the teachers were working to enact.

11.2.3 The mixed messages of routine: spatial arrangements and conventional roles

Analysis of how power operates at the micro level includes examination of the messages transmitted within routine (McGregor, 2004). In this research this included exploring spatial positioning – a variant of distribution (Gore, 1995) – between teachers and students. Chicken referred to ‘getting down to their level’ as a power sharing practice with students (section 5.4). However espoused commitment to egalitarian spatial positioning was contradictory in practice.

Teachers continued to invoke height differentiation that signaled their differing authority and positioning in relations of power. For example during whole class research sessions in Betty's room she sat on a chair and all but a couple of students sat on the mat. Similarly Chicken predominantly either sat on the chair at the mobile teaching station and the students sat on the mat if she was facilitating a project session or she stood and roved and the students sat at their desks. However when the students were working collaboratively in groups making sense of their collective data in Event Two and planning their home learning in Event Four Chicken did join student groups and sit with them or bob down next to them as she engaged with their ideas. In Lincoln's classroom research where the student Production Team governed their classmates, members of the team led class meetings sitting or standing at the front of the room with the class sitting on the mat. Lincoln stood off to the side of the class or in his office.

Disrupting routine power relations between teachers and students involved using familiar pedagogical processes in new ways. Pedagogical strategies employed within the class action projects consisted predominantly of participatory strategies. One particular strategy that illustrates how conventional student/teacher power relations were disrupted was the electronic 'fruit picker' used by Betty to select students to speak in whole class sharing within the think, pair, share strategy. The fruit picker enabled the teacher to move out of the selection role which in turn removed the potential for selection based on favouritism, charisma, or to encourage reluctant participants. The students and the teacher trusted that the fruit picker selected students at random and they accepted that a student selected would contribute. When Betty 'spun' the fruit picker student sighs could be heard as they missed out on selection. One student when asked to reflect on the paint chart strategy noted jokingly that the fruit picker did not select students fairly, presumably because it did not pick her. However when Betty and I watched the footage of Event Seven, (Section 8.9) she commented that one of the students selected by the fruit picker to speak was usually a non-participant. This student spoke and was supported to contribute to the class sharing with Betty's aid in the form of re-formulations and the insertion of correct terms to make his contribution coherent.

Disrupting routine also involved examining who got to introduce and lead the classroom action research projects. In the Chicken and Betty cases it was the

teacher who led the project sessions. In the Lincoln case by contrast it was the Production Team and this was an overt disruption of routine as part of positioning students as decision-makers with influence over the class programme.

In the Betty case a crack was opened for the possibility of the students leading the evaluation of one of the Marvelous Metaphor reflection strategy towards the end of the project (section 8.12.2). Unfortunately the implementation of this reflection strategy occurred beyond the timeframe of this research but Betty indicated her intention that students would facilitate the evaluation session for this strategy. In the Lincoln case interestingly, the Production Team adopted ‘teacher-in-charge’ positioning to run class meetings. This meant they positioned themselves standing at the front of the class with their classmates seated on the mat. They also used formal procedural discourse ‘and now’ to progress the session, they recorded formal minutes of the meeting and they made explicit turn-taking rules that required students to raise their hands to speak and wait to be selected (section 10.4).

11.2.4 Agenda control boundaries

Within the three cases boundaries to student involvement in the decision-making agenda of the three action research projects were evident. Some areas students were welcomed into and some areas they had to contest to gain access. Instances occurred within the classroom research where the students’ perspectives were ignored or not engaged within the ongoing development of the project pedagogy. Boundaries to what students were able to influence were evident within some aspects of the classroom projects more than others. In the Chicken case the students negotiated consistently the success criteria for effective home learning, as well as engaged with and adapted each other’s ideas for relevant home learning activities and grid designs in Event Four. However they were largely excluded from designing the pedagogical process of the project; this process was developed between Chicken and me as an unintended effect of the action research design. Individual teacher planning and reflection sessions with me to support teachers’ learning, functioned also to exclude students from aspects of the ongoing wrestle of the classroom action research focus, shape and process. In the Betty case the students selected the reflection strategies to trial and evaluated these consistently across the project against the reflection strategy assessment matrix, but the overall pedagogical process of trialing four strategies in two separate contexts by voting

was designed by Betty. In the Lincoln case the class decided to make the movie, the Production Team negotiated the content and the movie-making process but increasingly the students outside the Production Team were excluded largely from decisions about the movie by the Production Team.

However exclusion of students from contesting certain areas of the pedagogical agenda emerged also during classroom action research sessions. For instance during Event Three in the Chicken case some students attempted to make suggestions to Chicken on how the blind voting process might succeed (section 9.6). These suggestions were ignored, in that Chicken did not acknowledge or respond to the suggestions; she decided how to proceed. Interestingly the student Production Team adopted this strategy also in the Lincoln case during the class meeting of Event Three (section 10.4) to manage intrusions into off-limits agenda areas. For instance when one of their classmates outside the Production Team contributed an organisational suggestion for managing the upcoming actor audition process smoothly, the Producers did not respond to their classmate; they paused and then asked if anyone had any questions indicating possibly that questions were welcome, but process suggestions were not. These instances suggest that when students ventured into implicit off-limits agenda areas during classroom action research sessions, their intrusions were managed by being ignored.

Instances occurred within the cases where students appeared to ‘blurt’ out dangerous statements, opinions and needs that breached their conventional subject positioning as students to say something new and potentially controversial. In this way the students challenged the boundaries of the decision-making agenda to expand their possibilities for action and co-constructive identity within the research. For instance, later in Lincoln’s movie-making project Captain Underpants blurted a controversial statement to let Lincoln know directly that the Production Team needed more assistance from him to succeed with running the movie-making project (section 10.7). Although Lincoln accepted Captain Underpants’ observation constructively the other Production Team members’ response to Captain Underpants suggests that his view was controversial. They immediately moved to distance themselves from Captain Underpants’ statement, leaving him potentially exposed and vulnerable to Lincoln’s response. However Lincoln’s positive engagement with Captain Underpants signaled his openness to

student feedback and almost immediately other members of the Production Team joined in to share their needs and issues also.

Another illustrative example of blurring dangerous discourse occurred in an SRG meeting with Chicken's students. Honey Bunny and Pockit Rockit both critiqued the process of working collaboratively in table groups to identify main themes from their collective ideas around effective home learning in Event Two (section 9.5). Honey Bunny felt the contributions of her group lacked diversity of ideas. Pockit Rockit felt that group members copied each other rather than engaging seriously with the focus of the task. A pause in Honey Bunny's reflection on the Table Groups activity signaled that she was about to make a controversial statement. The silence was broken by Pockit Rockit who urged Honey Bunny to "like say it" (CNSRG2, p. 8). This indicated the existence of a counter-discourse circulating amongst the students but not for sharing with their teacher or with me. The students appeared to perceive that holding certain views around the organisation of the activity might be sanctioned or negatively perceived by their teacher and by me. This may have been because the collaborative analysis table group strategy was promoted as a student voice practice by Chicken but was not a practice developed collaboratively with the students.

One technique of power that I noticed was missing in all three class action research projects was teacher use of regulation (Gore, 1995) to enforce desired student behaviour or censure undesirable behaviour. This is in line with Gore's (1995) findings that regulation and surveillance are practiced instead subtly through norms and exclusions as was illustrated earlier in this section. Only two instances that I would characterise as regulation could be found in the class action research projects. In the Lincoln case when the class meeting of Event Three led by the Production Team became rowdy as the producers recorded a large number of student names (Section 10.4) Lincoln intervened with a single 'ahhh' from the back of the room that immediately quelled the noise and returned the students to compliance with the producers. Similarly in the Chicken case the students became restless when Chicken had to attend to a cross-country related interruption (Section 9.6). In this case Chicken apologised to the students indicating that she knew the interruption was prolonging an already long blind vote process. In this case it appeared that the students' restlessness regulated Chicken's behaviour also, and encouraged her to resume her role as facilitator of the vote quickly.

The absence of these overt techniques of control appeared to indicate the teachers' commitment to interacting in less controlling ways with their students as an aspect of enacting governance partnerships. On the other hand, especially in the early stages of the three projects, the teachers' agenda control was exercised by the facilitation roles they took on, the norms that comprised their student voice curriculums, their spatial positioning in relation to their students and their dominance of narrating each project session.

11.2.5 Summary

Face Two power operated to define, expand, and contest the negotiated agenda for student influence within the three classroom action research projects. To enact increased student involvement in classroom decision-making the teachers utilised and adapted familiar pedagogical strategies. These strategies imposed particular spatial arrangements on how students were positioned in relation to each other and in relation to the teacher in classroom activity. This in turn conditioned the parameters of their participation in student voice-related action. The pedagogical strategies selected by the teachers also shifted them into more indirect power relationships with their students. They stepped aside from undertaking direct control of some classroom activities such as leading class discussions. This action of stepping aside also opened up new avenues for the teachers to learn about their students as they roved amongst student groups and listened to students talk and reflect. In this respect the power technique of distribution (organising individuals in relation to each other) implemented by the teachers to open up new collaborative ways for student to interact and influence pedagogical decision-making and curriculum agendas, opened up a channel for student influence on teachers' thinking also.

Stepping to the side also expanded the student voice curriculum of each classroom action research project. Horizontal discourses between students emerged. The students shared what they knew they were learning and their reflections on aspects of themselves as learners with each other, increasingly using strategies such as re-voicing (Carroll, 2005) to build on their emerging understandings together (see section 8.8.1). These horizontal student discourses in turn influenced the thinking of their teachers and influenced the norms that became important within each class' student voice curriculum.

However this section has also shown that despite the emergence of these influential horizontal student discourses, boundaries still existed within the classroom decision-making agendas of each classroom action research project. Students were involved in debating and deciding what counted as important knowledge within each case more than they were involved in designing the curriculum and pedagogical processes of the action research projects. This is notable in that it suggests an aspect of student/teacher governance within teachers' sphere of influence to share with students. Some of the pedagogical processes imposed by the teachers re-positioned students in relation to their peers to negotiate the activities of the classroom action research projects in ways that they did not prefer. Student counter-discourses around this positioning critiqued the teachers' student empowerment intentions by making explicit some of the contradictory effects of student collaboration that the students did not enjoy or have the influence to change from their vantage point.

Taken together this section demonstrates that opening up decision-making agendas to students and mobilising specific pedagogical resources to enact student voice practice can be productive and problematic at the same time. The specific interventions in the form of pedagogical practices instituted to enact governance partnerships were experienced very differently by the teachers and by students from between and within their different political vantage points and identities within the research.

11.3 Face Three: Governmentality through Prevailing Educational and Societal Discourses

The third dimension of faced power relates to the governmental influences (Foucault, 1991a) prevailing educational and societal discourses exerted on teachers' and students' perceptions of possibilities for action within student voice classroom practice.

The three teachers most explicitly addressed aspects of third dimensional power (Lukes, 2005) when they reflected together on the challenges of enacting co-constructive governance partnerships with their students. In this section I outline the outside influences related to broader discourses that the three teachers identified as constraining their practice. I also explore the margins of liberty (Foucault, 1988a) the teachers perceived they had for the exercise of professional

judgment about what was needed to enact governance partnerships with their students. The Third Face accountability influences that they discussed included actual and potential surveillance and monitoring (Gore, 1995) of their teaching practice in relation to student achievement results in curriculum areas of national priority. It also included the perceived influences of senior leaders, colleagues, parents and professional discourse communities on the efficacy of teachers' decision-making and their professional competence related to student achievement results. The teachers discussed how accountability demands external to the classroom constrained where they located their projects and whether and how they perceived their co-constructive governance partnerships with student as legitimate. Drawing on the cases I demonstrate how issues of power within teacher voice emerged as the teachers sought to mediate students' identified interests, their own judgments about what was needed in the classroom action research and circulating student voice discourses advocated in the research and circulating within their professional development contexts. I illustrate that one effect of this complex negotiation for teachers was that by identifying student voice potential within familiar pedagogical strategies and co-constructive ways of relating with students they reclaimed and re-visioned their existing professional knowledge and brought student voice into their sphere of influence.

11.3.1 Co-construction and accountability in tension

The central tension that the teachers wrestled with in their class action research projects was negotiating co-constructive discourses with their students within the school and broader accountability discourses circulating in New Zealand at the time of the study. This tension was made explicit by the three teachers:

- | | |
|---------|---|
| Betty | Like we are told to do all this co-constructing thing but then we are told, we need these results and these targets met and they don't really match. |
| Chicken | It is really hard to get them to connect. |
| Betty | You don't know what's more important. |
| Lincoln | It is hard and you are working harder than the kids, when you are having to do that, you are having to bring them from there, to try and match that back up to now. |
| Chicken | And you sort of and you end up 'wooooo' [gestures overwhelm] |

Betty So you are told to do everything but they are two different ends of the spectrum.
(AR1, p. 11)

Teacher dialogue indicated that they experienced working co-constructively with students as clashing with macro accountability demands. National accountability demands were translated into school-wide expectations that had implications for teachers' curriculum design and priorities. The teachers recognised that targeted instruction responsive to the needs of students was an aspect of effective teaching. However the audience for student achievement data beyond the school such as the Ministry of Education, Education Review Office and parents, within an accountability framework set up high stakes consequences for teachers if students did not meet expected achievement targets.

Yes we have got targets. We have got kids that we have to target in literacy and they have to meet those targets if not more ... You panic. If I give the kids too much freedom are they going to meet the criteria? And then it comes back to you. Why aren't they, in interviews, then parents are saying, why aren't they [achieving]? What is happening? (Chicken, AR1, p. 6)

Teachers were concerned whether affording students greater freedom to explore and make decisions in relation to curriculum was at odds with students achieving prescribed targets. The threat of challenge to their professionalism in relation to external agency demands at the macro level and colleagues and parents at the school (meso) level created a high stakes pedagogical environment for teachers, especially with regard to literacy.

I think also with literacy, there is a massive emphasis on it like staff-wide. And all these tests and we get all this stuff through at the end of the year and you see in black and white. You see where your kids have moved to and not moved to and for me, it is kind of scary. If I gave them too much leeway and then they didn't meet those test targets then your room looks bad. So there is so much you have to cover and this has to get better in reading and this has to get better in writing and you really have to go down that avenue. (Betty AR1, pp. 5-6)

Teachers sought to manage the competing accountability demands and conditions needed for co-construction by locating their classroom research action research projects within low-stakes curriculum areas.

I think it is good that we have the inquiry and the PE where we can branch out and have some of the co-construction. And the kids, I don't think they mind that they don't get as much say as long as they feel as a whole that they are getting a say. (Betty, AR1, p. 6)

As a caveat the teachers agreed that all curriculum areas lent themselves to negotiated decision-making with students, but given the realities of current accountability demands, low-stakes curriculum areas offered more potential, at least in an initial exploration of student/teacher pedagogical governance.

Another way the teachers negotiated the accountability demands was to engage in self-policing throughout their classroom research. This took the form of an internal meta-commentary to evaluate how their student voice practice might be viewed by 'someone coming in' to monitor and judge their practice. An example was Betty's questioning of whether or not the student voice oral and collaborative reflection culture developed in her class action research project produced sufficient recorded proof that students were learning and reflecting on their learning and themselves as learners (section 8.12.4). The question for her was would the project produce the evidence she needed to account for student learning?

In sum, macro discourses of accountability and the need to focus on nationally-identified priority curriculum areas such as literacy clashed with the notions of a co-constructive pedagogy for teachers. This clash influenced teachers' decision-making in this study. Teachers avoided locating their classroom action research projects in high stakes curriculum areas to maximise the conditions conducive for co-construction and to avoid potential professional censure that could result from students not attaining expected achievement targets. These accountability discourses also influenced teachers' feelings of efficacy related to their co-constructive practice with students and the self-policing (Foucault, 1988b) in which they engaged to navigate the competing demands on their classroom practice.

11.3.2 Effects of school organisational structures on power sharing

Across the duration of the research the school-wide organisational structures included notably:

1. School-wide events – science fair, camp, production, Life Education, speech finals;
2. School-wide curriculum focus concepts for the school inquiry learning programme – discovery, challenge, communication, creative expression; and
3. School timetable and related interruptions – students leaving class for extra-curricular commitments, school notices, other teachers coming in, students with messages.

To accommodate school-wide events and curriculum focus concepts teachers sought to integrate school expectations into their classroom action research.

Trying to find ways to tie everything in, like we have got speeches this term so it is trying to find a way that, is there a way that we can time our speeches so that we can write into the movie somehow or some way, just so that you don't have these little things on the side. (Lincoln LNI2, p. 8)

They also integrated the school-wide focus concepts for inquiry learning into the focus of their class action research projects. This meant that in Action Cycle Three each class action research addressed an aspect of 'communication' and 'creative expression' either in the focus of their research or in the class programme content over the time of the research. In the most explicit example of this Betty reflected on the value of the video reflection strategy of Event Four applied to the students' inquiry learning research. From recording the students' video diaries Betty gained an understanding of the students' uptake of the concepts of communication and creative expression (section 8.6).

Just as the teachers looked for ways to integrate the diverse curricular and extra-curricular expectations of the school, they also had to accommodate the school timetable that most notably produced numerous interruptions to their class programmes. Betty drew attention to interruptions as an issue, noting as one of our collaborative action research meetings was interrupted for the daily notices over the intercom, "I wonder how many of your interviews have not got one of these in?" (Betty, AR4, p. 8).

The school timetable also constrained possibilities for classroom action in other ways. Across the school students cross-grouped for mathematics, attended

specialist technology programmes, and were scheduled for physical education, library and computer suites at certain times. Additional to this students attended extra-curricular programmes during class time. All these timetabled events took precedence over the class programme. One overt example of this occurred in the Chicken case in Event Three where she was attempting to conduct the class blind vote to finalise the dimensions of effective home learning whilst juggling the interruptions to her programme brought about by organisation for the school cross country and students leaving for last-minute running practices (section 9.7).

Lincoln characterised the influence of a regimented school timetable as part of the organisational fabric of an intermediate school. He compared the timetable demands of the intermediate with his previous experience within a primary school.

How I'd done a similar movie thing at a different school a number of years ago, it worked really well in terms of the timetable there, because your day was your day. You could go out for PE pretty much when you wanted to, maths, there wasn't maths changes across the school, so you were flexible with when you would do maths ... the whole thing was freed up to really allow us to incorporate everything into it. (Lincoln, LNI3, p. 7)

In this respect the timetable, although designed to provide equitable access to school resources (PE gear, library), enhance student learning through targeted teaching (cross-grouping for maths) and ensure rich specialist technology and extra-curricular learning for students, in the context of enacting student voice in the classroom it acted as a disciplinary tool (Foucault, 1977) that constrained teachers' ability to generate the responsive practice that was considered ideal by them.

The teachers were also required to attend multiple meetings outside of class time and engage in multiple extra-curricular activities each week. These constrained the time available for teachers to reflect on, prioritise and plan student voice related practice as well as practice that addressed their other passions and curriculum expectations.

Without saying that it is what definitely happens, it is the end of term and it has been a busy term – it is my own personal feeling and not anyone else's that there

is times where it feels like 80% of the time, you feel like you are being told what to do and how to do it and you take 20% of the time to actually implement it.

One casualty of this tension appeared to be teachers' feelings of ownership of their professional time to plan for the nuanced needs of their students. Lincoln described the effects of negotiating these competing expectations for teachers as 'drowning'.

There is all the time in the world without being told to do this and do that, on top of that and you think, you are being told so many different things and you just drown under it sometimes. (Lincoln, AR1, p. 9)

Developing relevance and responsiveness to their particular students at the micro-level of the classroom invoked tacit totalising (Gore, 1995) school expectations for the teachers' practice around conformity and the collective identity of the school. For example Chicken's action research project individualised the school home learning structure to increase the programme's relevance to the needs of her class. This practice was tolerated during 2010 but the following year she was asked to comply with the school-wide home learning programme. This request for compliance subsumed the needs of her class within the goal of creating conformity across the school.

Lincoln attempted to create an integrated classroom programme based around making a movie as an attempt to respond to the preferences of his students for curriculum coherence. However, he too came up against the expectations set up by the school timetable that challenged him to find ways to reconcile the integrated classroom as movie studio with unrelated curriculum tasks that could not be put off. He viewed this as a productive challenge to address as part of his action research, but as the term progressed he found this more and more difficult to achieve.

Taken together the three teachers attempted to centre the needs of the students in their classes as the decision point for creating curriculum relevance and responsiveness. However in doing so, governmental expectations at the school level that conditioned their actions from a distance, were revealed. This is not to say the moves the teachers made with their students did not create new opportunities and identity positioning, but the school and macro-levels pushed

back, revealing their hidden and conditioning influence on possibilities for teachers' and students' action within the classroom-based student voice initiatives.

11.3.3 Re-claiming local knowledge through concrete practice

The previous sections have highlighted how accountability demands and school-level expectations influenced teachers' possibilities for action and efficacy within their class action research projects. At the same time, the challenge of enacting student/teacher governance partnerships increased the teachers' recognition of student voice practices in familiar pedagogical strategies and class practices. The teachers noted that this recognition of their practice as 'student voice' practice affirmed their identities as co-constructors with students (see section 8.12.4). The recognition also alerted them to further concrete possibilities for extending student voice practice within their classrooms.

In this respect, whilst enacting governance partnerships, involved specific and substantive challenges for each of the three teachers, it also contributed to reclaiming their local knowledge and teacher voice through affirming their practice. At the outset of the project student voice was perceived by the teachers as, 'out there' circulating in their school and in professional development domains. However through the action research projects each of the three teachers enacted student voice by adapting familiar pedagogical practices such as 'think, pair, share', class meetings and assessment for learning tools such as WALTs and success criteria as avenues for student/teacher co-construction of important knowledge. In turn deployment of these adapted practices extended prevailing discourses circulating amongst the teachers about what student voice could look like – what a teacher could do, what a student could and would do, and what teachers and students could and would do together in a way that brought abstract ideals into their sphere of influence. In this sense teachers and students together countered powerful discourses of student voice as non-conventional by reclaiming and reframing local pedagogical knowledge, by mobilising their familiar pedagogical resources to translate a motivating yet abstract notion of student voice into the concrete pragmatic domain of classroom activity.

On the other hand, in extending how student voice could look the three teachers were also vulnerable to how those in positional authority over them understood student voice in practice. Betty described this tension as she reflected on how her

facilitation of reflection trial sessions might be perceived of as teacher-directed practice by someone else coming into her room. This evaluation would make her vulnerable to existing school appraisal and monitoring techniques such as the ‘four-minute classroom walk through’ by the school’s senior leaders. It appeared that how the three teachers perceived that student voice would be perceived by others looking in on their practice influenced how the teachers perceived their own student voice practice as has been explored earlier in the chapter (section 11.3.1).

11.3.4 Summary

Although the teachers held the most visible positional authority within the student/teacher relationship during the classroom research, their perceptions of decision-making possibilities available to them for creating governance partnerships with students were influenced by Face Three macro accountability discourses that set up particular demands on their practice. Accountability demands clashed with co-constructive pedagogy ideals generating a significant dilemma for teachers not easily resolved. The teachers made student voice decisions in awareness of actual and potential surveillance of their practice by external agencies, senior leaders and the parent community. Even when teachers challenged existing conventions for example giving priority to oral collaborative reflective processes over written and individual records of student reflection, creating potential issues around proof of learning, they engaged in self-policing around the efficacy of their practice as others might view it. This self-policing aspect of governmentality produced a number of effects. The teachers’ confined their enactment of student voice with their students to low-stakes curriculum areas of inquiry learning during the classroom action research projects of Action Cycle Three. The teachers operated largely within these parameters rather than challenge the expectations of the broader school context.

This broader school context conditioned possibilities for action within the classroom student voice projects also. The school-wide curriculum and the school-wide time table as well as professional development expectations within the school influenced what was possible for teachers, and as a flow-on effect, students. The three class action research projects had to fit in within the broader identity, rhythms and expectations of the larger school subsuming the challenge of

generating responsive practice into a broader expectation of maintaining conformity across classes in the school.

11.4 Chapter Summary

Power conditioned possibilities for student and teacher actions in the classroom action research projects in nuanced ways. Teachers worked to position students as governance partners through enacting co-structor identities with them. This teacher deployment of Face One power involved students in pedagogical and curriculum decision-making so that they could deploy aspects of Face One power to influence the classroom action research projects. This new positioning for students required new action for teachers. They worked within the Face One domain to scaffold student capacity to engage in co-constructive governance action. However findings suggest that despite deliberate teacher work to scaffold influential student participation, student capacity building for ongoing influence remained an issue.

To enact student/teacher governance partnerships teachers expanded their vested interests. They ‘stepped aside’ into more indirect pedagogical roles sharing responsibility for debate over what counted as important knowledge in the classroom action research projects with students. This stepping aside involved teachers noticing and disrupting default practices of teacher-in-charge decision-making where these decision points were opportunities for students to influence decisions that would conventionally have been made by teachers exclusively. Student influence did not however always prevail. The teachers intervened at times to deploy their positional authority to ensure depth in student learning. This action highlighted that even when taking on largely co-structor identities teachers could draw on their positional authority to insist on particular outcomes in a way that students could not. Students did not have the power to insist despite teachers’ expansion of their vested interests to include students in this way. While teachers’ ethical exercise of power to insist on particular outcomes worked to ensure deep student learning their intervention also functioned as a student voice curriculum to impose on students what student voice could mean for them.

Building co-structor identities with students as a deployment of Face One power involved teachers becoming vulnerable to student feedback on aspects of their practice. They viewed this as modeling openness and as taking on the

vulnerability they routinely expected of students. The teachers were open to this feedback from students when it was related to next steps in the classroom action research projects but tended to view student feedback as personal critique when this feedback was focused on particular aspects of pedagogy that they designed.

Although positioning students to engage in the classroom research as co-constructors expanded the student/teacher relationship in new ways, student positioning as co-constructors was largely an effect of teaching identity work. Discussion with SRG students identified that in many respects, co-constructor identities disrupted these students' expectations of student/teacher positioning. Although many of the SRG students enjoyed the opportunity to have a say in pedagogical and curriculum decision-making through the classroom action research projects, they also felt that teachers were more qualified and efficient at making pedagogical decisions and that student debate was more focused when this occurred within teacher-controlled discussion forums.

In this research Face Two power focused primarily on agenda control and mobilisation of resources to achieve certain goals. Teachers deployed Face Two power initially by normalising certain messages and associating these with student voice in their class action research projects. Normalisation was utilised by the teachers to rehearse acceptable discourse and re-vision student working relationships. Normalisation was coupled with evaluative listening to monitor and check that students understood the key messages and processes that teachers had promoted. Once key messages were established the teachers' discourse shifted to interpretive listening – listening to understand student thinking. This shift in patterns of teacher discourse enabled students to increasingly influence the norms associated with student voice within the projects. The importance of knowing and being known by each other as learners emerged from the student body to influence the agenda of the classroom action research projects. As a consequence, increasingly, teachers assessed the potential of pedagogical and organisational strategies to promote student collaboration. In this way increased student influence in turn influenced the teachers' thinking on the importance of student collaboration as an aspect of student voice.

As students' confidence with the content and focus of each class action research project grew they increasingly contested the meaning of key terms with teachers.

They also suggested ways to expand the decision-making agenda so that they could be involved more influentially. In some cases students initiated this influential involvement through deployment of re-voicing moves to shift the pedagogy and discourse patterns of the class action research projects towards collaborative patterns of engagement that they preferred.

Teachers utilised distribution as a Face Two power technique to arrange students in relation to each other so that they could more easily, and increasingly, collaborate. This mobilisation of pedagogical resources and organisation enabled the creation of new powerful student positioning and participation in classroom decision-making.

However, at the same time some areas of the classroom decision-making agenda were not available for co-construction by students. Students could contest what counted as important knowledge in any of the three action research projects but teachers maintained overall control of the pedagogical and research framework of the projects.

Analysis focused on Face Three power illustrated how teachers' professional autonomy was circumscribed by the nested influences they had to engage with in their pedagogic work. Face Three macro accountability demands clashed for teachers with messages about engaging co-constructively with students. Pre-set student achievement targets and prescribed pedagogies in curriculum areas of national priority influenced teachers to locate their class action research projects in low-stakes areas of the curriculum. The three classroom action research projects were located within the classroom inquiry learning programme where teachers and the SRG students agreed the potential for student voice unfettered by accountability demands was greatest.

However even within low-stakes curriculum areas issues of accountability around student achievement remained for teachers as they worked to enact student/teacher governance partnerships. Actual and potential surveillance of teachers' work meant that they judged the efficacy of their student voice work through an accountability to others lens rather than a responsibility to students lens. Even though they could articulate student growth in valued outcomes within the class action research projects the teachers were still tentative in their assessment of the efficacy of their practice in light of how it might be viewed by

others such as external agencies, senior leaders, colleagues and parents. A key finding was that enacting student voice through the adaption of familiar pedagogical strategies and classroom practices enabled teachers to connect the somewhat abstract ideals of student voice with concrete pedagogical strategies. This realisation enabled them to develop situated meanings of student voice with their students and to revision student voice and student voice practice as something that was within their sphere of influence.

School level expectations exerted Face Three influence on possibilities for teachers' and students' actions. Totalisation brought about by the school curriculum and timetable expectations clashed with the teachers and students working together to individualise aspects of the classroom programme to better take account of student voice. The classroom programmes needed to fit with broader school curriculum and timetable constraints. Teachers' response was to try to work within these school level constraints rather than challenge them, looking for ways to integrate school-level nuances creatively and coherently.

Overall, this chapter has demonstrated that each of the three faces of power, and the techniques of power that operate with these, can be used to provide an account of teacher and student experience as they enacted student/teacher governance partnerships to generate pedagogy responsive to student voice. The power analytic frame enabled identification of the influences of not only the new interventions generated and enacted within the cases but also of the routine and taken-for-granted norms, roles and practices also. Findings show that whilst new and meaningful instantiations of identity, agenda, pedagogical practices and discourse emerged for teachers and students, the vantage points from which these were experienced influenced how these were perceived in terms of power sharing and influence.

Chapter Twelve: Is this student voice? Answering Back

In this chapter I answer the research questions and discuss key findings of the research, with a focus on the efficacy of the student/teacher governance partnerships developed as enacted student voice for this research. Three particularly important findings emerged in relation to the efficacy of governance partnerships as enacted student voice. The first finding is that the vantage point from which classroom action is viewed influences how student voice is perceived. In this study teachers and students viewed the classroom research activities quite differently making a blanket answer to the question ‘Is this student voice?’ impossible. The second finding is that while all actors are constrained by power relations, all actors deploy power resources to establish influence through multiple resources. Power is central to the enactment of student voice but it is all too often ignored. The power analytic frame developed for this research illuminates nuances in ways that identities, classroom agendas and pedagogical resources represent key resources of power. The third finding is that student discourses of student voice, namely the importance to students of opportunities to know and be known as learners by their peers through collaboration in the classroom, challenge the focus of governance partnerships and other forms of student voice on building student/teacher influence. For students in this study the opportunity to know and collaborate with peers appeared more important to students than having increased influence with teachers.

I begin this chapter by discussing these key findings and their relationships to governance partnerships as enacted student voice. Next I elaborate implications of the study for school-wide teacher professional development and for policy makers. I then outline the limitations of the research and implications for further research before ending the chapter with some concluding remarks.

12.1 The Influence of Vantage Point on Perceptions of Student Voice

My findings show that the vantage point from which the classroom action is viewed influences whether or not it is perceived as student voice by classroom actors. The teachers, from their vantage point, evaluated their classroom action research as student voice because they could identify desired student behaviour that they associated with student voice within their classroom action research projects. For instance Betty’s thoughts on the reflection trial indicated she viewed

this as enacted student voice because decisions over the shape of the project were decided by students (sections 8.12.1 and 8.12.4). Chicken reflected on the success of her students as researchers and aligned their engagement and initiative with the student voice Ladder of Pupil Participation heuristic (section 9.11.1). Lincoln reflected that the students demonstrated student ownership of the movie-making project. Lincoln's class project had also provided opportunities for students to learn more about themselves as learners and their expectations of him as a teacher (section 10.11.1).

The teachers also identified, in these same and similar examples, how their own professional identities had shifted in ways that afforded students more influence and teachers engaged more as co-learners alongside them. These co-learner identities involved a degree of vulnerability to feedback from students (section 11.1.3). Teachers viewed openness to student feedback on aspects of their practice as important part of building student influence. This commitment introduced an element of reciprocity into their relationship with students where the one-way flow of pedagogical decision-making was disrupted to flow back towards teachers; a process Cook-Sather (2002) argues is a key aspect of enacting student voice.

However from their vantage points, the students in the classroom and within the SRG group were more ambivalent in how they characterised their class action research experiences. On the one hand they were afforded considerable influence in the focus, scope and content of their classroom action research projects and their reflections indicated they appreciated this influence as illustrated by comments made by Lincoln's students (section 11.1.6) and Lincoln's expressed trust in their decision-making capabilities (section 11.1.6). But on the other hand they reflected that the pedagogical interventions created within the classroom research, disrupted classroom norms that had previously worked for them as students.

The shift from more conventional classroom practices to more governance-focused partnerships required a move from espousal of preferences to action for both students and teachers. This move from student voice as an add-on to mainstream pedagogical activity (Thomson, 2011) appeared to challenge some students' experience and preferences of how their classroom should run. Their

reflections indicated that the ongoing, debate and decision-making processes of the classroom action research interventions disrupted their perceptions of the norms of activity pace, and of student/teacher roles in pedagogical decision-making (see sections 8.11 and 9.10.1). Whilst they increasingly identified the importance of peer collaboration they also identified that they preferred this collaboration to occur within strong pedagogical direction provided by the teacher.

This finding affirms Hyde's (1992a) finding around the nuances of students' responses to being involved in curriculum design with teachers. Some students welcomed involvement, some students were suspicious and some were disdainful. However the finding also extends this work and the literature (Cremin, et al., 2011; Morgan, 2011) in illuminating the relations of vulnerability created for students in relation to their peers by the teacher stepping out of a direct mode of pedagogical control.

From the teachers' vantage point increased student talk in the public pedagogical spaces of the classroom increasingly influenced and informed their thinking and consequently, the shape of the emergent student voice curriculum. The participatory pedagogical arrangements of the classroom action research that the SRG students were ambivalent to, paradoxically enabled the conditions for students to increasingly talk about their learning and themselves as learners with their teachers and with each other, and they valued these opportunities. This process meant that their teachers both directly through classroom conversations, and indirectly through research-facilitated workshops and analysis sessions, had more access to student responses to the pedagogies that they were using.

In sum, from student vantage points, decisions made about the pedagogical structure of the class action research projects influenced their working arrangements with their peers. The pedagogical interventions disrupted conventional arrangements that had largely worked for some of the students who engaged in the research as SRG members (Cremin, Mason, & Busher, 2011) but enhanced the efficacy of others (section 11.1.6). However these same conditions that challenged students, on the other hand produced student influence on what counted as important knowledge in the student voice curriculums in their classes.

12.2 Power Analytic Frame: A Contribution to Student Voice

Matters of power tend to be overlooked or underplayed in student voice research (Fielding, 2004a; C. Taylor & Robinson, 2009). The mash-up of Lukes' (1974, 2005) three-dimensional theory of faced power, Foucault's (1977) microphysics of power and theories of discourse (Gee, 2012) into a power analytic frame developed to understand the dynamics of student voice enactment is a significant contribution of this research to theorising power within the student voice field. In this section I discuss this contribution and highlight pertinent aspects the power analytic frame illuminated related to research question four: *'how does power condition possibilities for teachers' and students' action in classroom-based student voice initiatives?'*

The power analytic framework provided a situated account of the tools, techniques and dynamics of power and how these were deployed to enact student/teacher governance partnerships in the classrooms of this research. Put another way, the framework illuminated identity as a tool of power, agenda control in the form of the student voice curriculum, and school and wider policy as constraints that conditioned possibilities for student voice in action. The three cases illustrate how these dimensions can come together in particular configurations of power to inform and resource student/teacher governance partnerships.

A particular contribution of the power analytic frame is that it extends resources for analysing power beyond binary theories that tend to dichotomise teachers as powerful and students as less powerful (Gaventa & Cornwall, 2008). My findings show that all actors in the study were powerful in particular ways. However they were also constrained in their actions by contextual elements and the dynamics between these. These elements took the form of available identities, circulating discourses, routine classroom practices, institutional expectations and broader policy demands. The power dynamics set up by the interaction of these elements and student/teacher actions were presented in detail in Chapter Eleven.

The faced power framework that structures the power analytic frame reflected the perpetual asymmetries (Foucault, 1988a) in the student/teacher relationship that were evident at the outset of this classroom research. Being able to focus in on the resources and techniques of power (Gore, 1995) associated with each of these

three faces of power illuminated a nuanced picture of how students and teachers deployed power in the research to construct student influence over what counted as effective pedagogy and curriculum. It also illuminated how power dynamics remained problematic despite the interventions of the research.

The power analytic frame introduced Lukes' (1974, 2005) theory of power into an education research context. Although it had been under-utilised within an educational context prior to this research, it had been utilised usefully to illuminate power dynamics within other case studies such as the investigation of power dynamics in a study of quiescence and powerlessness in mining in Appalachia (Gaventa, 1982), the influence of power on air pollution (Crenson, 1971) and influences in public policy (Jeffares, 2007). In contrast, Foucault's theorising has increasingly been used within student voice research and educational research more broadly (Webb, 2006; Webb et al., 2009) to explore the effects of governmentality on schooling (Bragg, 2007b), and to explore how techniques of power configured particular regimes of pedagogy within education contexts (Gore, 2002). Combining Lukes and Foucault's theories had been done before (Gaventa & Cornwall, 2008; Hardy & Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1998; Lukes, 2005) but Foucault's theorising had been added as a fourth dimension to Lukes' three. In this research I integrated Foucault's relational and productive view of power within Lukes' three dimensions of faced power to examine how techniques of power were deployed to condition possibilities for teachers and students action. This balanced out a repressive view of power as domination (Gaventa & Cornwall, 2008) associated with conflict, to explore how power produces within other non-conflict species of power (Lukes, 2005).

This mashup of Lukes and Foucault with discourse moves drawn from discourse theory and discourse analysis enabled the analysis to zoom in on how the techniques of power within the three faces were deployed to the student voice goals of the research within student/teacher interaction. In this respect, although the mash-up of Lukes and Foucault was not new, the combination of elements and orientations along with its implementation within this student voice context was.

In sum, the power analytic frame contributed to addressing the need raised in the student voice literature for more nuanced analyses of power in student voice beyond a practical agenda for change (Rudduck, 2007; C. Taylor & Robinson,

2009), beyond repressive views of power (C. Taylor & Robinson, 2009), and including examination of the intersection between language, interaction and power (Bragg, 2007b).

12.2.1 Final iteration of the power analytic frame

In this section I present the final iteration of the power analytic frame and key aspects of power relations within the research that it illuminated. The final iteration of the power analytic frame is presented in Figure 75 below. The framework identifies the focus of each dimension of faced power in this research in the far left column. Questions that guided the analysis are presented in the central column, and the nuanced power dynamics that emerged from the analysis of Action Cycle Three data are presented in the far right column. I use the three faces as a framework to discuss aspects of power relations illuminated by the analysis guided by the power analytic frame in the sections that follow.

Dimension of Faced Power	Guiding Analytic Questions	Analysis
Face One Identity & Positioning	How do teachers use their positional authority to scaffold influential student participation in decision-making? How do students respond to this positioning? What techniques of power are utilised? How are these deployed discursively?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teachers expand vested interests to include students as governance partners Enact co-constructor identities Students push back for teacher-directed decision-making Students take their influential positioning at face value and press for more influence
Face Two Agenda Control & Mobilisation of Resources	How are student voice goals, positioning and desired participation achieved? How is the pedagogical and curriculum decision-making agenda opened up to student influence? Do agenda control boundaries emerge? Where? How do teachers and students mobilise resources to enact influential student participation? In what ways are resources mobilised against influential student participation? What techniques of power are utilised? How are these deployed discursively?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Adaption of familiar pedagogical and organisational strategies Predominantly Participatory strategies Totalisation and individualisation Discourse moves – teacher presses, elicitation, social dominance strategies Student voice curriculum Norms and exclusions Shift to interpretive listening Student re-voicing
Face Three Prevailing Educational & Societal Discourses	How do prevailing discourses influence possibilities for student and teacher classroom action? What techniques of power are utilised? How are these deployed discursively?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Accountability demands create tension with co-construction Locate student voice in low-stakes curriculum areas Become vulnerable to student feedback Self-surveillance - judging efficacy of practice through accountability lens Claim student voice through familiar practices Integrate school curriculum and timetable expectations within student voice work Students promote teacher-led decision-making linked to teacher professional responsibility and training

Figure 75 Power Analytic Frame

12.2.2 Face One: Identity and positioning

In this research the main focus of Face One power was on identity and positioning work to scaffold student influence as pedagogical and curriculum decision-makers. This focus is indicated in the far left column of Figure 75.

This finding contrasts with Lukes' (2005) focus of Face One power which was to shore up vested interests of powerful social actors through use of resources to prevail in decision-making around key conflicts over less powerful social actors.

In this research the student/teacher relationship could be characterised as a perpetual asymmetry of power (Foucault, 1988a) with teachers appearing most visibly more visibly powerful than students. However, as demonstrated in Chapter Eleven, teachers in this research used their positional authority to expand their vested interests to include students participating with influence as governance partners. One of the resources they conferred on students to co-govern was a limited authority to insist on their viewpoint being taken seriously. This authority enabled students to prevail at times, in classroom decisions around what counted as important knowledge in the classroom action research projects.

To position students in this way, teachers enacted co-constructive identities with students. For instance Chicken positioned her students as researchers and co-researchers to co-construct what counted as effective home learning. Betty included students in deciding what counted as relevant reflection practice. Lincoln utilised a clocking in and out mechanism to move between a consulting role and a teacher role in the moviemaking project.

This finding contrasts with power theorising that dichotomises teachers among the powerful, complicit in the exclusion, silencing and marginalisation of student voice in educational settings, prevalent in student voice theorising (Brooker & MacDonald, 1999; Cook-Sather, 2006b; Roche, 1999; Rudduck et al., 1996; Smith, 2002). The teachers in this research in contrast were motivated to scaffold their students' capacity to deploy Face One power themselves and in this way exert influence as classroom governance partners. In this respect teachers and students both acted powerfully in the research, affirming Lukes' (2005) contention that one can act powerfully by advancing the interests of others. Teachers still utilised discourse moves associated with social dominance (van Dijk, 1993); they interrupted students, set and changed the topic of discourse and broke turn-taking rules, but they did so not to subjugate, but to build student capacity to govern.

One important caveat that highlights the continuing problematic of this student/teacher identity work is that whilst teachers conferred limited authority to insist to students, the subject position of 'student' does not afford students

positional authority to insist. It is this element that characterises the student/teacher relationship as a relation of perpetual asymmetry. Even when full governance responsibility was transferred to students as in the Lincoln case my findings show that student decision-makers could not deploy Face One power to insist on compliance by their peers outside of formal classroom settings such as class meetings. They had to rely instead on their capacity to persuade, negotiate and utilise social peer discourse moves to establish norms and decisions within their group (section 10.6). Without corresponding insitutionalisation of positional authority for students through a mechanism such as Shier's (2006) Level 5/Obligation (introduced in section 2.2), students do not have access to the same resources to deploy in leadership and governance roles as teachers.

12.2.3 Face Two: Agenda control and mobilisation of resources

In this research the main focus of Face Two power was on opening up pedagogical decision-making agendas to students and mobilising pedagogical resources to support student/teacher co-construction. This focus is indicated in the far left column of Figure 75.

This finding contrasts with the original focus of Face Two as the hidden face of power where powerful actors shored up advantage by constraining decision-making agendas to safe areas that did not threaten their vested interests (Bachrach & Baratz, 1962; Lukes, 2005). Instead teachers in this research moved beyond convention to include students in new pedagogical decision domains that did cause them vulnerability: to student feedback on their practice and to potential professional censure related to circulating expectations around proof of student learning. The key mechanism that emerged for this was the student voice curriculum. This curriculum represented the ongoing struggle between teachers and students to decide what counted as important knowledge, which issues were open to student negotiation and how the pedagogical substance of the class action research projects should reflect the preferences of students and the non-negotiable bottom lines of teachers. In this respect the student voice curriculum represented both an affordance and a constraint, and a co-constructed regime of truth (Foucault, 1977).

This finding picks up the action orientation in the student voice literature – where commentators argue that student voice research and practice should involve

students addressing solutions that arise from issues they have raised within safe spaces (Cowie et al., 2010; Lundy, 2007). This is where Fielding (2004b) argues the ordinary is ruptured. In this research it was a place where teachers and students came together to co-construct but each came to this process with different agendas in play as illustrated in section 12.1.

The teachers moved into relations of vulnerability with students to learn from them, opening themselves up to student feedback on the efficacy of classroom pedagogy, what should count in the student voice curriculum and aspects of their practice (section 11.1.3). Boundaries to their vulnerability arose at times when they interpreted feedback from students as personal (section 11.1.3). This finding resonates with Bragg's (2001) findings that some student messages are difficult for teachers to hear but also that in this research, the teachers were prepared to move into these relations with students as a vital aspect of enacting student voice.

Teachers utilised and adapted familiar pedagogical resources as vehicles for scaffolding increased student influence on what counted as important knowledge in their student voice curriculums. In this respect, while enacting student voice in this research did involve teachers engaging with students in ways new to them (Cook-Sather, 2003; Mitra, 2006a), this use of existing pedagogical resources helped associate student voice with familiar New Zealand pedagogical traditions and classroom practices (Hipkins, 2010) and thus expand the field of possible pedagogy that teachers and students could associate with student voice.

Even though student influence was enacted through familiar practices the governance level positioning of students was new and challenging for teachers and students to maintain in practice. Evidence presented by teachers in Chapter Five illustrated the ways in which students were familiar with negotiating and co-constructing their own learning with teachers before they deliberately focused on this in the class action research projects of Action Cycle Three. Including students in decision-making required that teachers needed to notice opportunities for this in the first instance. For instance Chicken originally planned to analyse all the students' answers to the question 'what is effective home learning?' before she realised this was an opportunity for student analysis (section 9.3). This represented a variation on Bragg's (2001) argument that teachers have to learn how to take account of student voice. In the context of my research this involved

teachers learning to interrupt conventional decision-making responsibilities to notice possibilities for expanded student decision-making involvement. This finding resonates with a similar finding in the assessment for learning literature that teachers first have to notice and recognise a construct before they can respond to it (Cowie, 2000).

For the students engagement in this student voice curriculum involved a shift from espousal in sharing their perceptions and preferences to ongoing enactment of these preferences. This shift challenged what they were comfortable with in terms of activity pace, how ideas were shared and the role of the teacher and the student in the learning process. To a certain extent students resisted their ongoing involvement in expanded decision-making agendas, arguing that teachers were more qualified and efficient to take on this role (see sections 9.10.1 and 11.1.6). This finding links with Hyde (1992a) and Morgan's (2009, 2011) nuanced findings around students' responses to consultation and involvement in curriculum design and with Cremin et al's (2011) findings that student voice practice can disrupt classroom arrangements that suit the success of some students.

Although teachers in this research identified areas of mutual resonance with student consultation on which to base their classroom action research practice, the extent to which students want ongoing influence and in what ways should also be on the student voice agenda. When locating student voice work in the classroom it is important to monitor the extent to which it becomes classwork (Denscombe & Aubrook, 1992). This finding adds to the work of other student voice researchers who have found that student influence can easily become illusory in research and pedagogical initiatives underpinned by empowerment ideals because of the institutional constraints and competing expectations on classroom practice that teachers need to satisfy (Cox & Robinson-Pant, 2008; Ellsworth, 1992; R. Frost, 2007; Thornberg, 2010).

On the other hand, despite the problematic extent of student influence, participatory pedagogical strategies implemented in this research meant that students' talk in the public space of the classroom increased. This meant that the teachers increasingly listened to the students talk about themselves as learners and what was important to them. Teachers' openness to listening to students enabled

the messages important to student, such as peer collaboration, to influence the authoritative, or official, classroom discourse (Scott et al., 2006). This finding affirms the importance of action as a dimension of student voice (Cowie et al., 2010; Lincoln, 1995). It is important to involve students in addressing issues and challenges pertinent to them but also to create spaces in which students' thinking can influence teachers' thinking (Lundy, 2007).

12.2.4 Face Three: Influence of prevailing discourses

The main focus of Face Three power in the classroom cases was the influence of prevailing educational and societal discourses on teachers' and students' perceived possibilities for student voice-related classroom action. This finding resonates with the original description of Face Three power that prevailing discourses work to condition people's wants, needs and awareness of possibilities for action (Lukes, 1974, 2005). The study's contribution is to elaborate what counts as prevailing discourses that influence classroom actors' action. Macro accountability agendas represent a ubiquitous dynamic in the contextual backdrop of contemporary schooling and student voice (Bragg & Manchester, 2012; Czerniawski, 2012). This study illuminated that teachers' student voice discourses were also drawn from and constrained by current educational philosophy, their own school and students' discourses of how learning should happen at school, and the discourses of student voice embedded in the research design.

The study teachers were clear they needed firstly to fit in with wider macro policy and institutional curriculum and school timetable expectations. These took precedence over their local classroom decisions, a finding that resonates with other student voice research (Biddulph, 2011; Cox & Robinson-Pant, 2008; B. Morgan, 2011). The teachers accommodated these circulating accountability discourses by locating their student voice classroom action research work in low-stakes curriculum areas. Even within this frame, the teachers evaluated the efficacy of their student voice practice against perceived accountability expectations on their practice. They considered that unless they had formal recorded proof of individual student learning, their participatory pedagogies would be judged as inadequate (section 8.12.4). The need to navigate the contradiction between co-construction ideals within student voice and wider accountability discourses as times overwhelmed them (section 11.3.1), a finding

that epitomises what Czerniawski (2012) identifies as a tension between the empowerment agendas and neo-liberal agendas in student voice theorising (section 2.1.5). This finding is congruent with the ‘values schizophrenia’ identified by Cox and Robinson-Pant (2008). In the current manifestation of student voice practice teachers were not yet able to provide evidence needed to push back to meet accountability agendas. This is an area in need of further development.

Illumination of the diverse and nuanced power dynamics that condition students’ and teachers’ possibilities within the broader institutional context of the school and the policy domain (section 11.3.1) challenges the sufficiency of currently available heuristics for student voice, most particularly participation ladders (Flutter & Rudduck, 2004; Hart, 1992). These ladders tend to emphasise single variables such as ‘student initiation’ as the pinnacle of student voice. They set up the notion that students and teachers are free to act autonomously in their classroom settings, whilst the findings of this research illustrated the normative and contextual influences on teachers’ and students’ classroom decisions and actions. This finding affirms Taylor and Robinson’s (2009) finding that pedagogical decisions are made within the nested influences of institutional cultures and policy arenas as well as Fielding’s (2004a) argument that student voice rhetoric often obscures the underlying framework that constrains student voice action.

Even with deliberate pedagogical crafting to address the upper levels of participation ladders, satisfying these criteria does not ensure student influence. Chicken’s utilised Flutter and Rudduck’s (2004) Ladder of Pupil Participation to guide her practice at Level 4. Although this heuristic assisted her to enact a high degree of student collaborative analysis as researchers within the home learning project, power relations remained ambiguous from the vantage points of her SRG students (section 9.10.1).

In summary, the power analytic frame developed for the research enabled a useful and nuanced analysis of the workings of power within the class action research of this study. Students and teachers were constrained by school cultural factors as well as policy influences. However students and teachers also deployed identities,

classroom agendas and pedagogical and social resources to exert and build influence over norms and curriculum in their classroom research.

12.3 Student Voice as Student-Student Collaboration in Classrooms

The third finding of this research builds on and extends the previous two by considering both vantage point and power. A key finding from attention to student voice was the priority students placed on opportunities to know and be known as learners by their peers, and not just their teachers. This theme circulated as a feature of student-initiated student voice discourse in this research.

Student reflections in class, and SRG reflections in research sessions, indicated that students were interested in opportunities to collaborate with each other more than opportunities to act as decision-makers with teachers (section 8.8.2). This preference explicitly emerged in Betty's students' reflections on the usefulness of the paint chart reflection strategy. They evaluated this strategy as useful in part because of how the strategy, coupled with the paired and class sharing, illuminated their peers' learning goals so that they could engage with and assist their peers with these. This student perspective of student voice pushes back against the largely adult conceptions of students participating as decision-makers with teachers prevalent in the action orientation of the student voice field (Cowie et al., 2010; Lincoln, 1995; Smyth, 2006b; Yonezawa & Jones, 2009). SRG reflections indicated that students did want input into the classroom programme and did want teachers to listen to their perspectives, but they wanted teachers largely to carry the responsibility for pedagogical decision-making as an aspect of effective teaching (section 9.10.1).

My findings suggest also that where these opportunities to collaborate were not explicitly offered within the pedagogical arrangements of sessions within the classroom research, students created them. For instance in Event Six of the Betty case (section 8.8.1) the students shared their perceived performance as inquirers through a class discussion that Betty 'chaired'. Discursive interaction patterns show that the students deployed re-voicing techniques (Carroll, 2005) to incorporate and build on each other's contributions across the discussion even though their individual contributions had to go through Betty.

The student-student collaboration discourse is largely absent from the student voice literature and represents a contribution of this research to the field that identified notions of student voice from students' perspectives. Student collaboration is identified as a valued product of student voice activity (Mitra, 2008a; Rudduck, 2007) but this research frames it as a student-initiated student voice discourse. Placing pedagogical attention on how to maximise student influence with each other as learning partners as well as building influence between students and teachers expands the student voice equation from a student/teacher dyad to a student/student/teacher co-governance triad.

12.4 Scaffolding Student Influence through Governance Partnerships

The previous sections have discussed findings related to aspects of student/teacher governance partnerships as enacted student voice. Taken together these findings suggest that what was created in the student/teacher governance partnerships of this research can be characterised as an interanimation of student/teacher voice. In practice this involved an intermingling of the agendas teachers and students brought to their student voice work in the classroom to produce situated definitions of what counted as a student voice curriculum of each class. In particular, the situated definitions included increased attention given to creating opportunities for students to collaborate with each other as learning and governance partners.

Describing student/teacher governance as an interanimation (Seymour & Lehrer, 2006) of student/teacher voice, moves beyond a zero-sum (Foucault, 1982) understanding of power sharing where one party has to lose for the other to gain. The notion of 'power sharing' was used by teachers in ways that related to binary theories of power whereby teachers were motivated to hand over power to students. However this discourse did not reflect the teachers' classroom action when they were interacting in ways they described as power sharing. Teachers described 'stepping back' to share power with their students (section 5.5). In contrast findings demonstrated that 'stepping back' involved teachers stepping UP in their focus on scaffolding student capacity to govern. Whilst they stepped out of overt control of pedagogy (described in Chapter Eleven as 'stepping aside'), they observed students leading, they listened to students' perspectives and ideas, they planned with students, they wrote activity briefs to guide students, and they debriefed classroom activity with students.

Even in the case of Lincoln (Chapter Ten) who allowed his students the most autonomy as decision-makers, he was captured in video footage of student-led class meetings off to the side, watching and intervening where necessary to maintain order in the class. He set up organisational structures to enable the students to relate to their class practice as film-makers. He developed film-related lessons for those students not directly involved in the movie and he provided assistance to the Production Team when they asked for his help.

Characteristics of the situated discourses produced by teachers and students map to characteristics of reflective discourse (Van Zee & Minstrell, 1997) central to characteristics of interanimated discourse (Scott et al., 2006). Teachers encouraged students to share their thoughts and questions, they engaged in extended discursive exchanges with them, and opened up opportunities for students to understand and engage with each other's thinking (Van Zee & Minstrell, 1997). In this way the many ideas and perspectives shared by teachers and students across the research interanimated to influence the student voice practice enacted in the conditions conducive to co-governance. Interanimation of student/teacher voice stimulated a change in teacher discourse moves and patterns over time to open up dialogic opportunities for students to debate and deliberate on definitions and potential pedagogical strategies. Once teachers were confident that key authoritative messages were embedded within students' public talk, they shifted their discourse pattern to interpretive listening (Brodie, 2010) associated with engagement with students' thinking. Through this engagement, students' thinking increasingly influenced the authoritative discourses of the class student voice curriculum (Scott et al., 2006) and positioned them as producers of knowledge rather than sources of data, an aspect identified as central to governance level student voice (Thomson & Gunter, 2006, 2007).

As part of the interanimation of teacher and student voice teachers continued to exercise their professional judgment within the student/teacher governance partnerships they co-constructed. My findings showed that rather than an uncritical adoption of student views cautioned against in the student voice literature (Lundy, 2007), teachers focused their class action research on issues raised by students that resonated with their observations of their class. This mutual resonance functioned as a starting point for interanimation of student and teacher voice.

For instance Betty agreed with student perceptions that formalised, periodic written reflection on their learning was disengaging (section 8.1) and this became the focus of the reflection trial. Chicken agreed with her students that the school-wide home learning programme did not offer opportunities for integrated, creative tasks relevant to the personal interests of students (section 9.1) and this became the starting point for the home learning project. Lincoln agreed with Action Cycle One data that integrated, coherent curriculum coupled with student opportunities to influence the direction of the class programme would promote student engagement (section 10.1) and this became the focus of the movie-making project.

This finding affirms calls in the student voice literature for the attendance to teacher voice as a necessity of enacting student voice (Fielding, 2001a; Rudduck, 2007). The teachers held responsibility for learning and pedagogy within their classes by virtue of their position. The diversity of perspectives expressed in the Action Cycle One student voice data however enabled a starting point into co-construction that addressed relevant student concerns and preferences but also provided teachers room to exercise their professional judgment.

Teachers also at times deployed their positional authority ethically to intervene in contradiction to students' pedagogical ideas when they deemed this was necessary to promote deeper student learning (section 11.1.5). At times the teachers felt that the students were focused on aspects that they considered superficial such as Chicken's observation that her students' initial definitions of effective home learning were too focused on presentation and not enough on substance. This affirms Rudduck's (2007) finding that teachers need certain conditions satisfied for them to attend to student voice.

Each of the three teachers had different motivations for student voice, different capacities and different perceptions of their strengths, weaknesses or challenges in the area of student voice. The vast continuum of starting points for student voice (Toshalis & Nakkula, 2012) meant that student voice as it was enacted by Betty, Chicken and Lincoln and their students was particularly meaningful to them, and their mutual goals within their context. The three teachers were able to take account of their own capacities as well as their students' agendas within the particular cultural context of their school as a starting point for enacting student voice in their classroom practices. This finding contradicts Thomson's (2011)

contention that student voice is almost meaningless because it can mean so many things.

The interanimation generated reflected Fielding's notion of 'radical collegiality' (Fielding, 2001b) but 'governance partnerships' that I coined for this research based on the 'students as researchers' work of Thomson and Gunter (2007) captured the interanimation aspect most effectively because it captures the level at which teachers and students co-decided. The focus of decision-making was on the good of the collective group of students within the class rather than solely on the learning of individuals. In this respect it affirms the findings of Mager and Nowak (2012) in relation to student participation in decision-making that produces influence, namely that students are involved in decisions affecting the collective and involved in dialogue with decision-makers.

Despite the potential demonstrated for governance partnerships to scaffold student influence and interanimation of student/teacher voice, I have also demonstrated that scaffolding of student capacity as ongoing pedagogical decision-makers and leaders was partially addressed but insufficient throughout the class action research projects. The Lincoln case perhaps exemplifies this finding most explicitly. Lincoln utilised the structure of the film industry to scaffold an autonomous student decision-making hierarchy within the movie project. However findings from this case suggest that the Production Team needed more explicit teacher scaffolding in the form of mentoring to build their capacity to govern each other and the rest of their classmates. This finding around the necessity for scaffolding student capacity gaps opened up by their new governance positioning resonates with findings in the social justice discourse of student voice (Lundy, 2007; Lundy & McEvoy, 2011; Shier, 2006). In this respect it also extends calls in the student voice literature for a 'gradual hand over of responsibility' (Shier, 2006) to include making explicit a different role for teachers, that of engaged scaffolder of student capacity rather than neutral facilitator of student autonomy.

In contrast to Cox and Robinson-Pant's (2008) focus on supporting students to learn about decision-making as part of building student capacity, my findings suggest that students need to be coached as they decide and that student capacity

needs should be on the agenda for co-constructive reflection as an essential aspect of any classroom-based student voice curriculum.

In summary, this discussion of key findings in the research has demonstrated that enacting student voice within classroom practice is an ongoing, complex and problematic endeavour. Rather than a process of simply listening and taking account of students' perceptions on aspects of learning and teaching, positioning students with ongoing influence involved identity work, adapting agendas and pedagogical strategies, capacity building and negotiating the nuanced contextual factors that impact on pedagogy in schools. Even once these aspects were addressed deliberately, less visible factors raised new challenges in ways that rendered enacting student influence problematic and in many respects elusive.

However a number of important insights have been discussed that suggest multiple ways forward. If an ongoing dialogic interaction (Lodge, 2005) between students and teachers that builds student influence is to succeed, the changes that are instigated, and the ongoing effects of these, must themselves be up for ongoing negotiation and critical reflection. Without critical reflexivity (Bragg, 2007b) these new arrangements, enacted in the name of student voice can become new regimes of truth (Foucault, 1977) that discipline students, and teachers, in new ways. This insight has been well signalled in the student voice field (Cook-Sather, 2007; Ellsworth, 1992; Walkerdine, 1992) in this research as in other research (Bragg, 2007a). It would have been easy to attend to the successes of the action research without noticing how the student/teacher governance work also represented more nuanced power dynamics. It was attendance to the vantage point of the SRG students that alerted me to the ambiguous experiences of power dynamics in the research.

This section has discussed the findings of the research in relation to the challenge of enacting student influence as pedagogical and curriculum decision-makers as an enactment of student voice in classrooms. Many of the themes shared are contradictory. The aspects that challenged students the most were vital in constructing real influence on teachers' thinking and the co-construction of valued knowledge. The student voice curriculum at once disciplined and functioned as a fertile site of struggle for students and teachers in the process of enacting student influence. Governance partnerships involved students at a level that some did not

prefer but that created conditions conducive to the emergence of student influence in a way not expected at the outset of the research; that is the emergence of the importance of student-student collaboration as a student-initiated student voice discourse.

12.5 Implications of the Research

In this section I outline implications from the findings of this research for: school-wide professional development and policy makers.

12.5.1 Implications for school-wide professional development

If a school is seriously committed to promoting classroom-based student voice and increased student influence, findings of this research suggest that the school culture and macro-level policy need concomitant examination. In all three cases school-wide curriculum, timetabling, professional development expectations and teacher appraisal mechanisms influenced how teachers perceived the possibilities of their student voice work with students. Alongside this the study highlighted that student voice pedagogical work is influenced by contradictions between the discourses of accountability and those of co-construction within student voice. This indicates school professional development focused on enacting student voice needs to start with the ways in which the contextual backdrop influences practice in schools and classrooms.

School-wide student voice professional development should also include student discourses of student voice and learning at school as starting points for investigation. Although productive and educationally meaningful interaction was generated through the cases of this research, teacher and researcher initiation of student voice as teacher-student co-inquiry, co-learning and co-construction, although well-meaning, also imposed adult-centric notions of student voice on students themselves. Any school-based student voice initiative should include an investigation of students' discourses of student voice. This differs from finding out about students' learning preferences or experiences of schooling, but is focused on how they want to be involved in pedagogical decision-making, or not, as a starting point for robust debate and reflection.

12.5.2 Implications for policy makers

The initial context for this research was New Zealand middle years' teacher professional development. Although the research moved on from this starting point it has demonstrated that teachers can gain valuable insights into effective teaching and engagement from listening to and engaging with their young adolescent students as governance partners. With no specific middle years' teacher preparation programmes in New Zealand beyond a Postgraduate Diploma of Education (Middle Schooling), one implication from this research is that action research-based teacher learning for the middle years could be promoted and resourced as an approach to the development of New Zealand middle years pedagogy' with student voice at its centre.

With student-centred rhetoric at the centre of New Zealand curriculum policy, policy makers need also to take cognisance of the competing tensions that contemporary educational philosophies and accountability agendas set up for teachers and by extension any school-based student voice initiatives.

Although congruence between existing pedagogical traditions circulating in New Zealand and aspects of student voice exist, within these, student perspectives can be subsumed easily into classrooms without a corresponding shift in student influence. Combining these practices with governance ideals helped lift students' status in pedagogical and curriculum design and decision-making in this research and could provide ways in which student influence as an ideal could be enacted within education policy.

12.6 Limitations of the Research Methodology

In this section I outline four limitations of the research methodology that I identified:

1. The size of the SRG;
2. Siting responsibility for video data generation with teachers;
3. Timeframe of the research; and
4. Reduced teacher collaboration due to professional commitments.

One key limitation of the research design was the size of the SRG. This group was limited to twelve students across the three classes in order to limit the impact

of the research on classroom learning programmes. However, the small number of students meant that only limited student perspectives were accessed.

Leaving the video data generation with teachers also meant that whilst the teachers had ongoing access to the perspectives of all their students as they conducted their class action research projects, as the researcher I was dependent on the video footage they generated to access classroom action. Only the teachers had an opportunity to reflect on the video snapshot data; it would have been interesting to involve students in reviewing and reflecting on the video snapshots as well.

Each of the classroom action research projects took longer than expected. As I had undertaken to complete my research at the end of Term Three I missed following through the classroom action research projects to their conclusion. Although on the one hand the timeframe of the research suited the workload commitments of the teachers across the year it may have generated implications for the completion of the classroom action research projects. I wonder if for example the movie at the centre of Lincoln's class project would have been made had the research continued. I wonder how Chicken's students would have evaluated their home learning trial and, likewise, how Betty's students would have taken up the opportunity to facilitate the Marvellous Metaphor reflection strategy sessions.

Intensification of expectations on teachers' classroom release time meant that the teacher collaboration aspect of the research design was truncated. The teachers preferred to work with me individually to develop and reflect on their classroom action research projects as a more efficient use of their classroom release time. However, reduced collaboration also meant limited focus on professional readings related to student voice practice. For me this represented a lost opportunity for the teachers to locate their student voice practice within the broader context of the student voice field.

12.7 Implications for Further Research

In this section I identify four avenues for further research that emerge from this research:

1. Application and refinement of the power analytic frame as a planning, analysis and reflection tool for school-based student voice research;
2. Expansion of the student/teacher dyad to a student/student/teacher triad;
3. Construction of a student engagement tool based on constructs underpinning student perceptions of engagement; and
4. Identification of student discourses of student voice.

Given the utility of the power analytic frame in illuminating power relations in my research I propose further research is necessary to apply and refine the analytic frame as a planning, analysis and critical reflection tool for classroom-based student voice initiatives.

Research is also needed to bring taken-for-granted school-level curriculum and cultural factors into an examination of power dynamics in classroom-based student voice research. A classroom-based focus was adopted in this research to address the prevalence of student voice research conducted on the periphery of classrooms. However in light of findings in this research that identified how school-level factors influenced teachers' and students' possibilities for classroom action, examination of school-level influences might provide a way to bridge class and school level influence for students.

With the emergence of the student-initiated student voice discourse around student-student collaboration as a finding of this research, more research is needed to investigate what it might mean in school contexts to expand the student/teacher dyad into the student/teacher and student/student triad introduced in Chapter 12 (section 12.3). What might it look like to maximise opportunities for students to know and be known by their peers as learners and how might that influence pedagogy, curriculum design and student/teacher governance partnerships in classrooms?

One of the initial intentions of the research was to explore the correlational link between student voice and student engagement identified in the student voice

literature. However the NZCER *Me and My School* student engagement survey proved too blunt an instrument to track changes in engagement of participating students because it did not focus enough on constructs associated with student engagement in the classroom relevant for teachers in this research. The perceptions of the SRG students on engagement proved an ongoing reference point for teachers as they planned, enacted and reflected on student voice practice in their class action research projects. The conditions for engagement and disengagement with learning at school that emerged from the Action Cycle One data and presented in Chapter Six suggest that an engagement tool could be designed based on these. Utilising student constructs of engagement would provide a useful basis for comparison with instruments such as *Me and My School*.

Through my work in this study I was challenged also to re-consider my adult-centric notions of student voice and the implications of these for teacher and student roles and student voice agendas. As student active participation in governance level pedagogical decision-making remains unusual, research processes are needed that identify student discourses of student voice and utilise these to design school-based research and pedagogical approaches.

12.8 Concluding Remarks

The focus of this thesis was three-fold: 1) to identify the perceptions of young adolescent students of effective teaching and engagement as a starting point to inform their teachers' development as responsive middle years' practitioners; 2) to enact student influence as pedagogical and curriculum decision-makers alongside teachers through student/teacher governance partnerships; and 3) to examine how power relations condition possibilities for teacher and student classroom action. Findings from the initial student research presented in Chapter Six highlighted the importance to students of being included as teachers of each other as part of effective teaching practice. This theme pervaded each of the three Action Cycle Three cases presented in Chapters Eight, Nine and Ten culminating in the finding of the research that for students, opportunities to know and be known by their peers as learners was an important dimension of student voice for them.

The research also analysed how power conditioned possibilities for student and teacher action within the three class action research projects. Findings from this

analysis suggest that through adaption of familiar pedagogical strategies already in use within classrooms teachers can make room for the development of spaces, practices and student identities that foster student to student collaboration, and contribute to what counts as important knowledge in classrooms. Each of the three teachers participating in this research was motivated to position their students more influentially. Findings suggest they achieved this through expanding their vested interests as teachers to include student ownership and collaboration through student/teacher governance partnerships. They mobilised their available discursive and material resources to share decision-making responsibility with their students as well as navigating non-negotiable institutional and macro level expectations on their practice.

In working together through this research the students and the three teachers demonstrated through their practice, diverse starting points and pathways for enacting classroom-based student voice. However the cases also highlight the ongoing problematic nature of enacting new discourses and positioning within broader institutional frameworks that on the one hand promote student voice within the educative process but on the other require accountability measures that render student voice a risky practice for teachers.

The findings of this research suggest that if educators are to take students seriously as people whose opinions matter, the power relations within the context in which taking students seriously occurs, need ongoing interrogation. However within this nuanced backdrop of contextual influences on students' and teachers' possibilities for action, selecting issues of mutual resonance to students and teachers is a generative starting point for co-constructing responsive and reciprocal pedagogy as governance partners in the classroom.

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