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The readiness of primary trained graduate teachers to effectively manage
classrooms in Kimberley schools in Western Australia

Submitted by

Amanda McCubbin

A thesis submitted to fulfil the requirements for the award of
Doctor of Education

School of Education
The University of Notre Dame Australia
Fremantle Campus

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ABSTRACT

This study is unique in that it investigates the nature of the relationship between classroom management strategies, neophyte teachers and Indigenous students, in remote area classrooms. Given that the student population and teaching conditions in remote schools is usually significantly different from the demography of the students encountered in pre-service practica, the purpose of this research is to determine the effectiveness of course-specific classroom management strategies with Indigenous students located in a specific remote region of Western Australia.

This study was undertaken in both Department of Education and Catholic Education Office schools within the Kimberley region of Western Australia. This region was selected as over 65% of the total primary-aged student population identifies as being Indigenous and just over 33% of all teachers placed in this remote region are graduate teachers. Both the Department of Education (WA) and Catholic Education Office (WA) spend significant resources providing support and training for beginning teachers in the areas of Indigenous education programs and classroom management strategies each year.

This research is a qualitatively-based interpretive study that uses the ethnographic tools of semi-structured interviews, classroom observation and a functional behaviour analysis to collect the data. Data was collected in-situ on two separate occasions and grounded theory methodology was used to code and compare the data, enabling the emergence of a new theory termed ‘cultural frame-switching’.

Cultural frame-switching involves demonstrating an understanding of and insight into the lives of the students and the cultural mores of the remote community. Research findings suggest that cultural frame-switching is the foundation upon which the effectiveness of classroom management strategies rests. The study found that the utilisation of classroom

management strategies per se was not as significant in engendering compliance as was cultural frame-switching. That is to say, the mastering of otherwise laudable strategies was insufficient to induce compliance.

The findings of this study have the potential to assist in targeting the cultural training of both pre-service and beginning teachers thus potentially reducing attrition rates in remote locations. Recommendations are made regarding the preparation of pre-service teachers to better equip them for remote teaching upon graduation. Such recommendations are aimed at assisting teachers to learn about the local Indigenous culture prior to establishing any classroom management protocols.

STATEMENT OF SOURCES

This thesis contains no material published elsewhere in whole or part from a thesis by which I have qualified for or been awarded another degree or diploma. No other person's work has been used without due acknowledgement in the main text of the thesis. This thesis has not been submitted for the award of any degree or diploma in any other tertiary institution. All research procedures reported in the thesis received the approval of the relevant Ethics Committee.

Signed: *A McCubbin*

Date: 22 June 2015

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DEFINITION OF TERMS

Anglo

Within the context of this research, the term Anglo refers to non-Indigenous, 'white', English speaking persons who come from a British/European heritage.

Assertive Discipline

A systematic approach designed to assist teachers to run an organised classroom where the teacher is in charge of the classroom environment. Teachers are required to be assert themselves, to state rules consistently, to follow through with appropriate positive consequences when behaviour expectations are met and to apply negative consequences when students do not behave appropriately (Canter & Canter, 1976).

Beginning teacher

The terms beginning teacher, graduate teacher and neophyte teacher are used synonymously to refer to university graduates who possess a recognised teaching qualification and who commenced their teaching career in the year in which this research was conducted.

Classroom Management

Classroom management (CM) refers to actions taken by the teacher to create and maintain an environment conducive to successful learning. Such actions may include arranging the physical environment; establishing rules and procedures; developing caring and supportive relationships; organising activities; giving directions and instructions to optimise learning; encouraging student active engagement; and promoting social skills and self-regulation.

Classroom Management Strategies

As suggested by numerous researchers (Barry & King, 1998; Bennett & Smilanich, 1994; Brophy, 2006; Evertson & Weinstein, 2006; Marzano, 2009; Slee, 2012), classroom management strategies (CMS) are defined as those strategies designed to prevent, minimise and eliminate behaviour problems so as to restore the positive learning environment. In this sense, CM includes behaviour management but has a much broader remit.

Cognitive dissonance

A situation involving conflicting beliefs or behaviours which produces a feeling of discomfort resulting in the person changing their belief or behaviour in order to reduce the discomfort (Festinger, 1957).

Culture

An abstract concept that refers to the learned rules regarding behaviours, interactions, values and beliefs that distinguish and identify members as part of a group (Salkind, 2010).

Culturally appropriate curriculum

A curriculum based on a belief that students and their culture are intertwined and that student learning can be intentionally enhanced by embracing and utilising aspects of the students' culture in the classroom (Seriki, 2010).

Cultural awareness training

Within an Australian context, cultural awareness training aims at developing knowledge, understanding of and sensitivity to Aboriginal, Torres Strait Islander and culturally and linguistically diverse cultures.

Cultural discontinuity

Refers to the disconnection between the Indigenous students' home environment and that of the Anglo based environment of the school (Ladson-Billings, 2009). Much of the knowledge presented in schools is based on Anglo values, creating a cultural mismatch for the Indigenous students (Cholewa & West-Olatunji, 2008). The communication styles and language patterns, for example, of the Indigenous community differ from that which is used in the school environment. Cultural discontinuity can occur if a teacher invalidates, penalises or ridicules students who use the cultural-specific language characteristics of their home environment to communicate in the classroom (Lovelace & Wheeler, 2006).

Culture Shock

The feeling of anxiety and emotional unrest that results from moving to a new cultural setting where the signs and symbolic representations used within the culture are alien to the individual (Irwin, 2009).

Effectiveness

The degree to which something is successful in producing a desired result (Oxford Dictionary of English, 2010a). Within this research, the effectiveness of a CMS is measured by the latency of the off-task behaviours. As such, effective CMS are those which successfully return students to on-task behaviours within a minimal time-frame.

Ethnicity

Refers to the characteristics of culture such as race, national origin or ancestry (Salkind, 2010).

Ignoring off-task behaviour

Not responding to off-task behaviour or communicating any message to the students regarding returning to on-task behaviour.

Indigenous

The term Indigenous is used to describe the first inhabitants of each country investigated. In an Australian context, an Indigenous person is one of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander descent who identifies as an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander and is accepted as such by the community in which they live (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2010). In a Canadian context, the term Indigenous is used to identify the First Nations, Inuit and Métis people who are recognised under the constitution, as being the Aboriginal peoples of the country (Statistics Canada, 2013). Within a USA context, the term Indigenous refers to those peoples who identify as American Indian, Alaska Native or Native Hawaiian (United States Census Bureau, 2013); and within a New Zealand context, the Indigenous peoples are identified as Māori (Statistics New Zealand, 2014b).

Off-task behaviours

Actions displayed by the students which involve doing anything except that which the teacher has asked them to do (Konza, Grainger, & Bradshaw, 2004).

On-task behaviours

Actions which the student performs as a result of the teacher requesting them to do so, whether or not of an academic nature (Barry & King, 1998).

Purposeful ignoring

Not immediately responding to off-task behaviours so as to buy time to pause and think, while still communicating a message to the students to return to on-task behaviour (Bennett & Smilanich, 1994).

Remote

The word remote is defined by the Australian Statistical Geography Standard (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011b). The remoteness of an area is based on the population size and road distance from a service centre and reflects the accessibility of goods, services and opportunities for social interaction. There are five categories of remoteness including Major Cities, Inner Regional, Outer Regional, Remote and Very Remote. The towns and communities situated in the Kimberley region of Western Australia are all classified as Remote or Very Remote (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011d).

Thick Descriptions

Detailed information which enable a range of conceptual ideas, interpretations and potential codes to emerge from the data collected.

With-it-ness

A continual awareness of what is going on in all parts of the classroom at all times (Kounin, 1970). By proactively responding to actions taken by the students, the teacher sends a clear message that they know what is happening in the classroom.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Beginning teachers face many challenges during their first year of teaching, one of which is classroom management (CM) (Buchanan et al., 2013; Fetherston & Lummis, 2012; Schuck, Aubusson, Buchanan, & Russell, 2012). Even though many beginning teachers undertake units of study in CM and have had the opportunity to use classroom management strategies (CMS) during teaching practica, very few of these situations compare to the reality of CM in their own classroom. To compound matters, numerous beginning teachers find themselves teaching in remote Indigenous communities where they have very little cultural connection with the local Indigenous people.

1.1 Background

The intention of this study is to investigate the nexus between neophyte teachers, CMS and Indigenous students in the Kimberley region of Western Australia. Over the past fifty years there have been numerous studies undertaken regarding the relationship between neophyte teachers and CM (Balli, 2011; Bergeron, 2008; Duke, 1979; Emmer, Evertson, & Anderson, 1980; Green, 2006; O'Neill & Stephenson, 2011; Oliver & Reschly, 2007; Schuck et al., 2012). In addition, a wide range of studies has been undertaken on the importance of cultural awareness and cultural diversity training for beginning teachers (Gay, 2002; McIntyre, 1992; Stachowski & Frey, 2003; Universities Australia, 2011) and on the incorporation of Indigenous culture into the curriculum, particularly when teaching Indigenous students (Hall, 2013; Lamon, 2003; Powell, 1997). There is also a limited number of studies looking into CM and cultural diversity (Bondy, Ross, Gallingane, & Hambacher, 2007; Brown, 2004; Metropolitan Center for Urban Education, 2008; Milner & Tenore, 2010;

Weinstein, Tomlinson-Clarke, & Curran, 2004). Despite CM, beginning teachers and Indigenous students each being identified as areas for significant research, a systematic search of national and international literature, including a considerable examination of on-line databases and physical materials, identified that there is a paucity of information regarding the tripartite relationship of Indigenous students, neophyte teachers and CM.

1.2 Context of the Research

A variety of studies conducted in the United States of America (Benally & McCarthy, 2003; Blasi, 2001; FlavioFrancisco, 1999; Hammond, Dupoux, & Ingalls, 2004; Pewewardy, 1998, 2002; Tippeconnic, 1983; Yazzie, 1999); New Zealand (Berryman & Glynn, 2004; Macfarlane, Glynn, Cavanagh, & Bateman, 2007; Wearmouth, Glynn, Richmond, & Berryman, 2004); Canada (Alberta Education First Nations Métis and Inuit Services Branch, 2008; Aylward, 2012; Hammond et al., 2004; Harper, 2000; Lewthwaite & McMillan, 2010; Rass, 2012) and Australia (Bissett, 2012; Cherednichenko, Jay, & Moss, 2009; Crossland & Stanberg, 2007; Davidson et al., 2008; Fetherston & Lummis, 2012; Hall, 2013; Partington, 2002; Sharplin, 2002) found that many graduate teachers, in each of the aforementioned countries, face similar difficulties when teaching Indigenous students in remote locations. Such difficulties include living in a community where the beginning teacher is part of a cultural minority and where the Indigenous people do not necessarily subscribe to the Anglo cultural norms. Other identified mutual difficulties include challenges associated with the geographical location of the community, personal and professional isolation, social issues, limited preparation for remote teaching by higher education institutions, minimal access to mentor teachers and CM concerns.

As a consequence of such challenging conditions, considerable numbers of neophyte teachers are choosing to leave the teaching profession prior to finishing their first year of

teaching or at the conclusion of their first year of service (Buchanan et al., 2013; Levine, 2006; Sandoval-Lucero et al., 2011; Sharplin, O'Neill, & Chapman, 2011). Within Australia, the attrition rate among teachers situated in remote locations can be as high as 50% within the first three years of employment (Ingvarson, Beavis, & Kleinhenz, 2004). Such significant movement of teachers jeopardises the educational quality for Indigenous students situated in these remote locations and results in substantial costs being incurred for the recruitment and relocation of new teachers (Milburn, 2011; Plunkett & Dyson, 2011; Trinidad et al., 2011). Further, economic imperatives come into play when teachers who took four years to train depart the profession after only one year.

1.3 The Researcher's Background

Interest in this research topic stems from the researcher's professional history in education. Commencing as a beginning teacher whose first placement was in a remote Indigenous community school and who struggled with CM to eventually being promoted via merit selection to Principal of 'difficult to staff' primary and district high schools, has provided the researcher with unique insights. Each of the schools in which the researcher has been the Principal, had high concentrations of Indigenous students, and each year there was a large contingency of graduate teachers placed in the schools. Through professional discussions and classroom observations, it was evident that many of the graduate teachers were having difficulty with CM. In addition, for six years the researcher lectured in teacher education courses in a higher education institution situated in the Kimberley region of Western Australia. In this capacity, the researcher visited many of the schools in the region and formed relationships with school personnel in both the Catholic and State Government school sectors. Her professional experiences in providing CM support to beginning teachers in schools both in the capacity as a Principal, and in supervising pre-service teachers on

practicum placements in the Kimberley region, along with lecturing in a unit on CM instigated her interest in this topic.

1.4 Purpose

The purpose of this research is to determine if neophyte teachers placed in remote community schools in the Kimberley region of Western Australia, where the dominant culture in the classroom is Indigenous Australian, are adequately prepared in the skills of CM. Graduate teachers leave teacher education courses with a range of CMS which they learn via practica and CM units. Given that the student population and teaching conditions in remote community schools is significantly different from those urban schools, in which the majority of teachers have undertaken their classroom practica, this research aims to determine the effectiveness of such CMS with Indigenous students and if there are any other teaching, organisational or cultural factors which may influence the effectiveness of the beginning teachers situated in remote locations.

1.5 Location of Research

This research was undertaken in the Kimberley region of Western Australia as shown in Figure 1.1. Chapter Two of this study provides further information regarding the geography of the Kimberley; however, it is significant to note that there are very few towns within the region (Figure 1.2). Most population centres are small remote Indigenous communities situated many hundreds of kilometres from the nearest town. Such communities are only accessible via a gravel road during the dry season and by aeroplane during the wet season, when the roads become impassable.



Figure 1.1. Map showing the location of the Kimberley region within Western Australia.

Reprinted from Your Gateway to Regional Western Australia, (n.d.), Retrieved from http://www.westauguide.com/wa_regions.php



Figure 1.2. Map of the Kimberley showing major roads and towns.

Reprinted from Western Australia Travel, (2015). Retrieved from <http://www.watravel.com.au/the-kimberley/kimberley-map.html>

The Kimberley region was selected for this research due to a number of reasons. It provided the opportunity to investigate the three factors of this research, namely, beginning teachers, Indigenous students and CMS. Within the region, 65.3% (Australian Curriculum Assessment and Reporting Authority, 2013) of the total primary aged student population identifies as being Indigenous with just over 33% of all teachers being graduate teachers (Department of Education Western Australia, 2014h; Sharplin, 2002). There are more than 30 different Indigenous tribes within the Kimberley, each with their own unique language and cultural practices (Save the Kimberley, 2014). In addition there is no evidence that research of this nature has been undertaken in this specific region.

1.6 Significance

This research is significant in that it addresses the nature of the relationship between CMS, Indigenous students and neophyte teachers. The Department of Education (WA) and the Catholic Education Office (WA) utilise considerable resources providing support and training for beginning teachers, in the areas of Indigenous education programs and CMS. Given that such training is aimed at reducing beginning teachers' attrition rates, this research is important. The findings of this study recommend potential changes to the preparation of pre-service teachers, by teacher education institutions, so as to reduce some of the perceived deficits associated with the dominant education system. Such changes may result in beginning teachers effectively using CMS with Indigenous students in the Kimberley. This research makes an original contribution to education research through the introduction of a 'cultural frame-switching' theory. Such theory is the foundation upon which CMS, pedagogical strategies, curriculum decisions and positive relationship building with Indigenous students can be positioned.

1.7 Research Questions

There are four research questions that this study sets out to investigate:

1. What classroom management strategies are used by beginning teachers to return students in Kimberley classrooms to on-task behaviours?
2. How effective are these strategies at returning students to on-task behaviours?
3. Is there a difference in the effectiveness of the classroom management strategies used between Indigenous and non-Indigenous students?
4. What information and strategies would graduate teachers liked to have been exposed to in their teacher education course in order to more effectively manage primary classrooms in the Kimberley region of Western Australia?

1.8 Investigative Approach

This research is a qualitatively-based interpretive study which is sociological in orientation. It is framed within an Anglo context as both the beginning teachers and researcher come from this background. Data was collected on two separate occasions using the ethnographic research techniques of semi-structured interviews and field work. The research was undertaken in two phases. Phase one enabled the collection of baseline data against which further data, collected in phase two, could be compared. Phase one occurred early in term one to reduce the possibility of the beginning teachers receiving professional development from within the school setting, prior to the commencement of the research. Phase two was undertaken towards the end of term three in the neophyte teacher's first year of teaching. Grounded theory was selected as the methodology for this research as it is well suited to enquire into topics about which little is known. It also provides the opportunity to

find the answers to the research questions, rather than attempting to prove a preconceived theoretical hypothesis.

1.9 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is organised into six chapters. Table 1.1 gives an overview of the structure.

Table 1.1

Overview of Thesis Structure

Chapter 1	Introduction
Chapter 2	Literature Review
Chapter 3	Methodology
Chapter 4	Findings
Chapter 5	Analysis and Discussion of the Data
Chapter 6	Conclusion, Recommendations and Future Directions

Chapter 1 introduces this thesis. It provides background information about the research including the location of where the study was undertaken. The context of the thesis along with the purpose and a brief overview of the investigative approach taken are included. Finally the research questions under consideration and a brief synopsis of the following chapters is introduced.

Chapter 2 outlines the literature relevant to this study. Such literature includes that which examines any interconnection between beginning teachers, CM and Indigenous students. This chapter looks at the historical context of the relationship between Indigenous and non-Indigenous peoples. The importance of building alliances with the Indigenous community and of a culturally appropriate curriculum and pedagogy are discussed. Cultural

differences between the teacher and student are considered as are some of the challenges faced by the beginning teachers. Issues associated with the preparation of pre-service teachers for teaching in remote locations are identified and classroom management difficulties and the consequence of ineffective CMS are examined. To conclude this chapter, a brief theoretical perspective of grounded theory and the place of the literature review within this research are discussed.

Chapter 3 describes the grounded theory methodology used to collect and interpret the data to address the research questions. This research is a qualitatively-based interpretive study using the ethnographic research techniques of semi-structured interviews and field work. To assist with the interpretation of the data a functional behavioural analysis is utilised. A description of the sampling strategy and instrumentation protocols is provided along with details of the verification strategies used to demonstrate the rigour of the research process.

Chapter 4 reports the findings of the study. This chapter provides information regarding the demography of the local region. Included is specific data regarding the composition of each teacher's class to contextualise the findings. Initially, the chapter is structured around the most prevalent categories that emerged from the coding exercise. Data collected via semi-structured interviews and field work in both phases of the research is then reported as are the findings from new categories which emerged from the data. Excerpts from each beginning teacher's interview responses, along with data tables are included to highlight the findings.

Chapter 5 combines the analysis and discussion sections of the research. Initially the CMS used by the beginning teachers in each phase of this research are examined. The theoretical sampling codes that emerged are then compared and contrasted with the findings in each phase of the study. Further, this chapter addresses the four research questions and

introduces the new theory of ‘cultural frame-switching’ that emerged through the use of grounded theory methodology.

Chapter 6 provides the dénouement to this thesis. Included are the overall conclusions and recommendations for practice; both for teacher education courses and for beginning teachers posted to remote location schools. Limitations of the research and possible future research directions arising out of this study are suggested. The concluding statements highlight the research findings.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter explores the literature pertinent to the current study in order to situate the research within the existing body of knowledge and to provide contextual background for the remaining chapters in the thesis. This current research is positioned within three significant areas of educational study, namely; classroom management (CM), neophyte teachers and Indigenous students. Each area has attracted considerable attention over the past 20 years due to a range of factors including media coverage, the results from educational testing programs, government enquiries, the high attrition rates of teachers and empirical based studies.

This chapter consists of four main sections. The initial section focuses on factors that have an influence on the interrelationship between beginning teachers and Indigenous students. Within this section the historical context of the relationship between Indigenous and Anglo peoples is briefly explained. Further, the cultural differences between the teacher and student are discussed as are the significance of implementing a culturally appropriate curriculum and pedagogy. This section concludes with a discussion about the importance of building positive alliances with the Indigenous students and parents in the community. The subsequent section focuses on issues associated with beginning teachers and remote teaching placements. Such issues include geographic and demographic isolation, professional isolation, insufficient cultural knowledge and confronting social issues. This section also examines the preparation of beginning teachers, by teacher education institutions, to teach in remote locations. Additional support requirements, as identified by graduate teachers, due to the challenges associated with the remote location are discussed. The third section of the chapter focuses on CM and beginning teachers and then specifically looks at issues

associated with CM and teaching in remote locations. Given that this research used grounded theory methodology, the final section of this chapter provides a brief theoretical perspective of grounded theory and the place of the literature review within this study.

Within the context of this study it is relevant to note that CM consists of both proactive and responsive components. CM is not the same as behaviour management or classroom discipline; which is the reactive approach taken by classroom teachers once an infraction has occurred. The subject of this current research is CM with a focus on the range of proactive classroom management strategies (CMS) used by beginning classroom teachers, with the aim of redirecting student behaviour to enhance learning opportunities (O'Neill and Stephenson, 2011). As such, it is concerned with what happens prior to a teacher having to resort to behaviour management or classroom discipline strategies, in the hope that these may be largely obviated.

2.2 Factors Influencing the Nexus between Indigenous and Anglo People

The relationship between Indigenous and Anglo people is one that has been built over many hundreds of years and influenced by many different incidences, occurrences and decisions. Within the context of this research, the following section looks at a number of factors which are likely to have a bearing on the nexus between graduate teachers and Indigenous students. Such factors include the history of interactions between Indigenous and Anglo people, the cultural differences between the Indigenous students and the Anglo beginning teacher, the curriculum and pedagogical approaches used by the neophyte teacher and alliance building with community members.

2.2.1 Historical context.

Beginning teachers placed in Indigenous remote communities within Western Australia are often faced with difficult and unexpected challenges that can produce feelings of inadequacy and apprehension (Munns, 2001; Sharplin et al., 2011). However, such challenges are not unique to Western Australian graduate teachers. International evidence from Canada, New Zealand and the United States of America has been included in this literature review to demonstrate that the challenges faced by the neophyte teachers located in the Kimberley are not unique (Munns, 2001). Nieto (1999) found that there were many similarities in the findings from New Zealand, Australian and American studies.

Through an examination of relevant literature from Australia, New Zealand, the United States of America and Canada, it is intended to identify the mutual challenges that beginning teachers placed in Indigenous remote communities face and how such challenges can impact upon CM practice. These four countries were selected as primary source material as they share many common features. All countries were at one time colonised by Britain; they each have a similar compulsory education structure, beginning with early childhood education and finishing at the completion of secondary education, each country delivers educational programs to Indigenous students who, in Australia, the United States of America and Canada may be located in remote communities; and large numbers of beginning teachers are placed in such communities within these three countries (Baker, 2005; Fontaine, Kane, Duquette, & Savoie-Zajc, 2012; Kitchenham & Chasteauneuf, 2010; Macfarlane, 2000; O'Neill & Stephenson, 2011).

The arrival of British colonialists in North America, Canada, Australia and New Zealand resulted in Indigenous peoples being exiled from their homeland and embroiled in cultural conflicts brought about by colonial expansion (Ballyn, 2011). Policies of assimilation

led to many families being transported to missions or placed on reserves. Generations of Indigenous children were removed from their families with the aim of improving their life by helping them to become more like 'white' people (Beresford, 2010; Rudd, 2008). In Australia, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children were taken from their families from the late 1800s to mid-1970 and sent to government, church or private institutions or were adopted by non-Indigenous families (Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission, 1997). Such children are known as the 'Stolen Generations'. Sovereignty generally went unrecognised and the Aboriginal population in Australia was not viewed as citizenry under The Australian Constitution until 1967 (National Sorry Day Committee Inc, 2014).

The impact of colonisation included open warfare, significant deaths caused by new diseases, dispossession of land, and the breakdown of the traditional way of life and culture via the forced removal of children from families (Armitage, 1995). Such experiences, over a long period of time, have led to Indigenous Australian parents bringing up their children to be resilient in the face of anticipated racially induced hardships, both at school and more generally, in society (Munns, 2001). It is within this challenging environment, that beginning teachers placed in remote Indigenous communities may be perceived as a symbol of a resented majority culture (Kleinfeld & McDiarmid, 1986).

It also appears that many graduate teachers have limited knowledge of Indigenous people or Indigenous culture and therefore tend to rely on stereotypes and misconceptions as the basis for their decisions (Partington, 2002). Unfortunately, as a result of making uninformed decisions, the beginning teacher may alienate themselves from the community and contribute to the tension between Anglo and Indigenous cultural understandings and mores.

2.2.2 Cultural differences.

Many graduate teachers, placed in remote Indigenous communities come almost exclusively from the dominant Anglo culture and bring with them the attitudes and beliefs of that community. Consequently, such teachers tend to deliver an ethnocentric Anglo biased curriculum which reinforces Anglo knowledge and values without recognising Indigenous history, values, language and perspectives (Crosby, 1999; Folds, 1987; Jordan & Howard, 1985; Partington & Gray, 2003). Partington and Gray (2003) found that the knowledge and skills taught within an Anglo based curriculum can create conflict for Indigenous people who have culturally different values and beliefs. Such imposition of Anglo values and behaviours may cause Indigenous students to actively rebel against Anglo culturally entrenched approaches (McCarthy & Benally, 2003; McIntyre, 1996; Peshkin, 1997). Capozza (2001) and Noble and Bowd (2005) found that misbehaviour by Indigenous students could be partly attributed to the legacy of colonialism and discrimination. As a result of historical issues and prior experience with graduate non-Indigenous teachers, many Indigenous students use non-conformity and misbehaviour as a strategy of resistance to avoid compliance with Anglo expectations, behaviours and accepted practices.

Given that most beginning teachers tend to seek compliance based on Anglo behavioural expectations and a range of Anglo based CM rules and strategies (Cain, 2014; Curran, Tomlinson-Clarke, & Weinstein, 2003; Groome & Hamilton, 1995; Partington, 2002; Tchacos, 2011), it is not surprising that their attempts at CM are met with resistance from Indigenous students. Harper (2000) found it not to be the cultural diversity per se that creates resistance and social tensions but the values attached to the cultural practices. In the classroom, non-Indigenous students tend to defer to adults and orientate themselves in ways that are culturally defined. Indigenous students, who are more socially autonomous, may not

be as attentive to the Anglo teacher as they expect. When giving instructions or directions to an Indigenous student, the student may walk away from the teacher rather than stand still and listen. This act is contrary to the Anglo teacher's expectation that proximity be maintained, which is not the expectation within the Indigenous community. Indigenous students also tend not to acknowledge that they have heard and understood the teacher, whereas the Anglo teacher is expecting a response from the student. In the oft-cited example that demonstrates the value placed on an expected response, an Anglo teacher would expect the students to maintain eye contact when being spoken to, however, in some Australian Indigenous cultures respect is demonstrated by looking down (Charles Sturt University, n.d.). Teachers from an Anglo background would usually see these actions as rude or inattentive and would discourage such behaviours, while Indigenous students may not be aware that it was considered inappropriate for the classroom, since it is appropriate outside in their other social contexts (Harris & Malin, 1994). Such misunderstandings regarding cultural differences can lead to mainstream Anglo teachers imposing more controlling actions on the students, thus reinforcing the perceptions of Indigenous students that their teachers are part of the resented cultural majority (Partington, 2002).

In schools throughout the world, including Indigenous Australian, American Indian, Māori and Aboriginal Canadian schools, statistics indicate that Indigenous students have higher rates of misbehaviour than non-Indigenous students (Noble & Bowd, 2005). Bishop, Berryman, and Richardson (2001) examined the responses of teachers to Indigenous students' misbehaviour compared with non-Indigenous students' misbehaviour. They found that Indigenous students' misbehaviour is given greater weight and attention than the same misbehaviour by non-Indigenous students. Anglo teachers tended to show less flexibility in their interactions with Indigenous students and often resorted to confronting behaviours such as sarcasm, scapegoating, differential treatment and other punitive practices. Such actions by

the teacher can rapidly exacerbate an already difficult situation resulting in more severe outcomes than were initially warranted and an increase in the incidence of challenging behaviours by the students (Cartledge, Gibson, & Singh, 2008; Partington, 1997; Pewewardy, 2002).

It appears that due to the mismatch between Anglo teachers and Indigenous students' culture and expectations, there is often an increase in the rate of truancy as students demonstrate they are unwilling to attend a school that does not understand or recognise Indigenous cultural values (Berger, Cameron, & Lovett, 2007; Hickling-Hudson & Ahlquist, 2003; McCarthy & Benally, 2003). Unfortunately, continual truancy can eventually lead to students' accelerated departure from school as the difference in the educational understandings between those who attend regularly and those who are regularly truant makes further learning insurmountable. To compound the situation, Indigenous students who may resent Anglo based practices nevertheless have little choice to do otherwise, as they are required to attend school by law. Indigenous students are therefore caught in an impasse. Although innately counter-cultural, if they fail to obey the teacher they risk penalties for lack of compliance and if they fail to attend school they run afoul of laws regarding attendance (Hare & Pidgeon, 2011).

Further complications arise as Indigenous students are often under great pressure from their peers not to achieve in school. Historical issues concerning being badly treated by Anglo people have resulted in many entrenched barriers being created. Achievement at school can draw attention to themselves as an individual in a culture where being part of the group is of greater importance (McIntyre, 1992; Noble & Bowd, 2005). Consequently, success at school may be viewed as indicating that 'one is leaving one's culture behind' which may result in the student no longer being accepted within their cultural community as they are seen as identifying with the 'oppressors' (Maguire, n.d.-b; McInerney, 1995;

McIntyre, 1996; Munns, 2001; Noble & Bowd, 2005; Partington & Gray, 2003; Peshkin, 1997). It appears that such circumstances leave those students who wish to learn at school in a 'Catch 22' situation.

In summary, given that the majority of beginning teachers placed in remote schools come from an Anglo background, an Anglo cultural context will usually be used to define socially appropriate and acceptable behaviours and values (McIntyre, 1992). McInerney (1995), Curran et al. (2003) and Mueller (2006) found that many beginning teachers have to learn that meaning is culturally mediated and that not everyone subscribes to the Anglo culture. Until more beginning teachers undertake cultural awareness training, it appears that mainstream Anglo strategies will continue to be utilised with Indigenous students, without any significant acknowledgement of Indigenous ways of learning (McInerney, 1995). The consequence of which is a lack of Indigenous student interest, increased truancy and CM problems which will almost certainly impact on Indigenous student educational outcomes.

2.2.3 Curriculum and pedagogical approaches.

As early as 1928, Meriam et al. identified that it would be beneficial for beginning teachers to undertake a period of training in American Indian schools on reservations. It was felt that teachers could use this time to learn about American Indian life, become aware of the cultural differences, learn about the part of the country in which they were working, experience the isolation from European-American culture, and live in the same conditions as do American Indian students to better understand their needs in the classroom. Unfortunately little appears to have changed in this regard in almost 90 years after the writing of Meriam et al. (1928), so it is not surprising that many Indigenous people have little optimism that schools and teachers are genuinely interested in their cultural imperatives (Munns, 2001). Lewthwaite and McMillan (2010) found that at the heart of many school systems is a belief

that Western ways are superior to Indigenous traditions and that Indigenous students bring deficits rather than assets to the classroom. Such thinking suggests that students' background experiences and cultural traditions are considered to be of limited value or importance, and so tend not to be incorporated into the curriculum by the beginning teacher. As a result, it has been reported that few Indigenous students have enjoyed a positive school relationship as they find schools intimidating and culturally estranging (Munns, 2001).

Within the context of the Canadian Northwest Territories, Cherubini and Hodson (2008) found that if beginning teachers understood the history, traditions and language of the Indigenous students, they could be sensitive to the important role that such factors played and incorporate aspects into the curriculum. There is strong evidence suggesting that the incorporation of Indigenous language and cultural programs in First Nations, Métis and Inuit schools is associated with improved attendance and academic performance, increased retention rates, an improvement in personal behaviour in the classroom, and a strengthening of the pupils' sense of self-identity (Alberta Education First Nations Métis and Inuit Services Branch, 2008; Harris & Malin, 1994). To assist beginning teachers incorporate a culturally relevant curriculum into their teaching, Inuit educators and elders developed a curriculum document, Inuuqatigiit (Northwest Territories Culture and Employment, 1996). This document was intended to be a catalyst for curriculum change and address some of the inequality around the use of Indigenous culture and language within the classroom. However, there was considerable incompatibility between the 'Anglo-centric' curriculum, many non-Indigenous teachers cultural knowledge and Inuuqatigiit resulting in the curriculum document being difficult for Anglo teachers to implement (Aylward, 2012). Consequently, there was a limited take up of the Inuit curriculum by non-Indigenous teachers.

In New Zealand, Māori education is identified as a priority area for the Ministry of Education. Ka Hikitia - Accelerating Success 2013-2017 (Ministry of Education, 2014a) is

the current strategy which aims at making changes to the education system to enable Māori students to achieve educational success. Within New Zealand, there are two types of schools: English-medium schools where Te reo Māori, the official indigenous language of New Zealand, tends to be taught only within the context of the Learning Languages subject; and Māori-medium schools, where at least 51% of the time students are taught all or some of the curriculum subjects in the Māori language (Ministry of Education, 2014c). The use of Te reo Māori in the classroom has been shown to assist in building culturally appropriate classrooms through the immersion of students in the Māori language (Ministry of Education, 2010). In Māori-medium schools, the national Māori curriculum Te Marautanga o Aotearoa is taught rather than The New Zealand Curriculum taught in Anglo-based schools. To increase the number of practitioners qualified to teach in Māori-medium schools, people interested in becoming teachers are able to enrol in a Bachelor of Education - Huarahi Māori (The University of Auckland, 2014). Such graduate teachers are fluent in Te reo Māori, teach the Māori curriculum and incorporate Māori culture and values into their teaching. In 2014, from a total of 2079 beginning teachers, 88 or 4.2% were employed in Māori-medium schools (Ministry of Education, 2014b). Similarly to First Nations, Métis and Inuit students, Bishop et al. (2001) found strong evidence suggesting that for Māori students' to achieve educational success the teaching and learning must take place within the Māori culture.

In Australia, the Commonwealth Schools Commission (1988) found that cultural differences should be valued by beginning teachers as one approach to gaining the confidence of the school community. The Department of Education Western Australia (2014a) recommends that classrooms be welcoming places for Indigenous students; where inclusivity is demonstrated through a culturally appropriate curriculum, the presence of Aboriginal people, the acceptance of Aboriginal English and the use of positive Indigenous role models (Partington & Gray, 2003). Munns (2001) found that teachers and schools that embrace

Indigenous studies and contemporary Indigenous issues show a genuine commitment to boosting both individual and community morale. Such commitment can result in increased participation at school by Indigenous students and a decreasing truancy rate.

In relation to beginning teachers and pedagogical approaches to use with Indigenous students, research indicates there are a number of universal strategies which beginning teachers can incorporate that have proved to be effective (Pewewardy, 1998, 2002; Towl, 2007). Such strategies include discussing feelings, values and attitudes; particularly when students display inappropriate behaviours, displaying interest, compassion and concern for students and their families, being enthusiastic about learning, being fair and having a sense of humour without indulging the students or trying to be their friend (Alberta Education First Nations Métis and Inuit Services Branch, 2008; Kleinfeld, McDiarmid, Grubis, & Parrett, 1983; Towl, 2007). Yazzie (1999), Blasi (2001) and Curran et al. (2003) found that being positive and creating an informal, caring environment were effective in establishing and maintaining a learning community conducive to Indigenous learning. Ignoring inappropriate behaviour, giving warnings about unacceptable behaviour couched in terms of the local community mores and praising culturally honourable behaviour are all identified as being culturally sensitive pedagogies which facilitate effective intervention when students are off-task (Alberta Education First Nations Métis and Inuit Services Branch, 2008; Kleinfeld et al., 1983; McIntyre, 1992).

It appears that the classroom practice of many teachers of Indigenous students has been influenced by learning style theory (Cassidy, 2004). The theory posits that individuals differ in how they learn, so teachers need to assess the learning styles of their students and adapt their pedagogy accordingly. Alberta Education First Nations Métis and Inuit Services Branch (2008); Cherubini and Hodson (2008) and Maguire (n.d.-b) identified that the preferred learning style of many Indigenous students involves teachers using culturally

appropriate pedagogies, which mirror traditional learning methods. Such pedagogies include language experience; collaborative learning strategies; small group work and using real world problems that required analytical and inductive reasoning.

In 1981 Kearins found that many Indigenous students are visual-spatial learners rather than assimilators of abstract concepts. Such a finding resulted in teachers' incorporating many hands-on materials in the classroom. The purpose of which was to facilitate active student engagement and enable students to construct their own meaning of the concepts taught (Benally & McCarthy, 2003; Partington & Gray, 2003). However, Cazden (1990) found such entrenched beliefs might have been disadvantageous and inadvertently limit the opportunity for Indigenous students to develop the higher level cognitive skills and metacognition necessary for educational success. Folds (1987) also warned teachers not to link learning styles to cultural traits in a punitive manner for fear of further marginalising and alienating Indigenous students within the context of the dominant Anglo education system. Despite concerns about the application of learning style theory with Indigenous students, the theory represented an important advance in educating Indigenous students as it challenged and replaced previous deficit notions about the ability of Indigenous students to be educated to the same level as their non-Indigenous counterparts (Lewthwaite & McMillan, 2010; Munns, 2001; Towl, 2007).

It appears that some beginning teachers have the misunderstanding that in order to decrease Indigenous students off-task behaviour they should provide students with easier work, give unproductive help, complete the work themselves or allow the students to engage in 'free time' (Alberta Education First Nations Métis and Inuit Services Branch, 2008). However, Partington (2006a) found that when the work was set at either a too high or too low standard student misbehaviour increased. To prevent off-task behaviour, beginning teachers would do well to adjust the curriculum, by using classroom practices that increase

educational equality and decrease the likelihood of further resistance towards school (Munns, 2001).

Resistance theory advances that when students respond with oppositional behaviour because of their perception that the school is not delivering promised educational success to the majority of the group, then that behaviour is a rational response (Spronson, 2004). As such, the wayward behaviour displayed by some Indigenous students may be a cultural response to an inappropriate curriculum and ineffectual pedagogical practices (Alberta Education First Nations Métis and Inuit Services Branch, 2007; Kitchen, Cherubini, Trudeau, & Hodson, 2010). It appears that the challenge for beginning teachers is to alter the curriculum and their pedagogical practices so as to be responsive to the physical, emotional, social, cultural and cognitive needs of the Indigenous students and to promote equitable educational opportunities (Brown, 2004; Munns, 2001).

In summary, it seems that at all levels of schooling, beginning teachers should be developing and teaching a curriculum relevant to Indigenous students, namely, one that is aimed at an appropriate level, supports risk-taking, is challenging and enables students to achieve success. Pedagogical strategies appropriate to Indigenous learning preferences should also be utilised to maximise learning outcomes and minimise disruptive classroom behaviour. The students' cultural knowledge, prior experiences and frames of reference can also be incorporated into the curriculum to make learning more relevant and effective (Brown, 2004; Curran et al., 2003; Lewthwaite & McMillan, 2010).

2.2.4 Alliances with Indigenous members of the community.

Research has consistently found that one of the most influential factors in a students' educational experience is the teacher (Harris & Malin, 1994; Hattie, 2011; McInerney, 1995; Munns, 2001). It appears that teachers who are able to develop a strong alliance built on trust

and mutual respect, play a significant role in the success of Indigenous students at school (Alberta Education First Nations Métis and Inuit Services Branch, 2007; Hattie, 2011; Hobart, 1970; McAlpine & Crago, 1995; Munns, 2001). To build such alliances it has been found that beginning teachers should deliberately invest time so as to get to know the students, their families and the issues affecting the local community (Groome & Hamilton, 1995; Macfarlane, Glynn, Grace, Penetito, & Bateman, 2008; Munns, 2001; Openshaw, 2007; Partington & Gray, 2003). However, Cherubini and Hodson (2008) found that building alliances can be a long process, as due to historical contexts, many Indigenous parents see the school as an alien place that has little relevance to the immediate lives of the community. It should be noted that the high attrition rate of beginning teachers in remote locations may also affect the success rate of building alliances between the teacher and the community. It seems that if the Indigenous students and parents deem it unlikely that the beginning teacher will commit to working in the local community for a reasonable period of time, they may be cynical of the efforts by the beginning teacher to build such alliances (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Hudson & Hudson, 2008; Sharplin et al., 2011).

Research has shown that involving parents in the education of Indigenous students is generally considered important, as there is a positive correlation between family participation and the educational success of Indigenous students (Stachowski & Frey, 2003). Such involvement establishes a link between home and school enabling the teacher to enlist the support of the parents in the education of the student (Alberta Education First Nations Métis and Inuit Services Branch, 2008). However, many Indigenous parents tend to be unfamiliar with school routines and may be intimidated by the Anglo education system. It is possible that some Indigenous parents may have had their own negative issues with schooling, including experiences when education was used as a tool for assimilation (Maguire, n.d.-a; National Languages Literacy Institute of Australia, 1996; National Sorry Day Committee

Inc, 2014). Such negative educational experiences can strongly influence the capacity of beginning teachers to build effective alliances with Indigenous parents (Jordan & Howard, 1985; Partington, 2002). It is also important to recognise, that in some instances, the lack of direct involvement by Indigenous parents in the school may reflect differing perspectives about parental responsibility rather than a lack of commitment to their children's education (Curran et al., 2003).

Studies have indicated that teachers do not have to be of any particular ethnicity or cultural background to relate successfully to Indigenous students and there is no correlation between age, gender, type of teacher education, subject area or years of experience and the ability to build alliances (Hawk, Cowley, & Sutherland, 2001; Macfarlane, 2004). Of importance, however, is the character of the teacher, their attitudes, values, behaviours, efforts and skills that enable alliances to be built and assist Indigenous students to learn. Unfortunately there is considerable evidence indicating that some teachers do not attempt to build alliances with the Indigenous students in their class. Gardiner, Evans, and Howell (1995) found that 42% of the Indigenous students surveyed did not like their teacher and a similar proportion (39%) perceived that their teacher did not care about them. This perception was based on receiving minimal individual attention or personal contact from the teacher, which resulted in students feeling neglected or believing that the teacher did not like them (Maguire, n.d.-a). Such adverse feelings tend to result in negative outcomes for Indigenous student achievement, behaviour and retention at school, as well as contribute to the perpetuation of negative feelings towards the education system by Indigenous people (Partington, 2002).

In summary, there is a wide range of factors which have influenced the nexus between Indigenous and Anglo people. Some factors are historically or culturally based and not the result of direct actions taken by neophyte teachers. However, beginning teachers are able to

exert an influence on some factors such as curriculum choices and pedagogical approaches. It would therefore seem appropriate that in order to enhance the nexus between the beginning teachers and Indigenous students such factors as discussed would be an appropriate starting point.

2.3 Issues Associated with Teaching in a Remote Location

This section of the literature review examines some of the main challenges and concerns that beginning teachers may encounter when placed in a remote location on their first teaching placement. Such challenges include geographic and demographic isolation; professional isolation; insufficient cultural knowledge and confronting social issues which permeate the classroom. Issues surrounding the preparation of graduate teachers to teach in remote locations and additional support requirements that beginning teachers have identified are discussed (Australian Primary Principals Association, 2007; Berger et al., 2007; Commonwealth Schools Commission, 1988; Connors, 2007; Hudson & Hudson, 2008; Kleinfeld & McDiarmid, 1986; McCormack & Kaye, 2003; Sharplin et al., 2011).

2.3.1 Geographic and demographic challenges.

Given that most neophyte teachers come from an urban background and have most probably undertaken a teacher education course, including practica, in large cities or towns (Commonwealth Schools Commission, 1988) they are unlikely to be cognisant of the geographic and demographic challenges associated with living in a remote region.

Within Australia, New Zealand, Canada and the United States many beginning teachers are located in locations (Baker, 2005; Fontaine et al., 2012; Kitchenham & Chasteauneuf, 2010; Macfarlane, 2000; O'Neill & Stephenson, 2011) where they are confronted with challenges associated with the geographical location and the demographic of

the local community. Such findings are supported by Tolley (2003) who identified that within the Northwest Territory there was a wide range of geographically and demographically challenging environments where beginning teachers might expect to find themselves located.

Elfers, Plecki, and Knapp (2006) and Simon and Johnson (2013) found that the geographic location of a school is a key factor in influencing teacher turnover. This is particularly so in Western Australia because of the remoteness and lack of facilities in remote communities (Ashiedu & Scott-Ladd, 2012). (Roberts, 2005) specifically identified that geographic isolation had an impact on teacher attrition. He pointed out the difficulty in attracting and retaining teachers in such locations and the inadequacy of pre-service preparation for teaching in such locations. Within the United States, Daughtrey (2010) found that beginning teachers exhibited a significant preference for teaching close to home and Reininger (2012) found that graduate teachers are more likely to live closer to their family home than graduates from other professions. Consequently, unless conditions in remote schools are attractive enough to offset the isolated geographic location, it appears that remote schools will most likely continue to face a high turnover of staff.

The demographic of the student population has also been shown to influence beginning teacher attrition (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Elfers et al., 2006). Studies have found that in remote schools, which serve low-income communities, there is a high rate of teacher turnover (Ashiedu & Scott-Ladd, 2012; Simon & Johnson, 2013). It appears that when teachers leave remote schools they tend to move to schools with fewer low-income, low-achieving minority students (Clotfelter, Ladd, & Vigdor, 2011; Hanushek, Kain, & Rivkin, 2004; Scafidi, Sjoquist, & Stinebrickner, 2007). Ingersoll and Smith (2003) found, that in the four target countries, the churn of beginning teachers persists in schools that serve low-income communities.

The following overview briefly details the geographic and demographic features of a remote region within the four target countries. This information is provided to assist in appreciating the context in which beginning teachers are placed. In Australia the Kimberley region of Western Australia is targeted and in Canada the focus is on the Northwest Territories. Within both regions there are significant numbers of Indigenous students living in remote communities. In mainland United States of America, the majority of American Indian students tend to congregate within cities and towns scattered throughout the country. This overview is focused on those communities whose schools are administered by the local tribe or by the Bureau of Indian Education. Such communities are usually found in isolated locations where the majority of Indigenous students attend the local schools. In New Zealand, the Indigenous Māori people are located throughout the country, including rural towns and villages, and attend local schools. As geographic isolation does not appear to be a factor with beginning teachers in New Zealand, this overview focuses on the demography of the Māori people.

2.3.1.1 The Kimberley region (Australia).

The Kimberley region is situated in the northern part of Western Australia as indicated in Figure 1.1. The region has an area of 423 517 square kilometres (Department of Education Western Australia, 2014a) which is divided into four local government areas as listed in Table 3.1. The Kimberley has a tropical monsoon climate with the region receiving about 94% of its rainfall (National Water Commission, 2009) during the wet season, between November and April, when the rivers flood making much of the region difficult to traverse. Sealed roads and airstrips are often submerged which can leave communities isolated for weeks. The population of the Kimberley is approximately 35 000 with only three towns having populations greater than 2 000: Broome (12 766), Kununurra (4 573) and Derby (3

261) (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011a). The remainder of the population live in one of almost 200 remote Aboriginal communities where the population can vary from roughly 50 to 350 residents (Department of Education Western Australia, 2014a). Approximately 44% of the region's population identifies as being an Australian Aborigine (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011a). The median age of the Indigenous population is 23 and the median employment rate of Indigenous adults is just over 37% (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2013). Approximately 80% of adults do not complete secondary school and those who do complete Year 12 tend to reside in the three large towns identified above (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2013; Department of Indigenous Affairs, 2010).

2.3.1.2 The Northwest Territories (Canada).

The Northwest Territories in Canada cover approximately 1.2 million square kilometres of forest, tundra and mountains, interspersed with lakes and rivers (Statistics Canada, 2011b). The population of the Northwest Territories is about 41 000 people with only three population centres having more than 2000 residents: Yellowknife (18 352), Inuvik (3 403) and Hay River (2 806) (Statistics Canada, 2011b). The remainder of the population live in 27 hamlets, settlements or villages situated throughout the Northwest Territories. Over 50% of the population identifies as being native Canadian, including First Nations (Indian), Inuit and Métis peoples (Statistics Canada, 2011a). Some 18.5% of children aged 5 to 14 in the Northwest Territories identify as Aboriginal Canadian (Statistics Canada, 2011a). There are two Indian reserves in the Northwest Territories, Hay River Dene 1 and Salt River 195 with a combined population of just over 300 people (Aboriginal Affairs and Northern Development Canada, 2014). Transportation and communication in the Northwest Territories is extremely difficult as the area stretches into the Arctic Circle. Due to long winters closing rivers to transport for up to ten months of the year, commerce, supply and travel is mainly via

air and the region has numerous airfields. In some locations north of the Arctic Circle, sunlight is almost continuous for three months of the year and during winter the sun may not rise above the horizon (Canada Immigration and Citizenship, 2014). There are 49 schools within the Northwest Territories, ranging in size from 5 students at Kakisa and Jean Marie River to 700 at Sir John Franklin High School in Yellowknife (Northwest Territories Culture and Employment, 2014b).

2.3.1.3 The United States of America.

In the United States of America, just under 5 200 000 people identify as being American Indian or Alaska Native with approximately 2 000 000 people living within the vicinity of the tribe (US Department of the Interior Office - Indian Affairs, 2014). Throughout the United States, there are 566 federally recognised tribes and 325 federally recognised American Indian reserves, however, 78% of American Indians live outside of a reservation (US Department of the Interior Office - Indian Affairs, 2014). American Indians live in all States; with Alaska having the largest proportion of the population (14.3%) identifying as Alaska Native or American Indian. There are fewer than 200 tribal languages spoken within the United States, with English being the predominant language spoken at home, in the work place and at school (Aboriginal Affairs and Northern Development Canada, 2014). The Bureau of Indian Education oversees 183 schools and residential dormitories across 23 States. Of these schools, 126 are tribally controlled and 57 are operated by the Bureau of Indian Education. These schools are located on 64 reservations and educate approximately 42 000 elementary and secondary students (US Department of the Interior Office - Indian Affairs, 2014).

2.3.1.4 New Zealand.

New Zealand consists of two main islands; the North and South Island with many smaller islands lying off-shore. The total area of all islands is 268 021 square kilometres which is divided into 53 local government districts (Department of Internal Affairs, 2015). The North Island is dominated by an active volcanic and thermal area, while the South Island contains the Southern Alps and the Canterbury plain (New Zealand Tourism, 2015). There are an estimated 702 000 Māori residing in New Zealand, making up roughly 15% of the national population (Statistics New Zealand, 2014b). The Māori population live in all districts, ranging from 142 770 people living in the Auckland District to just under 50 in the Stratford District (Statistics New Zealand, 2014a). The Māori language, known as te reo Māori, is spoken by about a quarter of all Māori people, although many non-Indigenous New Zealanders regularly use Māori words and expressions. The median age of Māori is 23.9 years with 51.8% of the population being female and 48.2% being male (Statistics New Zealand, 2014b). The New Zealand student population is becoming increasingly diverse with 40% of students in schools being from non-Anglo-European backgrounds (Ministry of Education, 2015b). However, at least 79% of the primary and secondary teachers in most recent NZ teacher census were of Anglo-European ancestry (Ministry of Education, 2012). Within the education sector there is the opportunity for Māori students (from early childhood education to tertiary level) to attend Māori-medium schools where the teaching is undertaken in te reo Māori and there are strong connections within the curriculum to Māori culture, language and identity. There are 287 Māori –medium schools in New Zealand (Ministry of Education, 2015a). Approximately 19.7% Māori have a Bachelor’s degree or higher qualification with Māori females being more likely to participate in study than Māori men (Statistics New Zealand, 2014b).

The above brief overview illustrates that there are a number of comparable geographic and demographic challenges faced by beginning teachers in each of the four countries. As such, beginning teachers in the Kimberley district are not unique in the range of challenges that confront them (Munns, 2001).

Exclusive of the geography and demography of each region which are immutable, research has shown that beginning teachers placed in remote communities encounter a range of other challenges which tend not to be faced by neophyte teachers appointed to suburban locations (Australian Primary Principals Association, 2007; Berger et al., 2007; Kleinfeld & McDiarmid, 1986; McCormack & Kaye, 2003; Sharplin et al., 2011). Among the most significant challenges encountered are difficulty in accessing professional support networks including mentors, exiguous cultural knowledge and confronting social and emotional issues (Commonwealth Schools Commission, 1988; Department of Education Western Australia, 2014c; Hall, 2013; Hudson & Hudson, 2008; Schuck et al., 2012).

2.3.2 Professional isolation.

In Western Australia, it is widely accepted that graduate teachers who want fulltime employment will have to teach in remote or very remote communities (Frid, Smith, Sparrow, & Trinidad, 2008). In such environments, beginning teachers tend to find it difficult to access professional support networks as the size of Western Australia and the location of remote communities can act as an impediment to accessing assistance. The ‘tyranny of distance’, this term became common parlance in Australia after the publication of Geoffrey Blainey’s (1968) book by the same name, often makes telecommunications problematic, particularly during severe weather. Accessing professional support usually necessitates travelling many hundreds of kilometres to the nearest local town via a gravel road that is frequently washed out during the wet season. Alternatively, beginning teachers have to use light aeroplanes to

attend professional learning programs. Such mode of transport is costly, as are accommodation, time away from the school and there is very little availability of relief teachers (Frid et al., 2008; Jenkins, Reitano, & Taylor, 2011; Kitchenham & Chasteauneuf, 2010; Sharplin, 2002). As such, professional learning and support tends to occur during the dry season when the weather makes movement across the Kimberley possible. As previously indicated, the wet season occurs between the months of November and April, so beginning teachers placed in remote communities in February, at the start of the school year, have to wait at least three months for professional support to be provided from outside agencies.

Joiner and Edwards (2008) and O'Neill (2014) found the retention of new teachers is influenced by the level and quality of professional support they receive. Such support may involve teacher induction, peer tutoring and mentorship programs, which have become more prevalent over recent years (Department of Education Western Australia, 2014e). Darling-Hammond (2003) observed that there has been an increase in retention rates as a result of the support programs that beginning teachers receive. However, Sharplin et al. (2011) found that in remote locations, despite an induction process, a range of mentoring programs and the use of technology to support beginning teachers, the absence of experienced teachers as potential mentors resulted in the turnover of beginning teachers remaining constant.

Due to the 'tyranny of distance' and problematic professional support, it appears that beginning teachers placed in remote locations would benefit from developing communication and interaction networks with colleagues, as a form of professional support. Yarrow, Ballantyne, Hansford, Herschell, and Millwater (1999) found that new teachers are usually reluctant to ask for assistance, as they are concerned that other staff may perceive them to be inept. Such lack of engagement in professional discussions can result in social, cultural and professional isolation for the graduate teacher. In contrast, Sharplin et al. (2011) found that many novice teachers demonstrated a range of communication strategies in order to get

information, seek assistance and connect with others when faced with stressful situations in the classroom. Nevertheless, Fetherston and Lummis (2012) and Sharplin et al. (2011) also found that the level of stress could become so extreme, that regardless of the level of professional support received from their peers, beginning teachers considered terminating their employment and leaving the remote community.

2.3.3 Insufficient cultural knowledge.

Teachers often describe their first year in a remote location, teaching Indigenous students from a culturally different background, as one of culture shock (McKenzie, Weldon, Rowley, Murphy, & McMillan, 2014; Sharplin et al., 2011; Veenman, 1984). As previously identified, the majority of beginning teachers come from a suburban Anglo background, have had limited, if any, exposure to teaching Indigenous students during pre-service practica and are trained by academics from a similar background. Such academics tend to lack cross cultural experience and knowledge and are therefore unable to offer authentic experiences of the context in which neophyte teachers may be placed (Brown, 2004; McIntyre, 1996). It is therefore not surprising that new teachers tend to find teaching in remote locations much more difficult than they experienced during teacher education placements in suburban schools (Blasi, 2001).

In Canada, the United States and Western Australia, graduate teachers are employed to teach Indigenous students in remote communities. As previously acknowledged, due to differential experiences in both the home and the community, Indigenous students may not subscribe to the norms of the Anglo teacher resulting in increased misbehaviour in the classroom and a failure to learn (Partington, Waugh, & Forrest, 2001). Misbehaviour usually consists of the actions and behaviours that disrupt Anglo classroom rules and mores and which the teacher has identified as being important to effective learning (Noble & Bowd,

2005). As a consequence, students who are non-white and have English as a second, third or fourth language or dialect tend to be over-identified as having behavioural difficulties (Coutinho & Oswald, 2000; McIntyre, 1996; Munns, 2001).

The identification of students who misbehave based on lack of adherence to the Anglo teacher's rules and norms may be attributed in part to the neophyte teacher's lack of understanding of the Indigenous student's culture (Curran et al., 2003; Evans, 1993; Noble & Bowd, 2005). As a result of limited cultural understandings, beginning teachers may act, often unconsciously, in ways that discriminate against Indigenous students in their classrooms (FlavioFrancisco, 1999; Yazzie, 1999). This occurs as the teachers may not understand that behaviour is culturally influenced, so they devalue and punish the behaviours that are not acceptable by their own suburban Anglo standards (Curran et al., 2003).

One cultural characteristic that can get Australian Indigenous students into trouble at school is their tendency to treat adults, including their teachers, as equals. The subtle signs of deference and conformity to the teacher, demonstrated by students from Anglo backgrounds, are often absent in the responses of Indigenous students which can result in teachers becoming more authoritarian as they seek the respect they believe they should be shown (Munns, 2001). Non-conforming students may also be seen as threats by beginning teachers who tend to believe they should be the custodians of power in the classroom (Commonwealth Schools Commission, 1988; Partington et al., 2001). Research has found that authoritarian or highly controlling teaching methods are not effective with Indigenous students (McAlpine & Crago, 1995; Noble & Bowd, 2005). Unfortunately, the result of increased teacher authoritarianism tends to be an increase in student resistance, leading to more class time being spent on CM and less time on teaching (Munns, 2001).

American Indian students also tend to get into trouble for having different communication and social behaviours to Anglo American students (Benally & McCarthy, 2003; Pewewardy, 2002). American Indian students have a strong allegiance to the family group including sharing and respect for each individual, regardless of age. These values are often seen as a barrier to educational and economic success by Anglo teachers, whose cultural norm encompasses autonomy (Blasi, 2001) and individualism (Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler, & Tipton, 1985). Accordingly, Indigenous values are frequently given low or no priority in the curriculum and students may find themselves penalised for sharing information with their peers (FlavioFrancisco, 1999).

First Nations, Métis and Inuit students attend schools in Canada's Northwest Territories where many of the curriculum and instructional methods tend not to vary from those found in Anglo based schools in large Canadian cities in the south of the country (Alberta Education First Nations Métis and Inuit Services Branch, 2008). Given that many beginning teachers placed in remote communities come from an Anglo background, it is not unexpected that such schools typically promote a style of learning consistent with that of the dominant Anglo cultural group. (Capozza, 2001; Lewthwaite & McMillan, 2010; McAlpine & Crago, 1995). Maguire (n.d.-a) and McCluskey, O'Hagan, Baker, and Richard (2000) found that many non-Indigenous teachers teach directly from their own preferred learning style; one that is usually segmented and sequential, rather than holistic and circular, which tends to be the preferred style of First Nations, Métis and Inuit students. The result of employing traditional Anglo instructional methods finds Indigenous students sitting passively listening to the teacher or reading and memorising facts in classrooms, which First Nations, Métis and Inuit students may find difficult as they traditionally learn by modelling elders in the community (Maguire, n.d.-b). As a consequence of such cultural discord, students may

display inappropriate behaviour which can lead to the imposition of further sanctions by the teacher.

Most Anglo teachers are highly fluent speakers of English which may create a divide between the teacher and Indigenous students and the teacher and Indigenous parents who may not be as well-versed in English or who only have a rudimentary grasp of the language and associated nuances (Curran et al., 2003; Maguire, n.d.-a). When speaking to parents, teachers with an Anglo background will usually launch into a discussion about the student's progress, however, this can appear cold and unfriendly to many Indigenous people who are generally accustomed to exchanging pleasantries prior to formal talks commencing. Once discussions begin, the nuances of the English language dictate that there is only a short wait time between asking a question and getting a response. In many Indigenous languages the wait time can be considerably longer (Curran et al., 2003). Such culturally based differences in communication styles between the students' home and the predominant Anglo culture of the school can lead to confusion by both parties and may be a factor in miscommunication between the teacher, Indigenous parents and students (Maguire, n.d.-b). Down and Wooltorton (2004); Mueller (2006) and Yarrow et al. (1999) each identified that it was important for beginning teachers to understand the strategies required for successful community interaction to avoid social distancing. Social distancing occurs where, due to cultural misunderstandings, one cultural group may be excluded from participating in the other's life. Mueller (2006) found that as a result of social distancing, beginning teachers may consider leaving the remote community as they feel undervalued and decide that the personal and professional challenges are not worth enduring.

In New Zealand, as early as 1973, a number of factors were reported as being partly responsible for some of the inappropriate behaviours displayed by Māori students (Macfarlane, 2000). One of main factors being that most teachers of Māori students were

non-Māori or pākehā monoculturalists who lacked the cultural skills and knowledge to effectively teach in a multi-cultural classroom (Macfarlane, 2004). Macfarlane (2005) and Glynn, Berryman, Harawira, Atvars, and Bidois (2001) found that, in response to Māori students misbehaviour, non-Māori teachers were implementing ever increasing behavioural intervention programs and strategies which ignored Māori language, cultural values and practices, and which made very little difference to student behaviour. Even more problematic was the implementation of CM programs developed in other countries with other cultural groups, none of which were overly successful with Māori students (Glynn et al., 2001).

Research indicates that when teachers have similar cultural contexts, or recognise and value the social and cultural environment of the Indigenous students the level of inappropriate behaviour in the classroom tends to be reduced (Carpenter, McMurchy-Pilkington, & Sutherland, 2001; Wearmouth, Berryman, & Glynn, 2005). Similarly, Capozza (2001) and Alberta Education First Nations Métis and Inuit Services Branch (2008) found that if the values, beliefs and expectations of what is important and acceptable at school are compatible with those the student experiences at home then learning tasks can be constructed in a way to assist Indigenous students to engage with the curriculum. It seems that to encourage Indigenous students to engage in learning and become self-regulated learners, beginning teachers should incorporate Indigenous beliefs, values, customs, ways of interacting and language into planned student learning experiences (Carpenter et al., 2001).

2.3.4 Confronting social issues.

For many beginning teachers placed in remote locations, there are additional challenges that those teachers working in suburban schools tend not to have to confront to the same degree. Such challenges include student teenage pregnancies, substance abuse, racial tensions, suicide and poverty which many beginning teachers find they are emotionally

unprepared to deal with (Mueller, 2006). The Ministerial Advisory Council on the Quality of Teaching (1998) and Mueller (2006) found that beginning teachers were shocked by the home circumstances of many of the students and felt powerless in situations that seemed out of their control and which affected virtually every family of the students they were teaching.

Students who live in poverty tend to be exposed to social dissonance, domestic violence, have poor health and nutrition and an increased risk of social and academic problems (Harrell, Leavell, van Tassel, & McKee, 2004). Brescia and Fortune (1988), McKinney, Campbell-Whately, and Kea (2005) and Westling (2010) found that students living in such environments tend to exhibit disruptive and destructive behaviours that interfere with the process of learning. As a result, beginning teachers spend significant amounts of time attempting to manage the off-task behaviour of students rather than on teaching. Such reduction in teaching time tends to contribute to the low achievement of Indigenous at-risk students and to the high number of referrals made for education support by the beginning teacher (Donovan & Cross, 2002; Harrell et al., 2004; Kellam, Ling, Merisca, Brown, & Ialongo, 2000). Unfortunately, the scenario described above is a recurring one, as teacher placement data indicates that disproportionately large numbers of beginning teachers begin their teaching career in classrooms in remote communities (Oliver & Reschly, 2007; Sharplin et al., 2011). As such, many of the least proficient teachers begin their careers teaching the most challenging students in extremely confronting environments (Sharplin, 2002).

The Ministerial Advisory Council on the Quality of Teaching (1998) found that many beginning teachers did not believe their teacher education course had prepared them to deal with the emotional and psychological difficulties stemming from the abuse, grief and illness found in remote communities. It appears that as a result of the environmental ills that plague many remote communities, beginning teachers need to be more knowledgeable and better

prepared to deal with a range of difficult social and emotional issues and in creating a supportive classroom regardless of the living conditions of the students (McKinney et al., 2005).

2.3.5 Teacher education programs.

In Australia, as in the other three countries under consideration, many beginning teachers admit to feeling apprehensive about accepting a remote placement as very few of them have had any remote teaching experience during their teacher education course. Consequently they feel ill-equipped and under-informed to face the realities of living and working in remote areas (Commonwealth Schools Commission, 1988; Lock, Budgen, Lunay, & Oakley, 2012; Moreton-Robinson, Singh, Kolopenuk, & Robinson, 2012; Trinidad et al., 2012). Sharplin (2002) found that those neophyte teachers who do consider a remote placement often have vague, clichéd understandings of what ‘life in the bush’ would be like, without any real understanding of the difficulties and issues they may confront.

In the Kimberley, Northwest Territories and United States of America a sizeable number of beginning teachers are employed by Indigenous communities or receive a placement in an Indigenous community. In Western Australia there are more than 200 state employed teachers working in 38 remote communities (Department of Education Western Australia, 2014c) of which 34% of those employed in 2000 were graduates (Sharplin, 2002). In 2003 26.5% of graduates employed by the Department of Education were given positions in ‘Hard to Staff Schools’, which include schools in remote locations (Ministerial Council on Education Employment Training and Youth Affairs, 2004; Sharplin et al., 2011). It is pertinent to note that accurate, up-to-date Western Australian figures are difficult to obtain, as there is a reticence on the part of authorities to publicly reveal data relating to the number of

years of service of those leaving the profession and their reasons for doing so (Buchanan et al., 2013; Trinidad et al., 2011).

One of the major issues associated with teacher education courses appears to be the disparity between the reality of teaching Indigenous students in remote locations and the information provided during teacher education programs (Barrett Kutcy & Schulz, 2006; Martin, Linfoot, & Stephenson, 1999). Anthony et al. (2008) found that beginning teachers in New Zealand would have liked to have covered Indigenous CM more comprehensively in teacher education courses. Of the graduate teachers surveyed, 32.9% felt they were somewhat prepared or not at all well prepared in regards to having a range of CM practices to support Māori students' learning. Such a percentage appears to be quite high, given that a formal induction phase for all newly qualified teachers has been embedded in the education system of New Zealand since 1989 (Anthony et al., 2008).

Similarly Kleinfeld et al. (1983) surveyed 229 teachers working in American Indian villages of which 26% mentioned CM as being a major concern and an area in which they required additional training and support. It is relevant to note that there is a paucity of information on the preparation of pre-service teachers for teaching in American Indian schools. Blasi (2001) and Mackety and Linder-VanBerschot (2008) found that research on American Indian educational issues was dated, descriptive and non-generalisable. These researchers identified that the teacher education courses which trained neophyte teachers to teach American Indian students was one area requiring further research. From a search of the current literature, it appears that such a situation continues to be an issue today (Demmert, Grissmer, & Towner, 2006; Guillory & Wolverton, 2008; Skiba, Arredondo, & Rausch, 2014).

Research into First Nations, Métis and Inuit education found that the majority of beginning teachers in Canada also felt ill prepared to meet the needs of the Aboriginal students (Alberta Education First Nations Métis and Inuit Services Branch, 2007, 2008; Blasi, 2001; Chasteauneuf & Kitchenham, 2010). While some beginning teachers learned to use a variety of CMS ‘on the job’, for most non-Indigenous teachers the preparation provided by teacher education courses did not adequately expose them to CM with Indigenous students or how to analyse their own cultural values (McInerney, 1995). Hobart (1970) identified that there is often a large adjustment time for Quallunaat (Inuit word for non-Inuit people) teachers placed in remote communities, in terms of adapting to a different culture and challenging teaching situations. In a similar scenario to those beginning teachers placed in the Kimberley and American Indian communities, it appears that beginning teachers are usually unprepared for living and working in remote communities in the Northwest Territories, despite having undertaken a teacher education course and graduate induction programs. As a result, there is the apparently inevitable and rapid turnover of teachers and the consequent discontinuity of educational programs for the Indigenous students (Groome & Hamilton, 1995; Sharplin et al., 2011; Statistics Canada, 2011a). The ‘revolving door’ of beginning teachers would appear to be an ineffective use of resources as well as inducing cynicism and discomfort in the affected Indigenous communities (National Languages Literacy Institute of Australia, 1996). Given that many beginning teachers choose to resign from remote teaching positions in the four target countries, it may be the case that teacher education courses in these countries do not always provided neophyte teachers with the skills, knowledge and cultural awareness necessary to successfully teach in remote communities.

Frid et al. (2008) contended that teacher preparation programs need to prepare beginning teachers to be flexible, adaptable and resilient as professionals. They argued that graduate teachers ought to have the CM skills and cultural knowledge for contexts that vary

with respect to school location, school culture and the demographic of the school clientele. Within a Canadian context, Pewewardy (2002) determined that priority should be given to educating beginning teachers about teaching Indigenous students. He suggested that the content of teacher education courses could focus on Aboriginal pedagogical practices, including CM and Indigenous social interaction patterns. Such information could enable graduate teachers to commence their teaching careers with information relevant to the Aboriginal students rather than having to learn ‘on the job’.

In Australia, O’Neill and Stephenson (2011) found there is a lack of stand-alone CM units in more than half of the teacher education programs surveyed. As indicated in Table 3.2, utilising information available from university websites, in Western Australia most universities deliver at least one unit which focusses on CM within the structure of the teacher education courses. Additionally at least one Indigenous education unit is incorporated into most of the teacher education courses in Western Australian universities. Unfortunately, it appears the content of both the CM and Indigenous units consists of very broad information which does not specifically address the needs of beginning teachers placed in remote communities (Western Australian College of Teaching, 2007). Benally and McCarthy (2003) found that few teacher education courses addressed the issue of culturally relevant CM and if it was included, assumptions tended to be made and a ‘one size fits all’ approach used. Additionally Moreton-Robinson et al. (2012) found there is little evidence to suggest that undertaking a unit in Aboriginal studies is the best pedagogical approach for imparting knowledge to pre-service teachers about ways to engage Indigenous students in classrooms. It has been suggested that a better approach may be to enable pre-service teachers to work with and teach Indigenous students while on practicum (Partington, 1997; Sharplin, 2010). Such findings may explain in part why many Western Australian beginning teachers find CM difficult in remote communities.

One other possible reason for the difficulty experienced by graduate teachers with CM is that many practica experiences, undertaken throughout a teacher education course, were not as positive as they had expected. According to Sokal, Smith, and Mowat (2003) the negative experiences were mainly attributed to the lack of preparation received in teacher education courses, specifically in the area of CM. Given that many of the skills and strategies beginning teachers use for CM are a reflection of the advice and coaching they received from their mentor teachers on suburban classroom practica, it is possible that such coaching is not relevant or appropriate for remote communities (Sandoval-Lucero et al., 2011). Based on such potentially adverse experiences, it is defensible to recommend the inclusion of specific and comprehensive CM courses within teacher education programs, rather than rely on arbitrary practicum experiences and general CM input for upskilling pre-service teachers (Johnson, Oswald, & Adey, 1993; Yarrow et al., 1999). If beginning teachers are expected to implement culturally competent CM practices, then it seems that a restructuring and refocusing of the content of teacher education CM units may be required (McIntyre, 1996).

2.3.6 Additional support requirements.

One of the other issues identified by beginning teachers in remote locations is the need for additional support. Given that beginning teachers in remote communities are faced with students whose ethnic, racial, cultural and/or socioeconomic backgrounds are different to their own, it is not surprising that many of them tend to feel overwhelmed (Benally & McCarthy, 2003; Blasi, 2001; Bucher & Manning, 2005; Plank, 1994). Thiede (2004) and Veenman (1984) found that many beginning teachers experience a ‘transition shock’ caused by the reality of teaching and the feeling of lack of preparedness for many of teaching’s associated demands. They identified that such a ‘transition shock’ may bring about a state of paralysis that prevented the teacher from competently implementing the skills and knowledge

they learned during their teacher education course. Such ‘transition shock’ reinforces the need for additional support for neophyte teachers in remote communities.

Within Australia, a variety of studies conducted on the needs of beginning teachers identified a number of key factors required to successfully support neophyte teachers (Buchanan et al., 2013; Committee for the Review of Teaching and Teacher Education, 2003; Department of Education, 2002; Fantilli & McDougall, 2009; Knight & Moore, 2012; McCormack & Kaye, 2003; Schuck et al., 2012). These included the provision of mentor teachers, a formalised induction process, support from those in leadership positions, cultural awareness programs and reduced pressure to act and perform as an experienced teacher. Other research has identified a range of retention strategies which many beginning teachers believe would assist in overcoming the attrition rate (Buchanan et al., 2013; Kitchenham & Chasteauneuf, 2010; Manuel, 2003; Rass, 2012; Sempowicz & Hudson, 2011; Standing Committee on Education and Vocational Training, 2007; Trinidad et al., 2011). Such strategies include reducing the full time teaching load of neophyte teachers, building upon current professional development programs, additional resourcing and support to those schools with high numbers of graduate teachers, providing pastoral care including stress management for graduate teachers and developing links with university teacher education programs to provide further professional support.

It is pleasing to note that many of the employing bodies of graduate teachers in the four-targeted countries have commenced providing some form of professional support, with the aim of reducing beginning teacher attrition. In New Zealand, the Beginning Teacher Time Allowance gives first year teachers five additional non-contact hours per week to engage in professional learning (New Zealand Educational Institute, 2014), and in Western Australia beginning teachers get half a day a fortnight of non-contact time for professional learning (Department of Education Western Australia, 2014b). In the Northwest Territories new and

beginning teachers are provide with a Teacher Induction program and a formal mentor program where time is provided to release beginning teachers to observe fellow teachers and to enable each teacher's mentorship plan to be implemented (Northwest Territories Culture and Employment, 2014a). In Western Australia, graduate teachers get the option of completing a Graduate Teacher Professional Learning program or a Graduate Teacher In-Class Coaching Program. Each program provides support for beginning teachers, one via an online learning program and one via a personal advocate who provides one-on-one support (Department of Education Western Australia, 2014g). The Institute for Professional Learning in Western Australia also provides professional learning opportunities for school leaders to assist them in supporting the needs of beginning teachers in their schools (Department of Education Western Australia, 2014f). Cultural awareness training is provided to beginning teachers in Western Australia via Our Story (Aboriginal Education and Training Council, 1997) which is a program designed to enhance teachers' cultural knowledge about Aboriginal people in Western Australia. All graduate teachers placed in a remote school are also required to participate in a two-day Remote Teacher Service Induction program prior to their appointment (State School Teachers Union of Western Australia & Department of Education WA, 2011). In the United States of America, the Bureau of Indian Education has released a Draft Strategic Plan 2014 – 2018, which identifies that recruiting effective teachers to teach in Bureau of Indian Education schools is difficult. The plan proposes to help tribes recruit, hire and develop effective teachers via providing beginning teachers support in the areas of professional development, collaborative practice, coaching and mentoring and career paths (Department of the Interior, 2014).

In 2003, Benally and McCarthy suggested using mentors with beginning teachers placed in American Indian schools as one approach to support such teachers. It was proposed that the mentor be an Indigenous educator, elder or community member who could provide

cultural support and training during the beginning teachers' first year. The use of Indigenous mentors to provide cultural training within the community was also identified in the Northwest Territories as being one of the most important factors contributing to beginning teachers being effective in regards to First Nations, Métis and Inuit education (Alberta Education First Nations Métis and Inuit Services Branch, 2008; Mueller, 2006). In summary, it appears that although varying levels of additional support and training is being provided to beginning teachers of Indigenous students in the four-targeted countries there is still considerable room for improvement.

2.3.7 Incentives.

One further issue involves the use of incentives by employing bodies to entice neophyte teachers to teach in remote communities. Currently the Department of Education in Western Australia and the Catholic Education Office (WA) offer a range of benefits and allowances, in addition to the teacher's salary, that teachers in urban locations are not eligible for. Such benefits include locality allowances, flexible leave conditions, rent-free housing, relocation costs and additional transfer points after three years of service, to enable the teacher to transfer to a more desirable location (Catholic Education Office of Western Australia, n.d; Department of Education Western Australia, 2014c). The Bureau of Indian Education also offers locality allowances and health benefits (Bureau of Indian Education, 2014) and some Northwest Territories schools provide additional financial incentives to their teachers (Northwest Territories Culture and Employment, 2014b).

However, despite the range of incentives available to encourage teachers to relocate to remote communities, a study by the Australian Primary Principals Association (2007), identified that many remote schools are still unable to attract beginning teachers. The results indicated that 86% of those surveyed chose to seek teaching appointments in suburban areas

rather than in remote locations. Jordan and Howard (1985) and Sharplin (2002) found that, regardless of the incentives offered, it was the personal and professional considerations of beginning teachers that most influenced their decision regarding accepting a placement in a remote location. Such considerations included; restricted access to support groups such as family and friends, the financial implications associated with living in remote communities, managing a classroom consisting of multiple years with students who do not speak English as a first language and who have a different set of cultural and behavioural values (Commonwealth Schools Commission, 1988; Down & Woollorton, 2004; Hudson & Hudson, 2008; Kleinfeld & McDiarmid, 1986).

In addition, many beginning teachers find the conditions in remote locations unacceptable, including limited access to medical care, shopping facilities, social activities and reliable communication with the outside world (Alberta Learning, 2003). Further, and as already suggested, geographic isolation can also create a sense of personal and professional isolation, leaving the beginning teacher feeling frustrated, anxious, demoralised, overwhelmed and considering leaving teaching (Crossland & Stanberg, 2007; Hudson & Hudson, 2008; Jenkins et al., 2011; Kitchenham & Chasteauneuf, 2010). Darling-Hammond (2003) and Jordan and Howard (1985) found that despite the incentives offered to teach in a remote community, often they do not compensate for the stress associated with working with students and families who have a wide range of needs. Additionally, Ross and Westgate (1973) and Kitchenham and Chasteauneuf (2010) found that teachers motivated by financial benefits tended to spend less time in remote communities and returned home quicker than those motivated by other more altruistic reasons.

In summary, it appears that there are numerous barriers to beginning teachers accepting a teaching position in a remote community. Such barriers include geographic isolation, a shortage of suitable mentor teachers and the absence of appropriate incentives. It

is also apparent that despite completing units in CM and Indigenous education many beginning teachers have limited knowledge or understanding of the cultural values and mores associated with Indigenous culture. As such, beginning teachers tend to be locked into the Anglo based beliefs and pedagogies of unsuccessful past practices, which do not necessarily align with the values, practices and behaviours of their students (Levine-Rasky, 1998; Partington, 2002; Redwing Saunders & Hill, 2007).

2.4 Classroom Management

The focus of this section of the chapter is on beginning teachers, CM and the issues associated with CM and teaching in remote communities.

2.4.1 Classroom management and beginning teachers.

Before the middle of the 20th century there were very few empirical studies conducted within the domain of CM, despite this area having been identified as crucial for effective learning and teaching (Brophy, 2006). Prior to formal research being conducted, researchers tended to view CM in a restricted sense which involved explaining, prompting and reinforcing concepts that fostered learning, rather than as the entirety of what teachers do to facilitate student learning (Doyle, 1986). Understandably then, there was even less interest in undertaking CM research related to novice teachers in remote communities.

Despite limited early research on CM, over the past fifty or so years, numerous studies have been undertaken on the effects of CM on the teacher (Baker, 2005; Gee, 2001; Giallo & Little, 2003). Such an interest in studies eventuated as the educational community came to realise that CM affected all aspects within a classroom milieu. Such realisation, along with widespread concern expressed by teachers and the public about the perceived lack of CM, saw numerous reports being published stressing the need for a strategy-driven

approach to effective CM (Angus, Olney, & Ainley, 2007; Dinham, Ingvarson, & Kleinhenz, 2008; Doyle, 1986; Rose & Gallup, 2006).

There is considerable evidence suggesting that CM problems are the cause of job dissatisfaction for large numbers of teachers, with many of the issues surrounding the management of students not unique to beginning teachers (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006; Gee, 2001; Kokkinos, Panayiotou, & Davazoglou, 2004; Kyriacou, Richard, Paul, & Åge, 2003; Unal & Unal, 2009). Forlin (2001) identified that disruptive behaviour and lack of effective CMS are rated as potential stressors of teachers more often than any other factor associated with teaching. Other research found that CM problems are a significant source of stress and burnout for both new and experienced teachers (Martin et al., 1999; Ministry of Education, 2010; Punch & Tuettemann, 1991; Sokal et al., 2003; Tuettemann & Punch, 1992). Such findings do not bode well for the longevity of teachers within the profession.

Blase (1986) surveyed 392 teachers to ascertain the main sources of teacher stress. The data collected was grouped into four subcategories with CM being identified as the largest subcategory of student-generated stressors. The behaviours that were most stressful were those that directly or indirectly interfered with classroom structures and adversely affected teacher performance and student learning outcomes. Such behaviours included verbal abuse, fighting, screaming, cheating, teasing, violent outbursts and vandalising school property. Beginning teachers, in particular, felt helpless and anxious when confronted with aggressive or disruptive classroom behaviour as they did not have the repertoire, knowledge and skills to manage disruptive students. Such lack of skills tends to result in a significant amount of off-task behaviour occurring without any consequence for the student (Choy, Chong, Wong, & Wong, 2011; Veenman, 1984). Gold and Roth (1993) identified similar issues in their comprehensive study of teacher stress. Given that there are significantly more demands on teachers in today's schools, such as increased community expectations, teaching

a differentiated curriculum, incorporation of technology into lessons, using a wide range of pedagogies and increased teacher accountability for student behaviour it would be fair to conclude that teachers are faced with even greater CM challenges.

Balli (2011) found that beginning teachers in the United States of America consistently identified that CM was one of their most challenging tasks. It appears that concern with CM is universal among beginning teachers despite divergent expectations between countries and cultures (Sunwoo & Myung-sook, 2008). Such widespread concern regarding CM was highlighted through comparisons of beginning teacher experiences in Australia with experiences in China, Israel and Canada, where CM and administrative procedures surfaced as the two most prevalent features of universal concern (Lewis, Romi, Katz, & Qui, 2008; Lewis, Romi, Qui, & Katz, 2005; Reupert & Woodcock, 2011; Roberts, 2006).

As a result of the inappropriate behaviours displayed by students, many beginning teachers are choosing to leave the teaching profession rather than endure increased stress levels, feelings of helplessness and lack of support from other teachers and senior staff (Brownhill, Wilhelm, & Watson, 2006; Bucher & Manning, 2005; Giallo & Little, 2003; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). Lynn and Walsdorf (2002), in the United States of America, documented the high attrition rate among beginning teachers, noting that as many as 40% resign within the first two years of teaching with the main factors contributing to the high resignation rate being CM and student behaviour concerns. Kyriacou and Kunc (2007) confirmed that a high beginning teacher attrition rate was also an issue in England where studies indicate that 40% of teachers leave the profession within 5 years. Data collected within Australia demonstrates the same trends as shown by overseas research. A national survey of 1200 beginning teachers conducted by the Australian Education Union (2006) found that 45% of beginning teachers indicated they would not be teaching in ten years' time

with 60% indicating that CM was one of their top two professional issues. A national survey of 1351 beginning teachers conducted by the Australian Primary Principals Association (2007) found that although 93% of the respondents enjoyed teaching, 24% indicated that they would be leaving the profession within five years. In addition, in some remote geographic locations within Australia, the attrition rate of teachers can be as high as 50% within the first three years of employment (Ingvarson et al., 2004). It is therefore evident that the retention of quality teachers who can demonstrate effective CMS is one of the universal concerns of schools and education departments (Hattie, 2011; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003).

There appears to be a direct relationship between effective teacher CM strategies, longevity of a teacher's career and student achievement and engagement (Brophy, 2006; Brownhill et al., 2006; Dinham et al., 2008; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Kounin, 1970; Marzano, 2009; Somerville, Plunkett, & Dyson, 2010). Research has found that beginning teachers who find CM difficult tend to be ineffective in the classroom as students spend less time engaging in the learning process (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Oliver & Reschly, 2007; Westling, 2010). Graduate teachers cited an absence of experience, training and supervision in a real classroom context, limited support from colleagues and administrators and inadequate cultural awareness training as factors contributing to their perceived limited effectiveness in CM (Baker, 2005; Bromfield, 2006; Martin et al., 1999; Siebert, 2005; Westling, 2010).

Research shows that effective teachers maintain a climate of cooperation within the classroom through implementing a range of CMS including constantly monitoring behaviour and student actions, appropriately pacing activities and consistently and repetitively reinforcing procedures and rules that were introduced at the beginning of the year (Boyce, 1997). It is evident that time spent getting to know students, allowing them to become familiar with each other, teaching behavioural expectations and practicing routines and rules

is essential in establishing shared CM understandings. Boyce (1997); Brophy (2006); Emmer et al. (1980); Macfarlane (2004); Munns (2001) and Openshaw (2007) found that such procedures are implemented at the commencement of each school year by effective teachers. Emmer et al. (1980) and Boyce (1997) also found that many beginning teachers do not understand the importance of establishing routines and shared understandings with regards to CM at the start of the school year. Establishing such routines is especially critical in culturally diverse classrooms, since different cultures hold different views about appropriate behaviour. Bennett and Smilanich (1994); Curran et al. (2003) and Cartledge et al. (2008) found that to avoid the possibility of confusion or misunderstanding, which can lead to unnecessary classroom interventions, teachers would be wise to be explicit about their expectations, engage students in discussions about the class norms, model the behaviour they expect and provide opportunities for students to practice.

In summary, evidence suggests that many beginning teachers across the four-targeted countries struggle with CM and have limited strategies to address difficult off-task student behaviour. Consequently, they find teaching stressful as more time tends to be spent dealing with student misbehaviour than on effective teaching. As a result, many beginning teachers become disillusioned, stressed and start doubting their career choice, resulting in the decision to leave the profession (Ebanks, Hellsten, Lai, & Prytula, 2009).

2.4.2 Classroom management and teaching in remote communities.

In the Northwest Territories there is a 67% turnover of graduate teachers each year, the majority of whom tend to be replaced by another beginning teacher (Chasteauneuf & Kitchenham, 2010). Such significant turnover consigns large numbers of Indigenous students in remote schools to a continual parade of beginning teachers who may or may not understand Indigenous culture or display appropriate CMS to work effectively with

Indigenous students (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Hudson & Hudson, 2008; Ministerial Council on Education Employment Training and Youth Affairs Taskforce on Indigenous Education, 2001). It has been shown that teacher quality is a critical factor in the performance of Indigenous students in schools as 'good' teachers can accelerate the achievement of educational equity for Indigenous students (Dinham et al., 2008; Hattie, 2011).

Unfortunately, as previously stated, many beginning teachers do not possess an adequate knowledge of Indigenous culture or have appropriate CMS and so tend to use an Anglo based curriculum and apply the CM methods they used on practica in large suburban schools. Such approaches tend to be culturally inappropriate and may result in curriculum content not being covered; teacher authority being undermined; and decreased opportunities existing for students to learn (Giallo & Little, 2003; Özben, 2010). Consequently, the level of educational disadvantage of Indigenous students in remote communities continues to be high (Ministerial Council on Education Employment Training and Youth Affairs Taskforce on Indigenous Education, 2001).

Within Western Australia, Partington et al. (2001) and Partington and Gray (2003) *_ENREF_180* researched the CM practices that teachers used with Indigenous students in secondary schools and found that many beginning teachers had thoughts about leaving the profession as a direct consequence of the CM challenges they faced. The stress levels of secondary teachers in Western Australia, in relation to CM issues were also studied by Punch and Tuettemann (1990, 1991) and Tuettemann and Punch (1992). They found that beginning teachers had only a limited range of CMS and skills which were often punitive in nature and did not alter student behaviour in the desired direction. The graduate teachers were regularly concerned about when the next inappropriate behaviour would occur and how they would deal with it. The consequence of such concern was shown to lead to raised anxiety and stress levels. It is significant to note that in 2000-2001, the teaching profession in Western Australia

had 20.8% of lost time stress claims, the highest percentage of any industry within the State (Sharplin et al., 2011).

In summary, research shows that there are a number of CMS which are generally effective with Indigenous students (Alberta Education, 2007; Hattie, 2012; Hobart, 1970; McAlpine & Crago, 1995; Munns, 2001). Such strategies comprise of careful planning to ensure the curriculum is culturally appropriate; including historical information relevant to the local community; using cultural programs and the local language in the classroom and aiming the curriculum at an appropriate level for the students, so it is challenging without being too difficult or easy (Alberta Education First Nations Métis and Inuit Services Branch, 2008). Other strategies that have been successful involve building and maintaining relationships with the Indigenous students, parents and community members, being inclusive of all students, and not judging Indigenous norms through an Anglo lens. Beginning teachers also appear to benefit from additional support and training in their first year, particularly through mentoring teaching programs and specific cultural awareness training (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2011; Benally & McCarthy, 2003; Moir, Barlin, Gless, & Miles, 2010; Portner, 2005). Such findings suggest that CMS and actions which positively influence the behaviour and associated learning of Indigenous students in remote communities should be incorporated into teacher education courses.

2.5 Theoretical Perspective of Grounded Theory

This research uses grounded theory methodology to analyse the collected data in order to find answers to the research questions. Grounded theory is based on a conceptual perspective analysis involving the collection, coding, sorting and analysing of data with the purpose of generating theory from the data (Glaser, 1998), rather than applying a predefined hypothesis and attempting to interpret data through it (Charmaz, 2011; Silverman, 2011). In grounded theory the researcher sorts through the collected information, which can be in the

form of field notes, memos, recordings or written transcripts in search of incidences. Incidences are found in the words or phrases used by the participant and are assigned open codes, which is the first attempt at conceptualising the raw data (Glaser, 1998). As Figure 2.1 demonstrates, the analysis of data using grounded theory is not linear. The spiral configuration ensures that data is repeatedly visited and revisited as new codes, categories and concepts are identified, delineated, verified or even discarded in search of a new conceptual theory emerging from the data.

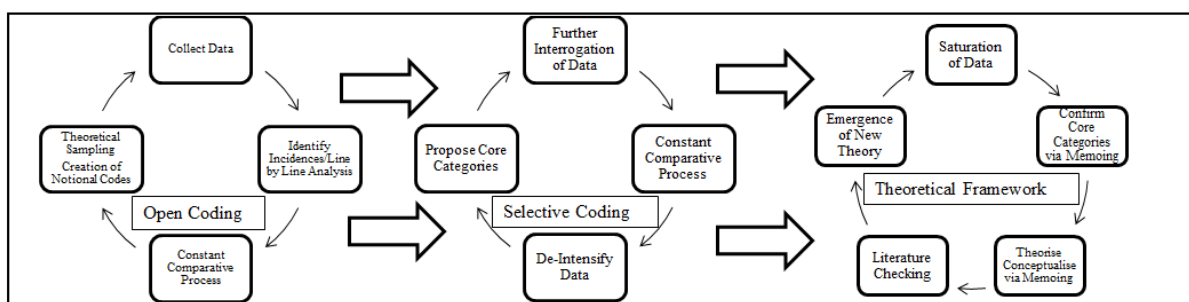


Figure 2.1. Depiction of the grounded theory methodology process.

Adapted from “Uncovering Steady Advances for an Extreme Programming Course,” by Viviane A Santos, and Alfredo Goldman, 2012, Centro Latinoamericano de Estudios en Informática, 15, p. 4.

Corbin and Strauss (2008) and Gläser and Laudel (2013) suggest that the research questions can be used as an initial point of reference for coding. These questions can be used to guide the researcher to search for incidences relevant to answering the questions. As shown in Figure 2.2, the incidences are compared and contrasted with other incidences using the constant comparative method by moving back-and-forth, continuously, recursively and repetitively between the data collection and analysis, as one informs the other (Charmaz, 2011; Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Glaser, 1998; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Silverman, 2011).

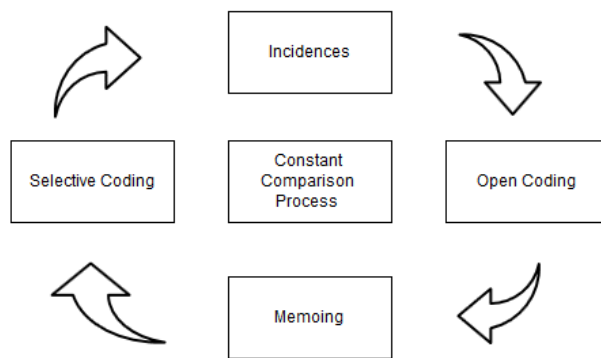


Figure 2.2. Depiction of the constant comparison process.

Adapted from “Guiding the Use of Grounded Theory in Doctoral Studies: An Example from the Australian Film Industry,” by I. Alony, and M. Jones, *International Journal of Doctoral Studies*, 6, p. 105.

Codes are assigned according to patterns that emerge when comparing incident to incident and are not based on a single incident. If there are conceptual similarities between incidences, the researcher may allocate a category under which all similar incidences are grouped (Glaser, 1998). The constant comparative process is used throughout the whole theoretical sampling process, where the researcher engages in on-going data analysis with the aim of identifying new categories or codes (Licqurish & Seibold, 2011). Memos are used to add clarity, elaborate on ideas, explore thoughts and attach further meaning to the analysed data, codes and categories (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Glaser, 1998; Silverman, 2011).

Once open coding has occurred and initial categories created, selective coding is undertaken. Selective coding is used to further identify and interrogate the interrelationships between the formative, rich categories that emerged through theoretical sampling, the constant comparative process and the information contained in the researcher’s memos (Charmaz, 2011; Creswell, 2005; Waring, 2012). It is through the analysis of data, by revisiting and reanalysing each participant’s data many times, that new categories and

concepts are identified. Data collection continues until theoretical saturation occurs. At such point no new ideas or concepts are forthcoming from the data, relationships between categories are well established and it is evident that further data collection would provide no new information to the already collected and analysed data (Angrosino, 2012; Check & Schutt, 2012; Corbin & Strauss, 2008). After theoretical saturation occurs, by means of continued writing, interpreting and refining of the collected information it is possible to propose an inductive model to explain the questions under investigation and integrate them into a theoretical framework (Charmaz, 2011; Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Creswell, 2005; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Glaser, 1998; Silverman, 2011).

2.6 The Place of the Literature Review in Grounded Theory

One of the tenets of grounded theory is that literature associated with the study should not be reviewed until after the data is collected, analysed and a conceptual theory evolved (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The reasoning behind delaying the literature review is to let concepts and theories emerge without importing preconceived or other researchers ideas (Charmaz, 2011). However, in later years the position of Strauss, regarding when to conduct a literature review changed significantly, and Corbin and Strauss (2008) became advocates for an early review of the literature.

In the current research, the literature review was conducted prior to the data collection process. This decision was made to ensure that the study had not been undertaken by another researcher and that any new grounded theory that emerged from the data had not previously been mooted (Gläser & Laudel, 2013). The literature review process assisted in contextualising the research as it identified the topics that had been researched and oriented the researcher to work that had been done around beginning teachers, Indigenous students and CMS. The review of literature was extremely valuable as it highlighted gaps in existing

knowledge regarding beginning teachers, CM skills and Indigenous students in the United States of America, Canada, New Zealand and in the Kimberley region of Western Australia.

2.7 Relevance of this Current Research

From this review of relevant literature, it is evident that many beginning teachers placed in schools in remote communities in Western Australia, New Zealand, Canada and the United States of America face a range of challenges. The communities consist of students who are not of the same culture, who do not speak the same language and who do not respond to traditional Anglo based methods of CM. It appears that many neophyte teachers in each of the four-targeted countries do not received adequate or appropriate cultural training and have little knowledge of culturally appropriate strategies, pedagogies and practices. As such, many beginning teachers either leave the profession due to the difficulties faced or apply for positions in less challenging schools.

The aim of this research is to add to the limited, existing body of knowledge in regards to the relationship between CM, beginning teachers from an Anglo background and Indigenous students. In 2003, the Western Australian College of Teaching conducted a survey into beginning teachers and found that 21% of participants acknowledged CM to be the key challenge. Many beginning teachers identified they did not have a sufficiently wide range of strategies to deal with CM issues and had to spend considerable time in finding innovative methods and approaches, as the ones they were using were not yielding the degree of success desired (Grant, 2003). In contrast to the general survey conducted by the Western Australian College of Teaching, the specific intention of this research is to examine the relationship between effective CMS and Indigenous students residing in the Kimberley district of Western Australia. Through investigating the effectiveness of a range of low-key CMS with Indigenous students, the researcher intends to provide Western Australian

beginning teachers and teacher education courses with empirical evidence as to the CMS that prove to be effective with Indigenous students in the Kimberley. Given that many beginning teachers from an Anglo background are placed in remote communities, the findings of this research will be particularly relevant to neophyte teachers, academics teaching in teacher education courses as well as teachers new to teaching Indigenous students in remote locations.

Specifically, this research intends to address the following four questions:

1. What classroom management strategies are used by beginning teachers to return students in Kimberley classrooms to on-task behaviours?
2. How effective are these strategies at returning students to on-task behaviours?
3. Is there a difference in the effectiveness of the classroom management strategies used between Indigenous and non-Indigenous students?
4. What information and strategies would graduate teachers liked to have been exposed to, in their teacher education course, in order to more effectively manage classrooms in the Kimberley region of Western Australia?

Such research has not previously been undertaken in this region. Logistical issues including inaccessibility, the cost of travelling large distances, language barriers and the difficulty in generalising findings due to the differences between Western Australian Indigenous tribes may account for the limited research undertaken on beginning teachers in the Kimberley. As previously mentioned, the attrition rate of beginning teachers in remote geographic locations in Australia may be as high as 50% over three years (Ingvarson et al., 2004). It is therefore timely for this research to be undertaken given it has the aim of providing beginning teachers with specific information about effective CMS with Indigenous

students and hopefully assisting to reduce the teacher attrition rate in communities within the Kimberley.

The following chapter explains the methodology used in this research to collect data with the aim of addressing the four research questions. Information regarding the study design, instrumentation used, data collection procedures and data analysis process is provided.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this research is to examine the nexus between Indigenous students, effective classroom management strategies (CMS) and Anglo beginning teachers in order to identify CMS that are effective with Indigenous students. This chapter describes the methodological approach used in this research and consists of four main sections. Initially an explanation of the epistemological position of the study is provided. The following section contains information about the study design, including sample selection, instrumentation tools and ethical considerations. The third section explains the data collection procedure and provides a comprehensive explanation of how grounded theory methodology was used in this research. The chapter concludes by assessing both the validity of the research process and the rigour of the grounded theory methodology used.

3.2 Epistemological Position

This research is a qualitatively-based study situated within the interpretivist paradigm. As such, the epistemology involves discovering the perceptions of those whose story is of interest to the researcher (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Grounded theory was selected as it provides a methodology by which complex social issues can be interpreted. It uses empirical data to generate new concepts without having to create a hypothesis which aligns with preconceived theories (Charmaz, 2006). In the study, the researcher used the collected data to construct a meaningful reality through discovering and interpreting the social patterns described by the participants (Munn-Giddings, 2012; Wiersma & Jurs, 2008). Fundamentally, an understanding of each story was gained through the purposive sampling of people who provided detailed information relevant to the research questions (Creswell, 2005; Freebody,

2003). By using grounded theory, systematic connections between the data could be made that enabled the emergence of the new theory (Charmaz & Mitchell, 2001).

Ethnography is the study of culture in a naturalistic setting (Gobo, 2011). As the researcher wanted to uncover the meanings of interactions and behaviours between beginning teachers, Indigenous students and CMS, an ethnographic approach seemed the most appropriate. To collect the data, this study drew upon the ethnographic research technique of field work. Field work involves spending time on site with the participants in their natural environment to gain an insight into their perceptions and beliefs (Fetterman, 2004; Wiersma & Jurs, 2008). Specifically, the data collection was undertaken using the ethnographic tools of semi-structured interviews and observations. As each set of data collected was contextualised within the environment from which it was obtained, local influences were observed, common cultural understandings and patterns of behaviour identified and obscure events noted (Freebody, 2003; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Wiersma & Jurs, 2008).

Ethnographic studies use two perspectives to find meaning. Emic approaches which focus on learning and understanding the perspectives of the culture and offers a broad generalised view of a culture; and etic perspectives, which compares what is happening in the local culture with events happening elsewhere (Schensul, 2012; Wolcott, 1999). Initially, this study has an emic focus as information collected is based on the participant's views and opinions. An etic approach is then used to compare information supplied by individual participants so as to identify how they function within the larger education culture (Angrosino, 2007; Creswell, 2005). While there may be tensions between emic and etic perspectives, the divergence between the two perspectives is valuable as each perspective contributes to providing the researcher with different understandings (Olive, 2014). As such, the researcher has determined that the inclusion of both etic and emic perspectives is of benefit in this study.

3.3 Study Design

3.3.1 Sample selection.

Purposive sampling was used to source participants for this research (Creswell, 2005; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Schensul, 2012). Specifically, a homogeneous sampling strategy was applied based on the selection of participants according to the selection criteria of the research (Creswell, 2005). To be included in this research, participants needed to be a graduate teacher in their first year of teaching and hold a recognised teaching qualification issued by a Western Australian University. As there are a number of different teaching qualifications issued, namely a four year fulltime undergraduate Bachelor of Education, a one year fulltime Graduate Diploma of Education for prospective teachers who have a degree in another area aligned to a secondary school subject and a two year Master of Teaching for prospective primary school teachers or secondary teachers without a degree that aligns to the relevant curriculum, the length of teacher education training undertaken by each beginning teacher was excluded from the criteria. Regardless of the qualification achieved, each participant was a qualified teacher with provisional registration with the Western Australian College of Teaching (now the Teacher Registration Board of Western Australia).

Given that the purpose of this research is to examine the relationship between Indigenous students, effective CMS and Anglo beginning teachers in the Kimberley district of Western Australia, the beginning teacher needed to be from an Anglo-Australian background, employed in a school in the Kimberley region of Western Australia and teaching Indigenous students in their classroom. The ethnic identity of each of the neophyte teachers was determined via the initial email sent out. Within the email, the selection criteria for this research were listed and each teacher was asked to confirm that they were able to meet the criteria.

Table 3.1 shows the year level and local government area in which each of the beginning teachers was situated. Participants could be from either gender, from any age group and teaching in either the government or Catholic school sector as these variables were not relevant to the study design. To summarise, selection factors included:

1. Provisional registration with the Western Australian College of Teaching.
2. First teaching placement.
3. Situated in the Kimberley region of Western Australia.
4. Classroom cohort included Australian Indigenous students.
5. Anglo-Australian cultural background.

Table 3.1

Geographic Location of each Beginning Teacher

Teacher	Year Level	Local Government Area	Classification of Area
Margaret	Pre-Primary	Shire of Wyndham – East Kimberley	Indigenous Location
Emma	Pre-Primary	Shire of Halls Creek	Indigenous Area
David	1	Shire of Wyndham – East Kimberley	Indigenous Location
Karen	5	Shire of Halls Creek	Indigenous Location
Keith	3	Shire of Derby – West Kimberley	Bounded Locality
Liz	2/3	Shire of Halls Creek	Indigenous Area
Natalie	4/5	Shire of Derby – West Kimberley	Bounded Locality
Liam	6	Shire of Halls Creek	Indigenous Area
Shirley	4	Shire of Broome	Urban Centre
Chloe	2	Shire of Wyndham – East Kimberley	Indigenous Location

Note. The names of the graduate teachers are pseudonyms. An urban centre is an area with a population of 1000 or more people. A bounded locality is an area of between 200 – 999 people. An Indigenous area has a minimum population of 250 Indigenous residents. An Indigenous location has a minimum population of 100 Indigenous residents. (Adapted from Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2012).

Participants were identified based on meeting all of the selection criteria. From the information provided by the Kimberley Catholic Education Office, the Department of Education and The University of Notre Dame Australia, a total of 14 beginning teachers were contacted to take part in this research; however, four beginning teachers excluded themselves from participation. Consequently, this research targeted a sample of ten beginning teachers situated in schools throughout the Kimberley district. Participants were selected based on the homogenous selection criteria and sampling was halted once saturation of data was reached. In defence of the choice of sample size, Miles and Huberman (1994) wrote: “you cannot study everyone, everywhere doing everything” (p. 27). Mason (2010) reviewed five hundred and sixty doctoral studies using qualitative approaches, including interviews and found a large variation in sample size. The sample size ranged from one to ninety five participants. The most common sample sizes were 20, 30, 40, 10 and 25. Salkind and Rasmussen (2007) noted that sample size is not as important for qualitative analysis as for more empirically-based research where achieving statistical power is essential. In qualitative research, it is the depth of analysis rather than statistical power which is the key determining research factor.

Within the scope of this research, it is pertinent to identify the availability of relevant units of study contained within teacher education programs. Such ‘units’ provide pre-service teachers with information about Indigenous education and CM. The information provided in Table 3.2, which has been sourced via each university’s website, identifies the offerings of both types of unit within each pre-service teaching qualification. It can be seen that there are three qualifications which do not contain any Indigenous education units and two qualifications which do not offer any units in CM. It is also relevant to note that in four universities there are additional elective units available in either Indigenous education or CM, however, no university offers electives in both areas.

Table 3.2

*Classroom Management and Indigenous Education Unit Offerings in Teacher Education**Courses in Western Australian Universities*

Western Australian University	Qualification	Indigenous Education Units	Classroom Management Units
1	Bachelor of Education	1 unit	1 unit Elective unit available
1	Graduate Diploma of Teaching	No unit offered	No unit offered
2	Bachelor of Education	1 unit Elective units available	1 unit
2	Graduate Diploma in Education	No units offered	1 unit
3	Bachelor of Education	1 unit Elective units available	1 unit
3	Master of Teaching	No unit offered	1 unit
3	Graduate Diploma in Education	1 unit	No unit offered
4	Bachelor of Education	1 unit	1 unit
4	Graduate Diploma of Education	1 unit	1 unit
4	Master of Teaching	1 unit	1 unit
5	Graduate Diploma in Education	1 unit	1 unit
5	Master of Teaching	1 unit	1 unit Elective unit available

Note. Numbers 1-5 represents each of the five Western Australian Universities.

3.3.2 Instrumentation.

Qualitative research in education tends to study the spoken and written words of people's experiences using a range of methods and multiple sources of data (Punch, 2009). In this research, data were collected using the ethnographic research methods of a semi-structured interview and privileged observations. Despite Glaser (1998) recommending not to use recordings as part of grounded theory methodology, due to his belief that recordings could block the memoing process as they provided too much descriptive information, all interviews were recorded using a digital data recorder and classroom observations were recorded using a digital video recorder. It was determined, by the researcher, that the extra information gleaned by recording the teachers outweighed Glaser's concerns. Check and Schutt (2012) found that such recorders do not inhibit most interviews and tend to be ignored by the participant. Further, note taking has been shown to prevent the researcher from displaying interest and appreciation in the participants responses and can hinder the degree of concentration required to gain the best data (Check & Schutt, 2012). Recordings are able to be replayed to observe the sequence of talk and facial expressions and to examine and re-examine the data for analysis (Silverman, 2011). As such, recordings are far more accurate than relying on field notes or memories of conversations (Angrosino, 2007; Silverman, 2011). The two digital recording devices were chosen as they were best able to collect the data that was embedded in a real context (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Their use also facilitated analysis at a later time as the data collected was able to be revisited as often as necessary, thus allowing fine-grained analysis.

A semi-structured interview schedule (Appendix A) was selected as an effective and relevant method of collecting the data due to its flexibility, as it enabled the interviewer to probe and further question the participants' responses (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995). The

interview used pre-determined questions designed to elicit information specifically relative to the research topic (Angrosino, 2007). The interview schedule was based on a functional assessment interview developed by O'Neill, Albin, Horner, Storey, and Sprague (1997) and modified by Thiede (2004). The interview schedule was selected as it enabled extensive information such as specific areas of concern, contextual influences and consequence events, to be obtained from participants (Gresham, Watson, & Skinner, 2001; Lohrmann-O'Rourke, Knoster, & Llewellyn, 1999). The interview aimed to solicit a broad base of information about specific off-task behaviours, environmental influences, consequence events and other challenging CM situations that occurred in the classroom (Lohrmann-O'Rourke et al., 1999). To enable the interview to extract a depth and breadth regarding key issues, different types of questions were asked. Content mapping questions are designed to open up the research so as to identify the issues that are important to the beginning teacher. Content mining questions are designed to explore the issues identified, via the content mapping questions, to gain an in-depth understanding from the beginning teacher's point of view (Yeo, Legard, Keegan, Ward, McNaughton & Lewis, 2014). Probes and clarifying questions were then used to further develop the topic (Yeo et al., 2014).

The interview schedule structure was based on the work of Yeo et al. (2014), O'Neill et al. (1997) and Thiede (2004) and consisted of four distinct sections:

1. Initially, the purpose of the interview was explained and the role of the participant discussed. Written information regarding the research, including confidentiality requirements, was provided to the participant (Appendix B). The benefit that the participant would provide to the research outcomes was explained and the participant was asked to sign a consent form (Appendix C).
2. Prior to asking in-depth questions, a number of opening questions, designed to put the participant at ease were asked. They were non-threatening, straightforward to answer

and involved asking about the year level that the participant teaches, the number of students in the class, the ratio of male to female students and the number and gender of Indigenous students.

3. Next, the core-part of the interview took place where the discussion was more in-depth in nature and questions moved from general to specific in orientation. The questions asked for detail on information such as how the participant identifies off-task behaviour, what action the participant takes when a student is off-task and how effective the participant considers the action to be.
4. In concluding the interview, the participant was asked for any further information or new ideas they could offer. The participant was thanked, reassured about confidentiality and contact details were exchanged.

Participants were interviewed for approximately 1 hour prior to being observed in their classroom, although 80% of interviews tended to go over this time by between 8 and 13 minutes. The interviews were taped, transcribed and returned to the participant for member checking (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Lincoln & Guba, 2013), prior to being analysed. All interviews were face-to-face and held at the work site usually during the teacher's 'Duties Other Than Teaching' time, although a few took place at the end of the school day.

Once interviewed, the beginning teachers were observed teaching and a recording was made of their interactions with the students in their classroom; for the purpose of later analysing the CM strategies used. The data collection focused on the identification of strategies and methods used by the beginning teacher to keep students on-task and academically engaged in the lesson. Such strategies included: giving rewards for responding to CMS; using competition to encourage students to complete a task quickly; using the

students name to refocus their learning; standing behind the off-task student to encourage re-engagement with the activity; and the teacher talking loudly to give whole class instructions.

3.3.3 Functional behavioural analysis.

A functional behavioural analysis strategy enables the assessment of the relationship between a behaviour and environmental events, such as the consequence of a behavior (Thomason-Sassi, Iwata, Neidert, & Roscoe, 2011). This research used a functional behavioural analysis strategy to measure the behaviour-consequence relationship; between the onset of the low-key CMS (behaviour) used by the teacher to the first response by the student (consequence) and to subsequent responses by the student (if applicable). The relationship was measured using latency and duration until compliance to the low key strategy was achieved.

This strategy was selected as it was deemed by the researcher to be the most effective method of assessing variables associated with the occurrence of off-task classroom behaviour. The strategy provided an accurate measure of the behaviours demonstrated by the teacher and student, it enabled observations to take place in the school and did not require any experimental manipulation of the participants taking part in the research (Martens, DiGennaro, Reed, Szczech, & Rosenthal, 2008).

In this research, the CMS used by the teacher are the variables being assessed. There is a range of CMS which teachers use, varying from subtle, low-key movements to loud, disruptive actions that involve all students. This study uses the low-key CMS identified by Bennett and Smilanich (1994) as the basis for the collection of data. Low-key CMS are those which involve minimal verbal requests, which do not stop the flow of the lesson and do not invite the student to escalate the situation (Bennett & Smilanich, 1994). Low-key CMS were chosen as the foundation of the data collection due to the Western Australian Department of

Education using the Bennett and Smilanich (1994) low-key CMS as a best practice model within its CM professional learning program. The professional learning program is targeted at teachers struggling with CM and aims to give them a range of successful CMS to use in their classroom (Department of Education Western Australia, 2014a). As such, it may be concluded that the Bennett and Smilanich (1994) low-key CMS have been identified as being effective in returning students to on-task behaviours. Within the context of this study, Table 3.3 details the specific low-key CMS that were focussed on in both phase one and two (Bennett & Smilanich, 1994). Separate to the Bennett and Smilanich (1994) low-key CMS, this research also included information about any other CMS the beginning teachers used, in order to gauge their effectiveness with Indigenous students.

Table 3.3

Low-Key Classroom Management Strategies

Low-Key Classroom Management Strategies

Calling the Student's Name

Deal with the Problem not the Student

Gesture

Pause

Physical Contact

Proximity

Purposeful Ignoring

Signal to Begin

The Look

Note. Adapted from *Classroom Management: A Thinking and Caring Approach* p. 189 by B. Bennett and P. Smilanich, 1984, Toronto: Bookation Inc and Perceptions.

The purpose of collecting this data is to measure the effectiveness of the low-key CMS used to return an off-task student to on-task behaviours. Within the context of this research, ineffective CMS are those that consistently take longer to return the student to on-task behaviours or have to be used in conjunction with other CMS, whereas the more effective a CMS is, the less time it consistently takes to return students to on-task behaviours. (Ardoin, Martens, & Wolfe, 1999; Wehby & Hollahan, 2000). The effectiveness of each CMS was measured via the latency or length of time that the student took to respond to the low-key CMS with an on-task behaviour (Alberto & Troutman, 2013; Gresham et al., 2001; Thomason-Sassi et al., 2011). Latency was measured in seconds and minutes using a stop watch. Information on the latency of the behaviour was collected until compliance occurred or until a critical event occurred that disrupted the behaviour-consequence relationship (Wehby & Hollahan, 2000). Such a critical event could be the intervention by another member of staff, the student leaving the classroom or a fight occurring. The duration of the off-task behaviours, which is the total time that the student is engaged in the off-task behaviour was also collected. A latency recording sheet from the University of Kansas (2005) was modified to collate the data obtained from the recorded observations. The latency and duration of the off-task behaviours was collected for the first ten minutes of the lesson only. This decision was made based on research findings which suggest that if students are not engaged in on-task behaviours within the first few minutes of the class, it is significantly more difficult for the teacher to re-engage the students with the lesson and off-task behaviours tend to continue and escalate in frequency (Barry & King, 1998; Konza et al., 2004; Schoenfeld, Rutherford, Gable, & Rock, 2008; Wong & Wong, 1984). Other CMS that the teachers used in an attempt to manage the classroom such as yelling or shouting at the students, calling for assistance from the Deputy Principal or another teacher and banging the

blackboard ruler against the wall were included in the data collection if it occurred within the defined time period.

3.3.4 Data collection permissions.

Prior to collecting data, ethics clearance from the University of Notre Dame Australia Human Research Ethics Committee was received (Appendix D). Permission was also requested and received from the Department of Education Western Australia to conduct the research in government schools, as required by the Research Conducted on Department of Education Sites policy (Department of Education Western Australia, 2009) (Appendix E). Permission was also gained from the Regional Officer in the Kimberley Catholic Education Office to conduct the research in Catholic schools in the Kimberley Diocese. The names of beginning teachers, who met the selection criteria, were obtained through contact with the Kimberley Catholic Education Office, the Kimberley District Education Office and the University of Notre Dame Australia Broome Campus. Initial contact with the beginning teacher was made by telephone and followed up by email, confirming the research purpose and process and officially requesting their participation in the study.

After the potential participants had been identified, the Principal of each school was contacted by the researcher to request permission to conduct research in the school. The researcher made an appointment to meet with each Principal. During this meeting, the Principal was given written information about the research (Appendix F). The information contained a copy of the permission letter, a letter explaining the purpose of the research and all associated details including specifics of what the school's participation involved and a consent form for the Principal to sign if they agreed to the research taking place in their school (Appendix G). To comply with eligibility requirements for entry into the school classrooms, the researcher showed their current Working with Children Check and National

Police History Check documentation to the Principal at each school, prior to the commencement of the research.

Once permission had been received from the Principal to conduct this research and the beginning teacher had agreed to be briefed, they were given a plain language statement which provided details of the research and outlined the involvement of the teacher (Appendix B). The details also identified that the participant could withdraw from the research at any time and that all information collected would remain anonymous and confidential. Acceding participants were asked to sign an Informed Consent Form (Appendix C) agreeing to participate in the research. This was undertaken in a manner that was “free from fraud, deceit, duress, inducement or manipulation” (Berg & Lune, 2014, p. 47). Confidentiality was guaranteed through the use of coding so the identity of both the participants and specific locations in the Kimberley were anonymous. Tapes, transcripts and all other information collected were kept in secure storage in accordance with the requirements of the University ethics committee and only accessible by the researcher and research supervisor.

As this research required observation of each beginning teacher interacting with the students in their classroom, written permission from parents/guardians to video-record their child had to be obtained. In Department of Education schools, it is a requirement that students be made aware of the research and agree to be video-recorded as part of the classroom interactions that occur between the teacher and themselves (Department of Education Western Australia, 2009). Information sheets and written letters of consent (Appendix H) for parents and students were emailed to the graduate teacher for dissemination to students in their classroom. The graduate teacher was also asked to collect the returned signed forms and to organise for any student who did not have written permission to be video-recorded, to be placed in another classroom for the duration of the observation period. As can be seen in Table 3.4, the percentage of students for whom permission was not granted varied from 0%

to 10%, which corresponded to between 0 and 2 students per classroom. As a number of students were absent from school when the first observations were undertaken, the process of obtaining written permission from all parents/guardians was repeated again for the second phase of data collection.

Table 3.4

Number of students, in each class, for whom permission to video-record was not granted.

Teacher	Year Level	Number of non-Indigenous students for whom permission to record was not received	Number of Indigenous students for whom permission to record was not granted	Total number of students in class
Shirley	4	0	2	26
Margaret	Pre-Primary	1	1	23
David	1	1	1	14
Liz	2/3	0	1	20
Natalie	4/5	0	1	24
Chloe	2	1	1	21
Emma	Pre-Primary	1	0	17
Karen	5	2	0	23
Keith	3	0	0	24
Liam	6	0	0	22
Total		6	7	214

Prior to receiving ethics clearance a Kimberley born Indigenous researcher based at The University of Notre Dame, Broome Campus was consulted as to the design of the research. Within the discussions, the liaison process by which the Indigenous parents in the remote community schools would be advised of the study and the best way to gain parental

permission to record the Indigenous students was agreed upon. It was determined that in order to comply with cultural and community protocols in the remote communities, the researcher would contact the Aboriginal Islander Education Officers or Aboriginal Teacher Assistants in each school to inform them of the research, rather than making the assumption that the beginning teacher or Principal had advised them. As the distance and costs associated with a visit to each of the remote locations is quite significant, most trips by the researcher consisted of being in the community for at least four days. Such a length of time enabled the researcher to collect research data and undertake other research related duties. During these four days, with the assistance of the Aboriginal support staff in each community, meetings were organised to advise parents/guardians/community elders of the research being undertaken in the school and to give the opportunity to discuss the research or ask questions relating to the research. Permission forms were circulated during these meetings and collected upon the completion of the discussion. As can be seen in Table 3.5, only a small number of community members attended the meetings. However, the researcher was advised by the Aboriginal Islander Education Officers and Aboriginal Teacher Assistants that the Indigenous attendees were significant members of the community who had family or kinship relationships with all students in the class. As such, the attendees were able to sign the permission forms to enable video-recording of the students in the classroom to occur. The researcher was also advised that these community members would be talking to families about the study and explaining what the researcher was doing in the community. Other community members who attended the meetings were from either an Anglo or Asian background and were usually associated with law enforcement, the local retail store or health services.

Table 3.5

Attendance Statistics at Information Sessions

Local Government Area	Attendance Numbers of Indigenous Parents/Guardians	Attendance Numbers of non-Indigenous Parents/Guardians
Shire of Broome	5	8
Shire of Derby-West Kimberley	3	4
Shire of Halls Creek	15	9
Shire of Wyndham- East Kimberley	3	3

3.4 Data collection procedure

Prior to data collection, a pilot study was conducted for the purpose of refining the interview schedule used in the research (Connelly, 2008; Hedges, 2012). The schools in which the pilot study was carried out were schools in the largest population centre in the Kimberley. The pilot consisted of three trial interviews being conducted with school teachers who closely met the selection criteria for this research (Hedges, 2012). That is, the teachers were trained in Western Australia, came from an Anglo background, were teaching in the Kimberley district and had large numbers of Indigenous students in their classroom. The only difference being that the pilot study teachers were not in their first year of teaching.

Permission was requested from the pilot study teachers to record the interviews, with the aim of listening to the researcher's interviewing technique to identify any issues which may affect the research. On playing back the interviews, the researcher found she was verbally agreeing with the trial participants' responses. Such agreement encouraged the pilot participants to give additional information which they thought would be of assistance to the research project.

By acting as a positive reinforcer to the answers provided, there was a possibility of influencing the participants responses to further questions (Kvale, 2007). To minimise influencing factors, it was necessary for the researcher to apply bracketing during the interview process to avoid distorting the information provided by the participants (Gearing, 2008). The researcher conceptualised the brackets as holding her own experiences and opinions and as such consciously avoided encouraging the participant during the interview stage.

A la Creswell (2005), the pilot participants were asked for feedback regarding poorly worded questions, questions which did not make sense, the types of questions asked and the length of time taken to complete the interview. They were also asked for feedback regarding the suitability of each question and their ability to respond. As a result of the pilot survey feedback, two changes were made to the interview schedule. An additional question asking where the participant learned their CM strategies was included. A further question asking the beginning teacher how they knew if their CM strategies were effective was also included. These questions were added as they allowed participants to reflect on the CMS they had learned at university and how effective they believed they were in the classroom.

Data were collected from the beginning teachers in two separate phases during the first year of teaching. In phase one, the initial data obtained via a face-to-face interview and classroom observation were collected early in term one. The premise behind the timing of the term one visit was that beginning teachers would be using the CMS they had been exposed to in teacher education programs and so would be able to comment on their effectiveness. The researcher determined that visiting the beginning teachers towards the latter part of term one would increase the possibility that the teachers had received additional professional development and mentoring in CM. Consequently, any data collected would not accurately reflect the CMS that beginning teachers had learned from the teacher education course.

Phase two data were collected towards the end of term three. The graduate teachers were again interviewed and observed to enable further data to be collected regarding the CMS the teacher used and its effectiveness. The second interview (Appendix I) consisted of many of the same questions as the first interview, in order to be able to compare the data collected over time. It also contained additional questions which asked the teacher to reflect on their CMS experiences over the year. The second interview, for example, asked if the teacher believed their CMS had improved since the beginning of the year and what they thought might be the reason for such improvement. During the interview process, the researcher again bracketed her own experience and opinions to avoid the possibility of influencing the responses of the beginning teachers (Gearing, 2008). This protocol was repeated during and after the video-recording of the teachers, and was specifically relevant when seven of the beginning teachers asked the researcher for their opinion about what they had just observed.

One of the research methods associated with Ethnography is that of privileged observer, where the researcher is known and given access to information about the context in which the observations are made (Gobo, 2008). Over the time-frame of this study, the researcher came to know the beginning teachers personally and was given information about the issues, concerns and successes that they were having in the classroom. During the video-recording sessions in the classroom, the role of the researcher was that of non-participatory privileged-observer so as to avoid the Hawthorne effect (Landsberger, 1958; Salkind, 2010). A non-participatory privileged observer watches the subject with their knowledge, but without taking part in the activity. By not paying attention to the students work or responding to their actions or behaviours, the aim is to reduce the possibility of the Hawthorne Effect. Such an effect occurs when the students change their behaviour as a result of the researcher showing interest in what they are doing resulting in the data being contaminated (Check &

Schutt, 2012; Robinson, Sterling-Turner, & Wilczynski, 2001; Wiersma & Jurs, 2008; Wolcott, 1997).

3.5 Data analysis

The following section details how the data collected via interviews and observations were analysed using grounded theory methodology. The purpose of using grounded theory was to build new theory from empirical data.

3.5.1 Research analysis process.

Within this research, once the initial data were collected, grounded theory methodology was used to analyse the data as such methodology fits within the interpretive epistemology of this study (Waring, 2012). Given that the purpose of this research is not to describe the participants interactions but to conceptualise or ‘find’ the answers to the research questions, the researcher determined that grounded theory was the most appropriate methodology to use. Grounded theory also remains cognisant of participants’ perspectives and voices. It is, however, important to note that interpretation is not an exact science and words can have different meanings from one context to another (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

3.5.2 Initial coding.

Data analysis commenced after the transcription of the interviews was completed. Prior to coding, each transcription was read in its entirety a number of times to get a ‘feel’ for what each participant was saying and to become familiar with the concepts that were being discussed (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003). Despite Glaser (1998) and Corbin and Strauss (2008) recommending that in a grounded theory approach all codes and categories should come from the data, the researcher decided to use a broad etic scheme devised by Bogdan and Biklen (2003). The Bogdan and Biklen (2003) coding families are a broad etic scheme as they are

not culture-specific and can be applied to organise data regardless of the cultural context. The use of such a scheme differs from the recommendations of Glaser (1998) and Cobin & Strauss (2008) in that they suggest that all codes and categories should come from the data. In this research, the Bogdan and Biklen (2003) coding families were used to assist with the initial coding of the data. This decision was based on the researcher wanting an underlying framework to guide the coding process in the initial stages. The coding families presented in Table 3.6 were used as the framework for the coding process to ensure it would be coherent, logical and connected.

Table 3.6

Initial Coding Families

Coding Families	Definition
Activity codes	Regularly occurring kinds of behaviours, whether formal or informal.
Definition of the situation codes	How participants define the setting or particular topics.
Perspectives held by subjects	How participants think about their situation.
Setting/Context codes	General information about the setting, topic or participants.
Strategy codes	The methods that participants go about accomplishing things.
Subjects' ways of thinking about people and objects	Understandings that participants have about each other and the objects that make up their world.

Note. Adapted from *Qualitative Research for Education: An Introduction to Theories and Methods* pp. 174-180 by R. Bogdan and S. K. Biklen, 2003, New York, Pearson Education Group.

Each of the interview transcripts was read many times in search of incidences. Such incidences were then situated within the Bogdan and Biklen (2003) coding families. Placing raw data into the families described by Bogdan and Biklen (2003) gave the researcher experience in the coding process and increasing confidence in making decisions based on the data (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Further, the experience gave the researcher insight into potential open codes which emerged due to the frequency of similar incidences. As a result of placing raw data within coding families, a number of ‘thick’ codes emerged. These codes were considered to be ‘thick’ as they contained detailed information, could be linked to other codes and were frequently mentioned. As indicated in Table 4.5, such initial ‘thick’ codes included: teacher education, personal comments, whole school strategies, Indigenous students and CMS. The researcher considered these codes to be useful starting points for open coding as they could be used to link repeating patterns in the data. This initial coding process, using Bogdan and Biklen (2003) coding families only occurred during phase one of the research. Phase two data was directly open coded as the researcher had developed confidence in the coding process and a number of ‘thick’ codes had previously been created against which incidences could be compared using the constant comparison process.

3.5.3 Open coding.

As a result of applying the Bogdan and Biklen (2003) coding families to the data, the researcher gained experience at coding incidences and identified a few possible ‘thick’ codes that could be used when open coding. Prior to open coding, the transcripts were again read, line by line, and further incidences identified based on the words the participant used (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Glaser, 1998). These incidences were either incorporated within the ‘thick’ codes or a new code was created. As recommended by Glaser (1998) and Gläser and Laudel

(2013), the following three questions were continually asked of the data during the open-coding process:

1. What is going on conceptually when the participant talks about CMS issues they have?
2. What is the participant's main problem or issue in regards to CM and CMS?
3. What is each participant doing in an attempt to solve their problem? (Glaser, 1998; Holton, 2007).

Such questions were asked in an attempt to deconstruct the data in order to produce new and innovative codes which coded the data in as many ways as possible. The process of open coding all phase one interviews resulted in over 210 open codes being created with accompanying descriptive memos to aid in the creation and development of conceptual ideas. During this stage, the potential codes developed from Bogdan and Biklen (2003) coding families were further developed.

3.5.4 Selective coding.

Using the constant comparative process incidences were compared, with similar incidences being coded together. Such coding resulted in the data being uniformly recorded and the generation of thoughts, ideas and potential concepts chronicled via memos so as to prevent the collection of repetitive or redundant data. Codes were then compared and combined into categories based on similar properties, resulting in the number of codes being reduced (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Each category was further compared with codes, with the aim being to 'thicken' the categories and reach theoretical saturation where the data produced no new concepts (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The use of memos written during the constant comparative process assisted in the 'thickening' of the categories. The memos detailed the

researcher's thoughts based on their interpretation of the data. The memos, which were altered and expanded as new ideas and perceptions occurred, enabled potential concepts to emerge. Initially the memos contained descriptions and key words, however, as the constant comparison process continued, many memos were integrated and the content became more detailed as categories were merged (Jupp, 2006). The researcher found the memos to be extremely useful as they provided information from which theoretical hypotheses could be developed.

3.5.5 Theoretical coding.

Based on the comprehensive details in the memos, the researcher determined that a number of categories were worthwhile pursuing further in order to generate and develop theoretical hypotheses (Creswell, 2005; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Theoretical sampling, where the selected categories were compared with other categories, was undertaken leading to a reduction in the number of categories (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Jupp, 2006). Through memoing, where concepts and thoughts associated with each of the categories were contemplated and pondered over, it became evident that there were a number of core categories to which much of the coded data could be assigned (Creswell, 2005; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Holton, 2007). Through further memoing and interpretation of the collected data, a conceptual theory emerged. While this theory did not specifically answer each of the research questions, this was achieved through analysing the data, it did explain and account for the incidences the beginning teachers had encountered and described during their initial year of teaching.

3.6 Reliability and Validity of Research

The rigour of this research can be measured using two different sets of criteria. The reliability and validity aspects can be assessed using the verification strategies suggested by

Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson, and Spiers (2002) and the rigour of the grounded theory methodology can be determined through a set of four criteria identified by Charmaz (2006). These are explained in what follows.

3.6.1 Verification strategy.

Within the qualitative paradigms, Lincoln and Guba (1985) propose that the terms trustworthiness and authenticity are more appropriate for determining the rigour of qualitative research than the quantitative terms of reliability and validity. Additionally Denzin and Lincoln (1994) and Schwandt, Lincoln, and Guba (2007) suggest that the rigour of research within an interpretive paradigm be assessed using the criteria of credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. In contrast to such research, Morse et al. (2002) advocates a return to the reliability and validity concepts within the qualitative paradigm. Kvale (2007) identified that to validate is to investigate, to check, to question and to theorise; all of which help establish rigour within the research process. Morse et al. (2002) found that validity within research could be established using a number of verification strategies. Such strategies include methodological coherence, sampling adequacy, saturation and an active analytical stance (Morse et al., 2002). It is the verification strategies of Morse et al. (2002) that were initially used to confirm the rigour of this research.

3.6.2 Methodological coherence.

Methodological coherence ensures alignment between the research questions and data collection and analysis tools. The data collection methods were specifically selected to attain answers to the research questions. All data collected was subject to the constant comparative process via a continuous cycle. Such iterative processes enabled 'thick' concepts to emerge from the evidence and for 'thin' data to be discarded. The constant back-and-forth movement between the research design, the data collection process and data analysis methods ensured

that there was congruence between all sections of this research resulting in methodological coherence (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Schwandt et al., 2007).

3.6.3 Sampling adequacy and saturation.

Through the constant comparison process information was reduced to a smaller number of categories and concepts. This iterative process resulted in saturation of the data being attained as it became evident that all data collected could to be assigned to existing concepts and that no further insights were to be gleaned from collecting and analysing any further information. Morse et al. (2002) state that sampling adequacy is achieved when the data becomes saturated, as saturated data indicates that replication of categories or concepts has occurred. Such replication also verifies the data categories as all potential categories have been drawn from the data, thus ensuring comprehension and completeness within the research.

3.6.4 Active analytical stance.

Through constantly checking and rechecking, slowly moving forward with ideas, dismissing those which could not be substantiated through the data and moving between the micro level of the data and the macro level of conceptual understandings (Morse et al., 2002), a solid research foundation was built. Such analytical work facilitated the emergence of a new theory, which arose out of the application of grounded theory methodology to the data, rather than as a result of a framework or preconceived hypothesis being applied. This new theory has the potential to be used as an analytical device for comparison and further development within the nexus of beginning teachers, CMS and Indigenous students in the four target countries. As such, the theory is well developed, informed, consistent with the collected data and demonstrates transferability and credibility (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Schwandt et al., 2007).

3.7 Establishing Grounded Theory Methodology Rigour

The rigour of this current study can also be demonstrated through an interrogation of the grounded theory methodology which enabled the new theory to emerge. Concepts and theories that emerge via grounded theory occur as a result of interaction between the researcher and the data (Charmaz, 2006). In order to interact it is necessary to make sense of situations, appraise incidences and use language and culture to create meanings and guide actions (Charmaz, 2006). Given that interpretations are not always exact and that words may have different meanings from one situation to another (Corbin & Strauss, 2008) the researcher constructed the new theory as a result of interaction with and interpretation of the emerging categories achieved through the use of grounded theory methodology. Charmaz (2006) identified that from the preliminary interpretations made via open coding and memoing, to the emergence of concepts and theories, grounded theory enables thoughts and questions to be captured which give rise to ideas, concepts and new theories. As a result of the continual interaction with and interpretation of the data, the researcher contends that the theory proposed, which emerged as a result of adhering to grounded theory, is a defensible one.

To determine the clarity between process and product, Charmaz (2006) suggested that relevant others evaluate the research against the criteria of credibility, originality, resonance and usefulness. In this research, relevant others could include: pre-service teachers, neophyte teachers, teacher educators and other academic colleagues as they will most likely be the ones who ultimately judge whether or not the proposed theory has pragmatic relevance. The following section uses the criteria suggested by Charmaz (2006), to confirm the rigour of the grounded theory methodology used in this research.

3.7.1 Credibility.

In this research, credibility is demonstrated through a number of processes including persistent observation. Persistent observation asks whether the researcher has undertaken an in-depth study in order to collect necessary detail (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this research, persistent observation was achieved via the use of two different research methods, namely observations and interviews, on two separate occasions. Observations were video-recorded to provide a more reliable source of data than memory and a more accurate source than taking field notes. Both memory and field notes are highly subjective as they are the immediate interpretation of the information provided to the researcher (Angrosino, 2012). All interviews were also recorded which enabled the researcher to replay conversations and reflect upon the beginning teacher's responses prior to initial coding.

The credibility of this research can also be demonstrated through the systematic comparison between the evidence collected and the categories that emerged from the data (Charmaz, 2011). The evidence collected led to the identification of three categories: cultural shock, CMS and resilience. Through the inclusion of excerpts from the interviews and memos written by the researcher, an insight can be gained as to how the categories evolved.

Consistency within this research was attained with a relatively high level of accuracy and consensus. Using an interactive and iterative process between the researcher, beginning teachers and the data; the information provided by the teachers was collected and interpreted (Cho & Trent, 2006). It has been shown that by using recorded data the consistency of the research increases, as the researcher is able to replay the conversations and review the interactions of the beginning teacher (Silverman, 2011). Additional consistency was achieved by viewing the recorded observations made in the classroom and cross checking with the

information provided by the graduate teacher in the interviews. The comparison of data enabled a distinction to be made between real information, what the participants are observed doing; and ideal information, that which they say they are supposed to do (Angrosino, 2007).

Further evidence of the credibility of this current research can be demonstrated through the use of triangulation (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Triangulation is a strategy for improving the trustworthiness of the research (Golafshani, 2003) and refers to the use of multiple data sources and data collection methods to order to find a convergence of ideas on which to build themes (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Long & Johnson, 2000). Mathison (1988) wrote that triangulation has risen as an important methodological strategy in qualitative approaches in order to control bias and establish valid propositions. Triangulation allows for more confidence in the value of data as the data is derived from multiple perspectives and sources. In this research triangulation was achieved through data being collected from eight different schools situated within the Kimberley district. Six of the schools were owned by the Department of Education with the two other schools belonging to Catholic Education. Five of the schools were situated within Indigenous locations or areas, two schools were situated in a bounded locality and one school was situated in an urban centre (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011d).

Credibility in this study was also established through methodological triangulation, which combines different methods to gather data (Denzin, 1978; Patton, 1990). Such methods included interviews, observations, functional behavioural analysis and member checking. Member checking entails the participant verifying the collected data to check for perceived accuracy (Cho & Trent, 2006; Kvale, 2007; Long & Johnson, 2000). Member checking occurred at the end of each interview with each participant being sent a copy of the interview transcript for comment. Each participant agreed that the transcript was accurate and no

changes, deletions or additions were required. Lincoln and Guba (1985) found that member checking was “the most crucial technique for establishing credibility” (p. 314).

3.7.2 Originality

Over the past few years there has been a number of studies published relating to cultural diversity and cultural responsiveness. The majority of these studies have primarily focussed on effective pedagogy, culturally relevant curriculum content, social skill instruction, culturally appropriate assessment strategies and teaching strategies appropriate for culturally diverse learners (Bishop, 2010; Gay, 2002; Jenkins et al., 2011; Lewthwaite & McMillan, 2010; Lock et al., 2012; Milner & Tenore, 2010; Petrović, 2011; Rass, 2012). Milner and Tenore (2010) & Weinstein et al. (2004) found that the literature on cultural diversity had paid limited attention to CM and that research on CM had paid negligible attention to issues of cultural diversity. As such, there appears to be a paucity of studies specifically on the relationship between CM and cultural diversity.

The original contribution of this current research is its focus on identifying a relationship between CMS, beginning teachers and the incorporation of the local Indigenous mores into their teaching. The location of this study also contributes to the originality of the research. A small number of studies have recognised that the cultural identities of the students and teachers are central to understanding the complexities associated with CM, however, such research has been undertaken in the United States. Monroe (2006) conceptualised a “discipline gap” (p. 164) which stressed the need for teachers to develop “culturally specific disciplinary techniques” (p. 165), particularly with culturally and linguistically diverse learners from African American backgrounds. Hammond et al. (2004) focused on Native American students and conceptualised “culturally relevant classroom management strategies” (p. 3). Brown (2004) discussed the need for culturally responsive

teaching and building positive relationships with each student. This research was undertaken in a number of American schools with African American, Hispanic, Native American and Asian American students. Finally, a study by Hernandez-Sheets and Gay (1996), which was sited in the United States, called for culturally responsive discipline with the aim of creating caring and nurturing relationships with culturally diverse students. Despite an intensive search, there does not appear to be any comparable studies undertaken within Australia, specifically with a Kimberley based context.

3.7.3 Resonance.

The Oxford Dictionary of English defines resonance as: “The ability to evoke or suggest images, memories and emotions” (Oxford Dictionary of English, 2010b). The resonance of this research is demonstrated in two ways; by the acceptance of beginning and experienced teachers to the new theory and through the identification of the three main coding categories. The researcher explained the new theory to the beginning teachers who took part in the research. Each teacher agreed that they now understood many of the cultural norms of the community and had incorporated them into their teaching. Such norms included the use of local Indigenous words, actions and body language. The teachers also stated that since incorporating local cultural traits into their classroom teaching, and commencing having informal chats with the students, the students were responding to the CMS more quickly and had started to ask the teacher questions about their own life. From the discussions with and responses of the novice teachers, it appeared the new theory resonated positively with them.

Further evidence of the resonance of this research is demonstrated through the response given when the theory was discussed with the Principal of one of the remote schools in the Kimberley:

Oh, I didn't know that it had a name, but I can see when the new teachers start to take on board the local values and use them in their classroom. I get a lot less referrals for bad classroom behaviour from the teacher and they seem much happier.

(L. Jones, personal communication, February 18, 2014).

The resonance of this research can also be demonstrated through the identification of the categories; 'cultural shock', 'classroom management strategies' and 'resilience' which arose from the lived experiences of the beginning teachers. These categories were accepted by the beginning teachers as being valid as they encapsulated the issues and emotions they had confronted and overcome. The categories also facilitated the emergence of the new substantive theory. This theory aims to account for the issues that beginning teachers face, in relation to CM, when placed in a culturally different environment with limited knowledge of the local mores.

3.7.4 Usefulness.

One of the determinants of the usefulness of this research is through the recommendations for practice that are included within Chapter Six of this thesis. McKenzie et al. (2014) found that 29.5% of early career teachers felt their teacher education course had been least helpful in preparing them to teach Indigenous students. If teacher education courses, principals of remote schools and recruitment practices consider the findings of this research useful and incorporate some of the recommendations into their interactions with beginning teachers, such teachers may no longer have to face an 'ordeal by fire' in their first few months of teaching.

3.8 Chapter Summary

This research is a qualitatively-based interpretive study that used the ethnographic tools of interview, observation and a functional behaviour analysis to examine the relationship between beginning teachers, effective CMS and Indigenous students in the Kimberley district. Through purposive sampling a homogenous group of ten participants was selected. Such beginning teachers were in the position to provide data relevant to addressing the research questions. Using grounded theory methodology, the data collected was analysed, synthesised and reduced to three core categories from which cultural frame-switching emerged. The validity and credibility of both the new theory and the process undertaken is demonstrated through verification against two different set of criteria. The following chapter reports on the findings that arose as a result of this research.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter details the findings that resulted from the research. The information presented includes the general demographic of schools within the Kimberley region and specific demographic information about the composition of each beginning teacher's class. This chapter also contains data obtained from the phase one and two interviews and the observations and findings from the functional behavioural analysis. Included are examples of memos developed by the researcher. These memos demonstrate the conceptualisation process undertaken to develop categories from a substantial number of open codes. Prior to presenting the data, it is relevant to note that no beginning teacher withdrew from the research nor left the teaching profession during the research period. As such, all data collected and presented is from the same cohort of beginning teachers.

4.2 Demographic Information

This section provides the demographic profiles of the students in the Kimberley region of Western Australia and in each beginning teacher's class. This information establishes the high number of Indigenous students in this region, thus validating the selection of this region for this research. Table 4.1 displays the total Indigenous and non-Indigenous student enrolments in primary education in the Kimberley region. It is evident that almost two-thirds of the primary student population identify as being Indigenous Australian.

Table 4.1

Primary Aged Student Enrolment Numbers in Kimberley Schools, 2013/2014

Category	Indigenous Primary Aged Students	Non-Indigenous Primary Aged Students	Total
Number	3748	1990	5738
Percentage	(65.3%)	(34.7%)	(100%)

Note. Adapted from Association of Independent Schools of Western Australia (Inc) (2013), Australian Curriculum Assessment and Reporting Authority (2013), Catholic Education Office of Western Australia (2013) and Department of Education Western Australia (2014h).

The data within Table 4.2 refines the demographic data presented in Table 4.1 into the primary student enrolments in the schools within the Kimberley. The number and percentage of Indigenous and non-Indigenous students within each school is displayed, with a notable feature being that in only two schools is the non-Indigenous student population larger than the Indigenous population.

Table 4.2

Primary Aged Student Demography in Kimberley Schools, 2013

School	Number of Primary Student Enrolments	Number of Indigenous Primary Student Enrolments	Percentage Of Indigenous Primary Enrolments	Number of non-Indigenous Primary Student Enrolments	Percentage of non-Indigenous Primary Enrolments
Bayulu Remote Community School	123	121	99%	2	1%
Broome Primary School	437	219	50%	218	50%
Cable Beach Primary School	458	284	62%	174	38%

Derby District High School	436	344	79%	92	21%
Christ the King Catholic School	70	66	94%	4	6%
Fitzroy Valley District High School	171	156	91%	15	8%
Halls Creek District High School	309	294	95%	15	5%
Kalumburu Remote Community School	114	112	98%	2	2%
Kununurra District High School	536	257	48%	279	52%
La Grange Remote Community School	132	129	98%	3	2%
Lurnpa Catholic School	120	120	100%	0	0%
Ngalangpum School	90	90	100%	0	0%
Nyikina Mangala Community School	21	21	100%	0	0%
One Arm Point Remote Community School	74	72	98%	2	2%

Purnululu School	15	15	100%	0	0%
Roebuck Primary School	719	57	8%	662	92%
Sacred Heart School	99	96	97%	3	3%
St Joseph's School	201	131	65%	70	35%
Wangkatjungka Remote Community School	77	77	100%	0	0%
Wanalirri Catholic School	16	14	88%	2	12%
Warlawurru Catholic School	43	41	95%	2	5%
Wyndham District High School	112	74	66%	38	34%
Yakanarra Community School	52	50	96%	2	4%
Total	4425	2840		1585	

Note. Adapted from Association of Independent Schools of Western Australia (Inc) (2013), Australian Curriculum Assessment and Reporting Authority (2013), Catholic Education Office of Western Australia (2013) and Department of Education Western Australia (2014h).

Table 4.3 refines the student demographic data still further. It displays the gender breakdown of Indigenous and non-Indigenous students enrolled in Kimberley primary classrooms. The aggregated enrolment data shows there is very little difference between the numbers in each gender in both the Indigenous and non-Indigenous students enrolled. Such

balance between male and female students is also reflected in the beginning teacher's classrooms as illustrated in Table 4.4.

Table 4.3

Primary Student Enrolment by Gender and Culture, 2010

Category	Indigenous Males	Indigenous Females	Total Indigenous Students	Non-Indigenous Males	Non-Indigenous Females	Total non-Indigenous students
Number of Students	1321	1328	2649	795	776	1571
Percentage of Students	49.87%	50.13%	62.78%	50.60%	49.40%	37.22%

Note. The difference between data in Table 4.1 and Table 4.3 is due to the different years of data collection. Adapted from Australian Bureau of Statistics (2010).

A significant number of Indigenous students are enrolled in each beginning teacher's classroom. These figures are comparable with the Kimberley regional data shown in Table 4.2. As illustrated in Table 4.4 in 80% of the neophyte teachers' classes, Indigenous students comprised over 75% of the total student body. Other than the Year 2/3 classroom that contained 70% Indigenous male students, there was generally a balance between the number of female and male students. The non-Indigenous students in each class were either from Anglo or Asian backgrounds, depending upon the location of the school. In the majority of cases, these students are the children of either the local police, teaching or medical personnel in the town or the managers of the local store or business. The ethnic identity of the students was obtained from the school enrolment records. One of the enrolment questions asked which ethnic group the family identified with. The beginning teacher was asked by the researcher how many Indigenous students were in their classroom, based on the enrolment data.

As can be seen in Table 4.4, no class used in this research was above the recommended general class size as specified in the Teachers General Agreement between the School Teachers Union of Western Australia and the Department of Education, Western Australia. Therefore, class size could not be considered a contributing factor to the challenges the graduate teachers were facing.

Table 4.4

Demography of Beginning Teacher's Classrooms

Teacher	Year Level	Number of non-Indigenous students	Number of Indigenous male students in class	Number of Indigenous female students in class	Percentage of Indigenous students in class	Total number of students in class
Margaret	Pre-Primary	2	12	9	91%	23
Emma	Pre-Primary	2	9	6	88%	17
David	1	3	5	6	78%	14
Karen	5	6	10	7	74%	23
Keith	3	7	8	9	71%	24
Liz	2/3	3	14	3	85%	20
Natalie	4/5	6	8	10	75%	24
Liam	6	3	9	10	86%	22
Shirley	4	6	12	8	77%	26
Chloe	2	5	7	9	76%	21
Total		43	94	77	80.1%	214

4.3 Phase One Coding using Bogdan and Biklen Coding Families Framework

Phase one of this research involved interviewing and observing ten beginning teachers placed in schools in the Kimberley region. The purpose of this phase was to collect baseline

data against which further data, collected in phase two, could be compared. Such comparison would enable any changes, trends or patterns, in the quest for answers to the research questions, to be determined.

A recognised coding framework was used to assist in sorting and identifying incidences and making decisions about coding (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003). Such a framework enabled the raw data to be sorted by a number of different coding families as shown in Table 4.5. The sorting process also enabled incidences unique to individual participants to be identified. Such incidences were recorded and ‘put-to-one-side’, for possible inclusion in the constant comparative process during phase two, when other similar incidences may have been revealed. The collation of data at this stage was managed via very broad categories which were provisional in nature (Dey, 2007).

Table 4.5

Identification of Potential Codes

Coding Families	Raw Data Categorisation	Potential Codes
Activity codes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All teachers use extrinsic rewards such charts, stickers, certificates and prizes. • Each school has a school classroom management policy and associated procedures which involves extrinsic rewards. All policies are based on Canter and Canter (1976) Assertive Discipline and each teacher is required to implement the school classroom management policy and procedures. • None of the teachers have any CMS that work consistently. • Three of the beginning teachers use competition with other students as a CMS. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Classroom management strategies • Extrinsic Rewards • Cultural differences
Definition of the situation codes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Over 75% of students in the classrooms are Indigenous Australians. • None of the beginning teachers had taught Indigenous students on a practicum. • 50% of the teachers had not studied an Indigenous education unit at University. Those that had, said the unit did not prepare them for the reality of teaching Indigenous students. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Indigenous students • Teacher education • Practicum experience

Perspectives held by subjects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There was an inevitability among each of the participants that they ‘had to do it tough’ in the first few years of teaching. • The phrases ‘just pick things up as I go along’; ‘hope I toughen up’ and ‘suck it and see’ were used by the participants. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Culture shock • Inevitability • Surprise
Setting/Context codes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 100% of participants were situated in a Kimberley school. • Locations were different and the size of the community and school varied. • Issues associated with relocating to the Kimberley were similar among each participant. • 80% of beginning teachers mentioned ‘down south’ frequently during their interview. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher reflection • Personal comments • Culture shock • Missing home
Strategy codes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Each beginning teacher has a few low-key CMS which they use. Such CMS do not work all the time. • Each teacher said they had shouted at the students more than once and they knew they should not raise their voice. • Nine participants said they were more tolerant of Indigenous student’s poor behaviour. • One teacher changed their CMS frequently as they searched for a strategy that worked. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Classroom management strategies • Helplessness • Inconsistency • Searching
Subjects ways of thinking about people and objects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 80% of participants mentioned that Indigenous students and families do not have the same respect for teachers as students ‘down south’. • 50% of beginning teachers said that Indigenous families and parents do not necessarily support the teacher and they don’t believe that the teacher ‘is right’. • Two teachers said that they got into trouble when they assumed that Indigenous family relations would want to help a member of their extended family. This assumption was incorrect and had caused trouble within the family. • Each of the beginning teachers worried about what would happen if they got Indigenous students ‘off-side’ as they never knew what the students would do. • Each beginning teacher identified that they never knew if a student was going to do as they asked or if they would be defiant or ‘shut down’. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Indigenous culture • Classroom management strategies • Indigenous students relationships

Note. Adapted from *Qualitative Research for Education: An Introduction to Theories and Methods* pp. 174-180 by R. Bogdan and S. K. Biklen, 2003, New York, Pearson Education Group.

The initial coding of data, using the Bogdan and Biklen (2003) coding families, enabled potential codes to emerge from the data. Such codes included CMS, cultural differences, Indigenous students, teacher education, practica experiences and relationships as

those that appeared to cause the beginning teachers the greatest amount of angst. The following section explains how three of the coding families, CMS, teacher education and relationships were developed based on the information collected from the graduate teachers.

4.3.1 Classroom management strategies.

Consistent, effective CMS is one of the most frequently mentioned issues that emerged from coding the raw data using the Bogdan and Biklen (2003) coding families. Each teacher had concerns in regards to their CMS not being as effective as they would like. They also mentioned they had a limited range of CMS and would have liked a wider repertoire to deal with challenging, difficult situations.

Karen said that she had been totally unprepared for what could happen in the classroom when students did not comply with her instructions. She did not have any CMS for dealing with situations that she had never before confronted:

Well, it was the refusing to do work or to move chairs when I ask them. I've been on pracs and done a bit of relief teaching in Perth, I mean you get kids that refuse there, but then up here there have been kids that really refuse and they just don't do anything. They just completely ignore you and latch on to the desk if you try to get them to do something. They have like full on tantrums. I've never experienced the kicking and screaming and banging on the desks. I've never experienced it before.

And when it's a few kids at the same time, you're like well who do I attend to first?

David had also found that he did not have the CMS to cope with the students' unexpected behaviours. In the incident below, the Deputy Principal had to intervene as David was unable to sort out the problem with the student while managing the rest of the class:

A kid came from another school, probably wasn't used to the way things work here and I wasn't either. I asked him to do something and he just sat down on the ground and wouldn't move and you can't have that. We were trying to sort of play a game around him, it's safety as much as anything else. But it's the fact that they're disobeying me so you know, I moved closer and tried to get eye contact but he kept looking at the ground and wouldn't answer me. I asked him to move off the court, just no response whatsoever, so eventually I had to be like, okay, I'm not getting anything out of this and I moved the whole of the class up the other end of the basketball court. I had to send someone to go and get the Deputy Principal to sort it out.

Emma said that she used a range of different CMS in the classroom. Such strategies included being consistent with routines, using positive reinforcement for appropriate behaviour and redirecting inappropriate actions. She also mentioned that there were situations that she did not know how to deal with:

This child is a very individual case. He is in the hostel and he's very angry but he can also be very affectionate. It's very, very difficult. He's very eager to please me at times but in a group context he can't cope. On Monday, I had all the other children on the mat doing our session, he was lying in the home corner, refused to come and join us and was just yelling, "Shut up. Shut up. Shut up. Shut up. Shut up," the whole time. So that was really, it's really hard to deal with and the hardest thing I'm finding is that when he does these things, it's always at the same time. It's always at transition time, it's always mat time.

Liam and Liz took the opportunity at the conclusion of each interview to ask the researcher if she could give some advice as to what other CMS they could use. They asked questions such as; "Do you think I'm doing the right thing? What would you do if this

happened in your class? Has this ever happened to you?” At this point, the researcher found herself in a difficult position. By providing specific CMS there was the possibility that it could contaminate the phase two data, however, it would seem extremely uncaring not to assist. In an attempt to provide the obviously sought after professional learning, she directed the beginning teachers to a range of relevant resources that may be of value. In this way, the integrity of the research process was not compromised and the teachers received some support.

In summary, it seemed as though each graduate teacher had some CMS which they used when the students displayed off-task behaviours, however, these strategies were not consistently effective at returning students to on-task behaviour. It appeared as if the teachers were looking for a consistently effective strategy which guaranteed the students returning to on-task behaviours quickly, quietly and with a minimum of fuss.

4.3.2 Teacher education.

Teacher education emerged as a frequently mentioned issue from coding the raw data using the Bogdan and Biklen (2003) coding families. From the information provided in the interviews by the beginning teachers, it became clear that there were two main issues associated with teacher education. One issue being lack of exposure to Indigenous students on practica and the other being CM units not containing information about effective CMS with Indigenous students. Table 4.6 identifies the beginning teachers which had undertaken an Indigenous education unit, or a CM unit, or both types of units during their teacher education course. The aggregate length of time that each teacher spent on CMS during each phase of the research is also included. The aggregate time required to return students to on-task behaviour was calculated via the addition of the time spent on off-task behaviours. Such

information enables any relationship between the length of time taken to return students to on- task behaviours and the type of unit studied during teacher education to be established.

Table 4.6

Relationship between Units Studied at University and Students Returning to On-Task

Behaviour

Name of Teacher	Indigenous Unit at University	Classroom Management Unit at University	Aggregate time required to return students to on-task behaviour (phase one)	Aggregate time required to return students to on-task behaviour (phase two)
Margaret	✓	✓	282 seconds	144 seconds
Natalie	x	x	205 seconds	127 seconds
David	✓	✓	213 seconds	124 seconds
Chloe	✓	x	264 seconds	107 seconds
Karen	x	x	393 seconds	103 seconds
Liz	x	x	275 seconds	98 seconds
Shirley	✓	x	300 seconds	87 seconds
Liam	x	✓	261 seconds	76 seconds
Keith	x	✓	234 seconds	62 seconds
Emma	✓	✓	132 seconds	43 seconds
Average			255.9 seconds	97.1 seconds

Note. The total length of analysed observation time was ten minutes (600 seconds) on each visit.

Table 4.6 indicates that five beginning teachers had completed at least one CM unit during their teacher education course, namely Margaret, Emma, David, Keith and Liam. Five teachers had also undertaken an Indigenous education unit: Margaret, Emma, David, Shirley and Chloe. There were three teachers who had studied both CM and Indigenous education: Margaret, Emma and David and three teachers who had studied neither CM nor Indigenous education: Karen, Liz and Natalie. The aggregate time required to return students to on-task

behaviours shows that in phase one, Karen, who had not undertaken any CM or Indigenous education units, took the longest time to return students to on-task behaviour. Natalie, who also had not undertaken any CM or Indigenous education units, took the second shortest time. Margaret, who had studied both CMS and Indigenous units, took the third longest time to return students to on-task behaviours while Emma, who had also studied both units, took the shortest time. In phase two, Margaret took the longest time to return students to on-task behaviours while Emma remained the teacher able to return students to on-task behaviours the quickest. From the information collected, there does not appear to be any definitive correlation between undertaking CM and Indigenous education units during teacher education and the length of time taken to return students to on-task behaviour.

Margaret, who had completed a unit in Indigenous education, said:

That was in third year and I dragged out my notes the other day. I brought all my uni stuff up here, to remind myself of what was covered in the unit. I mean, the reality is very different, obviously, being up here and so a lot of that stuff that we learned is definitely making sense now.

Emma described the Indigenous unit that she had studied at university:

Yeah, I did an Indigenous unit, if you could call it that. We did one and I was really disappointed by it because I pretty much wanted to go remote my whole four years at uni and it wasn't very informative. We all had to pick an issue on Indigenous education, something that impacts on Indigenous learning and do a group presentation.

Shirley had also studied an Indigenous education unit:

With that Indigenous unit, like there wasn't really much about how it's acceptable up here for them to hold my hands and hug me. The kids probably get no affection at home and uni didn't really reinforce that this is kind of the norm up here.

Chloe spoke about the text-book that was part of the Indigenous education unit readings:

We had no cultural awareness training, none. Um; apart from the readings we had to do, a book that we read and so I picked up a lot from the book which was really good but not from the stuff they taught.

David had also completed a unit on Indigenous education at university and mentioned the text-book used:

Part of the readings for one of our units was to do with Aborigines and classroom management. Something like that but um, I didn't even read it because I don't think it's something you can learn from a book.

Not all beginning teachers had undertaken CM units at university. Margaret had enrolled in a CM unit at university; however, it was not a compulsory part of the teacher education curriculum: "I'm very glad that I did that one elective in fourth year. It wasn't a compulsory unit but I'm very glad to have done it as a lot of the strategies and theory I learned is really good." Margaret had found the notes and textbooks from university to be helpful: "The books didn't seem to make much sense before, but I use them a lot now as a reference and to get some ideas." Liam had also found the textbook to be valuable: "I learned a lot from university, especially the CM unit. The textbook particularly was very useful for me."

Emma learned about CM in a unit called Learning and Development, where a few weeks of the semester were spent on CMS. In contrast, Keith had completed a unit on CM where the

content was based on the Bennett and Smilanich (1994) low-key responses: “I have a certificate of completion. It was like a mini PD. So we went through all the low-key responses and then the bumps. Which is what they use at this school.”

David had also completed a unit on CM and spoke about the content of the unit:

We looked at the different theories behind classroom management. I can't remember the two guys associated with assertive discipline but I was actually mainly interested in that area cause to me it was what I needed to do to get things done in teaching. Like I still find it's the most effective way for a graduate teacher to start because it gives you a starting place so you can actually set out you know, what you want to do and you have to enforce these negative consequences. But at the same time there's a lot of onus on using positive consequences to change behaviour. That's harder.

Many of the beginning teachers said that the CMS they used were learned on practica. Emma agreed: “I think I developed my skills more on pracs rather than through course work.” Margaret used a traffic light system to encourage positive student behaviour, with students receiving a prize for doing the right thing as part of her CMS: “With the traffic light system, I learned about it at uni, but the system I use I actually saw on prac.” Liam also identified that he had learned more about CM on practica than in the units at university: “It's just basic stuff like positioning yourself, like eye contact, scanning the room, you know stuff like that, and you tend to pick that up from everywhere but then I think it developed more on pracs rather than through course work.” Despite the graduate teachers' comments it appears that both their experiences on practica and via university course work did not enable any of the beginning teachers to return students to on-task behaviours effectively or consistently.

4.3.3. Building positive relationships.

Each beginning teacher talked about the importance of building positive relationships, particularly with the Indigenous students in the class. Liam connected fostering relationships with Indigenous students to CM: “I want to build positive relationships with the children, so I don’t necessarily employ punishments or negative consequences as much as I could because I think it’s hard to push them through the school policy at this time of the year.”

David also linked CM with building positive relationships:

There are still some relationships that need building on and you’ve got the children that, how will I explain it? Well, the relationship’s there and they just try to test me, including the ones without the behaviour problems as well. Like with the kids that have more of the behaviour problems it takes longer for them to understand what The Look means or what it means when I stand near them.

Liz found that being relaxed and cheery was effective in building relationships:

If you can go, "Oh for heaven's sake Sam," and say, you know, "What are you doing? You know, here you are disrupting the class," or something like that all the rest of the students have a bit of a chuckle at this fellow, but you've ended up pulling him into line in a positive way, and everyone else is fine, and it keeps a lovely, harmonious feeling in the classroom.

Karen identified that CM had suffered in the first few weeks as she was attempting to build relationships with the students: “At the beginning of term one I was trying to build that positive relationship, which kind of, well ruined everything for me, because I was being too laid back I think.” It appears that in order to build positive relationships with the students, some of the beginning teachers let the students do as they wanted within the classroom.

In summary, by using the potential codes as a starting point, further data gleaned from the interviews and observations was added and the codes ‘thickened’ or discarded if the data did not support their inclusion. The following section reports the findings of both phases of this research. Included are examples of memos which demonstrate how a number of open codes were subsumed into one category.

4.4 Phase One: Interviews

Once potential ‘thick’ codes had emerged from the Bogdan and Biklen (2003) coding families and the researcher’s confidence had grown, open coding was commenced as part of grounded theory methodology to further develop the data accessed thus far. By asking the three questions recommended by Glaser as part of a grounded theory methodology, several additional codes emerged (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The three questions being:

1. What is going on?
2. What is the problem?
3. How is the participant attempting to solve the problem?

The questions acted as a further structure which assisted in organising the information provided by the beginning teachers. Table 4.7 and 4.8 demonstrate how Glaser’s questions enabled open codes to emerge from the information collected from each teacher via the interview. The researcher’s initial thoughts and ideas are written down in the form of a very brief memo (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

As demonstrated in Table 4.4 it appears there is little perceivable difference between the CM issues faced by those beginning teachers who undertook CM and Indigenous education units during teacher education and those who did not. As such, the researcher decided to include just two examples of the open coding process used. Such examples in

Table 4.7 and 4.8 are representative of the open coding process undertaken. Table 4.7 contains information provided by David, who undertook both a CM and Indigenous education unit, and the Table 4.8 data is from Liz who studied neither topic during her teacher education course. It can be seen that the grounded theory open coding process produced very similar codes to those which developed from using the Bogdan and Biklen (2003) coding families.

Table 4.7

Example 1 of Open Coding Process using Phase One Interview Data

Interview Question A: Do you find that one, two, three, one, two three works as a classroom management strategy?					
David's Response	What is going on?	What is the problem?	How is the participant attempting to solve the problem?	Memo	Open Code
It does because it gives me a chance to calm down a bit, because sometimes you do get frustrated and, yeah. It works. Yeah. Pretty much, like because it is short and sharp, so that's good. Sometimes of course it depends on what they're doing. I mean when you have, there might just be a day that there's just lots of the kids that just aren't getting along and there might be three fights, and you can't just keep going, one, one, one. So there are times where you have to just use the tone of your voice and raise it a bit. Well, that's what I have done, which maybe I shouldn't be doing, just raise my voice.	It doesn't sound as though he is all that convinced that One,Two,Three Magic works.	Does not know what to do when students display inappropriate behaviour.	Is attempting to use the whole school classroom management strategy.	Seems the only strategy that has been successful at stopping fights is raising his voice. This would not be a suitable strategy to continue using, particularly with Indigenous students.	Classroom Management Strategies
	It appears that students fight in the class and he is unsure of how to deal with this issue.	Is not able to read the mood of the classroom or students so is unable to prevent incidences such as fights occurring.	Is raising his voice.	Doesn't appear as if he knows what to do when students are fighting. Has he asked other teachers for advice?	Whole school Classroom Management Policy
	It appears that he is frustrated with the incidences that happen in the classroom.			Appears to be a level of frustration when students do not respond as he expects them to.	Teacher Frustration
				Response could be culturally based as could the CMS he is using.	Culturally based understandings

Note. Adapted from “The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research,” by B. G. Glaser and A. L. Strauss, (1967).

Interview Question B: It sounds like you have tried redirecting and offering choices to the students. How effective do you find these two classroom management strategies?

David's Response	What is going on?	What is the problem?	How is the participant attempting to solve the problem?	Memo	Open Code
I tried that today actually, because we were doing art and the kids were on the mat, and they weren't even listening before I could explain what we're doing. So I explained that you can choose to come and sit with us, if you want to join in the art, or you're choosing not to participate, and that worked. But sometimes of course it doesn't work and then the kids just, like, for example, when we're going out to sport, or going out to lunch, they just refuse to go. They just grab on to the legs of the chairs, of the tables, and they're, well they're choosing not to go, but I can't just leave them in here unattended, so I just try to give them another choice of trying to make staying in less desirable, so it's saying that we're going to be doing cleaning, and I mean just really trying to put that on.	<p>The teacher doesn't know what to do in situations where the classroom management strategy doesn't work.</p> <p>There is no range of CMS available.</p> <p>The students know that the teacher does not apply any consequences, so can 'get away with any behaviour'.</p>	<p>Teacher has never had to deal with students grabbing hold of desks or refusing to do as asked.</p> <p>No consequences applied for inappropriate behaviour.</p> <p>Illogical choices being given to students – who know they won't be made to do any cleaning.</p>	He is giving choices to the students, but they are not effective as they are not followed through with and do not seem to be a logical outcome of inappropriate behaviour.	<p>I'm surprised that the teacher doesn't mention getting additional assistance from the school administration or using the AIEO to get assistance when students are refusing to leave the classroom – particularly due to Duty of Care issues.</p> <p>I wonder why the teacher uses a choice such as 'cleaning' to get the students to do as they request. It does not appear to be a logical or obvious option and doesn't appear to be working.</p> <p>How consistent is he with the 'threats' made about doing cleaning?</p>	<p>No range of CMS.</p> <p>No logical consequences for inappropriate actions.</p> <p>Consistency of application of CMS and consequences.</p>

Note. Adapted from “The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research,” by B. G. Glaser and A. L. Strauss, (1967).

Table 4.8

Example 2 of Open Coding Process using Phase One Interview Data

Interview Question C: Can you tell me how are you finding managing student behaviour in your classroom?					
Liz's Response	What is going on?	What is the problem	How is the participant attempting to solve the problem?	Memo	Open Code
Ninety percent of the time it's not, it's not bad. I find I can handle ninety per cent of the kids, ninety percent of the time pretty much but there's always, there's the odd student in the class that is more challenging than some of the others. I try to keep their behaviour low-key and to be able to you know, keep a focus on the rest of the class instead of all the time having to be getting back stuff. I find that aspect hard I suppose, with some individual students. Being in the Kimberley as well I hadn't had much time with the Indigenous kids before. So I basically find it hard to understand them sometimes and I've had a few howlers when they've asked me something and I've just went woe. I mean there was once I had to ask them to repeat themselves and they feel shamed and bottled up. I wished I didn't have to do that.	<p>Not all students are compliant all the time. There is an indication that this could be due to the teacher's lack of teaching experience with Indigenous students.</p> <p>The teacher is aware of the errors she has made in regards to language differences between herself and the students.</p>	<p>Not all the students are compliant and the teacher doesn't know how to get them to be compliant.</p> <p>The teacher is having difficulty with understanding Aboriginal-English.</p>	<p>Continues to teach the students who are listening.</p> <p>Minimising the effect of challenging student's behaviour on the rest of the class.</p>	<p>The teacher appears to be concerned about not having previous exposure to Indigenous students and is having trouble with the language.</p> <p>Shaming students will not build positive relationships.</p> <p>There is an indication that students are taking things during lessons.</p> <p>Is attempting to minimise the interference of the challenging behaviours by some students.</p>	<p>Aboriginal English as a dialect.</p> <p>Challenging behaviours.</p> <p>Indigenous students and culture.</p> <p>CMS and testing out the new teacher.</p>

Note. Adapted from "The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research," by B. G. Glaser and A. L. Strauss, (1967).

Interview Question D: It seems that you've got different expectations for different kids based on your relationship with them and what you expect from them?

Liz's Response	What is going on?	What is the problem	How is the participant attempting to solve the problem?	Memo	Open Code
Yeah which doesn't feel right but in the same way I've spoken to the Deputy Principal quite a lot about this. He said that if you don't get on the right side of Indigenous kids straight away, you're probably going to struggle all term.	Teacher wants to build relationships with Indigenous students and has been told that without a positive relationship the students will not do as requested.	Inconsistency in approaches to Indigenous and non-Indigenous students. It appears the teacher has linked CMS and building relationships together.	Gives leeway to Indigenous students that non-Indigenous students do not get.	Students are treated differently in terms of CM Wonder if it is due to wanting to comply with Deputy Principal or if the teacher is 'scared' of Indigenous students and their behaviour? Leeway could be due to lack of cultural understandings and experience working with Indigenous students Appears to be an understanding that CMS and relationships are connected in a negative way. If the teacher goes easy on CMS then positive relationships are built with the Indigenous students.	Indigenous students. Building positive relationships. Inconsistent CMS based on cultural differences.

Note. Adapted from “The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research,” by B. G. Glaser and A. L. Strauss, (1967).

As previously mentioned, the open codes were initially based on individual incidences found within the data. From using the constant comparative process it became apparent that many of the codes represented similar incidences that could be combined into a category via selective coding. As a result of using the constant comparative process and memoing the four open codes (beginning teacher culture, frustration, surprise and missing home) were subsumed into a new category called Cultural Shock. Table 4.9 illustrates how the open codes were combined, reflected on and analysed via memoing.

Table 4.9

Development of the Cultural Shock Category via Memoing

Open/Selective Code	Memo
Beginning teacher culture	There was an inevitability among all participants that they ‘had to do it tough’ in the first few years of teaching. They appear to accept this statement as ‘the truth’. David said, “I find I’m flying by the seat of my pants’. This teacher has not found any classroom management strategies that work consistently and appears to be constantly hoping that the class will do as asked – ‘living in hope’.
Teacher frustration	Such a situation would be very stressful as the teacher doesn’t know how students will react to his requests. Liz gives Indigenous students more lee-way than non-Indigenous students. I think it is due to being worried about the reaction of Indigenous students – it appears as if the student’s reaction is unpredictable and the teacher can’t tell when a student is going to ‘explode’. I thought they sounded like they begrudged the amount of time spent preparing for the lessons as the students don’t appear to appreciate them. Each said they were disappointed if the students didn’t do as asked in the lesson and seem to take it personally. I think they would be frustrated, annoyed and nervous as they are never sure how the students are going to react to the teacher’s request. This must be very stressful for them. Margaret said they were doing ‘very, very long hours up here’.
Surprise	Teachers were surprised to find that Indigenous students and families do not have the same respect for teachers as the students they had taught on practica. Natalie said, ‘Indigenous parents don’t drill their child that the teacher is right’. I think it is an Anglo assumption made by the beginning teachers. Liam showed no recognition of ‘stolen generation’ or ‘assimilation’ issues. Many of the beginning teachers were surprised they had never seen a parent

of the students in their class and that the older children were the ones who took responsibility for getting the younger children to school. It seems the graduate teachers are looking at the world based on their own experiences and while they did not overtly make any comments regarding 'right or wrong', were amazed that the older children took the role of the parent. A common theme was emerging; that of having had no experience in teaching Indigenous students while at university.

Missing home

As each teacher talked about their experiences, the words 'home', 'family', 'friends' and 'support' were frequently used. Liz said, "I miss my family; they were always there for me when I was on prac. I thought it was tough on prac, but it's nothing compared to what I have to deal with each day. Now I have to use Skype or talk to them on the phone and it's not the same." It seems that each teacher is learning how to cope with the isolation and the cultural differences between themselves and the Indigenous students in their class without the support structures that were in place when living 'down south'. Margaret said: 'My mum doesn't know what I'm talking about'. I think not only is there a physical isolation attached to the location of the communities but also a mental isolation as there is nobody at home who can relate to the issues that the teacher faces on a daily basis.

Theoretical Sampling:

It appears that the beginning teachers expect the Indigenous students in their class to respond in a manner similar to the Anglo students they taught on practica. When the teacher gives an instruction that is ignored by an Indigenous student or which results in aggressive behaviour the teacher has very few CMS to deal with the situation. The lack of CMS and the inability to predict the behaviour of the students leads to a level of frustration, helplessness and anger in the teacher. The Anglo values and beliefs of the beginning teachers are challenged, not only by the student behaviour but by the different cultural norms in the community. Due to the location of the communities/towns the beginning teachers do not have ready access to their family and friends for support. They are finding their support networks are unable to relate to their experiences as they come from an Anglo perspective and have not encountered different cultures.

The process undertaken to identify CMS as a category was identical to that used to develop the above Cultural Shock category. All memoing was based on incidences obtained from the data. Memoing was a cyclical process, as new incidences were compared with established categories, and either discarded or included as illustrated in Figure 3.1. Not surprisingly, CMS was identified as a potential open code during coding using Bogdan and Biklen (2003) coding families. CMS continued to be relevant during both open and selective

coding, where some open codes were incorporated into the CMS category. Subsumed codes included teacher presence, testing out the new teacher, limited range of CMS, inconsistency, searching for an effective strategy, using bribes, practica experiences and teacher education. Table 4.10 demonstrates how, through memoing, the open code of teacher education was incorporated into the CMS category.

Table 4.10

Development of the Classroom Management Strategy Category via Memoing

Open/Selective Code	Memo
Classroom Management Strategies	<p>Each neophyte teacher had some CMS which they randomly used, however, they were not consistently applied. When a CMS was used with the students, it did not get consistent results. Each teacher mentioned that the strategies were successful when on practica but they had not found them to work in the remote school. Such a situation could arise due to the different culture between the students and teacher and the teacher having the same expectations regarding compliance to a CMS as they had on practica. Emma said she didn't have any classroom management issues. I think this was a self-affirmation, rather than a statement of reality. It is possible that she was embarrassed to admit having some CMS concerns. She also mentioned that on day one she had talked about classroom rules and routines and these were practiced these every day. Chloe explained that the students got angry and threw furniture or swore at her so she attempted to prevent this from happening by 'easing' off her expectations regarding compliance with the instruction. This is similar to Liz who has different standards for Indigenous and non-Indigenous students. Chloe also said that she was 'ok' with not having all students compliant with her request. I am not sure that she is ok with this, I think it may have something to do with trying to 'win the students over' by being their friend, which is obviously not working. Shirley, Natalie, Liam, Liz, Keith, Karen, David and Margaret said that they had raised their voice to regain 'control' of the classroom. They each mentioned they shouldn't yell at the students but they were desperate. I'm interested in finding out if teachers attempt more than one CMS when a student is non-compliant or if they give up, the classroom becomes chaotic and they have to resort to raising their voice to gain attention. There is a focus on extrinsic motivation in all beginning teachers' classrooms. They use charts, prizes, certificates, stickers and other motivators. Emma said that she had to use the internet to restock the prize box as there was nothing that could be bought in the community. Karen called them 'bribes to behave'. Seems like the teachers are 'trying to win the students over' rather than earn their respect. When</p>

asked what CMS they use Chloe, Natalie, Liam, Liz, Karen and Margaret each said they focus on a compliant student with the aim being to get the off-task students to copy the behaviour of the 'good' child. Other strategies mentioned by the teachers included catching somebody being good, giving the stare, scanning the room, positioning themselves where they can see everyone, using the student's name, using a thinking spot, ticks and crosses on the board and the student moving their name tag up and down a chart dependent upon their behaviour. Margaret said that getting students to move their name tag down was 'the walk of shame'. I think that Indigenous students will rebel against this CMS as shame is a 'big deal' with some Indigenous students. It appears the teacher is not culturally aware of the 'shame' issue. Shirley said that she had no successful strategy to manage a student who consistently hits other students. When asked what she did, Shirley said she made the student apologise and refocussed them on another activity. It is interesting to note that some of the CMS used by the beginning teachers have been 'tried and tested' by other teachers of Indigenous students and found to be effective.

Teacher
Education

Not all teachers had undertaken CM units at university. Karen, Chloe, Liz and Natalie had no CM units as part of their teacher education course and had learned all their CMS on practica. None of these four teachers showed any concern about not having a unit on CMS. Liam said, "uni didn't really teach me anything about CMS; I learned it all on prac." David discussed that the information provided at university was very theoretical and not very practical. Shirley had wanted to use a humanistic approach, however, was finding that the students did not respond to it and she had to change to fit into the whole school approach based on behaviourism. David said he learned about giving students choices in the CMS unit and was finding the strategy more successful than any other one. By giving choices the teacher is providing Indigenous students with a safe way out of the conflict situation without the student getting angry, losing face or being 'shamed'. Liam said he was told that if students were bored they would play up, so he had tried to focus on keeping the students busy in the classroom. I wonder if it is with 'busy work'? It will be interesting to observe how he keeps the students busy. In contrast to the other beginning teachers, Keith said he had learned a lot at university about CMS and Indigenous students. Keith had attended a university in a regional town where there was a significant population of Indigenous students in the local schools. However, Keith did not do any practicum in the regional town so had no experience teaching Indigenous students while at university.

Theoretical Sampling:

It appears that each of the beginning teachers are having difficulty with CM. There does not appear to be a consistent approach to CMS by any of them. There does appear to be an attempt to 'win' over the students by using bribes and prizes, however, there has been no mention that this is a successful CMS. The effectiveness of a CMS does not appear to be dependent on the beginning teachers studying a CMS or Indigenous unit at university. Other than Emma, there was no mention of any CMS being effective with Indigenous students. One teacher used 'shame' and three teachers used competition between students as a CMS. Neither strategy was effective and indicates the beginning teachers' lack of cultural

awareness. Many of the strategies being used by the beginning teachers have been used effectively with Indigenous students. The graduate teachers' limited success with CMS may be due to a range of reasons. Such reasons may include having no experience teaching Indigenous students, having a limited repertoire of CMS, being scared of what could happen if they demand 100% compliance and having different cultural expectations regarding the students' compliance to teacher requests.

In summary, based on the information provided by the beginning teachers, it appears that each teacher was having difficulty obtaining consistent student compliance from the CMS they were using. As a result of the constant comparative process and the use of memos, two potential core categories had emerged from the data: Cultural Shock and CMS.

4.5 Phase One: Observations

Each beginning teacher was observed and video-recorded during phase one of the research. As detailed in chapter three, data were collected and analysed for the first ten minutes of each lesson to determine the effectiveness of each low-key CMS used.

Table 4.11, 4.12, 4.13 and 4.14 illustrate the frequency, duration and latency time of each CMS used within the first ten minutes of the lesson. The number in brackets in the duration column indicates the order the teacher used the low-key CMS. In many cases, the teacher used more than one strategy to return the student to on-task behaviour. The time (in seconds, as indicated by the letter 's') in the duration column is the time elapsed until another low-key CMS was used or the student returned to on-task behaviour. For each incident, the latency time (in seconds, as indicated by the letter 's') is the total time taken for the student to return to on-task behaviour. Four teachers' data was selected as being representative of the total teacher group as two of the teachers, Karen and Natalie had not studied CM while Emma and Keith had. These teachers are reflective of the total sample of beginning teachers where five teachers studied CMS at university and five had not.

Table 4.11

Phase One: Latency and Duration of Low-Key Classroom Management Strategies used by Karen one

	Incident A		Incident B		Incident C		Incident D		Incident E		Incident F	
	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration
Proximity		(4) 10 s	130 s	(5) 10 s								
Physical Contact												
Calling the Student's Name		(1) 45 s (3) 15 s		(1) 36 s (4) 15 s		(1) 22 s		(1) 8 s 42 s (3) 10 s	4 s	4 s		(1) 37 s
Gesture												
Look		(2) 25 s		(2) 28 s		(2) 14 s						
Pause												
Purposeful Ignoring								(2) 24s				
Signal to Begin				(3) 41 s	40 s	(3) 4 s						
Deal with the Problem not the Student	115 s	(5) 20 s									62 s	(2) 25 s

Note. Adapted from The University of Kansas (n.d.).

During the first ten minutes of the lesson, Karen has six different incidences which required returning the student to on-task behaviour. The most frequently used low-key CMS was Calling the Student's Name which Karen used for each incidence. In over half the incidences, the teacher called the student's name more than once and had to use another CMS to return the student to on-task behaviour. The second most frequently used CMS was The Look which was used 50% of the time. Karen did not use Gesture, Pause or Physical Contact during the observation period. The total time spent on CMS within the first ten minutes of the lesson was 393 seconds or just over 6.5 minutes, which is a significant amount of time not to be engaged in teaching.

Table 4.12

Phase One: Latency and Duration of Low-Key Classroom Management Strategies used by Natalie

	Incident A		Incident B		Incident C		Incident D		Incident E		Incident F	
	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration
Proximity					15 s	(2) 6 s	45 s	(4) 5 s				
Physical Contact												
Calling the Student's Name	18 s	(3) 8 s		(1) 7 s			(2) 8 s		14 s	(1) 14 s	23 s	(2) 8 s
Gesture		(1) 6 s	29 s	(4) 5 s								
Look		(2) 4 s		(2) 7 s		(1) 9 s	(3) 9 s					(1) 15 s
Pause				(3) 10 s								
Purposeful Ignoring							(1) 23 s					
Signal to Begin												
Deal with the Problem not the Student												

	Incident G		Incident H		Incident I	
	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration
Proximity			7 s	7 s	14 s	(2) 5 s
Physical Contact						
Calling the student's Name		(3) 10 s				(1) 9 s
	40 s	(4) 7 s				
Gesture		(1) 13 s				
Look						
Pause		(2) 10 s				
Purposeful Ignoring						
Signal to Begin						
Deal with the Problem not the Student						

Note. Adapted from The University of Kansas (n.d.).

During the first ten minutes of this lesson, Natalie had nine different incidences that required her to use a CMS to return the students to on-task behaviour. The low-key strategy she used the most often was Calling the Student's Name. Natalie did not use Physical Contact, Signal to Begin, or Deal with the Problem not the Student during the observation period. In this lesson, the total time required to return students to on-task behaviour was 205 seconds or just over 3.5 minutes.

Table 4.13

Phase One: Latency and Duration of Low-Key Classroom Management Strategies used by Emma

	Incident A		Incident B		Incident C		Incident D		Incident E	
	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration
Proximity	5 s	5 s								
Physical Contact					3 s	3 s				
Calling the Student's Name			4 s	4 s					39 s	(1) 10 s (4) 12 s
Gesture										
Look										(2) 8 s
Pause								(1) 7 s		(3) 9 s
Purposeful Ignoring										
Signal to Begin								(2) 10 s		
Deal with problem not the student							48 s	(3) 31 s		

	Incident F		Incident G	
	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration
Proximity				
Physical Contact				
Calling the student's Name		(1) 8 s	15 s	(3) 4 s
Gesture	18 s	(2) 10 s		
Look				(1) 6 s
Pause				(2) 5 s
Purposeful Ignoring				
Signal to Begin				
Deal with the Problem not the Student				

Note. Adapted from The University of Kansas (n.d.).

During the first ten minutes of this lesson, Emma has seven incidences that required returning the students to on-task behaviour. She used Calling the Student's Name most frequently followed by the Pause which was used in three of the seven incidences. Emma used all CMS during the observation period except Purposeful Ignoring. Each CMS resulted in students returning to on-task behaviour quickly, with the longest time being spent on deal with the problem and not the student. The total latency of the CMS in the first ten minutes of the lesson was 132 seconds or just over 2 minutes.

Table 4.14

Phase One: Latency and Duration of Low-key Classroom Management Strategies used by Keith

	Incident A		Incident B		Incident C		Incident D		Incident E	
	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration
Proximity					19 s	(3) 7 s				(1) 14 s
Physical Contact	44 s	(5) 6 s							21 s	(2) 7 s
Calling the Student's Name		(3) 12 s		(1) 14 s		(1) 5 s		(3) 11 s		
		(4) 8 s		(3) 10 s		(2) 7 s	56 s	(4) 9 s		
			47 s	(4) 6 s						
Gesture										
Look		(1) 8 s		(2) 17 s				(1) 22 s		
Pause		(2) 10 s						(2) 14 s		
Purposeful Ignoring										
Signal to Begin										
Deal with the Problem not the Student										

	Incident F		Incident G	
	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration
Proximity				
Physical Contact				
Calling the Student's Name		(1) 9 s		(1) 9 s
	17 s	(2) 8 s	30 s	(3) 9 s
Gesture				
Look				(2) 12 s
Pause				
Purposeful Ignoring				
Signal to Begin				
Deal with the Problem not the Student				

Note. Adapted from The University of Kansas (n.d.).

During the first ten minutes of this lesson, Keith had seven incidences which required him to use at least one CMS to return the students to on-task behaviour. Keith used Calling the Student's Name on 13 occasions during six incidences. During the observation period, Keith did not use Gesture, Purposeful Ignoring, Signal to Begin, or Deal with the Problem not the Student. In this lesson, the total time spent on CMS in the first ten minutes of the lesson was 234 seconds or just under four minutes.

In summary, Table 4.15 displays both the aggregate number of times and the arithmetic mean time for each low-key CMS used during the first ten minutes of each observed lesson. It can be seen that the most frequently used CMS is Calling the Student's

Name followed by The Look. Physical Contact is the least frequently used CMS. From the data, it is evident that although Physical Contact was the least used CMS, it is also the most time-efficient at returning students to on-task behaviour. Deal with the Problem not the Student is the CMS that takes the longest time to achieve on-task behaviour.

Table 4.15

Phase One: Statistical Summary of each Classroom Management Strategy used by the Graduate Teachers

Low-Key Classroom Management Strategy	Aggregate Number of Times Used by all Teachers	Arithmetic Mean Latency Time
Deal with the Problem not the Student	39	62.0 s
Purposeful Ignoring	42	45.1 s
Gesture	52	8.9 s
Signal to Begin	47	8.5 s
Pause	54	7.8 s
Calling the Student's Name	76	7.2 s
Look	69	7.2 s
Physical Contact	25	4.5 s
Proximity	36	4.7 s

Note. The arithmetic mean time to return students to on-task behaviours was calculated by totalling the duration time of each incident and dividing by the total number of incidents.

One of the aims of this research is to determine the effectiveness of CMS with Indigenous students. It is, therefore, relevant to further separate the arithmetic mean time for all students into the arithmetic mean time for Indigenous and non-Indigenous students. Table 4.16 displays such fine-grained data and can be used to identify those CMS which are quick

at returning both Indigenous and non-Indigenous students to on-task behaviours and those which take longer periods of time.

Table 4.16

Phase One: Mean Time to Return Students to On-Task Behaviour for each Classroom Management Strategy; by Culture

Classroom Management Strategy	Arithmetic mean time to return Indigenous students to on-task behaviour	Arithmetic mean time to return non-Indigenous students to on-task behaviour	Arithmetic mean time to return all students to on-task behaviour.
Deal with the Problem not the Student	95.0 s	29.0 s	62.0 s
Purposeful Ignoring	62.0 s	28.2 s	45.1 s
Look	10.0 s	4.4 s	7.2 s
Pause	9.8 s	5.0 s	7.8 s
Calling the Student's Name	9.0 s	5.4 s	7.2 s
Gesture	9.0 s	8.8 s	8.9 s
Signal to Begin	7.5 s	9.5 s	8.5 s
Physical Contact	4.3 s	4.7 s	4.5 s
Proximity	5.4 s	4.0 s	4.7 s

From the data in Table 4.16, it can be seen that Indigenous students respond quickest to Physical Contact and Proximity and non-Indigenous students respond quickest to Proximity and look. Both groups of students took the longest time to respond to the CMS Deal with the Problem not the Student.

The median latency time is the measure of central tendency of a data set. It can be calculated using the aggregate time to return students to on-task behaviour. Table 4.17 indicates that the median latency time for phase one is 262.5 seconds. The aggregate time taken by Emma, Natalie, David and Keith to return students to on-task behaviour is less than the median latency time, whereas Karen, Shirley, Margaret and Liz take longer to return students to on-task behaviour. Liam and Chloe have the two aggregate times closest to the median latency time.

Table 4.17

Phase One Median Latency Time to Return Students to On-Task Behaviour

Name of Teacher	Median Latency Time
Karen	393 seconds
Shirley	300 seconds
Margaret	282 seconds
Liz	275 seconds
Chloe	264 seconds
Liam	261 seconds
Keith	234 seconds
David	213 seconds
Natalie	205 seconds
Emma	132 seconds

4.6 Phase Two: Interviews

Phase two of this research was undertaken approximately seven months after phase one. The purpose of collecting a second set of data was to enable comparisons to be made

between the data collected in phase one and with the intent of ‘thickening’ the already identified codes and categories. Using the constant comparative process, which involved new data being compared against previously collected data and other new data, further theoretical sampling categories emerged. It also became evident during the phase two interviews and further reinforced when coding the data, that many of the issues and incidences which had caused a great deal of angst in phase one, were no longer of concern.

4.6.1 Classroom management strategies.

Each of the beginning teachers appeared more cheerful, relaxed and confident when answering the interview questions. Margaret said:

You relax, and it’s more fun, definitely. It’s more fun because you get to have that close relationship with most of the students, rather than just worrying the whole time that you have to tell them off. Now I just tell them to do something different. So that’s fun.
Definitely!

Karen also talked about how she felt: “I feel much more relaxed now than at the start of the year.” David said: “I’ve felt more confident in myself and in what I’m doing.” Emma was also much happier: “I’m loving teaching, I absolutely love the job but living in a small community hasn’t been easy, outside the job it’s much harder.”

There was both acknowledgement and recognition among the beginning teachers that the beginning of the year had been hard work. Emma mentioned the length of time she had spent on CM: “I spent a lot of time trying to work out CMS early on this year.” Liam also talked about CM: “The beginning of the year was exhausting, just establishing those boundaries and rules, which was the whole term where I was just establishing how to behave at school.” Chloe identified that she had done ‘it tough’ but it was worth it now: “I guess I’m

really seeing the rewards of all the hard work in the beginning.” David acknowledged that CM had improved since the start of the year: “It has got better; I definitely saw an improvement by the end of term one in the students’ behaviour. I guess it’s all coming together, I don’t really think about it, but it is coming together.” Shirley mentioned how difficult it was earlier in the year and had advice for other beginning teachers in the Kimberley:

Just don't fall into that trap of putting the kids down, have high expectations of these kids because they really can do this stuff. And when they do, like it's hard work, it's really hard work, and I don't want to put any rose-tinted things out there and say it's all so rewarding coming up here because you have really hard days. But then when you have those really good days, it gives me goose bumps.

When questioned about the beginning of the year, David didn’t think that there was anything that he could have done differently:

I just feel in a way that it's one of those processes you have to go through when you start with kids that you don't really know, you don't know names, you don't know how much they're going to try to push you and test you. You're going to have to take some of that but I just wish I had been firmer quicker.

4.6.2 Routines, consistency and expectations.

Each of the beginning teachers spoke about the need to be consistent with the application of CMS and to build structure and procedures into classroom routines and rules.

Liz stressed the importance of being consistent: “I think consistency across the whole classroom with CM is really important, I try to be consistent with each student.” Chloe

agreed with the need for consistency: “I used to stamp out fires all over the classroom. I wish

I had used the one set of rules and made them very clear and just stuck to it at the beginning of the year.” Shirley spoke about the need for routines: “All I can tell you is that I've been really explicit with routines and giving really explicit instructions. I make sure they know what is expected of them at school. It's just the consistency of doing the same thing the same way - I guess.” Margaret said that she did a lot of reinforcement of the classroom routines and rules at the end of each day:

We talk about what we're going to focus on tomorrow, so I say things like 'We need everyone to fold their arms nicely when we sit on the mat tomorrow.' I also make sure that the next morning I remind the students about folding arms and how to sit on the mat properly.

From the interview responses, it appears that each teacher now has a set of expectations and standards regarding appropriate classroom behaviour which they have shared with the students. They have a number of CMS which they use when students do not respond appropriately. Shirley said:

When I blow the whistle they're expected to come in, sit and be quiet. If they're not then we'll just practise it again and we can keep practising it for as long as it takes basically for them to sit quietly and calm down. Some of the kids with more behavioural difficulties find that sort of structure a bit easier to adhere to I think, and so like, now I have them racing up to sit in front of me.

She then laughed and said: “This is so different from what I thought at the start of the year.”

Margaret also had several different CMS which she found worked with her class:

I'm actually much stricter now. So it's a warning and then name on the board. I guess it's really three strikes, a warning, name on the board, and then moved away. And

usually moved away is at that door so they can still follow the lesson. And then after the first cross, the second cross is, it depends on which student it is, either sitting on the bench for five minutes for outdoor play, or no bikes at all for the morning session and that works really well since we've just got new bikes.

Natalie also used the three strikes and you're out approach: "There are now consequences for making bad choices. First of all they get a warning, then they get a second warning and told there will be a consequence next time and then if there is a third time I move straight to the consequence." Shirley also used choice and consequences with the students to guide them into making good decisions: "I gave them a choice and a consequence. If they're out for sport I say things like, do I need to take you back inside or can you play sensibly?" David mentioned that he too had become stricter since the beginning of the year:

I'm being a bit more firm with them and letting them know that stuff isn't going to start until what I expect has happened. I will follow through with any negative consequences that I have to. For example, if they take too long, like they deliberately slowly walk over or something then I count how long, how much of my time they've wasted and I'll, you know, hold those students back from recess or whatever to tidy up the equipment or something so they know they're paying me back that time.

Karen said that she preferred to focus on positive CMS and that many students did as she expected, but without her having to 'tell off' a student in a negative manner:

By saying, I love the way this person's listening, most people will follow. So I'll probably say it about three times and then at the third time I'll say Johnny is making me grumpy right now because he's not listening, and Darren you're talking so I'm feeling a bit sad about that. That's the way I draw those ones in. But I always go to the positives first. But if the kid's not listening, then they don't hear the positives so then I'll mention their name.

Liam also found using a positive approach to CM very effective:

I use lots of positives and make sure they understand if they are doing something wrong that what they are doing is wrong and instead of just telling them that and what their punishment is, I give them the choice of how they can change their behaviour and make it better, or not even make it better but just change their behaviour so they're not going to get themselves into trouble.

Keith didn't want the students to feel bad if they had been told off or to decide that they were going to continue misbehaving: "I try and catch them being good and make a big deal out of it." David also made sure he included the student if he had to tell them off: "If I have had a grumble at them or whatever I always then try to ask them a question and bring them back in. I use that strategy a lot."

A few of the beginning teachers talked about why it was important to explain to the student why a consequence had occurred or why an action had happened. Liz mentioned that if she has to reprimand a student she would say something like: "Okay, right now you were talking, so that means you have to move over there so we can all hear what Jacinta is saying."

4.6.3 Indigenous students.

David talked about building relationships with Indigenous students and how important it was. He also mentioned how different the issue of relationships was between Indigenous and non-Indigenous students:

I mean you have to earn the Indigenous students' respect. Then they want to be liked by you. One day they barely might say boo to you but another day they might come up to you and want to chat, but there's not that consistency. They're not almost hanging off you like with the non-Indigenous kids who want you to like them.

Keith found he could read the body language and actions of the students much better than at the beginning of the year:

They might not be looking at you, you know, sitting there drawing with a stick on the ground something like that but that's ok as you know they are listening. I scan the group; I mean I can tell who's not paying attention and who's not listening. I ask them something I've just said or say 'what do you think about that' so and so, just to try and bring them back to you and make them realise that they've got to be listening and they're going to be accountable.

David also found that by knowing the students he could predict what was going to happen in a lesson. He was usually able to prevent it happening or had a CMS to deal with it:

Getting to know the students and what is going to be effective with them, and what is going to make their behaviour even worse is important. There are a couple of students with bad behaviours that I can see now when they're going to blow their fuse. No matter what I do, it's sort of going to happen so being able to see those things before they happen and not worry about it helps.

At the conclusion of the interview with David, he mentioned that he believed he would be able to use the CMS that worked with the Indigenous students at his current school, with Indigenous students at other schools and be confident they would be effective:

I'd have them come in, sit quietly and have that expectation that they all have to be doing that, not one or two talking in the back, not someone walking over slowly. So I'd say 'look that's not good enough, you're obviously not ready yet, you need to quieten down and move somewhere else', then I'd wait for them to actually do that.

They would know that the lesson's not going to progress until they're doing what I ask, that's one thing I would take over to a new school.

As previously stated, the second phase of interviews collected additional data which enabled further open coding, memoing and selective coding to be undertaken. The constant comparative process enabled new data to be compared against both previously collected data and other new data, resulting in additional theoretical sampling categories emerging. Initially, incidences were identified and open coded using the same procedure as in phase one of the research. Table 4.18 and 4.19 demonstrate how, by using Glaser's three questions to guide the process, incidences were open coded (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). To achieve some form of comparability between phases one and two, excerpts of interview responses from the same teachers; David and Liz, have been used to demonstrate the coding process.

Table 4.18

Example 5 of Open Coding Process Using Phase Two Interview Data

Interview Question E: What do you know about classroom management that you would have liked to know when you started teaching at the start of the year?

David's Response	What is going on?	What is the problem?	How is the participant attempting to solve the problem?	Memo	Open Code
I don't know, I can't tell you, all I can tell you is that I've been really explicit I suppose with routines and instructions and yeah giving really explicit instructions, made sure they know what is expected of them at school. It's just I guess the consistency I suppose. I'm pretty happy with how it's all turned out actually in here with classroom management; I don't really have any real concerns anymore.	Teacher seems to be using the same strategies that they used at the start of the year. Consistency with using CMS has increased. Explicit instructions are being given.	N/A.	N/A	It appears that the teacher doesn't think there is any difference between the classroom management strategies he used at the start of the year and the ones he uses now. He mentions being consistent with CMS and being explicit with instructions.	CMS. Explicit instructions. Consistency.

Interview Question F: Do you still use your behaviour chart?

David's Response	What is going on?	What is the problem?	How is the participant attempting to solve the problem?	Memo	Open Code
No I got rid of that and, that's right I had the smiley faces, and I got rid of that completely and I'm just doing the stickers now. The sad face thing I don't have to use, sometimes I'll threaten them like if I've had to speak to them a couple of times. I use a very quiet tone and I try to look them in the eye and say do you need to go to time out and they'll say no and get themselves into line so I don't really have any great need for the negative side of it.	Teacher has changed from using a classroom management chart to monitoring students' behaviour to using stickers for positive behaviour. Students are self-monitoring their behaviour and actions.	N/A.	N/A	Teacher no longer uses a chart to track student behaviour. Uses CMS to get students to do as asked. Continues to uses stickers for positive reinforcement.	CMS Extrinsic rewards. Consistency Self-monitoring student behaviour.

Note. Adapted from “The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research,” by B. G. Glaser and A. L. Strauss (1967).

Table 4.19

Example 6 of Open Coding Process Using Phase Two Interview Data

Interview Question G: Which classroom management strategies do you find effective?					
Liz's Response	What is going on?	What is the problem?	How is the participant attempting to solve the problem?	Memo	Open Code
Choice, because you want to teach these kids to be independent learners at the end of the day, so they've got to learn to make choices. They can't be hand-fed these choices, they've got to learn to make them for themselves. I say things like: "This is a good choice, that's a bad choice. Right, you've come to this situation, what are you going to choose? Do you think that's the right idea?" And they know what's right.	The teacher has found a strategy that is working and which give the students the opportunity to make the right choice.	N/A.	N/A	The teacher gives students the option of making the right decision rather than continue with the inappropriate behaviour. This is a good option for Indigenous students who are being given an 'out' without shame involved.	Indigenous students. Culturally appropriate strategies. Options

Interview Question H: What did you do to make changes in the behaviour of the students?

Liz's Response	What is going on?	What is the problem?	How is the participant attempting to solve the problem?	Memo	Open-Code
<p>Bringing in the extra rules I guess. So we line up at the front, and it's the constant reminders, you know? "This is our classroom; this is how we behave in our classroom." And, directions, yeah. The directions, and that's the hardest thing, is to say to them, "Right. You come in; you put your pencil case on a table, and come and sit down quietly on the mat." So, trying to be really explicit with what I want the students to do.</p>	<p>Teacher is consistent and gives explicit instructions to the students.</p>	<p>N/A</p>	<p>N/A</p>	<p>The classroom is owned by the students and not just the teacher.</p> <p>Explicit instructions are given enabling students to know exactly what to do so they do not have the option of being off-task.</p> <p>Consistent reminders about what is required of the students – linked to teacher expectations.</p>	<p>Structure.</p> <p>Routines.</p> <p>Consistency.</p> <p>Shared responsibility.</p>

Note. Adapted from “The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research,” by B. G. Glaser and A. L. Strauss (1967).

As a result of open coding the phase two interviews, a number of new open and selective codes were identified. Such codes included happy, resilient, positive relationships, structure, routines, expectations and shared responsibility.

The memoing process illustrated in Table 4.20 demonstrates how three open/selective codes; confident, happy and hard work were subsumed into one category called resilient via theoretical sampling. The process used to attain such a category was the same as used in phase one.

Table 4.20

Development of the Resilient Category via Memoing

Open/Selective Code	Memo
Confident Happy Hard Work	<p>There was a noticeable difference in the way each teacher spoke about teaching. All teachers were more assured in answering the interview questions and each had a teacher ‘presence’ when they spoke about the CMS they were using. David mentioned that he felt much more confident in front of the students and expected them to do as he asked. Karen also mentioned that she felt confident in asking students to do a task and that she would follow through with a consequence if the student did not respond as requested. Along with the confidence there is a sense of self achievement. It’s as if each teacher has battled through some difficult times in regards to classroom management and come out stronger, wiser and learned from the experience. This appears to have resulted in the teachers enjoying their teaching much more than at the beginning of the year and feeling much happier about coming to school each day. Keith specifically mentioned that he was happy with his teaching. All teachers talked about the hard work that they had done to improve their CMS. Liz, Natalie, David and Keith had each been identified as having CM issues and had been sent to the local regional town for professional learning. Each teacher had found the professional learning to be worthwhile. Liz said that the professional learning provided was practical and she used the strategies in her classroom. Keith said that the strategies covered in the course were the same as the ones learned at university, but that it was much more ‘real’ and ‘relevant’ now that he had his own class.</p>

Theoretical Sampling:

I am amazed that all teachers I interviewed in term one are still teaching, given the very difficult time they were all having with CM. Each teacher seems so much more in control of the whole teaching experience, they speak confidently, can give examples of what they do

and each of them said they were happy to stay another year at the same school. Examples they gave were positive ones. Rather than talking about what wasn't working as they did during the phase one interviews, they were keen to share their success stories. They spoke about how Indigenous students show affection by 'touch' such as holding the teachers hand, touching the teachers arms, wanting to hug the teacher or by standing really close to the teacher. Shirley said that the students were 'very tactile and liked to hug you or will lean on you to show you they trust you.' I think that having positive relationships with the students is one of the reasons why the teachers are happy and confident as they know they have 'won the students over' after a long struggle. It doesn't mean that the students will always be compliant, but it appears the teacher now knows how to handle difficult situations and what to do to maintain the relationship – which isn't being soft and letting the students get away with not being compliant – as was observed during phase one. To reach this stage of being confident and happy in their teaching, after undergoing so much difficulty and hardship, including embarrassment as they didn't know what to do, fear as they didn't know how the students would react and a total change of living circumstances, where they are not part of the dominant culture, requires significant resilience on the part of each teacher.

In summary, it appears that each teacher has made substantial changes in regards to their CM. From the information collected from the interviews, it seems teachers are being consistent in using CMS to return students to on-task behaviours and are applying consequences for non-compliance with teacher instructions. Rules and classroom routines appear to have been taught to the students and both teacher and students have the same expectations regarding appropriate classroom behaviour. Each of the teachers gives the impression of being much happier and confident in their teaching and of having a range of CMS they can use to successfully manage difficult situations.

4.7 Phase Two: Observations

Each beginning teacher was observed and video-recorded during phase two of the research. As previously detailed, data were collected and analysed for the first ten minutes of each lesson to determine the effectiveness of each low-key CMS used. To enable comparisons to be made between phase one and two data, Table 4.21, 4.22, 4.23 and 4.24 are structured exactly as Table 4.11, 4.12, 4.13 and 4.14 and use data collected from the same teachers. Once again, the number in brackets in the duration column indicates the order the

teacher used the low-key CMS. The time (in seconds) in the duration column is the time elapsed until another low-key CMS was used or the student returned to on-task behaviour.

For each incident, the latency time (in seconds) is the total time taken for the student to return to on-task behaviour.

Table 4.21

Latency and Duration of Low-Key Classroom Management Strategies used by Karen during Phase Two

	Incident A		Incident B		Incident C		Incident D		Incident E		Incident F	
	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration
Proximity					10 s	(2) 5 s			6 s	(1) 6 s		
Physical Contact												
Calling the Student's Name		(1) 10 s		(1) 7 s		(1) 5 s	6 s	6 s			6 s	6 s
Gesture												
Look	15 s	(2) 5 s	10 s	(2) 3 s								
Pause												
Purposeful Ignoring												
Signal to Begin												
Deal with problem												

	Incident G		Incident H		Incident I		Incident J	
	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration
Proximity					8 s	(1) 8 s		
Physical Contact								
Calling the Student's Name				(1) 6 s				(1) 4 s
Gesture								
Look							9 s	(2) 5 s
Pause	5 s	(1) 5 s						
Purposeful Ignoring								
Signal to Begin			12 s	(2) 6 s				
Deal with problem not the student								

Note. Adapted from The University of Kansas (n.d.).

During the first ten minutes of this lesson, there were ten incidences that required Karen to use one or more CMS to return the students to on-task behaviour. The CMS most frequently used was Calling the Student's Name, applied in seven of the ten incidences. In only two of these seven incidences did it return students to on-task behaviour. In the other five incidences, it was used in conjunction with another CMS to produce a successful outcome. The next two most frequently applied CMS were The Look and Proximity which were both used three times. Karen did not utilise Deal with the Problem not the Student, Purposeful Ignoring and Physical Contact during the observation period. The time between

the application of a CMS and the student returning to on-task behaviour or using another CMS was ten seconds or less. The total teaching time spent on CMS in the first ten minutes of the observed lesson was 103 seconds.

Table 4.22

Latency and Duration of Low-Key Classroom Management Strategies used by Natalie during Phase Two

	Incident A		Incident B		Incident C		Incident D		Incident E	
	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration
Proximity					5 s	5 s			12 s	(2) 4 s
Physical Contact										
Calling the Student's Name		(1) 6 s	10 s	(2) 4 s			14 s	(2) 5 s		
Gesture										
Look								(1) 9 s		
Pause				(1) 6 s						
Purposeful Ignoring										
Signal to Begin	14 s	(2) 8 s								(1) 8 s
Deal with the Problem not the Student										

	Incident F		Incident G		Incident H		Incident I		Incident J		Incident K	
	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration
Proximity									10 sec	(2) 5 s		
Physical Contact												
Calling the Student's Name			7 s	7 s	6 s	6 s				(1) 5 s		
Gesture												
Look												
Pause							7 s	7 s				
Purposeful ignoring												
Signal to Begin											11 s	11 s
Deal with the Problem not the Student	31 s	31 s										

Note. Adapted from The University of Kansas (n.d.).

During the first ten minutes of this lesson, there were eleven incidences that required Natalie to use a CMS to return the students to on-task behaviours. The low-key strategy used most often was Calling the Student's Name followed by Proximity. The duration of each CMS was about 11 seconds, except when she used Deal with the Problem not the Student. Natalie did not use Physical Contact, Gesture or Purposeful Ignoring during the observation period. The strategy that took the longest to return the student to on-task behaviour was Deal with the Problem not the Student. In this lesson, the total time spent on returning students to on-task behaviour in the first ten minutes was 127 seconds or just over two minutes.

Table 4.23

Latency and Duration of Low-Key Classroom Management Strategies used by Emma during Phase Two

	Incident A		Incident B		Incident C		Incident D		Incident E		Incident F	
	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration
Proximity												
Physical Contact												
Calling the Student's Name										(1) 3 s		
Gesture	5 s	5 s	8 s	8 s	4 s	4 s	12 s	(2) 7 s	7 s	(2) 4 s		
Look								(1) 5 s			7 s	(2) 3 s
Pause												(1) 4 s
Purposeful Ignoring												
Signal to Begin												
Deal with the Problem not the Student												

Note. Adapted from The University of Kansas (n.d.).

Within the first ten minutes of the lesson, there were six incidences in which Emma had to use a CMS to return the students to on-task behaviour. The CMS used most frequently is Gesture, used in five of the six incidences. The second most frequently used CMS is The Look which was used in two of the six incidences. During the observation period Emma only used four CMS; Calling the Student's Name, Gesture, look and Pause. Each of the CMS used except one, returned the students to on-task behaviours within 10 seconds. The total time spent on CMS in the first ten minutes of the lesson was 43 seconds.

Table 4.24

Latency and Duration of Low-Key Classroom Management Strategies used by Keith during Phase Two

	Incident A		Incident B		Incident C		Incident D		Incident E		Incident F	
	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration
Proximity					10 s	(2) 6 s						
Physical Contact	6 s	6 s										
Calling the Student's Name			9 s	(1) 5 s		(1) 4 s				(1) 5 s		
									8 s	(2) 3 s		
Gesture												
Look				(2) 4 s								
Pause							5 s	5 s			3 s	3 s
Purposeful Ignoring												
Signal to Begin												
Deal with the problem												

	Incident G		Incident H		Incident I	
	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration	Latency	Duration
Proximity						
Physical Contact	7 s	(2) 3 s				
Calling the Student's Name		(1) 4 s	10 s	(2) 4 s	4 s	4 s
Gesture						
Look						
Pause						
Purposeful Ignoring						
Signal to Begin				(1) 6 s		
Deal with the Problem not the Student						

Note. Adapted from The University of Kansas (n.d.).

Keith had nine different incidences during the first ten minutes of the lesson which required him to use at least one CMS to return the students to on-task behaviour. Keith used Calling the Student's Name seven times and in one incident applied this CMS twice. Keith also used the Pause and Physical Contact twice. Each incident was addressed using one or more CMS in ten seconds or under. Keith did not use Gesture, Purposeful Ignoring or Deal with the Problem not the Student. In this lesson the total time spent on returning students to on-task behaviour within the first ten minutes was 62 seconds or just over one minute.

4.8 Phase Two Summary

To enable comparisons to be made between phase one and two data, Table 4.25 displays both the aggregate number of times and the arithmetic mean time for each low-key CMS used during the first ten minutes of each observed lesson in phase two. It can be seen that Calling the Student's Name is the most frequently used CMS, followed by the Pause. The least used CMS is Deal with the Problem not the Student and Purposeful Ignoring. The CMS which returns students quickest to on-task behaviours is Physical Contact followed by The Look.

Table 4.25

Statistical Summary of each Classroom Management Strategy used by the Graduate Teachers in Phase Two

Low-Key Classroom Management Strategy	Aggregate Number of Times Used by all Teachers	Arithmetic Mean Latency Time
Purposeful Ignoring	20	39.8 s
Deal with the Problem not the Student	14	37.9 s
Gesture	70	5.9 s
Pause	96	5.6 s
Signal to Begin	84	5.0 s
Calling the Student's Name	106	4.2 s
Proximity	67	4.1 s
Look	82	3.7 s
Physical Contact	30	3.2 s

Given that one of the research questions is looking to find any difference between Indigenous and non-Indigenous students' response rate to CMS, Table 4.26 displays such fine-grained detail.

Table 4.26

Mean Time to Return Students to On-Task Behaviour for each Classroom Management Strategy; by Culture in Phase Two

Classroom Management Strategy	Arithmetic mean time to return Indigenous students to on-task behaviour	Arithmetic mean time to return non-Indigenous students to on-task behaviour	Arithmetic mean time to return all students to on-task behaviour.
Purposeful Ignoring	42.0 s	37.6 s	39.8 s
Deal with the Problem not the Student	25.0 s	49.9 s	37.9 s
Pause	6.6 s	4.6 s	5.6 s
Gesture	5.4 s	6.4 s	5.9 s
Look	5.0 s	2.4 s	3.7 s
Signal to Begin	4.3 s	5.7 s	5.0 s
Calling the Student's Name	4.2 s	4.2 s	4.2 s
Proximity	4.1 s	4.1 s	4.1 s
Physical Contact	3.0 s	3.4 s	3.2 s

From the data in Table 4.26, it is evident that on average, Indigenous students respond quicker to the low-key strategies of Physical Contact, Proximity, Calling the Student's Name and Signal to Begin. Three out of four CMS that students respond quickest to are identical for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous students, such CMS are Physical Contact, Proximity and

Calling the Student's Name. Purposeful Ignoring is the CMS to which both Indigenous and non-Indigenous students take the longest time to respond.

The median latency time is the measure of central tendency of a data set. It is can be calculated using the aggregate time to return students to on-task behaviour. Table 4.27 indicates that the median latency time for phase two is 100.5 seconds. The aggregate time taken by Emma, Keith, Liam and Shirley to return students to on-task behaviour is less than the median latency time, whereas Margaret, Natalie, David and Chloe take longer to return students to on-task behaviour. Liz and Karen had times that were closest to the median latency time.

Table 4.27

Phase Two Median Latency Time to Return Students to On-Task Behaviour

Name of Teacher	Median Latency Time
Margaret	144 seconds
Natalie	127 seconds
David	124 seconds
Chloe	107 seconds
Karen	103 seconds
Liz	98 seconds
Shirley	87 seconds
Liam	76 seconds
Keith	62 seconds
Emma	43 seconds

Table 4.28 shows that during phase one, in 80% of the classes, the compliance rate to the teacher's CMS in the first 10 minutes of the lesson was less than 50%. The compliance

rate was determined by counting the number of students who were engaged in an off-task activity and converting it to a percentage of the total student body in each class. Results obtained in phase two indicate that in 80% of the classes more than 80% of the students were on-task during the first 10 minutes of the lesson.

Table 4.28

Compliance Rates to Teacher's CMS in the First Ten Minutes of the Lesson for Phase One and Phase Two

Teacher	Year Level	Total number of students in class	Student compliance rate to teacher CMS in the first 10 minutes of the lesson (phase one)	Student compliance rate to teacher CMS in the first 10 minutes of the lesson(phase two)	Difference in compliance rates between phase one and phase two data
Liam	6	22	46%	95%	49%
Emma	Pre-Primary	17	76%	94%	18%
Keith		24	24%	92%	68%
Liz	2/3	20	30%	85%	55%
Shirley	4	26	31%	85%	54%
Natalie	4/5	24	55%	81%	26%
Chloe	2	21	43%	81%	38%
David	1	14	36%	80%	44%
Karen	5	23	20%	78%	58%
Margaret	Pre-Primary	23	35%	74%	39%
Total		214			

4.9 Chapter Summary

During phase two of this research, it was evident that each of the beginning teachers were able to use a range of low-key CMS to return students to on-task behaviour. The CMS used appear to be effective with both Indigenous and non-Indigenous students. In particular, Physical Contact, Proximity and Calling the Student's Name were used by all teachers and were successful in quickly returning students to on task behaviours. The following chapter analyses and discussed the data findings presented in this chapter, to address the research questions.

CHAPTER 5

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF THE DATA

5.1 Introduction

This chapter combines the analysis and discussion sections of the current research. Given that this is qualitatively-based interpretative research, it is defensible to consider data analysis and discussion of findings together, as has been suggested by Bellipanni, Tingstrom, Olmi, and Roberts (2013). Such a hermeneutic adds a richness and immediacy of interpretation that would be unavailable if analysis and discussion were to be considered separately.

The specific questions this research aimed to address were:

1. What classroom management strategies are used by beginning teachers to return students in Kimberley classrooms to on-task behaviours?
2. How effective are these strategies at returning students to on-task behaviours?
3. Is there a difference in the effectiveness of the classroom management strategies used between Indigenous and non-Indigenous students?
4. What information and strategies would graduate teachers liked to have been exposed to in their teacher education course in order to more effectively manage primary classrooms in the Kimberley region of Western Australia?

The chapter is divided into four sections. Initially, the classroom management strategies (CMS) used by the beginning teachers will be compared and contrasted so as to determine their effectiveness; thus addressing research questions one and two. Other CMS observed during classroom visits, such as using competition, extrinsic charts and rewards and

teachers raising their voice are also scrutinised. Further, to determining the effectiveness of the CMS, the second section of this chapter focuses on the effectiveness of the CMS with Indigenous students and discusses any notable differences between the responses to the strategies by Indigenous and non-Indigenous students, thus addressing research question three. The third section discusses the two theoretical sampling codes identified as ‘cultural shock’ and ‘resilience’. This section also examines some of the teachers’ insights in regards to classroom management (CM) as a result of teaching and living in a remote community school for a period of almost seven months, resulting in research question four being resolved. Finally, this chapter reports on the emergence of a new theory, which the researcher has named ‘cultural frame-switching’. This theory emerged as a result of interpreting the data using the constant comparison process, memoing and a functional behavioural analysis. Current literature is compared against the conceptual theory developed in this research, that of cultural frame-switching, to determine any similarities, differences or gaps that may exist.

5.2 Phase One

5.2.1 Classroom management strategies.

This research used the low-key CMS of Bennett and Smilanich (1994) as the framework for data collection. During phase one of the research, in addition to using the low-key CMS, each of the teachers was observed using a range of other CMS which they had either seen or used on practica. Such presentation suggests that the teachers were unhappy with the result of the low-key CMS and were experimenting with other CMS with the aim of achieving a satisfactory outcome.

One of the most popular strategies evidenced was to speak very loudly to the students. It appeared that speaking loudly was being used as a CMS in an attempt to deliver

instructions to the whole class. Information collected during the initial interviews was substantiated during the observation period when all beginning teachers spoke loudly to their class on at least one occasion. There was no evidence that this strategy was more or less successful than any other CMS used. When teachers raised their voice, fewer than 10% of the students in each class complied with the instructions given. In three of the classrooms, the students reacted by raising their own voice when speaking to each other. Such evidence suggests that speaking loudly was not an effective CMS and may have exacerbated the situation resulting in an increase in noise level in the classroom.

A further CMS used by each of the teachers which was not identified by Bennett and Smilanich (1994), was to completely ignore off-task behaviour displayed by the students. It is possible that this strategy was being used as a survival mechanism given that no beginning teacher observed appeared to have consistently effective CMS that could deal with disruptive behaviours. Veenman (1984) and Choy et al. (2011) identified that ignoring off-task behaviour is a mechanism used by teachers to avoid conflict with the students. Rather than risk intensifying the students' off-task behaviours, the beginning teachers seemed to have made a conscious decision to ignore many of the inappropriate, off-task behaviours. Such action suggests that their teaching experience to date was insufficient regarding the implementation of other CMS that may be used to quell on-going disruptions.

All teachers used positive reinforcement in the form of an extrinsic reward system as one approach for maintaining on-task behaviour. The use of this strategy suggests that the teachers were attempting to 'bribe' the students into complying with the teachers' expectations, as has been suggested by Akin-Little, Eckert, Lovett, and Little (2004). Stickers on charts and tokens which were exchanged for prizes and certificates were the most commonly used rewards. It appeared that positive reinforcers were used to increase appropriate behaviour (Rosqvist & Hersen, 2005), however, it was not evident that the

teachers used a systematic or consistent approach to giving out the rewards. Students seemed unsure as to why one student's on-task behaviour was rewarded and another student's was not, when each complied with the same request. As a result of the inconsistent application of the rewards, the students in Years 3, 4, 4/5 and 6 took to calling out and asking for a reward when they had complied with a teacher request. The beginning teacher then either reprimanded the students for calling out or ignored the calling out, with neither action resulting in a return to on-task behaviour. During the phase one interviews, none of the teachers indicated that the use of extrinsic rewards was successful; however, they each mentioned they were using the same reward system that had worked successfully on their last practicum. David did muse as to why the use of rewards was not working in his classroom as he had found them to be very effective during his long-term practicum:

I just don't get why the stickers and certificates don't work up here. On my last prac, the students really wanted the prizes so did what I said. Maybe they don't mean as much up here.

Although Akin-Little et al. (2004) and Alberto and Troutman (2013) found that the use of positive reinforcers was recognised as an effective CMS, the University of Kansas (2005) found that injudicious, inconsistent or inappropriate use of reinforcers may in fact prove to be counterproductive.

Another CMS being used by three of the beginning teachers was to create competition between the students. Phrases such as: "The group that cleans the floor around their tables will be the first to go to recess" or "the first person to complete these sentences will get a sticker" were used by the teachers. From observations made, it was apparent that while the non-Indigenous students did respond positively to the requested task, most of the Indigenous students did not. As a result, the non-Indigenous students became frustrated by the

Indigenous students' lack of response. As the frustration level increased, the non-Indigenous students started taunting those students who were not engaged in the competitive activity. Such teasing tended to result in the students having either a heated argument or a physical confrontation, which the beginning teacher found difficult to resolve. Bennett and Smilanich (1994) found that using competition in classrooms that are not collaborative or supportive is not usually an effective CMS. The inappropriate use of competition has the capacity to alienate students and place pressure on those students who are less able to complete the task or who do not wish to take part in the competition. The use of competition with Indigenous students, who have a strong group alliance and are used to sharing, working and learning together demonstrates a lack of cultural understanding by the teacher and an absence of effective CMS (Bennett & Smilanich, 1994; Olitsky, 2011; Self, 2009).

One beginning teacher used the 'walk of shame' as a CMS. Her reasoning was that during the time it took the student to walk to the front of the classroom and move their name card to beneath the 'unhappy' face on the chart, they would have time to consider what they had done wrong. By making the student walk to the front of the classroom, the teacher demonstrated her lack of cultural knowledge. Studies have shown that Indigenous students do not like being singled out due to the 'shame' associated with being the sole focus of the class, either for positive achievements or for being wrong (Charles Sturt University, n.d.; Harrison, 2011; Louth, 2012; Munns, 1998). Further, it has been shown that this form of punishment does not have the same desired effect as strategies based on positive reinforcement schedules (Rosqvist & Hersen, 2005). In fact, anything viewed by students as a punisher is unlikely to act as a positive reinforcer (Heffner, 2014). Accordingly, the teacher found that the students frequently ignored her requests for compliance and refused to leave their desk.

Each of the beginning teachers faced great difficulties in getting the students to commence and maintain on-task behaviour and was usually unable to achieve a high level of

compliance by the students to their instructions. The data collected during phase one showed that in 60% of the classrooms, four minutes or more of the first ten minutes of a lesson were spent using a range of CMS, including those identified by Bennett and Smilanich (1994) and the ad hoc CMS previously cited. Ad hoc CMS are those that are not included in the Bennett & Smilanich (1994) low-key CMS strategies. The ad hoc CMS were used indiscriminately and included, but were not limited to, talking loudly/shouting at the students, calling for assistance from the Deputy Principal or other classroom teachers and banging the classroom ruler on a desk.

One consequence of the increased time spent on CM and the reduced time spent on teaching was that the educational outcomes of Indigenous students, who are already at educational risk, were further reduced (Donovan & Cross, 2002; Harrell et al., 2004; Oliver & Reschly, 2007). The results of the 2014 National Assessment Program Literacy and Numeracy (NAPLAN) data confirm that Indigenous students in remote locations in Western Australia are at educational risk (Australian Curriculum Assessment and Reporting Authority, 2014). It appears that any reduction in teaching time due to CM issues does not bode well for the improvement in educational outcomes for Indigenous students.

In each of the schools where the beginning teachers were located, there was a whole school behaviour management plan to which all teachers were required to adhere. The purpose of the behaviour management plan was to engender a consistent approach to managing inappropriate and disruptive student behaviour. As a result, all students knew there would be a consequence for inappropriate behaviour. In each school, the behaviour management plan was based on Assertive Discipline (Canter & Canter, 1976; O'Brien & Collins, 2011) which 90% of the beginning teachers found was contrary to their own more humanistic philosophy. The disparity between personal ideals and external requirements manifested in the teachers applying the school policy irregularly and without any

commitment to the process. Such a mismatch may have resulted in the teachers' discomfort manifesting as cognitive dissonance, (Festinger, 1957; Reevy, Ozer, & Ito, 2010), causing a level of confusion in the minds of the students, with both the humanistic approach and the 'three strikes and you're out' whole school authoritative approach being used simultaneously. Findings from this research suggest that whole school management plans are only of value if all staff take ownership of creating the plan, applying it systematically and monitoring its success.

In summary, in phase one it was apparent that the CMS used by the beginning teachers were not consistently effective in returning students to on-task behaviour. Off-task behaviours resulted in a reduction in the available teaching time. Most of the beginning teachers had a humanist philosophy in regards to CM and found the whole school behaviour management plan difficult to implement and comply with, as it jarred with their personal philosophy about CM.

5.2.2 Classroom structures.

Bennett and Smilanich (1994) list nine low-key responses that effective teachers use with students when they first begin to disrupt a lesson. As previously identified, these low-key responses are: Proximity, Physical Contact with the student, Calling the Student's Name, making a Gesture, The Look, the Pause, Purposeful Ignore, Signal to Begin and Deal with the Problem not the Student. During phase one of the research, each of the beginning teachers did use a range of these low-key CMS; however, they were not effective in returning students to on-task behaviour. It is therefore probable that effective teachers do not use low-key CMS strategies in isolation, but in combination with other CM structures. It is also conceivable that beginning teachers do not yet have the established status to add gravitas to assertive discipline approaches.

It is possible that the lack of teacher success when using low-key CMS could be attributed to very few CM structures being in place. For example, during phase one of this research, there was no evidence that the teachers had conveyed their expectations in regards to behaviour to the students; neither had they introduced routines and rules to provide a framework around which the low-key CMS could be used effectively.

During the phase one interviews, only Emma spoke about holding conversations with the students where expectations, classroom rules and structures were discussed so as to create a shared understanding. The other nine graduate teachers did not mention explicitly teaching and practising classroom routines with the students or of modelling such routines to them. Within each of the ten teachers' classrooms, including Emma's, there was no evidence that such conversations had taken place. Evidence may have included classroom rules or ethos being displayed, verbal reminders being given by the teacher about classroom procedures or charts which detailed routines. It would be fair to argue that without routines, procedures and rules being explicitly taught, students had no clear guidelines as to the teacher's expectations. Bennett and Smilanich (1994); Brophy (2006); Tomlinson and Imbeau (2010) and Trinidad et al. (2012) found that teachers need to spend considerable time teaching, reinforcing and modelling routines and classroom structures at the beginning of the year to maximise student learning opportunities, minimise distractions and build collaborative learning environments. It was not evident that the beginning teachers had established shared understandings regarding classroom structures, which resulted in students displaying inappropriate, off-task, challenging classroom behaviours.

From the data collected during phase one, it may be proffered that the beginning teachers did not establish consistently equitable standards with regards to appropriate classroom behaviour. Nine of the teachers mentioned that they had different standards for Indigenous and non-Indigenous students, giving Indigenous students more lee-way with

inappropriate behaviours than they did with non-Indigenous students. It is possible that if many Indigenous students are off-task, it may be easier for the teacher to give the students more lee-way rather than confront them openly. This is particularly pertinent given that the neophyte teachers already knew they did not have effective CMS and were unsure as to how the students might react.

5.2.3 Anglo based expectations.

One of the consequences of the beginning teachers not having set consistently high standards with regards to student behaviour appeared to be that the students did not consistently comply with the teacher's instructions and directions. Matheson and Shriver (2005) and Bellipanni et al. (2013) found that without effective CMS being in place, demanding compliance from all students has a high risk of failure and a high possibility of exacerbating off-task behaviour. From the data collected during phase one of this research, it appears that the beginning teachers made the assumption that the students would automatically conform to their requests, based on the imputed authority they have as the classroom teacher. There was, however, no evidence that the Indigenous students accepted that the teacher had the right to give a command which had to be obeyed, based solely on their status within the classroom. Such a conclusion accords with the investigation of Macleod, James, and Anne (2012) who found that in some instances it is expected that the students have the right to question the teacher rather than unquestioningly comply. Findings such as these suggest that beginning teachers need to establish a level of authority and credibility with the students which must be earned.

Each of the beginning teachers had undertaken practica in large urban schools, where the beginning teachers and the majority of students shared a common Anglo cultural background. It is likely that the students in the practicum classes would be compliant with

teacher directions and instructions as a result of the mentor teacher having earned the respect of the students through their demonstration of high level knowledge and skills and their self-confident manner (Macleod et al., 2012). As the pre-service teacher usually follows the same routines, structures and rules of their mentor teacher, and were working within an Anglo cultural frame, it may be the case that the students vicariously accepted that the pre-service teacher had the same authority as the classroom teacher.

Currently, and according to information available on their websites, pre-service teachers enrolled in teacher education courses in Western Australia are not placed on practicum at the commencement of the school year (Curtin University, 2015; Edith Cowan University, 2015; Murdoch University, 2015; The University of Notre Dame, 2015; The University of Western Australia, 2015). As such, the pre-service teacher does not observe the processes which the mentor teachers use to set high standards at the beginning of the year and to explicitly teach classroom structures, rules and routines. As a result, some pre-service teachers may assume that the students in their classroom will have similar understandings regarding classroom rules and routines and expect the students to respond to teacher directions in the same manner as the students on their practica. As evidenced by the data collected in this research, this is an incorrect assumption. The majority of students in remote community schools typically come from a different cultural background to that of the teacher and as such, tend to have different perspectives, views and understandings. The concept of imputed authority was not evident in the classrooms of the beginning teachers and it appeared that the teachers had little authority with the students as the teachers were yet to prove themselves 'worthy' of the students' respect. Such respect can only be anticipated if classroom rules and routines are explicitly taught to students at the commencement of the school year, as convincingly argued by Sempowicz and Hudson (2011).

5.2.4 Inconsistent approaches to classroom management.

In order for students to comply with teacher directions and instructions, there should be a shared understanding of classroom standards, routines and rules; in other words, those relating to classroom mores (Barry & King, 1998; Bennett & Smilanich, 1994; Emmer et al., 1980). Given that the beginning teachers had not established such mores, it is possible that students were unclear regarding the parameters of acceptable classroom behaviour. Such lack of clarity may also explain the teachers' inconsistent application of consequences for non-compliance with their instructions. For example, an action such as talking while the teacher was giving directions, which resulted in one student being reprimanded, was ignored when another student performed the same action. As a result, the teacher delivered an inconsistent message regarding compliance with their directions. Matheson and Shriver (2005) wrote that teachers need to be consistent in their application of a consequence should compliance not occur or teachers would find that the time spent on teaching was likely to be reduced. During phase one interviews, six of the beginning teachers indicated their concern at the amount of teaching time being unproductively utilised due to inappropriate student behaviours.

In an attempt to increase the teaching time, the researcher observed that the teachers gave their instructions while many of the students were engaged in off-task behaviours, in the apparent hope that the request would be complied with by some of the students. The teacher then spoke individually to each of the off-task students and repeated the instructions to them. From observations made, it was apparent that the teacher did not make the students accountable for their off-task behaviours as evidenced by the lack of consequences. It is possible that the action of individually informing students who were off-task of the requirements of the lesson, may have supported and encouraged the students lack of compliance, in that the students knew that the teacher would individually repeat the

instructions given, so there was not much purpose in complying with the whole class instructions. It could be that teacher training institutions may need to place a greater focus on basic CMS such as the use of heuristics, to enable beginning teachers to quickly and effectively engage students in on-task behaviours. It is suggested, by the researcher, that beginning teachers could use a five-step process, identified by the first five letters of the alphabet 'ABCDE', to assist with gaining and maintaining on-task behaviour in the classroom. The five steps include; A: Always gain all the students' *attention* prior to giving instructions; B: Always deal with inappropriate *behaviour* as soon as it occurs; C: Ensure there are *consequences* for inappropriate actions and be *consistent* with applying the consequences; D: Once all students have your attention give your *directions* and E: Ensure that both the teacher and the students have the same *expectations*. Such a 'ready reference' could be used during each lesson, particularly at the start of the year, and may assist in obviating a large amount of teacher frustration.

In summary, at the conclusion of phase one, based on the data collected and interpreted, it was apparent that the teachers did not have effective solutions for preventing their students from engaging in inappropriate off-task behaviours. Despite using a range of CMS which have shown to be effective (Baker, 2005; Barry & King, 1998; Bennett & Smilanich, 1994; Shindler, 2009), the inconsistent approach to CMS resulted in students' failure to acquiesce. Teachers made assumptions that students would respond to the application of CMS in the same manner as the students they had taught on practica. This assumption resulted in a failure to explicitly teach the classroom structures, rules and routines, which could be used as the base from which shared understandings about appropriate classroom behaviour could be built. It was generally evident that the beginning teachers felt frustrated by the students' off-task behaviours. In an attempt to combat the off-task behaviours, each of the teachers employed additional CMS including talking loudly,

ignoring inappropriate off-task behaviour, encouraging competition between groups of students and using extrinsic rewards, despite research by Veenman (1984), Partington et al. (2001) and Choy et al. (2011)_*ENREF_58* indicating that these CMS are not culturally appropriate for Indigenous students and thus are largely ineffective.

5.3 Phase Two

5.3.1 Classroom management strategies.

Each of the beginning teachers who took part in phase one of this research remained teaching the same year level, in the same school, when the second phase of the research was undertaken. This situation was surprising given that the novice teacher attrition rate is about 40% within the first two years of teaching (Somerville et al., 2010). It was nevertheless a beneficial discovery as it enabled the research to be progressed with a consistent cohort. All teachers were interviewed and observed for a second time and it was found there was a significant difference in their responses to the interview questions. Each teacher was keen to tell of their experiences and gave detailed information regarding the changes they had made in their approach to CM. The information provided by the teachers was substantiated by the observations taken in each teacher's classroom.

In each classroom there was a significant decrease in the number and duration of many of the off-task behaviours that had been demonstrated by the students in phase one. Each of the novice teachers used a range of low-key CMS, from the Bennett and Smilanich (1994) nomenclature, which they applied effectively to engage and maintain the students in on-task behaviours. Each teacher had a number of low-key CMS which they proactively used to prevent off-task behaviours. The most commonly used strategies were Proximity, Calling the Student's Name, giving the student The Look and Physical Contact with the student. This

suggests that the beginning teachers had learned from their experiences earlier in the year, as such strategies used were the quickest to implement and least disruptive to other students in the classroom. It was also evident that the teachers were able to use more than one CMS effectively when required. During one of the observation sessions, two students commenced arguing over the ownership of a pencil. The teacher used her favourite strategy and called both students' names, when this did not work she went over and stood behind the students, using Proximity as the CMS. As neither of these CMS returned the students to on-task behaviour, the teacher decided she would have to intervene to solve the issue over the pencil, so she used the Deal with the Problem not the Student CMS. This strategy resulted in the issue being resolved; both students were satisfied with the outcome of the dispute and returned to on-task behaviour.

From observation, it was apparent that each beginning teacher had made two major changes in their CMS. All teachers had stopped speaking loudly when giving instructions to the students and each of them had stopped ignoring off-task behaviour. When questioned as to why they no longer spoke loudly, there was acknowledgement that the strategy did not work, particularly with Indigenous students. The students had generally ignored instructions given in a loud voice and in some instances had even started to talk loudly themselves. Three teachers had found that once the students started talking loudly, the teachers did not know how to get them to stop. One of the teachers said that the noise level in the classroom had become so loud that they needed to bang on the desk to get the students to stop talking. Other teachers mentioned that they personally became stressed when they raised their voice, so they had changed to lowering their voice to almost a whisper and found that to be more effective at getting students to listen to instructions. It seems that the beginning teachers had realised that vocal modulation can be utilised as an effective CMS.

The teachers were asked about ignoring the students' off-task behaviour which had been observed during phase one of the research and why they no longer used this strategy. There was general consensus among the teachers that ignoring off-task behaviour was dangerous in regards to duty of care and that during phase one the teachers did not know what else they could do when a student refused to follow a given direction. One of the teachers spoke about using the 'purposeful ignore' as a CMS; however, they clarified that this strategy was used to counteract students who were looking for teacher attention. Rather than give the student the attention they wanted, the teacher made the decision to ignore the off-task behaviour. In contrast to ignoring off-task behaviours as evident in phase one of the research, Purposeful Ignoring resulted in the student returning to on-task behaviour, or the strategy was used in conjunction with another low-key strategy, again resulting in the student commencing or re-engaging with the learning activity. Professional growth was observed in the sense that the teachers now understood they had a duty of care for their students, in that they were responsible for the safety and welfare of the students in their classroom. Accordingly, they used a range of CMS as preventative measures to protect students from potential harm.

When comparing the prevalence of Purposeful Ignoring between phase one and two of the study, the use of this strategy decreased by over 50% in stage two. In phase one it was used as a legitimate CMS 42 times aggregated among all beginning teachers, whereas in phase two, it was used only 20 times. The reduction in the use of Purposeful Ignoring as a CMS may be attributed to the strategy taking more time to return students to on-task behaviours than most of the other low-key strategies. It is also possible that the beginning teachers had reduced the frequency of using Purposeful Ignoring to avoid the students thinking the teacher had no other CMS to use, as was evident in phase one when the teacher ignored many of the students' off-task behaviours. Between the two phases of research, there

was an accompanying reduction in the time taken for Purposeful Ignoring to return the students to on-task behaviour. In phase one it took an average time of 45.1 seconds compared with 39.8 seconds in phase two. This indicates that students were responding more quickly as the teachers became more proficient at deliberately using the CMS.

Only one beginning teacher continued using stickers as an extrinsic reward for on-task behaviour. In this classroom, stickers were used appropriately to reward social behaviour. The teacher explained that she had discussed classroom rules and routines, such as sitting on the mat, with the students. All students who complied with the rules received a sticker. By not being arbitrary with the application of extrinsic rewards, the teacher explicitly demonstrated consistency and fairness as far as all students were concerned. Wong (2014) found that students, particularly those who come from a dysfunctional family situation, thrive in organised classrooms with routines and consistency. By being unwavering and rewarding students for displaying appropriate behaviour in following class rules and routines, a sense of security has a good chance of being created within the classroom as the students know what is required and expected.

It was interesting to note that 80% of the beginning teachers had based their CM on Assertive Discipline (Canter, 2010, 2014; Canter & Canter, 1976), including the 'three strikes and you're out' approach. When questioned about the difference in philosophy from the humanistic approach spoken about in phase one, the eight teachers talked about the need to be consistent with the whole school approach. They identified that as Assertive Discipline worked for other teachers they had decided to trial it in their classroom. Three of the beginning teachers mentioned that the students are used to the 'three strikes and you're out' approach. In each of the eight classrooms, students' names were written on the white board when students made inappropriate choices in regards to their classroom decisions. A consequence was then implemented based on the number of inappropriate choices the student

had accumulated during the day. In Natalie's classroom, the students received two warnings for inappropriate behaviour followed by a consequence if a third warning was given. In Liam's classroom, the students received a progressively more severe consequence for each inappropriate behaviour; and in Margaret's classroom, a consequence was only activated after three verbal warnings. While each of the teachers had a different consequence system, based on individual preferences and the age of the students, their CM was situated within the assertive discipline paradigm and the authoritarian philosophy. It appears that the teachers had come to see the value of applying the whole school behaviour management plan and doing so in a consistent manner.

Regarding student choice, Margaret said that when she had tried to implement teaching strategies that aligned more with the humanist approach, such as offering students a range of learning activities, she found the students were unable to cope:

They became unmanageable and silly. They didn't know what to do so they tried everything and left a terrible mess in the classroom. There was no learning taking place. I think I didn't lay down the rules for how to participate in this lesson properly. It was so bad I didn't want to try it again. I had to spend an hour after school cleaning up the mess.

Such comments indicate that although Margaret said her personal philosophy was aligned with a humanistic approach, she had determined that using strategies from within the assertive discipline paradigm resulted in increased learning and on-task behaviour from the students. Perhaps Toffler (1977) was correct in suggesting that providing unlimited access or choice leads to 'a peril of choice' that has the potential to cause distress and insecurity.

Each of the beginning teachers had also introduced a range of other CMS which they found to be effective at returning students to on-task behaviours. During phase one, Margaret,

Karen, Chloe, Natalie, Liam and Liz spoke about using the ripple effect as a CMS; however, with limited success. The ripple effect, involving praising other students for on-task behaviours to inform the off-task student as to the requirements, has been proven by researchers over many years, to be an effective CMS (Blaze, Olmi, Mercer, Dufrene, & Tingstom, 2014; Cavanaugh, 2013; Kounin & Gump, 1958). When asked how they became aware of the ripple effect, the teachers mentioned that they had used it on their practica and three teachers identified that the Principal of the school used it successfully during whole school assemblies to refocus inappropriate behaviours. Having seen it work effectively with the total student population, the teachers determined to try it in their own classrooms. Despite this CMS being unsuccessful during phase one, nine of the teachers now found this CMS to be extremely effectively. Liz said that she enjoyed using the strategy:

It makes the student that you are praising feel good and somehow it makes the other students do exactly the same thing as the student who was praised. I really like that I don't have to tell the students off for not doing the right thing. It's really low-key, leaves everyone feeling happy and all students doing as I asked. I just love it.

As a result of successful cultural frame-switching, the neophyte teachers had built positive relationships with the students in their class and showed an awareness of the social mores of the local community in terms of what was considered culturally appropriate behaviour. Therefore, the use of the ripple effect was undertaken within the local communities' cultural expectations. This factor had previously been missing during the neophytes attempts at engaging the ripple effect in phase one.

During phase two, using humour to redirect students to on-task behaviours was utilised as a CMS by seven of the teachers. Research undertaken by Harslett, Godfrey, Harrison, Partington, and Richer (1999), Pewewardy (2002), Barrett Kutcy and Schulz (2006), Rogers (2009) and Ivy (2013) found that humour in the form of repartee, dry wit,

irony, farce and satire can help to lift the spirit of the classroom and defuse or reduce tensions. Karen explained that now she understood the students and could read their body language, she could use humour to defuse potentially difficult situations. She had found that the students in her class responded positively to the use of humour and she was able to share jokes with them about issues that had occurred:

I'm a lot more relaxed now with the students. I know that I can use humour to relieve most difficult situations and in some situations it would not be the right thing to use. In fact, it could actually make things worse, particularly if a student had 'shut down' and wasn't responding. I don't ever want to use humour to make fun of the students, that's not funny, it's just mean. The other thing I like is that when we all laugh I feel like we're all part of a team and we're all in it together.

David mentioned that he had tried to use humour in the classroom, as recommended in both the CM unit and Indigenous Education unit he had studied at university. He said that the students did not find him funny and did not respond to his attempt at humour. He did wonder whether the humour he was using was more adult-based than at the level of understanding of the students in his class. It is also possible, given that humour tends to be culturally mediated (Metzger, 2010), that the students needed time to become familiar with David's Anglo approach to humour and what he considered to be humorous.

One of the additional CMS observed being used by seven of the beginning teachers involved having a quiet talk with students not engaged in on-task behaviours. Konza et al. (2004) and Cunningham (2009) found having a chat with off-task students was an effective strategy in returning the student to on-task behaviours. As each beginning teacher walked around the classroom, monitoring the students, if they spotted an off-task student the teacher would kneel down so as to be at eye level with the student. The teacher then whispered to the

student, usually enquiring if they needed any assistance. This action was undertaken without disturbing the on-task learning of the other students. This CMS was found to be effective as it enabled the teacher to have a one-on-one conversation with the student, further building positive relationships and alleviating most reasons as to why the student might not be able to commence the learning activity. Strategies such as this one was not evidenced during phase one of this research and had been implemented in the time between the two research periods.

A further observation made in each neophyte teacher's classroom was that a set of classroom rules or ethos was displayed on the wall. When asked about implementing classroom rules, the teachers spoke about holding discussions with the students in regards to expected classroom behaviour. Liz, Natalie, David and Keith had received additional professional training in using CMS from the Department of Education Western Australia CM and instructional skill professional learning programs (Department of Education Western Australia, 2014d) and had learned about setting classroom rules and expectations from the course. Each of the other teachers had also implemented a set of classroom rules and routines in consultation with the students. Shirley, Natalie, Chloe, Liam and Karen mentioned that initially, despite having discussions with the students, it was very difficult to get them to comply with the classroom rules. Each teacher had found through either trial and error, discussions with other staff, or from re-reading the university text books in the light of their professional experience that they needed to continually and consistently reinforce the rules and apply a consequence if the students did not comply. These strategies are supported by numerous studies including those of Boyce (1997), Partington (2006b), Openshaw (2007) and Trinidad et al. (2012), who found that teaching behavioural expectations and practising routines and procedures is essential for establishing shared CM understandings.

Based on the data collected during phase two, it appeared that all teachers had higher expectations and were more consistent in regards to the application of consequences for

inappropriate student behaviour, than was evident during phase one. Margaret said that she still found the consistent application of a consequence difficult to negotiate as the students in her class were very young and she did not want to be seen as being a 'nasty teacher'. She did, however, acknowledge that she enjoyed teaching much more than earlier in the year when there were no explicit classroom rules and routines in place.

These findings are supported by the work of Emmer et al. (1980), Bennett and Smilanich (1994), Boyce (1997) and Barry and King (1998) who found that many beginning teachers did not understand the importance of establishing routines and shared understandings regarding acceptable classroom behaviour at the start of the school year. The lack of shared behavioural understandings tended to result in disorganised classrooms, an increase in inappropriate student behaviour, and teachers spending more time managing behaviour than on teaching. Research has shown that it is precisely such factors that ultimately lead to teachers considering leaving the profession (Australian Education Union, 2006; Buchanan et al., 2013; Standing Committee on Education and Vocational Training, 2007).

At the conclusion of phase two of this research, data analysed indicated that each novice teacher now had an effective range of low-key CMS which they consistently used to quickly and effectively gain and maintain on-task student behaviour. When comparing the CMS used in each phase of the research, it was evident that the majority of low-key CMS used by the beginning teachers remained the same; however, the response by the students to these CMS was significantly different. It appears likely that the low-key CMS used by the teachers are more effective if the conditions for their use are optimised. It seems that the change in response by the students to the use of low-key CMS is due to the positive influence of other factors including consistency, shared understandings of classroom routines, rules and structures and setting high standards for student behaviour.

5.3.2 Effectiveness of classroom management strategies

The Oxford Dictionary of English (2010a) defines effectiveness as: “The degree to which something is successful in producing the desired result”. As such, effective CMS are those which successfully return the students to on-task behaviours (Steere, 1988). Using the latency data displayed in Table 4.15 and 4.25 the effectiveness of each CMS can be determined by comparing how quickly the students return to on-task behaviours, on average, in each phase of the research. It would appear logical that the quicker the students return to on-task behaviour, the more effective is the strategy.

In this research, the arithmetic mean latency time was calculated by the summation of all latency times for each beginning teacher. The summative total was then divided by the total number of times the strategy was used in the first ten minutes of each beginning teacher’s lesson. The off-task incidences where more than one CMS was used to return the student to on-task behaviour was not included in the data as it was impossible to determine which strategy was the effective one. It is feasible that a combination of strategies resulted in the on-task behaviour rather than the last strategy adopted, or that none of the strategies worked and the student decided to return to on-task behaviours regardless of the teacher’s actions. It is important to note that there were no critical incidences during the observation period in each phase of this research and each individual CMS was timed until the student returned to on-task behaviour.

The data collected and displayed in Table 4.15 and 4.25 shows the average latency of the off-task behaviour, for each CMS, has decreased between the two research phases. The reduction in average latency times indicates that the students returned to on-task behaviour more quickly in phase two than in phase one. It would therefore appear reasonable to assume that the strategies were more effective in phase two. By way of example, the average latency

time for using The Look decreased by almost one half from 7.2 seconds to 3.7 seconds, as did using the student's name, which returned the students to on-task behaviour in an average of 4.2 seconds compared with 7.2 seconds in phase one of the research. In isolation, a reduction in the latency time of 3.0 seconds may not appear to be significant; however, with the increased effectiveness of each strategy from phase one to phase two, there is a commensurate decrease in time used on applying low-key CMS thus allowing more time to be spent on teaching. The data displayed in Table 4.6 reveals that Karen reduced the time spent on CMS from 6.5 minutes to just under 2 minutes enabling an extra 4.5 minutes to be spent on teaching. Emma reduced the time spent on CMS from just over 2 minutes to 43 seconds, again increasing the time for teaching. This trend was repeated by all beginning teachers. It is also important to note, that such an increase in teaching time was observed in only one lesson. It is reasonable to assume that this increase would promulgate into other lessons throughout the day and week, thus leading to significantly more time for teaching rather than CM issues.

The strategy used by the teachers the most frequently in both phases of the research was Calling the Student's Name. Three possible reasons for the popularity of this strategy include its specific targeting of the off-task student; its utility in terms of speed and ease of use; and it did not interrupt other students' learning, as they knew at whom the CMS was being targeted. The two strategies which took the longest to return students to on-task behaviour in phase one were the same strategies in phase two. These strategies were Deal with the Problem not the Student and Purposeful Ignoring. Despite having the longest average latency time of all CMS, there was a reduction in latency time for both strategies in phase two of the research. The average latency time for Deal with the Problem not the Student was reduced by 24.1 seconds and the average latency time for Purposeful Ignoring was reduced by 5.3 seconds. From data collected in the second phase of research these two

CMS were also the least used ones. This could be due to the teachers recognising that other CMS were quicker at returning students to on-task behaviour and consequently were more effective or because these strategies had very limited success during phase one of the research and the teachers were still not confident to use them.

While the latency of each CMS decreased, the number of times that CMS were used in the first ten minutes of the lessons increased from a total of 440 times in phase one to a total of 569 times in phase two. As an example, the use of the Pause increased from 54 instances in phase one to 96 instances in phase two, with a corresponding reduction in the average latency time of 2.2 seconds. The increase in the frequency of the CMS may indicate that the beginning teachers are more proactive and confident in their use of this CMS. Rather than wait for the students to display off-task behaviours, the teachers appeared to be able to interpret the actions and behaviours of the students and use a CMS as a preventative tool to minimise time being spent off-task by the students.

In summary, it is evident that in phase two of this study the CMS used by the beginning teachers were significantly more effective than in phase one. The average latency time for each CMS decreased as the students responded faster, thus increasing the time available for teaching and learning. Each teacher demonstrated proactive behaviours to reduce the number of off-task behaviours as evidenced by the increase in the number of instances that each CMS was used in the first ten minutes of the lesson. The use of proactive behaviours demonstrates that the beginning teachers had developed a level of 'with-it-ness' (Kounin, 1970) which enabled them to monitor the students actions and address potential problems prior to any off-task behaviour occurring.

5.3.3 Effectiveness of CMS with Indigenous students.

This section of the chapter interprets the findings from the data regarding the beginning teachers' use of CMS with Indigenous students with the aim of addressing research question three. During this research a number of insights, with direct relevance to CM and Indigenous students, were identified.

From observations made during phase one of this research, it appeared that the CMS used by the beginning teachers were ineffective with both Indigenous and non-Indigenous students, as no student consistently complied with the CMS. There were, however, differences in the average rates of response to different CMS dependent upon whether the student was Indigenous or non-Indigenous. Data displayed in Table 4.15 indicates that during phase one, Indigenous students responded more quickly to the use of Physical Contact, Proximity and the Signal to Begin than to any other CMS. Non-Indigenous students also responded quickly to the use of Proximity and Physical Contact, however, they also reacted quickly to The Look. Based on the data collected, it is evident that Indigenous students do not respond as quickly as non-Indigenous students to The Look. One possible reason for this result is that direct eye contact and staring is not part of some Aboriginal cultures (Charles Sturt University, n.d.; Department of Education and Early Childhood Development, 2007). In fact, looking downward when one is being reprimanded is seen as a mark of respect in some Australian Indigenous tribes (Charles Sturt University, n.d.; Harris & Malin, 1994; Stafford, 2012). As such, it may be more difficult for Indigenous students to interpret the message associated with The Look, leading to a longer average response time.

During the phase one interviews conducted with David and Keith, they both mentioned that during their practica they had been told not to have contact with students. As a result they avoided having any physical contact with the students in their own classrooms,

despite evidence collected in this research, which found that Indigenous students respond positively to Physical Contact. Table 4.26 confirms that Indigenous students took 3.0 seconds to return to on-task behaviours when Physical Contact was used, which is the fastest response rate to any of the low-key CMS. Margaret, Shirley and Emma each mentioned that many of the Indigenous students enjoyed having a hug during story time or before school and that most of the Indigenous students in their class were highly tactile, which is a common trait among Indigenous people (Judicial Commission of New South Wales, 2006). Each teacher was observed to take Indigenous students by the hand and lead them to another activity in the classroom if the student was not on-task. Using Physical Contact appeared to be effective with the Indigenous students as they settled down and engaged in on-task behaviour with another learning activity.

As previously identified, the CMS Deal with the Problem not the Student and Purposeful Ignoring took both Indigenous and non-Indigenous students the longest average time to return to on-task behaviour. Indigenous students took one minute longer, on average, than non-Indigenous students to return to on-task behaviour when the teacher used Deal with the Problem not the Student. From the observations made during phase one, it appeared that when the teacher used Deal with the Problem not the Student, the Indigenous students engaged the teacher in a conversation about other matters that were important to them, rather than the initial issue. Harslett et al. (1999), Partington (2002) and Bishop (2010) identified that positive relationships with the teacher are important to Indigenous students. As such, Indigenous students determine the type of person the teacher is based on their actions. It appears that non-Indigenous students tend to judge the teacher by what they say and do and the expectations they have about each of the students (Barry & King, 1998). In contrast, Indigenous students tend to base their judgements on the reaction they get from the teacher when the student asks the teacher to do something. Such examples include providing writing

materials, sorting out a dispute or organising lunch for the student. Harrison (2011) found that while an issue could appear trivial to the teacher, the way in which the teacher handled the situation gave information to the student about the teacher's personality, which could influence how the Indigenous students engaged with the teacher in the future. It is feasible to suggest that Indigenous students used Deal with the Problem not the Student as an opportunity to personally interact with the teacher in order to make some form of judgement about them.

The length of time required for the personal interaction between the student and teacher may explain why it took Indigenous students one minute longer on average to return to on-task behaviour than their non-Indigenous counterparts. The following incident took place in the Year 4 classroom and demonstrates how the Indigenous student used Deal with the Problem not the Student to alert the teacher to an issue they had. Student A argued with Student B over an eraser. The teacher moved in to assist with the problem. Student A told the teacher they did not have any lunch. The teacher told Student A that they would work out the problem at lunchtime and proceeded to obtain another eraser from his/her own desk. Each student now had an eraser. Student B commenced the learning activity; however, Student A started arguing with Student C about the ownership of a ruler. The teacher again intervened and Student A asked how they would get some lunch. The teacher responded that there were sandwiches in the freezer and they would get Student A one of them at lunchtime. Student A commenced the learning activity and Student C put the ruler inside his/her desk. In this incidence the manifested behaviour appeared to be an indicator of another issue. Once the underlying issue had been resolved, the initial problem was also eliminated.

It was observed during phase one of the research that despite neither Indigenous nor non-Indigenous students consistently complying with teacher requests to return to on-task behaviour, 90% of the beginning teachers applied different standards and did not rebuke

Indigenous students for behaviours for which non-Indigenous students were reprimanded. One incident observed involved students swearing at each other in the Year 4/5 class. The teacher ignored the swearing by the Indigenous student, yet reprimanded the non-Indigenous student when they used the same words. The non-Indigenous student was relocated to a different seat in the classroom and was prevented from going to morning recess as a consequence of their swearing. The Indigenous student did not have any consequences applied. When questioned about the difference in consequences to the same actions, the teacher indicated that she did not know how the Indigenous student would respond. She said that sometimes students reacted positively to the CMS and any consequences applied and sometimes they did not. She mentioned that she had previously been sworn at by some of the Indigenous students and had a chair thrown at her, which she had found very upsetting and so was nervous about using a CMS with Indigenous students. She said that she did not think that the non-Indigenous students would respond aggressively so she challenged their off-task behaviours first. It is possible that the teacher used her own Anglo cultural knowledge to read the body language and actions of the Anglo students but did not have this advantage when relating to Indigenous students. As a result, she was able to determine that applying a consequence would not result in aggressive behaviours by the non-Indigenous student.

It is unfortunate that such an action was taken by the teacher as it may be perceived by the students as being inequitable or unfair to the non-Indigenous student. Based on the findings of this research, it is evident that Indigenous students respond positively to a range of CMS which the teacher could have used to intervene in the swearing incident. The teacher does not need to use the same CMS or the same consequence for the Indigenous and non-Indigenous student, as students respond differently to different intervention strategies. However, in terms of equity and fairness, the outcome of the teacher intervention should have been that both students stopped swearing and a consequence applied to each of them, rather

than just the non-Indigenous student. This behaviour by the teacher, although based on fear of the students' reactions, sends a message to the students that the teacher is not equitable or fair, or worse still, that she is fearful of some students. Consequently, the teacher may find it difficult to build positive relationships with the students if they are unsure of how the teacher will react to a given incident.

In phase two of the research, there was a significant decrease in the average times that it took both Indigenous and non-Indigenous students to return to on-task behaviour after a CMS had been applied. Indigenous students responded fastest to the use of Physical Contact, Proximity and using the student's name. Non-Indigenous students continued to respond quickly to the use of Physical Contact, The Look and Proximity while Indigenous students now responded quickly to calling their name rather than the Signal to Begin.

The change in the responsiveness to the CMS may be the result of the Indigenous students recognising that when they hear their name it indicates they should commence on-task behaviours. In phase one, when there were no shared understandings regarding classroom rules, structures and routines, it is possible the teachers assumed that the Indigenous students would know what calling their name meant and would respond appropriately. The Anglo teachers may have assumed that Indigenous students would respond in a manner similar to Anglo students, with whom the teacher had a shared cultural background. Additionally, in contrast to how the 'walk of shame' was used during phase one; calling their name is a low-key CMS, which was applied in a manner so as not to 'shame' or embarrass the Indigenous students.

In phase two, Purposeful Ignoring and Deal with the Problem not the Student continued to be the two CMS that on average took the longest time to return the Indigenous students to on-task behaviour. There was, however, a significant reduction of 70 seconds in

the average time, when Deal with the Problem not the Student was used with Indigenous students. From observations made, it appears that in the time since the phase one research was undertaken, the teachers and many of the Indigenous students have developed a positive relationship with each other. It is possible the CMS, Deal with the Problem not the Student enabled the Indigenous students to get to know the teacher's character better, via their actions, and they determined that the teacher was worth engaging with (Harrison, 2011). In other words, a mutual respect was beginning to characterise the student-teacher relationship.

In fact, it was apparent that a positive relationship had developed between the teachers and Indigenous students, as was evidenced by the use of humour and good natured banter that occurred at appropriate times during the lessons. From the observations undertaken in each teacher's classroom, it was evident that as a result of the positive relationships that had developed, Indigenous students were comfortable holding the teacher's hand or gently leaning against the teacher or having contact with their arm. Such actions, however, appeared to be age and gender dependent. For example, older Indigenous males would lean against the teacher when asking a question whereas the younger Indigenous males would touch the teacher's arm or tug at their clothing. Within an Indigenous family the expression of warmth, affection and acceptance are significant behaviours associated with trust and self-esteem (Australian Law Reform Commission, 2014). Through physical displays of affection, the Indigenous student indicated they trusted the teacher and the teacher demonstrated they had accepted the student (Department of Education and Early Childhood Development, 2007). As a result of the positive relationships built, it seemed the students no longer required the CMS Deal with the Problem not the Student as a means of having a chat with the teacher about issues that concerned them. Consequently, there was a significant decrease in the average time to respond to the Deal with the Problem not the Student as the CMS was specifically used to address the obvious issue.

Evidence collected in phase two of the research identified that Purposeful Ignoring remained a problematic CMS in returning Indigenous students to on-task behaviour. Within Indigenous families, personal autonomy and responsibility are valued. As such, many Indigenous students are free to determine their own boundaries and settle their own disputes without adult intervention (Department of Education and Early Childhood Development, 2007). Within the context of the classroom, the use of Purposeful Ignoring may be misinterpreted by the Indigenous student as giving the same message they receive from their family, this is, they can continue with the off-task behaviour until the issue is resolved. The average length of time to respond to Purposeful Ignoring reduced from 62 seconds to 42 seconds; however, it is the CMS that takes the longest time to return Indigenous students to on-task behaviour. Purposeful Ignoring is also the second least frequently used CMS. It is possible that the teachers are aware that this strategy takes longer to be effective than most of the other CMS. Such reasoning is suggested by the fact that the teachers are choosing to use other strategies that return students to on-task behaviour almost immediately, such as Physical Contact, Proximity and name reinforcement. Physical Contact, which is the most effective CMS in gaining compliance to on-task behaviours with Indigenous students, is the third least used CMS by all teachers. One possible explanation for this occurrence could be to avoid any misunderstanding in regards to the teacher-student relationship. The beginning teachers could have made a conscious decision to minimise the use of Physical Contact with the students. As previously identified in this chapter, both David and Keith had been told by mentor teachers not to have any physical contact with students to prevent any misconstruction occurring by the students, other teachers or parents.

Based on the data collected in both phases of this research, it is not evident that the low-key CMS used by the beginning teachers are any less or any more effective with Indigenous students than with the non-Indigenous students in the classroom. As Partington

(2006a) noted, it is not necessary to adopt a different CM approach with non-Aboriginal students, as good CM works with all students. However, the way in which CMS strategies are implemented may determine their overall effectiveness. That is to say, when cultural imperatives are considered, the use of certain CMS strategies may be more efficacious.

One aspect that emerges strongly from the research is that CMS need to be applied consistently. Between the teacher and the Indigenous students, there needs to be a shared understanding of classroom mores. Such an understanding tends to facilitate the building of relationships that have their foundation in trust. Such trust then allows the teacher to have more authentic interactions with the Indigenous students. The teachers cannot simply make the assumption that Indigenous students will respond to CMS based on Anglo behavioural expectations.

5.4 Further Information and Strategies

The aim of the following section is to answer research question four. From the discussions and classroom observations it was apparent that during phase one, each of the teachers was displaying some form of cultural shock. Such shock may have eventuated as a result of the mismatch between Anglo expectations and reality of living and teaching in a remote community. By comparison, during phase two each teacher demonstrated a level of resilience, possibly as the result of the challenges that they had faced and the effect of cultural frame-switching. Information regarding the difficulties faced in remote communities and possible emotional responses to such difficulties, prior to cultural frame-switching, could be considered useful for graduate teachers to be aware of before accepting a teaching position in a remote community.

5.4.1 Cultural shock.

There is a significant body of research (Australian Primary Principals Association, 2007; Department of Education Western Australia, 2014d; Fontaine et al., 2012; Kratochwill, 2012; Macfarlane, 2000) concerning the support requirements of beginning teachers who are placed in schools where the majority of students are from a different cultural background to that of the teacher. Such requirements include targeted mentoring programs, visible and supportive leadership strategies, access to professional learning and being provided with prior knowledge about the community and the importance of the community leaders within the school environment (Lock et al., 2012).

During the phase one interviews, each of the beginning teachers indicated they were aware that the first few years of teaching would be challenging and they expected to work long hours after school and on weekends. It seems there is an accepted and unquestioned ‘contemporary myth’ that all beginning teachers, regardless of the location of the first placement and the culture of the students in the class, will find teaching difficult in the first year. Despite acknowledging that they knew they ‘had to do it tough’ in the first year of teaching, each of the graduate teachers spoke about the disappointment and level of frustration they felt when a lesson did not go as planned. When the lesson did not go as intended, usually due to issues associated with CM, the teachers admitted to feeling angry and five of them questioned why they spent hours developing lessons that the students did not appreciate. It may have been the case that these five teachers had internalised the students’ inappropriate, off-task behaviours and were taking the student’s actions personally. David articulated:

I don’t see why I should spend all my time and effort after school planning lessons which are not appreciated by the students.

Natalie said:

I could have got a job in Perth, but I came here as I wanted to work with Indigenous students, but they don't appreciate what I do.

Given that the beginning teachers believed they 'had to do it tough' in the first few years, they may have accepted the students' inappropriate, off-task behaviours as part of 'doing it tough', despite not being happy about such a situation. It was not evident that the beginning teachers had engaged in self-reflection regarding the difficult circumstances in which they found themselves. There was no acknowledgement or recognition, from any of the beginning teachers, that they possessed the authority and a proven set of CMS that could break the cycle of 'doing it tough'. It appeared that the beginning teachers were apportioning the responsibility for the inappropriate classroom behaviours to the students.

From the data collected, it seems that each of the beginning teachers was experiencing some form of cultural shock. In this research, cultural shock refers to the feeling of disorientation experienced by the beginning teachers as they are displaced from their familiar environment and accustomed manner of transacting relationships (Irwin, 2009). They mentioned that they were feeling anxious, depressed and stressed. The societal markers which they knew and understood had been replaced by an alternate set of signs and symbols which did not correspond to that which they were familiar (Irwin, 2009) and they found themselves being unable to understand or communicate effectively with the local community members (Oberg, 1960).

One of the initial cultural shocks the beginning teachers appear to be experiencing related to the realities associated with the role of the teacher. The teachers appeared to be underprepared in their ability to manage the day-to-day tasks associated with teaching, which tended to lead to a feeling of frustration and anxiety. Daily teaching routines including giving

instructions, monitoring student learning, lining up outside the classroom and stacking chairs at the end of the day tended to be problematic, dependent upon the students' classroom behaviour. It seems that the teachers expected the students to respond to their CMS in the same manner as did the students during their practica. They found that their students persisted in talking, walking around the classroom without permission, listening to music on their mobile phones and becoming argumentative and/or aggressive when confronted. The beginning teachers appeared to be quite dumbfounded as the realisation dawned that they were responsible for teaching the students. Despite the support requirements of beginning teachers being identified by Fontaine et al. (2012), Kratochwill (2012) and Department of Education Western Australia (2014d); in reality, the beginning teachers found there was no one to provide timely back-up, support, or give advice in the classroom when they were experiencing difficulties.

Living in a community where the beginning teachers were part of a cultural minority appeared to challenge the Anglo based beliefs and values that many of the teachers had and contributed to the culture shock they experienced. In the phase one interviews, seven of the beginning teachers mentioned that they had not seen either parent or guardian of some of the Indigenous students in their classroom and they were concerned as they considered parental support to be important for the student's education. Their understanding of parental support and how that differed between Anglo and Indigenous cultures appeared to be causing them some dissonance. The pre-primary teachers commented that it was invariably an older sibling who brought the students to school and collected them at the end of the day. Margaret explained:

In the school I was in on my last prac, all parents had to have an interview with the teacher prior to enrolment. The students would only be accepted into and released

from the classroom to either the parents or a nominated adult. That way we knew that they were safe.

She was further questioned regarding her thoughts about parent involvement in the school:

It's really important to have the parents involved in the school, particularly at this level. They should know what we are doing and what the students are learning. It's also good if they come in and help during the sessions. I really encourage parent involvement in my class and it's pretty disappointing that the Indigenous parents don't want to be involved. I don't even know what the parents look like for most of my students.

Emma mentioned that it was difficult to advise the parent if the student had misbehaved during the day:

I have to send the message home through one of the older children. I don't know if it gets to the parents or not. I tried using a book and writing down what was happening in class, but the book didn't come back. On my last prac the parents signed the book and we communicated that way, but it doesn't work like that up here.

Emma also questioned whether it was ethically correct and legally justifiable to confide issues in an older sibling as she would never have done this on her last practicum:

I don't like telling information about the children to an older brother or sister. I'm not sure that it's legally right. I know they belong to the same family, but I still worry about it. It's the only way I can think of to let parents know how their child is going in this class. I've been told not to make home visits as that's just not done up here so I'm sort of stuck about how to tell parents what is happening.

It would appear that both situations were a challenge to the Anglo cultural practices with which the teachers were familiar. Both of these pre-primary teachers had undertaken an Indigenous education unit at university yet did not demonstrate an awareness of how the Stolen Generations of Aboriginal people and the Assimilation policy had negatively influenced Indigenous peoples' understanding of the Westernised education system (National Sorry Day Committee Inc, 2014). Margaret spoke about the effect that past experiences with education may have had on the parents:

I know that some of them had some really bad experiences, especially if they were taken away from their parents. But it's different today. Schools are not like that anymore. We want them to come to the school and help out. If they came once and saw how much it had changed, they might want to come again.

Emma did not demonstrate an understanding of the Stolen Generations or the pervasive influence it has on Indigenous people:

I mean, the Stolen Generation was a long time ago. Maybe some of the Nanas and Pops of the children in my class were Stolen, but I don't see how that can still influence the parents up here. I think the Stolen Generation was terrible and you can't imagine how awful it would be for the children and parents, but it was a long time ago. We've changed a lot since then.

From the information collected during the phase one interviews, it was apparent that the beginning teachers, despite having undertaken Indigenous education units, demonstrated very little knowledge or appreciation of Indigenous historical, social and health-related issues or of the importance of relationships and families. David talked about some of the health concerns that he had noticed:

I have this girl in my class, she always has a runny nose. It runs all the time down to her top lip. It's disgusting to look at. I don't know why she would have this. She doesn't seem to be sick or ill. I keep having to give her a tissue to blow her nose as she doesn't seem to know it is happening. There is also this other student who had all her hair shaved off the other day, I think she had nits and the family got rid of them by taking off her hair. That's pretty tough. What about getting some nit shampoo, I mean she is a girl and now she's got no hair.

It is possible that the stress associated with the cultural shock that teachers were experiencing may have prevented them from remembering and acting on the information and facts they had learned during their teacher education course. It is also possible that such historical, social and health-related issues were not addressed during the teacher education course and this was the first time they had experienced such real life incidents.

During the first phase of the research, each of the teachers appeared to be unprepared for dealing with the social issues faced by the Indigenous students in their classroom. Poverty within the remote community was only one aspect which the beginning teachers had to come to terms with. There was a range of social issues which the neophyte teachers had to address including suicide, student pregnancies, substance abuse and cultural issues such as coming together to grieve the passing away of a member of the community (Sorry Time). The culture shock felt by the teachers was as a result of exposure to each of these confronting issues with which they had no previous interactions or experiences with, rather than solely as a result of the poverty within the community. David mentioned that it was inappropriate for the students to come to school and fall asleep in his class and that he was annoyed by this as he had spent considerable time after hours preparing what he considered to be interesting lessons.

During the phase one interviews, the teachers talked about relying on other teaching staff to debrief issues that had arisen at school and for emotional support as their fellow teachers were able to empathise with the situations and incidents they were relaying. They had found that their support networks had changed from family and friends situated in the city to other teachers in the school. Oberg (1960) and Jackson (2010) both found that one of the symptoms of cultural shock is the desire for dependence on others who are going through the same experience or those who have lived the same experience. Such is clearly demonstrated by Chloe who said:

My mother doesn't understand what I'm talking about and she can't offer me any help, whereas Natalie [another teacher] is having the same issues and can relate to what I'm saying. I know mum wants to help, but she doesn't understand and sometimes I think she thinks I'm exaggerating and making up stories as she has no idea.

It appears that the constant challenges associated with teaching students from a different culture may have led to the teachers feeling disappointed, frustrated and stressed. Oberg (1960) identified four stages that are usually associated with cultural shock. The honeymoon phase, the frustration phase, the adjustment phase and the mastery phase. While noting that the stages are not necessarily linear (Irwin, 2009), from the comments made by the beginning teachers and the observations of their interactions with the students, it seems as though they are displaying indicators from the frustration stage. The teachers appeared to be disconnected from their environment and frequently talked disparagingly about the differences between their home and the community. They had difficulties understanding the language of the community and the Australian Aboriginal English spoken by students in the classroom. The teachers were worried about health issues such as scabies and head lice and

complained about the lack of facilities including shops and medical provision. Shirley spoke about the limited facilities:

I knew there wouldn't be much up here, but it's really bad. The butcher shop, if you can call it that, sells ice-cream. Really, it does. As if you'd buy an ice-cream from somewhere they sell raw meat. Yuck. Have you been in the store? There is nothing in there that I want. They sell that black and gold home brand type stuff. I don't want to buy that. There's no fruit or 'veggies' and when they do arrive they are already limp and dead and cost a fortune. I'd get my mum to send up some good stuff but that's really expensive as well.

Karen worried about getting head lice:

I hope I don't get nits or anything. There's lots of them going around at the moment. One girl's hair was moving by itself it had so many nits in it. We had to send her home, but they don't have any nit shampoo so she came back the next day with her hair still moving. I didn't know what to do as I want her to come to school but not with hair that's alive. It must be really itchy for her. I've raided the cupboards at school and found some anti-nit shampoo so if I get any I'll be ready for them.

Liam mentioned that he felt like he was in a foreign country:

I just find it really strange that I'm in Australia and don't understand a word that I hear in the local store. A big mob of adults often hang around outside the store and I have no idea what they are saying. I'm pretty sure they are talking about me when I walk past as they all look at me and then laugh. I've been to France before and didn't understand a single thing they said either. It's a bit of a déjà vu feeling.

It appears that as a result of the culture shock being experienced, each of the teachers felt despondent and unhappy about living and working in a remote community. They did not appear to know how to make changes to improve their situation and, during the first phase, it was possible that they were considering leaving teaching if the situation did not improve.

Margaret was quite dejected about the situation she found herself in:

I'm really not happy up here. It's just so hard. I work really hard to have interesting lessons but the students don't listen to me. I go to school then I go home and prepare lessons for the next day then I do it all over again. There's nowhere to go to get away from here, I really feel like I'm stuck in a sort of Groundhog Day. The weather is really hot too. It was 42 degrees the other day and the air-conditioning just doesn't cope with that sort of heat.

5.4.2 Resilience.

With regard to developing resilience, the beginning teachers were asked, during the phase two interviews, if there was any information they would have liked to have known prior to commencing teaching, in a remote location, at the beginning of the year. Each teacher spoke about being firmer in their use of CMS. Keith spoke about not letting students interfere with the learning of others:

Everyone has to do the right thing and not stop the other kids from learning. I don't mind if they sit there and do nothing for a while. Some days they come to school in such a bad mood they can't do anything. They know that I will come and have a little talk with them if they carry on in the classroom. At the start of the year they would come in, bang the desk, swear at other students, push them out of the way and generally be a real nuisance. Now they don't, they know that I'll talk to them and they know that they can't share their bad mood with others.

There was a general consensus from each teacher that they were now much stricter with their CM expectations. Karen explained:

Sometimes I have to wonder what I was thinking at the start of the year. I was so worried about what they would do in the class. It's so odd that I thought that if I was nice to the students they would like me and do as I asked. I was really wrong. Now I don't let them get away with anything and I know they like me and do what I want them to do. Well mostly anyway. It's funny how that works.

They elaborated the need for consistency when using CMS and following through with stated consequences. Shirley spoke about what had happened since the start of the year:

I used to be so stressed when I came in. I never knew what was going to happen. Some days I really felt like crying, it was so bad. They didn't do anything that I asked and really just laughed at me. Now I know not to be scared and to follow up with everything that I say I'm going to do. I never used to do that and the kids knew that. I just pick up everything now, if they're not doing what I ask they better have a good reason. And sometimes they do, but they know that I'm going to be onto them first.

They spoke about explicitly teaching routines and rules and explained their standards to the students so there was a shared understanding. Chloe said:

I can't believe that I expected the students to know what I wanted them to do. I had only just met them, so how could they know what I expected of them.

Emma also elaborated on teaching routines:

I don't know why I didn't teach them how to sit on the mat properly. These are just little people so they wouldn't know what to do unless I teach them. I guess I just

thought it would be like on prac when they knew what had to be done. But I forgot that the [mentor teacher] had taught them all that sort of thing at the start of the year.

Examples of routines and rules that had been explicitly taught and practised with the students included: how to quietly line up; how to give out resources to other students; how to sit on the mat and how to move around the classroom without touching other students.

In phase two, the beginning teachers seemed to be quite confident when using CMS with the students and had an expectation that the students would comply and return to on-task behaviour. They demonstrated that they consistently applied consequences for non-compliance to on-task behaviour. Their confidence was in complete contrast to that displayed during phase one, where the teachers were worried about what responses the students might offer if they insisted on compliance. Margaret, who had the chair thrown at her in term one, elaborated on the issue:

It was really terrible and I was such a mess at the time. But now I joke about it with my friends. I don't think it would ever happen again to me. I just know so much more now and can see when things are brewing so I go in and settle them down. I sometimes wonder if that kid threw the chair as they were angry at me for not giving them boundaries in the classroom. I don't like to think about some of the things I let the students get away with. I sort of want to apologise to them for being such a bad teacher at the start of the year.

Liam spoke about the start of the year and what he would have done differently:

You know on day one I should have gone in, told them about me and where I come from and asked about them. On the first day they listen to you as they are checking you out. When someone spoke out of turn or was silly I should have laid down the

law then. That way they would know that I was onto them. Next year I'll do exactly that and then talk with them about rules and things so there is no excuse for not doing the right thing. If they 'arc' up, I'll just be onto them straight away so they know that I'm the teacher not them.

As previously discussed in this chapter, it appears that as a result of having shared understandings and the consistent application of CMS followed by consequences, positive relationships between the teachers and students in their class had developed. Delpit (2006) claimed that effective teaching begins with the establishment of relationships between the teacher and the student. During phase one, it was evident that the teachers were not consistent in their interactions with the students. It could be mooted that the students off-task behaviour and challenges to the teacher's imputed authority were a test to determine the type of person the teacher was and an attempt to define boundaries. Milner and Tenore (2010) found that disconnections between the students and the teacher shape the students' actions. They found that students see misbehaviour as a way to distance themselves from who they perceive to be uncaring and disrespectful teachers and the cycle of poor behaviour continues despite the teachers' attempts to redress it. Given that the teachers were not consistent in their responses to off-task behaviour, it is possible the students were unwilling to engage in building a relationship with someone in whom they did not have confidence. It appears that trust, respect and a positive relationship developed only after the teacher had demonstrated that they were consistent, reliable and fair in their dealings with the students.

The teachers were asked if knowing about being consistent and deliberately teaching rules and routines to the students at the start of the year would have resulted in CM being less stressful and more effective. While they all agreed that it would have made their life easier, seven teachers said that they still thought that they had to 'do it tough' and learn as they went along. They said they were glad they had gone through the process of learning how to

implement effective CMS. David explained: “I feel like I had to go through it. It’s tough up here, the kids are tough, the community is tough and now I feel like I’m tough enough to belong here.” Natalie spoke about the steep learning curve: “I’ve learned so much, so fast. I feel like I really know how to manage students now. I have wondered if I would be this good if I had stayed in Perth.” They spoke about being able to transfer the skills and knowledge they had learned to other schools in the future. None of the teachers thought they would have the same CM problems at the start of the following school year. Liz said: “I have learned so much, there is no way that I would let the kids behave like that in my class ever again.” Keith explained that while he knew about being consistent, it did not seem important when there was so much else happening in his classroom.

At the start of the year I was struggling to teach and manage the students while coming to terms with living and teaching in a remote location. It was all so different from anything I had ever experienced.

It appeared that each of the beginning teachers was proud of their achievements, both in terms of successfully adapting to living in a remote community and developing positive relationships with the students. As a result of each teacher having endured a range of adverse situations and personal and professional challenges, a more confident, tenacious and skilled teacher had emerged.

The impression conveyed by each beginning teacher is one of developing resilience. From the data collected, it appears likely that the beginning teachers thought that ‘doing it tough’ was ‘par for the course’ of being an early career teacher in a remote community. While ‘doing it tough’ may have been responsible for building resilience in the teachers, it is possible that having high expectations and developing shared understandings regarding rules and routines with the students, earlier in the year; may have resulted in not having to ‘do it

quite so tough'. As the environmental and cultural challenges associated with living in a remote Indigenous community have been identified as being stressful to most Anglo teachers and are immutable, it would seem logical that if beginning teachers had effective CM skills and were enjoying teaching, there would be one less stress factor for them to cope with.

It is evident that each beginning teacher knew a lot more about Indigenous culture and the issues that their students faced on a daily basis, by the time of the second phase of the study. When reminded of his comment about students sleeping in his classroom, David was shocked and questioned whether he really had made the comment. Emma was again queried about the Stolen Generations and her understanding of its relevance in many Indigenous people's life:

I think I understand now how important the Stolen Generations are to the local people. I found out that some of the elders here never saw their sister or brother again. That's terrible; I'd be really devastated not to see my sister again. And they were so young when it happened.

Four of the teachers said that the Indigenous education unit they studied at university did not address any of the challenges that teachers could expect to face when placed in remote communities, such as some students' living conditions. Each teacher talked about situations they had to cope with and in which they had no experience. Instances including alcohol affected parents in the classroom; being verbally abused in the local store; students coming to school in dirty clothes; being attacked by camp dogs; and, students being hungry, were raised. Each teacher appeared to have developed skills and knowledge that they used when dealing with a range of issues which were not specifically school related. Liz said that very little surprised her anymore and she could usually deal with all "curved balls." The teachers mentioned that students would come to school with an issue they needed solving and were

unable to do any school work until the problem was dealt with. Frequently the issue was not school related; however, they needed the help and advice of the teacher, as a ‘sounding board’, to assist in addressing the issue. It appears that due to the positive relationship that had been built, the students now trusted the teacher sufficiently to confide in them and to ask for possible solutions to their issues.

It seems as if the ten neophyte teachers have moved from the frustration phase of the culture shock cycle to the adjustment phase. Each teacher appears to have become accustomed to the norms of the local culture and the perceived negative aspects of the community that were prevalent during phase one of the research, had largely dissipated. In contrast to previous comments made, Liam identified that it was important not to get disheartened if a teaching strategy, game, or activity that had worked in the city did not work in the community. He elaborated that it was essential to keep trying different ideas:

I’ve searched the ‘net’ looking for ideas to use in the classroom. I’ve spent hours and hours looking for things that I think will work. I mean you can’t just give up and let them do what they want. I’ve got a few strategies now that seem to work all the time, it doesn’t matter what we’re doing. Like, instead of reciting the times-table, I use playing cards and they work in pairs, sort of like snap but they have to multiply the numbers together. They really like that.

Johnson et al. (2012) and Slee (2012) found that beginning teachers need to become resilient if they are to have a successful teaching career. The data collected during phase two support this research, as it could be inferred that each of the ten beginning teachers had developed a level of resilience, in the form of personal strengths and skills, which had helped them meet classroom challenges and remain positive. Each beginning teacher had commenced developing a robust teacher identity which had enabled them to remain teaching

the same year level, in the same school. As further evidence of the resilience that had developed, each teacher said they wanted to stay in the same school for the following year.

It appeared that each teacher was more aware of their own personal identity than during the first phase of the research and understood that there were both personal and contextual conditions that affected their daily teaching. Such findings support those of Johnson et al. (2012) who found that beginning teachers' identities are a product of their social and cultural contexts and that teachers' work is complex and unpredictable in nature. Eight of the teachers explicitly mentioned that teaching was becoming easier and they were enjoying it more. Based on classroom observations, it was apparent that the teachers no longer taught through an exclusively Anglo lens but had made changes to the way they operated in the classroom such that it included the cultural background of the students. Liam was asked about his understanding of the local Indigenous language:

Oh yeah, that's right, I didn't understand a thing they were saying at the start of the year. It's a bit different now. Now I know a lot more and try to include some of the words in my teaching. The kids really like that I make an effort and I sometimes ask them to say words to me so that I can learn them and use them. You know I was talking to a mate of mine the other day, who is in Perth, and used a couple of Indigenous words without even thinking about it, he couldn't believe it.

Margaret spoke about incorporating Indigenous events into her teaching:

I now include a lot of Indigenous culture into my teaching. I speak to my Aboriginal Teaching Assistant about what is happening in the community, plus I find out from playing netball with the girls, and we always do something with the children. The other week we went on an excursion. We were reading Sam's Bush Journey and so we went on our bush trip, it was great, the children loved it.

Based on the information provided by the graduate teachers, it appears they have incorporated some of the local Indigenous cultural traits into their teaching. It is possible that such uptake of the local culture occurred without the teachers making a conscious decision to learn it. Given that during first term the teachers seemed to be experiencing culture shock, it could be mooted that over time, as each teacher's resilience increased, so the local culture subconsciously infiltrated their thoughts, values and beliefs and they were accepting of such acculturation.

5.4.3 Cultural frame-switching.

The final section of this chapter describes how the theory of cultural frame-switching emerged from the data through the use of grounded theory. The theory proposes that beginning teachers alter their behaviour, actions and conduct when placed in an environment which is culturally different from their own, so as to encompass the expected cultural norms of the local community. Most beginning teachers come from an Anglo cultural background and, as such, understandably interpret experiences through an Anglo lens. To be accepted by the students in remote community schools, neophyte teachers need to engage in cultural frame-switching. Such a state occurs when the teacher suspends their Anglo-based judgements, perceptions and interpretation of events and starts enacting the community cultural norms and viewing the local conventions as normative.

A substantial body of research has demonstrated that beginning teachers find CM with students who are diverse from their own culture to be problematic and challenging (Australian Education Union, 2006; Beaty-O'Ferrall, Green, & Hanna, 2010; Folds, 1987; Weinstein et al., 2004). From the evidence collected in this research, it appears that there is a connection between cultural frame-switching, CM and the effectiveness of low-key CMS. Evidence suggests that when beginning teachers practise cultural frame-switching, along with

having shared understandings about CM, the CMS (which previously were unable to consistently return students to on-task behaviour) become effective in achieving on-task behaviour.

The information collected during the first phase of the research indicated that the neophyte teachers arrived in the remote communities with a set of CMS which they applied within an Anglo cultural context. Such a context included the use of ‘westernised’ strategies, comprising of extrinsic rewards, encouraging competition between groups of students and using the ‘walk of shame’. As evidenced via the beginning teachers’ quotations in Chapters Four, Five and Six of this study, it was not exclusively CMS that were assessed through an Anglo lens. It is evident that the teachers used their Anglo culture as a basis for their judgements regarding many of the different events that occurred within the community. During phase one, David spoke about the issues associated with attendance at school:

Do you know, on some days I only have one or two students turning up? The rest of them I see after school at the store. I tell them that they have to come to school, but they just laugh and run away. No wonder many of the students in this school are so far behind, they just don’t think that it’s important to turn up and learn.

The majority of CMS used by the classroom teachers in the remote locations were those listed by Bennett and Smilanich (1994) and which have been demonstrated to be effective at returning students to on-task behaviour (Baker, 2005; Barry & King, 1998; Partington, 2006b; Shindler, 2009). Given that there was very little change in the CMS used by the beginning teachers over the period of the research, it is possible that it was the application of the CMS from within an Anglo lens that resulted in the CM difficulties during phase one. The beginning teachers had neglected to understand that while the CMS are effective with both Indigenous and non-Indigenous students, it was the local cultural context

that had an influence on the outcome of the CMS. By changing their own behaviour, via cultural frame-switching, to conform to the cultural norms of the local community, the beginning teachers found a noticeable improvement in the students' responses to the CMS. In the community where Liz taught, local cultural traditions dictate that male and female siblings are unable to have physical contact with each other. Prior to cultural frame-switching, Liz did not understand the issue and used her Anglo lens by which to make sense of the situation:

In term one I didn't know anything about what the kids were allowed and not allowed to do. I wanted the students to hold hands when we played a game. Tamika and Aaron wouldn't hold hands so I told them off and tried to make them hold hands. That was a mistake. I then got them to stand next to somebody else and they held hands with that student. I thought that they were being silly and rude to me so I really told them off. I found out later that sisters and brothers are not allowed to touch each other.

The lack of success with CMS, as evidenced in phase one of the research, along with a limited understanding of the importance of the local cultural context led to the majority of the early career teachers questioning whether they wished to continue teaching. As previously mentioned, during phase one of the research, the beginning teachers complained about the students' inappropriate behaviours in the classroom. The actions and behaviours of the students in their classroom were compared with those of the students they had taught on their last teaching practicum, and they mused about what the difference was. Natalie talked about how the students teased each other a lot:

I thought that they were being really horrible. Sometimes the student was in tears, so I would tell them off for bullying and being mean. It was only later on that Auntie Doreen told me that teasing is used by adults in the community to discipline their

child and that it's ok to tease as it lets the child know their behaviour is not acceptable to the community.

Chloe spoke about the difficulty she had with students' names prior to understanding the local culture:

When I first came up here I thought the names in my class were really strange. It's like they think of the most unusual name they can. I've got a Wanda, Labron, Darcee and Valda and some of them have nick-names as well. At uni, we got told not to call students by their nick-name. Early on in the year I was calling out the roll to see who was here and when I called out Digger's real name, the whole class went quiet and he refused to answer. I didn't know what to do.

She explained that in her community, if the name of a male is the same as his cousin, then he isn't allowed to use it according to kinship. She said that once she had this explained to her, she understood why she could not call certain students the name they were enrolled under. She was able to accept the explanation given to her and use the student's nick-name, thus demonstrating evidence of cultural frame-switching.

From comparing the data via memoing and the constant comparison process (Corbin & Strauss, 2008), in both phases of the study, it seems plausible that if beginning teachers compare the norms of the local community with their own 'westernised' paradigm, they experience a high level of cultural discomfort. Cultural discomfort is characterised by the feelings of awkwardness, uncertainty and uneasiness which can be experienced when associating with or in an unfamiliar culture (Schermerhorn Jr, 2009). It is possible that the beginning teachers articulated the cultural discomfort they were feeling by the phrase 'doing it tough'. 'Doing it tough' seems to be mentioned only when the beginning teachers are talking about how they felt at the start of the year, prior to cultural frame-switching. It was

during such time, when they were learning about the Indigenous cultural norms of their community, where they found their Anglo values and beliefs being professionally and personally challenged. In order to culturally frame-switch, the beginning teachers had to come to terms with the local cultural norms and accept and practise the cultural mores of the community. Early on in the year, David said he was totally unaware of the cultural significance of certain areas around the community:

I had no idea that there were men's places and women's places and that I wasn't allowed to go and visit them. I remember being really annoyed that I couldn't just go out and see everything and had to ask where I was allowed to go. Now I understand that the country belongs to the people here and I'm just a visitor.

Keith had a similar experience, being totally unaware that the actions he took were culturally inappropriate:

We went out to this amazing waterhole, where the rock is right up against the water. I didn't know that I shouldn't have taken a bit of the rock with me. I just wanted a souvenir of the trip. Auntie Lizzie told me later that taking the rock is like stealing from country and that means that you are not going to be trusted in the community. I tell you, once I found that out the next time we went out camping, I took it back.

In this example, Keith demonstrates cultural frame-switching. He shows an acceptance of the local culture and beliefs and made an effort to undo the mistake he made when looking at the world via an Anglo cultural lens. He also used the Indigenous Education Officer's community name rather than her official Anglo birth name, which he said some of the other teachers still used.

Within the context of this research, cultural frame-switching is different from cultural competence which is acquired through training programs and induction. Cultural competence and induction programs tend to provide generic knowledge about working and interacting with Indigenous people. Cultural frame-shifting occurs within the context of the local community, is specific to that community and is something that occurs subconsciously. Through exposure to the mores and values of the local community, the beginning teachers become enculturated rather than learning about and then implementing generic knowledge gained in cultural competence programs.

Cross, Bazron, Dennis, and Issacs (1989) defined cultural competence as “a set of congruent behaviours, attitudes and policies that come together in a system, agency or among professionals; enabling that system, agency or those professionals to work effectively in cross-cultural situation” (p. iv). Based on this definition, cultural competence focuses on the capacity to improve outcomes by integrating culture into the delivery of services; whereas cultural frame-switching involves altering one’s own behaviour, actions and conduct when placed in an environment that is culturally different. According to Kleinman and Benson (2006) cultural competence often conflates culture with race and ethnicity and fails to capture the diversity within a group. In some instances cultural competence can become a checklist of “do’s and don’ts” when interacting with Indigenous people unlike cultural frame-switching which develops naturally and is specific to a local culture.

Cultural competence may be acquired through training programs which provide teachers with generic knowledge regarding incorporating Indigenous cultural, social and linguistic features into the curriculum. It seems that cultural competency training programs, including ‘Our Story’ (Aboriginal Education and Training Council, 1997) run by the Department of Education Western Australia and the Indigenous education units undertaken at

university by five of the beginning teachers, provided information about a ‘generalised’ Indigenous culture. Such approaches are not to be discounted; however, from the data collected by this research, it would appear that the ‘generalised’ cultural competence training failed to provide the catalyst required to enable the beginning teachers to culturally frame-switch. As such, there was no significant difference between those graduate teachers who had studied an Indigenous unit and those who had not, in both the acquisition of cultural competence and the effectiveness of CMS. Such findings are supported by Wild and Anderson (2007) who recommend that generic cultural competence training for non-Indigenous people be revised and Westwood and Westwood (2010), who suggest that cultural competence training programs are inadequate; too broad, and do not address the communication difficulties between Indigenous and non-Indigenous people.

Data collected from the beginning teachers, situated in different Indigenous communities, supports the theory that cultural frame-switching tends to be specific to a local culture and the traditions associated with that particular community. Davidson et al. (2008) found that despite there being much commonality between Indigenous people, equally there is much complexity and diversity which should be reflected when interacting with Indigenous people. One of the commonalities, found within each community, was the Indigenous name for a Kangaroo which was universally known as ‘Marloo’, despite such a word not being part of the local language in any of the communities. Liam spoke of one of the unique language uses that were specific to his community:

Poison means stay away. In my class, Tex is the poison cousin of Jimmy. This means that Tex can’t go near Jimmy and I have to make sure they don’t sit together or anything like that. They know that they can’t be near each other, but sometimes if we have new people to the community they don’t know this sort of thing. Poison isn’t a

bad word, like in our language, it is respectful and just lets you know that they aren't allowed near each other.

He also spoke about using the local language within the classroom:

I try and use the local words when I speak to the students. I found out that some of the words are Kriol, some come from Yawuru and some are Bardi words. I know some of the body parts and colours and names for animals. I quickly found out the rude words, I tell them off for using them in class. They use the word 'churr' up here. Its meaning changes depending on where they use the word. At the end of the sentence it usually means that they are tricking me but at the start [of the sentence] it could mean, what do you think?

Through such discussions, Liam demonstrated evidence of cultural frame-switching. He was attempting to use the local language with the students, thus indicating an acceptance of their language and their family relationships and kinship. It appears the adoption and acceptance of local mores via cultural frame-switching is a personal, individual process, based on each teacher's willingness to uptake the new cultural values, beliefs and understandings.

Teachers can attend cultural competence training, gain knowledge in regards to Indigenous culture and implement Indigenous curricula or culturally competent instruction without culturally frame-switching. Teachers may include Indigenous storytelling, cooking or language in their lessons; however, the inclusion of aspects of Indigenous culture in the classroom could be a perfunctory gesture, with 'westernised' culture remaining the operating paradigm. It was evident during phase one of this research, that the beginning teachers did attempt to incorporate Indigenous culture into their lessons, as had been advised at university, in professional learning programs undertaken prior to their placement, and by other staff

members. Liz talked about how she had attempted to incorporate Indigenous culture into the classroom:

You know I have put up some posters of native Australian animals and Indigenous food and have got the Aboriginal flag on the back wall. I also bought this book about 'Indigenising' the classroom as I thought it would give me some ideas, but it doesn't seem to make any difference.

Shirley said that she had included Indigenous literature in her lessons:

The Western Australian curriculum has a few units of work using Indigenous books as the basis for activities. I chose Goanna Jumps High as the students know what a goanna is. I think they call it something like a Bungarrow [Bungarra] here, but it's the same thing. Anyway it didn't make any difference, they listened to the story and seemed to like it, but they didn't want to do any of the written work.

Students seemed able to identify the 'token Indigenous lessons' and until the teacher engaged in cultural frame-switching and connected with the Indigenous culture, the students continued to display off-task, inappropriate behaviours. Once the teacher demonstrated they were able to culturally frame-switch and exhibited shared understandings based on the local Indigenous culture, positive relationships with the students had a chance to flourish. As identified, such relationships were evident in phase two of study when students were observed holding their teacher's hand, gently leaning against the teacher, stroking the teacher's hair and touching the teacher on the arm or hand to display their affection and trust.

As a result of teachers making changes and incorporating the local mores, rules and structures into their classroom, the students appeared to accept the referent authority of the teacher and in most cases complied with the CMS used by the teacher to return the students

to on-task behaviour. Keith explained how he had adapted classroom routines once he understood the community rules:

There are a few students in my class who are not allowed to touch the same thing at the same time, so they throw it on the floor and then the other person picks it up. They use to do it with books and pencils in the classroom and I've seen them do it with money and food. Once I knew about this rule, I taught them to come out in their groups and collect the book or whatever it is, from the front of the class. This has stopped all the throwing of things on the floor.

Karen also talked about doing things differently and making changes to the way she interacted with the students:

It's no use teaching up here like they do in Perth. I found I have to do things their way and look at the world in a different way. That way I don't get stressed out and the kids know that I care and I'm in it for them.

Chloe agreed about the need to make changes and adapt to the conditions in the local community:

I found that I had to make changes, like when I first came here I wanted the students to line up outside the classroom, but it's just too hot for that and they just muck around, so now they can come in and get a book and read quietly. That works really well.

It seems that as a result of cultural frame-switching, the teachers were now able to read the students' body language, including hand gestures and facial expressions. Karen explained:

When the students want to share something with another one, especially if it involves food, they will drop their hand to their side, turn their hand around and wiggle their

fingers. When I first came here I had no idea what that meant. If the student doesn't want to share, they will turn their eyes upwards and away from the other student. All this happens really quickly and without any sound. I have seen adults do the same in the local store and while I haven't yet started to use these myself, I know a couple of teachers who have.

Emma said that she could see when a student was upset:

They sit there and shake, literally they shake and they stare at the other student who has upset them. I can see who they are looking at, so I try to intervene by talking to the other student. The one who is really upset sometimes won't speak to me. I find out what the problem is and then I can help them sort it out. I've had a couple of fights in the classroom but I now tell them to stop and we have a system where I send a message to the ATA [Aboriginal Teaching Assistant] who will come and take one of them out of the classroom so we can sort it out. Once they cool down it's usually pretty easy to fix the problem.

The teachers were now able to intervene prior to potentially explosive situations and were able to respond should a student display aggressive or confrontational behaviour in the classroom. They spoke about no longer being scared of how the students would react when asked to respond to a CMS. David reflected that he didn't know very much when he first arrived in the community:

Now I look back, I was worried about what the students would do. There are more of them than me. I know now that I should have asked the ATA about the students and families, asked about relationships and how the parents or caregivers discipline their kids. You know, they want their kids to learn and not muck around, they just don't tell you.

Shirley echoed David's words:

I was expecting the students to behave exactly the same as the ones on prac. When they didn't, I thought that they were being rude so I used more strategies and ideas that worked on prac, to make them do as I asked. I was doing it all wrong. Luckily I didn't have anyone throw something at me, but I heard of it happening to other teachers.

There does not appear that there is any specific time-frame in which cultural frame-switching occurs. Indeed in some beginning teachers, it may not occur at all. Once cultural frame-switching occurs it is evident in all interactions between the beginning teacher and the students. There is an explicit, noticeable change in the characteristics of each teacher; inclusive of behaviours, language, gestures, attitude, to be in greater alignment with the cultural mores and norms of the local community. The culture of the local community appears to become embedded within the psyche or worldview of the beginning teacher. Such alignment became evident during phase two of the study. When speaking to the Anglo researcher, the teachers automatically used Indigenous language words and local community gestures to convey meaning. It seems that cultural frame-switching engenders a level of confidence in the teacher's own ability to face difficult situations in the context of the local community.

5.6 Chapter Summary

Findings from this research suggest that there are a number of non-low-key CMS which do not appear to be effective, and in fact may be counterproductive, with Indigenous students. Such strategies include: the teacher raising their voice to give instructions; calling for assistance from the Deputy Principal or another teacher; banging the classroom ruler against the wall; using competition among the students; and, ignoring inappropriate

behaviour. In many instances, the use of ineffective CMS tends to exacerbate the situation. As a result of cultural frame-switching, the teachers were able to effectively use a range of low-key CMS which efficiently returned students to on-task behaviour as indicated in Table 4.6. Prior to cultural frame-switching the neophyte teachers used the low-key CMS, however, they were ineffective due not applying them in a manner which was aligned with community mores. This research supports the findings of Weinstein et al. (2004) who identified that teachers needed to have a knowledge of students' cultural backgrounds if teaching effectiveness was to be enhanced. Consequently, prior to cultural frame-switching, beginning teachers may inappropriately judge culturally defined actions, such as walking away when being spoken to or not looking the teacher in the eye, as being tantamount to resistance.

During phase one of the research, prior to cultural frame-switching, the beginning teachers used the same low-key CMS as they used after cultural-frame switching, as displayed in Table 4.15 and 4.25. Data in Table 4.16 displays the arithmetic mean time to return students to on-task behaviours for each low-key CMS in phase one. Table 4.25 shows the arithmetic mean time to return students to on-task behaviour for each low-key CMS in phase two. The arithmetic mean time displayed in the tables for each of the low-key CMS was reduced in phase two. By comparing the mean and median times between the two phases, it can be seen that prior to cultural code-switching, the CMS strategies were ineffective when compared to the results achieved in phase two; after cultural code-switching.

Figure 6.3 illustrates the influence of cultural frame-switching on CMS. If the beginning teachers do not culturally frame-switch then CMS become the base of the effective pedagogy triangle. Data collected in phase one of this research suggests that CMS are not an

effective base for Indigenous pedagogy as they are ineffectual without the addition of cultural frame-switching.

It appears that prior to CMS being effective, the teacher has to introduce and reinforce routines and class structures so that shared understandings regarding behavioural expectations are established. This research indicates that the low-key CMS (Bennett & Smilanich, 1994) used by the neophyte teachers are equally effective with Indigenous and non-Indigenous students. Specifically, all students respond positively and quickly to the CMS of Physical Contact and Calling the Student's Name.

In addition to having shared behavioural understandings, it appears that the beginning teachers had to engage in cultural frame-switching to demonstrate their acceptance and understanding of the cultural characteristics, features and behaviours of the local community. In doing so, the teachers were able to commence building positive relationships, based on trust, with the students as they now had some cultural understandings in common. However, it should be noted that prior to cultural frame-switching, it was evident that the beginning teachers went through a phase of cultural shock where there was little, if any, acceptance of the remote community norms nor any evidence of cultural understandings. It was during this cultural shock phase that all neophyte teachers struggled with CMS in their classrooms.

The uptake of cultural frame-switching by the Anglo neophyte teachers could be interpreted as a measurement of the performance of the Anglo neophyte teachers. During phase one of the research, the comments by the neophyte teachers could be interpreted to indicate that they placed the cause of their cultural shock and consequent emotional upheaval on unfamiliarity with community social mores, including language, values, home environment and parenting skills (White, 2014). Such comments could be seen to align with a cultural deficit model, as comparisons made tended to be based on the standards and social

mores associated with each of the beginning teachers Anglo background (Song & Pyon, 2008). It would appear that during phase one, the influence of the beginning teacher's own culture and their beliefs about other cultures may have affected their educational decision-making.

By contrast, during phase two, after cultural frame-switching, the teachers embraced the cultural norms of the community. Deficit-based language was no longer in use and it could be interpreted that rather than applying a deficit model to the differences between their Anglo background and that of the community, the beginning teachers had moved to a culturally diverse mindset where differences between the Anglo and Indigenous cultures were valued (Hickling-Hudson, 2005). The following chapter draws together the findings from both phases of this research and makes a number of recommendations for practice.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

6.1 Introduction

The purpose of this research was to investigate the nexus between beginning teachers, Indigenous students and classroom management (CM) in the Kimberley region of Western Australia. This research is a qualitatively-based study situated within the interpretivist paradigm. Data was gathered on two separate occasions using the ethnographic research techniques of a semi-structured interview and field observations. Specifically this research set out to investigate the following four questions:

1. What classroom management strategies are used by beginning teachers to return students in Kimberley classrooms to on-task behaviours?
2. How effective are these strategies at returning students to on-task behaviours?
3. Is there a difference in the effectiveness of the classroom management strategies used between Indigenous and non-Indigenous students?
4. What information and strategies would graduate teachers like to have been exposed to in their teacher education course in order to more effectively manage primary classrooms in the Kimberley region of Western Australia?

After analysing the data via memoing and the constant comparison process, it became evident that the research questions were not discrete, in that the responses to each question from the graduate teachers, informed the other questions. As such, each of the research questions contributed to identifying what novice teachers can do in a culturally diverse classroom so that classroom management strategies (CMS) are more effective and relationships with Indigenous students are developed and maintained.

This chapter draws together the research findings and makes a number of recommendations for practice. Potential limitations associated with this research are then discussed and areas for future research highlighted. Finally, a research conclusion is generated.

6.2 Summary of Findings

This research has identified that to be an effective teacher of Indigenous students in Kimberley schools, the beginning teacher would do well to understand and embrace cultural frame-switching. From the data collected and interpreted using grounded theory methodology; it appears that cultural frame-switching is contingent upon teacher experience. From data collected in this research, it appears that the more exposure beginning teachers have to local community behaviours, actions and norms, i.e knowing what works within the community, the quicker they culturally frame-switch. The recommendations from this research are aimed at increasing pre-service teachers' exposure to Indigenous students in order to expedite cultural frame-switching once teachers are located in remote communities.

Once the beginning teacher culturally frame-switches, a positive relationship between the teacher and student can be established. Gay (2002); Brown (2005); Bondy et al. (2007) and Milner and Tenore (2010) attested to the importance of building and maintaining positive relationships in relation to effective CM, noting that students will engage in respectful relationships once they know that the teacher cares about them and trusts them. This research establishes that when teachers make the cultural frame-shift, students respond positively in terms of their interactions with their teacher.

It is evident that neophyte teachers, prior to cultural frame-switching, had very little cultural background in common with the Indigenous students in their classroom. Such a

situation is illustrated in Figure 6.1. After cultural frame-switching occurs an integrative relationship is established between the students and neophyte teacher, as illustrated in Figure 6.2. The teacher now has a number of cultural contexts in common with the Indigenous students, including cultural understandings, local traditions and language nuances, all of which lead to greater cultural connectedness.

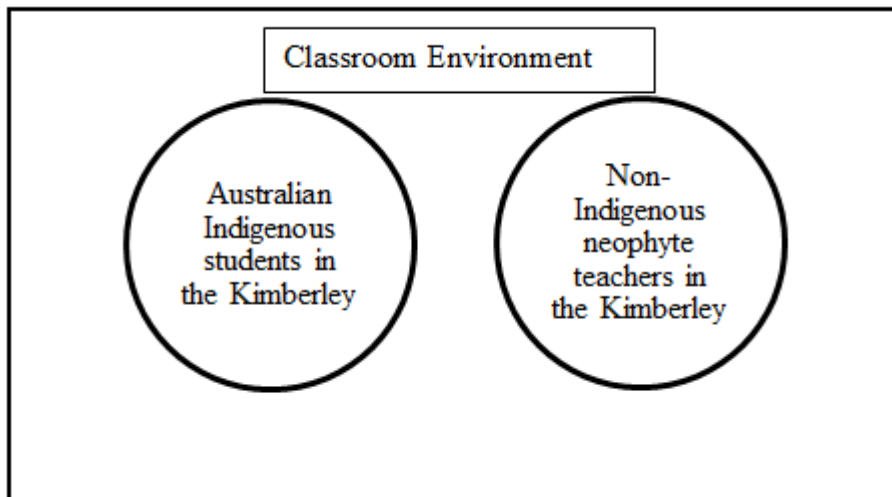


Figure 6.1. Proximal position of neophyte teachers and Indigenous students prior to cultural frame-switching.

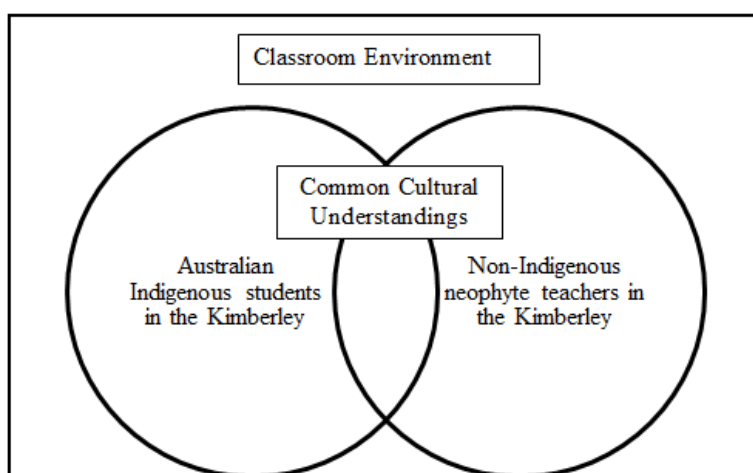


Figure 6.2. Integrative position of neophyte teachers and Indigenous students post cultural frame-switching.

This research suggests that a relationship exists between the effectiveness of CMS used by novice teachers and their uptake of cultural frame-switching. Once cultural frame-switching occurred it was evident that the low-key CMS were equally effective with both Australian Indigenous and non-Indigenous students in Kimberley classrooms. It did not appear that one set of CMS were more effective with Indigenous Australian students and another set of CMS more effective with a different cultural group. This research goes some way to answering one of the questions posed by Weinstein et al. (2004), namely, that an area for future research might be to determine whether CMS are more effective when scrutinised in terms of a cultural group.

This research also found that for CMS to be effective, the teacher must explicitly establish, teach and practise classroom rules and procedures. Oliver and Reschly (2007) maintained that teaching rules and routines to organise the classroom allows the classroom to function more efficiently. This claim was corroborated conclusively by the differences observed in the classrooms between the two phases of this study. In the first phase, where little importance was placed on classroom rules and structures, it was extremely difficult for the beginning teacher to get the students to comply with their instructions. In phase two of the research, after cultural frame-switching and classroom rules and routines had been practised, students complied with the teachers' requests more rapidly. This research also supports the findings by Brown (2004) who suggested that teachers have to establish and communicate their expectations as a precursor to effective CM.

In a familiar model, Maslow (1968) proposed that in regard to human needs, a hierarchy might be established. A similar hierarchy appears to hold true for the effective CM of Indigenous students in the Kimberley. Whereas Maslow saw physiological needs as being pre-eminent, in a similar vein and with regard to the classroom, cultural frame-switching is presented as the foundation upon which effective CM is premised (Figure 6.3). If cultural

frame-switching does not occur, then CMS tend to be ineffective. Likewise, without effective CMS, pedagogical strategies such as instructional skills and teaching strategies are unlikely to be productive. Similarly, while it is important for the curriculum to be culturally appropriate and pitched at a realistic level, without the necessary pedagogical strategies, it would be difficult for the curriculum content to be transmitted. Conversely, if novice teachers culturally frame-switch and acknowledge the local cultural knowledge, value and traditions, then each of the levels of the suggested classroom management pyramid for effective pedagogy appear to operate synchronously.

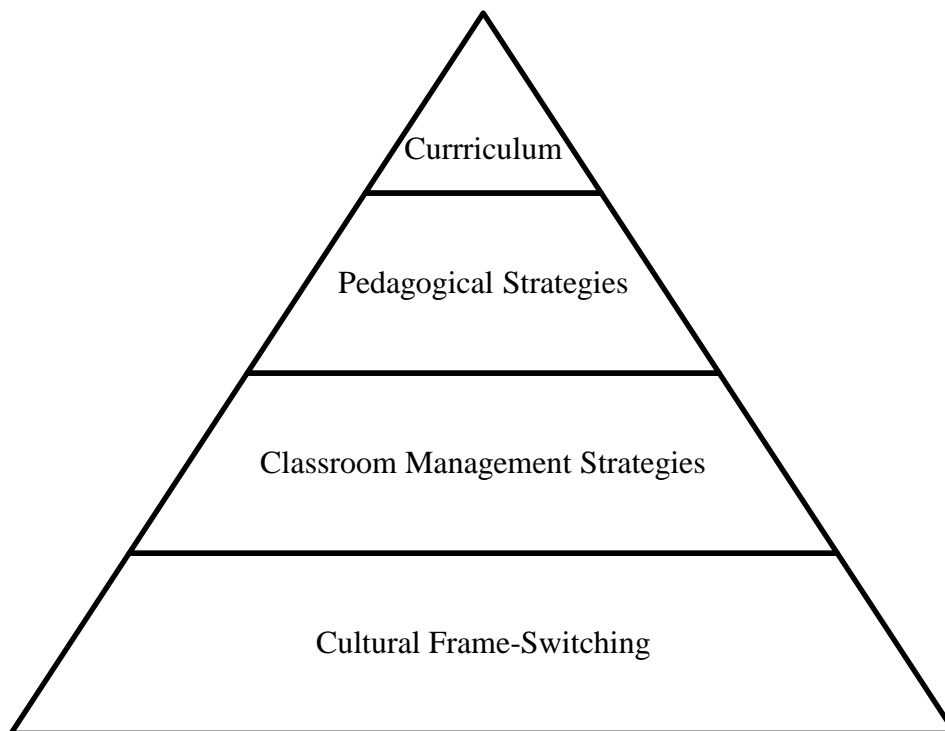


Figure 6.3. A research generated classroom management pyramid for effective pedagogy in a culturally diverse context.

6.3 Recommendations for Practice

It appears that cultural frame-switching is specific to a local culture and community, rather than attained as the result of ‘generalised’ cultural competence training programs or

units of study at university. Given that there are at least 30 different tribes represented in Kimberley communities (Save the Kimberley, 2014), it would be virtually impossible for teacher education programs to provide pre-service teachers with the specific cultural knowledge they require to culturally frame-switch for each tribe. However, teacher education programs could provide pre-service teachers with some of the broader principles necessary for expediting cultural frame-switching. In other words, they might provide strategies and approaches required for developing a frame-switching protocol that is independent of cultural imperatives. Components of such provision may include but are not limited to the following:

- Exposing pre-service teachers to Aboriginal dialects so as to inform them that such dialects are not ‘bad’ English.
- Providing information regarding the importance of *country* and that everything in *country* has a story.
- Recognising that the local community will not do, see or interpret events in the same manner as will those with an Anglo background.
- Appreciating that gaining community-specific cultural knowledge is a privilege, not an entitlement.
- Acknowledging that traditional roles and sites are very important and it may not be culturally appropriate for non-Indigenous people to visit them.
- Realising the role that families play within the community. Specifically that family is more important than school and it is based on complex and highly sophisticated relationships.
- Accepting that there are some issues that the beginning teacher will never find out about due to cultural prohibitions.
- Emphasising the need for forming a positive working relationship with the Aboriginal Education Workers.

- Emphasising the importance of getting to know the community leaders early, as this will help with establishing credibility.
- Critically interrogating those Anglo CMS that appear to offend.
- Provide opportunities to examine biases and assumptions.
- Practice teaching Indigenous students.

For example, pre-service teachers need to understand that country is very important to Indigenous people. The notion is central to their spiritual, economic, social and political wellbeing and is the basis of their culture, heritage and identity (Ganesharajah, 2009). Different parts of country are the homeland for different Indigenous groups. Indigenous people have a connection to country through lines of descent, both paternal and maternal, as well as clans and language groups. Dodson (2007) explained that when Indigenous people talk about ‘country’ it does not necessarily mean a place on the map, but the whole landscape and the feeling that is associated with it.

In an attempt to alleviate beginning teachers’ ‘ordeal by fire’, when placed in a remote Indigenous community in the Kimberley, five key recommendations for future teacher education practice are presented below.

6.3.1 Increase the opportunities for pre-service teachers to undertake a practicum in a remote or regional location.

Providing pre-service teachers with numerous opportunities to work with Indigenous students is likely to facilitate the development of the cultural understandings and knowledge required to successfully culturally frame-switch. Such opportunities could include undertaking a practicum in a remote or regional school. It is evident that in some Western Australian teacher education courses, pre-service teachers do have the opportunity to attend a

practicum in a remote location; however, this does not appear to be an opportunity afforded to all.

Harrington and Brasche (2011) found that while many beginning teachers possess the essential skills necessary to meet the requirements for teacher registration, they lack the experience, maturity and cultural awareness necessary to adapt to the remote community's social and cultural landscape. A remote practicum would give pre-service teachers experience in teaching Indigenous students, in living in a remote community and learning about Indigenous culture, thereby enabling them to accept or reject a remote teaching appointment from an informed position.

It is worth noting that in 2013, 52 pre-service teachers undertook their final practicum in one of four remote regions within Western Australia, including the Kimberley. Of this number, 31 beginning teachers were appointed to schools in rural and remote locations in 2014 (Department of Education Western Australia, 2014e). It appears that from the knowledge gained via the final practicum, the beginning teachers were able to accept or reject teaching appointments in remote locations based on their experience. The effect of Recommendation 1 is likely to result in a reduction in the attrition rate of beginning teachers in remote communities.

6.3.2 Incorporate field trips into teacher education courses.

To expand the opportunities for pre-service teachers to work with Indigenous students, field trips to remote communities could be incorporated into teacher education courses. Within the context of this research, a field trip is a short-term supervised excursion. Field trips would enable pre-service teachers to visit remote communities and 'sample' what it would be like to live and teach in such a location. Sharplin (2010) found that field trips shaped the pre-service teachers' understandings of teaching in rural and remote locations and

enabled pre-service teachers to make an informed decision about whether they could teach in such a location. Trinidad, Sharplin, Ledger, and Broadley (2014) also identified that a field trip allayed many of the pre-service teachers' fears regarding placement in a remote community and highlighted the differences between the pre-service teachers' perceived views about remote teaching and the realities obtained through the field trip.

6.3.3 Provide pre-service teachers with experiences relevant to teaching

Indigenous students within Indigenous education units.

In contrast to the curriculum based units identified in recommendation 6.3.4 Indigenous education units could expose pre-service teachers to both practical experiences and the development of knowledge about Indigenous culture, cultural identity, languages and Indigenous history in order to expedite cultural frame-switching. Based on the information provided on university websites, it appears that the main focus of Indigenous education units is associated with the 'theory' of teaching Indigenous students. While this information is important and necessary for beginning teachers who teach Indigenous students, the results of this research suggest that until cultural frame-switching occurs, such knowledge does not appear to be of value. Such findings are supported by Moreton-Robinson et al. (2012) who question the wide-spread belief that Aboriginal studies is the best pedagogical approach for imparting pre-service teachers with the requisite knowledge to teach Indigenous students.

Realignment of Indigenous education units could include providing information regarding the dominance of Anglo culture within the education system and the consequences of applying an Anglo curriculum and Anglo based CMS exclusive of the local community context. Issues such as the 'missionary role' where the dominant Anglo culture is seen as being privileged and teaching is undertaken from a position of superiority (Kim, 2015), the inappropriateness of deficit comparisons between the neophyte teachers familiar Anglo

environment and Indigenous community environment (Song & Pyon, 2008; White, 2014) and the inappropriate use of deficit language could be included within the curriculum.

It appears that in much of teacher education research, the deficit model is used as an explanation as to why Anglo teachers may be unsuccessful in meeting the needs of Indigenous students (Schulte, 2008). Through realignment of the Indigenous education units and curriculum units, pre-service teachers could be exposed to Indigenous students and the cultural mores of remote communities while at university, including the different communication styles, cultural markers and nuances of Indigenous languages and how they reflect the local cultural practices and values. One further way to provide practical experiences related to teaching Indigenous students could be to establish partnerships with remote community schools. Pre-service teachers would be able to teach Indigenous students via the Internet. Such an experience would provide the pre-service teachers with experiences which they would be unable to access in a more theoretical based unit.

6.3.4 Increase the learning opportunities related to Indigenous education for pre-service teachers.

In addition to the previous recommendations, if pre-service teachers are unable to experience a practicum in remote communities, they could be exposed to Indigenous cultural nuances through embedding culturally relevant information in teacher education units. The structure of teacher education courses delivered by the universities in Western Australia include units concerning the theory, practice and management of teaching as well as the curriculum taught in schools (Curtin University, 2015; Edith Cowan University, 2015; Murdoch University, 2015; The University of Notre Dame, 2015; The University of Western Australia, 2015). It is within the context of such curriculum units that culturally relevant information could be embedded. Mathematics units, for example, could identify that in Kriol

language used in the Kimberley, there are no word clusters therefore mathematical concepts such as ‘more than’ or ‘less than’ are difficult to understand for Kriol speaking students. Such information including how to deliver mathematical learning experiences which have relevance to the local family and community could also be part of the instruction within the mathematics unit (Morris & Thomas, 2013). Further, through engaging in Indigenous literature within English units, such as *A Most Peculiar Act* (Munkara, 2014), which looks at the Stolen Generations and the Aboriginal Protection Act, or *Us Mob Walawurru* (Wilyuka & Spillman, 2006), which discusses the different cultural expectations and understandings of a non-Indigenous teacher and an Indigenous student, pre-service teachers could experience vicariously some of the issues associated with teaching Indigenous students.

Bondy et al. (2007) identified that teacher education courses tend not to provide enough information, knowledge or skills which enable novice teachers to cope with student behaviour that appears to be disrespectful when viewed through the Anglo teacher’s lens. As previously mentioned, pre-service teachers learning opportunities could be enhanced by creating partnerships with remote community schools so as to facilitate a greater awareness and understanding of the differences between Anglo and Indigenous cultures. Graduate teachers located in such schools could share their experiences via web conferencing and email to provide pre-service teachers with information about the issues and difficulties they face and how they are attempting to address such concerns. Novice teachers could also provide first-hand information about the benefits of teaching in remote locations and report on the rewards and challenges associated with such a placement.

6.3.5 Provide beginning teachers with a list of information to collect upon arrival in a remote community.

Upon arrival at an Indigenous community, beginning teachers need to garner information in regards to the local nuances, values and recognised behaviours so as to commence learning about the local culture. One way this information can be obtained is through asking questions of staff at the school. As most beginning teachers will not have had the opportunity to teach Indigenous students or learn about Indigenous culture during practica, they may not know what type of information to collect. Within the context of Indigenous education units, a checklist of relevant information to collect could be provided (Weinstein et al., 2004) to assist graduate teachers in learning about the local cultural mores and so expedite the cultural frame-switching process. Relevant information that could be collected includes:

- The family background and structure of the families of the students in the class, including who the authority figure is in each family.
- The cultural norms of the community and whether the community operates as a collective group or a disparate collection of individuals.
- The community leaders and the role that each leader plays within the community.
- How parents, family members and the community apply discipline.
- Examples of the local language and any nuances of the language, including swear words and local sayings.
- The role that religion plays within the community. This is particularly relevant in the Kimberley where just over 9500 residents identify as Catholic (Australian Bureau of

Statistics, 2011c) and where there are 13 Catholic schools within the region (Catholic Education Office of Western Australia, n.d).

- Other support networks available within the community including police, local health workers, the local store manager and the relationship between these networks and the Indigenous community.
- Issues associated with poverty, health, alcohol, drug or sexual abuse within the community and how these factors affect the students in the classroom.

The above five recommendations could serve to strengthen the pre-service teacher experience in regard to teaching Indigenous students. They would hopefully reduce the attrition rate of novice teachers leaving the profession, as the novice teacher would have had some form of experience in teaching Indigenous students and therefore be able to make an informed decision about accepting a placement in a remote location.

6.4 Potential limitations of the Research

This research was undertaken within the Kimberley district of Western Australia and as such has specific reference to the Indigenous communities found within that region. Given the narrow focus within one geographical district, it would be difficult to generalise the findings to other Indigenous cultures either within Australia or in other countries. Further studies may seek to determine if the findings of this research are valid with other Indigenous groups in Australia or overseas.

Within the context of this research, the length of time spent with each teacher may be seen as a limitation. A total of up to six hours was spent observing and interviewing each teacher on two separate occasions. It could be argued that the duration of time is not extensive; however, analysis indicates this to be sufficient in terms of gathering the data

required to address the research questions. Nevertheless, a more extensive incursion may yield richer data for a more fine-grained analysis. Such research may lead to insights that were not captured in the present study.

The number of beginning teachers taking part in the research may also be seen as a limitation, even though the novice teachers were distributed throughout the Kimberley district in remote locations, small towns and in the major urban centre. A well-funded future study may yield more comprehensive and representative results than those emerging from this limited study.

The interpretation of the data by the researcher, through an Anglo lens, may be seen as a limitation of this research. Further diversity and cultural understandings would likely arise as a result of an examination of the data through an Indigenous lens.

One further potential limitation of this research concerns the potential subjectivity of the researcher. This limitation is particularly relevant in grounded theory methodology as the researcher is part of the research. Charmaz (2006) wrote that no researcher can remain completely objective. Additionally, (Glaser (1998)) does not assume the naive objectivity of the researcher, but contends that through the application of the constant comparison process, researcher biases are revealed and hopefully controlled. One suggestion for managing any potential subjectivity may involve using a research team rather than having a single researcher gathering and interpreting the data.

6.5 Future Research

Given that there is scant research on the relationship between CM, Indigenous students and neophyte teachers in remote locations, there are a number of questions arising from this research for future investigation.

1. Can cultural frame-switching be facilitated via teacher education courses or is there credence to ‘doing it tough’ in the teacher’s first placement within a different cultural context? Further research could investigate if pre-service teachers culturally frame-switch when placed in culturally diverse communities during teaching practica or if there is a time frame, associated with the length of exposure to different cultures, which is necessary prior to cultural frame-switching occurring.

2. Despite cultural frame-switching presenting as being unique to a local remote community, when a teacher moves to another remote location, is the teacher able to adapt and use their cultural repository within a new context or do they have to ‘do it tough’ again? Additional research could examine whether a teacher, who demonstrates cultural frame-switching within one remote community, acclimatises to the unique cultural mores of a different community and quickly incorporates such mores into their interactions with the community.

3. Can Anglo teacher educators, with limited experience in teaching Indigenous students, provide pre-service teachers with the knowledge and skills to facilitate cultural frame-switching? There is scope for future research to investigate whether teacher educators who are from a culturally similar background to pre-service teachers are able to provide the cultural experiences from which cultural frame-switching might occur.

6.6 Conclusion

The findings of this research indicate that cultural frame-switching is the foundation upon which the effectiveness of CMS, other pedagogical strategies and curriculum choices rests upon (Figure 6.3). Prior to engaging in cultural frame-switching, beginning teachers situated in the Kimberley region found that CMS were typically ineffectual, resulting in significant teaching time being lost.

The research has shown that once the graduate teachers displayed evidence of cultural frame-switching, classroom rules and routines were able to be introduced, shared understandings regarding behaviour expectations established, and a range of CMS that aligned with the local culture engaged to redirect off-task behaviours. Cultural frame-switching also enabled teachers to build positive relationships with the Indigenous students resulting in the teachers reported feeling less stressed and enjoying teaching. Concomitantly, cultural frame-switching has the potential to lead to less attrition in the profession for neophyte teachers who commence their careers in remote locations.

CHAPTER 7

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CHAPTER 8

APPENDICES

Appendix A

Semi-Structured Interview Schedule I

The purpose of the following questions was to encourage a discussion in regards to the classroom management strategies and the beginning teachers' knowledge and experience with Indigenous students. Based on the beginning teachers' responses, further questions were asked.

1. What year/s do you teach?
2. How many teachers are in the school? What is their teaching experience?
3. How many students do you have in your class?
4. What is the male/female ratio? Do you find that ratio difficult to manage?
5. What is the number of Indigenous students and non-Indigenous students?
6. Students do not always do as their teacher requests. How do you identify when students are off-task?
7. What do you do when a student is off-task?
8. Where did you find out about the range of classroom management strategies that you have described?
9. How do you decide which classroom management strategy to use?
10. How effective do you find the strategies you use in managing off-task behaviour with the Indigenous students?

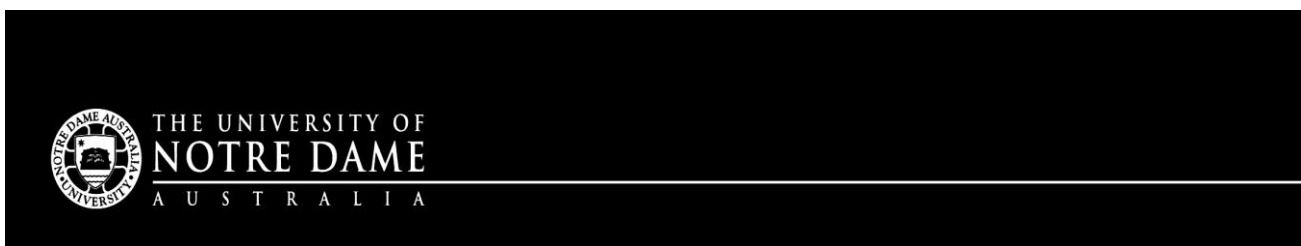
11. How effective do you find the strategies you use in managing off-task behaviour with the non-Indigenous students?
12. What units did you complete at university where the focus was on Indigenous education?
13. Were any aspects of Indigenous education covered in any other units?
14. Did you teach any Indigenous students on pre-service practica or during course work?
15. Have you identified particular lessons or any particular times during the day when students are more off-task?
16. Do you have a classroom management plan?
17. How effective do you find the plan?
18. What university did you attend?
19. What units did you complete at university where the focus was learning about classroom management?
20. Were any aspects of classroom management covered in any other units?
21. How useful have you found the information that the university covered in regards to classroom management?
22. How useful have you found the information that the university covered in regards to Indigenous students?
23. What other professional development have you received since leaving university, either informally or formally, in regards to classroom management and/or Indigenous students?

24. How far away is this community from the nearest town? Are you enjoying living in this environment?

25. What sort of mechanisms do you use for support?

Appendix B

Participant Information Sheet



INFORMATION SHEET

Dear

My name is Amanda McCubbin. I am a student at The University of Notre Dame Australia and am enrolled in a Doctor of Education degree. As part of my course I need to complete a research project.

The title of the project is: The readiness of primary trained graduate teachers to effectively manage classrooms in Kimberley schools in Western Australia.

My research concerns finding out the specific skills, techniques and knowledge that you have, as a result of recently completing a Bachelor of Education, which enables you to implement effective classroom management strategies which results in students returning to the required learning task.

The purpose of the study is to identify if Bachelor of Education courses in Western Australian universities effectively prepare graduates to manage classrooms in the Kimberley.

Participants will be asked to take part in a 1hour tape-recorded interview and then have a lesson video-recorded for approximately 1 hour. This process will occur during term one and term three. The information collected during the interview and in the classroom will be strictly confidential. This confidence will only be broken in the instance of legal requirements such as court subpoenas, freedom of information requests or mandated reporting by some professionals. To protect the anonymity of participants in a project with a small sample size, a code will be ascribed to each of the participants to minimise the risk of identification.

The protocol adopted by the University of Notre Dame Australia Human Research Ethics Committee for the protection of privacy will be adhered to and relevant sections of the *Privacy Act* are available at <http://www.nhmrc.gov.au/>

You will be offered a transcript of the interview and lesson, and I would be grateful if you would comment on whether I have captured your experience accurately.

Before the interview I will ask you to sign a consent form. You may withdraw from the project at any time without prejudice and without having to provide a reason for your decision not to continue.

Data collected will be stored securely in the University's School of Education for five years. No identifying information will be used and the results from the study will be made freely available to all participants.

The interview is about your experiences both at university and in your school/classroom, and may raise some difficult feelings for you. If this happens I will make sure that support is available should you desire it. You will be provided with relevant counselling information at the interview and contacted by the researcher one week after wards.

The Human Research Ethics Committee of the University of Notre Dame Australia has approved the study.

Associate Professor Richard Berlach of the School of Education is supervising the project. If you have any queries regarding the research, please contact me directly or Professor Berlach by phone (08) 9433 0151 or by email at rberlach@nd.edu.au

I thank you for your consideration and hope you will agree to participate in this research project.

Yours sincerely

Ms Amanda McCubbin

Tel: (08) 91920643

Email: amccubbin@nd.edu.au

If participants have any complaint regarding the manner in which a research project is conducted, it may be given to the researcher or, alternatively, to the Provost, The University of Notre Dame Australia, PO Box 1225 Fremantle WA 6959, phone (08) 9433 0941.

Appendix C

Participant Consent Form



THE UNIVERSITY OF
NOTRE DAME
A U S T R A L I A

CONSENT FORM

The readiness of primary trained graduate teachers to effectively manage student classrooms in Kimberley schools in Western Australia.

Informed Consent Form

I, (*participant's name*) _____ hereby agree to being a participant in the above research project.

- I have read and understood the Information Sheet about this project and any questions have been answered to my satisfaction.
- I understand that I may withdraw from participating in the project at any time without prejudice and without having to provide a reason.
- I understand that all information gathered by the researcher will be treated as strictly confidential, except in instances of legal requirements such as court subpoenas, freedom of information requests, or mandated reporting by some professionals.
- Whilst the research involves small sample sizes I understand that a code will be ascribed to all participants to ensure that the risk of identification is minimised.
- I understand that the protocol adopted by the University Of Notre Dame Australia Human Research Ethics Committee for the protection of privacy will be adhered to and relevant sections of the *Privacy Act* are available at <http://www.nhmrc.gov.au/>
- I agree that any research data gathered for the study may be published provided my name or other identifying information is not disclosed.
- I understand that this consent form will be retained by the researcher and stored in a secure environment.

- I understand that I will interviewed and observed in my classroom on two separate occasions and that all sessions will be recorded for later analysis.

PARTICIPANT'S SIGNATURE:		DATE:	
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RESEARCHER'S FULL NAME:			
RESEARCHER'S SIGNATURE:		DATE:	

If participants have any complaint regarding the manner in which a research project is conducted, it may be given to the researcher or, alternatively, to the Provost, The University of Notre Dame Australia, PO Box 1225 Fremantle WA 6959, phone (08) 9433 0941.

Appendix D

Ethics Clearance



19 Mouat Street (PO Box 1225)
Fremantle, Western Australia 6959
Telephone: +61 8 9433 0555
Facsimile: +61 8 9433 0544
Email: enquiries@nd.edu.au
Internet: www.nd.edu.au

ABN: 69 330 643 210

CRICOS PROVIDER CODE: 01032F

21st October 2008

Amanda McCubbin
P O Box 383
BROOME WA 6725

Dear Amanda

I am writing to you in regard to your Application for Ethical Clearance for amendments to your research project.

The title of this project is: *"The readiness of primary school trained graduate teachers to effectively manage student behaviour in Kimberley Schools in Western Australia"*.

I am pleased to advise that your amendments of the project have now been reviewed by the University's Human Research Ethics Committee and ethical clearance has been granted.

Should the design of the project be further altered in any significant way over the duration of the approval, you will be required to provide an update of your clearance application for fresh consideration by the University.

On behalf of the Human Research Ethics Committee, I wish you well with what promises to be a most interesting and valuable project.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads 'L Mayhew'.

Lorraine Mayhew
Executive Officer, Human Research Ethic Committee
Research Office

Cc Associate Professor, Richard Berlach, School of Education
Professor Lyn Henderson-Yates, Assistant Dean, Centre of Indigenous Studies,
Broome Campus

Appendix E

Approval to Conduct Research on Department of Education and Training Sites



Government of **Western Australia**
Department of **Education and Training**

Your ref :
Our ref : D09/0764457
Enquiries :

Ms Amanda McCubbin
School of Education
The University of Notre Dame Australia
PO Box 2287
BROOME WA 6725

Dear Ms McCubbin

Thank you for your completed application received 29 December 2009 to conduct research on Department of Education sites.

The focus and outcomes of your research project, *The Readiness of Primary Trained Graduate Teachers to Effectively Manage Student Behaviour in Kimberley Schools in Western Australia*, are of interest to the Department. I give permission for you to approach site managers to invite their participation. It is a condition of approval, however, that upon conclusion the results of this study are forwarded to the Department at the email address below.

Consistent with Department policy, participation in your research project will be the decision of the schools invited to participate, individual staff members, the children in those schools and their parents. Researchers are responsible for providing site managers with a copy of this letter as well as a current Working with Children Check.

Responsibility for quality control of ethics and methodology of the proposed research resides with the institution supervising the research. The Department notes a copy of a letter confirming that you have received ethical approval of your research protocol from The University of Notre Dame Australia Human Research Ethics Committee.

Any proposed changes to the research project will need to be submitted for Department approval prior to implementation.

Please contact Ms Liz Harrison, Policy and Planning Officer, on 9264 5168 or researchandpolicy@det.wa.edu.au if you have further enquiries.

Very best wishes for the successful completion of your project.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'A. Dodson'.

ALAN DODSON
DIRECTOR
EVALUATION AND ACCOUNTABILITY

31 December 2009

Appendix F

Principal Information Sheet



THE UNIVERSITY OF
NOTRE DAME
A U S T R A L I A

Information for Principals

Dear

My name is Amanda McCubbin. I am a student at The University of Notre Dame Australia enrolled in the Doctor of Education degree. As part of this degree I am conducting a research project titled The readiness of primary trained graduate teachers to effectively manage classrooms in Kimberley schools in Western Australia. The purpose of this research is to identify the specific skills, techniques and strategies which beginning classroom teachers use, as a result of recently completing a Bachelor of Education, to enable them to manage classrooms in the Kimberley.

I would like to invite the beginning teachers in your school to take part in this research as they have recently completed a Bachelor of Education in a Western Australian University and are employed in their first teaching position in a Kimberley school in Western Australia. The teacher/s will be one of ten primary trained graduate teachers who have been approached to take part in the research.

What does participation in the research project involve?

I seek access only to those teachers who completed their training at the end of the previous year at a West Australian university. Initially during Term 1, I wish to interview the graduate teacher in regards to their understandings about the classroom management strategies they use, based on what they learnt during teacher training. This interview should take about 1 hour and will occur out of school hours. The interview will be recorded on a digital voice recorder that will later be transcribed. I would then like to video-record the teacher in the classroom, for approximately 1 hour so that the teacher's classroom management strategies can be observed and identified. As this research is about the readiness of teachers to manage classrooms once they have graduated from university, I will then repeat the above process in Term 3 so that comparative data can be collected, as the teacher will have had time to reflect on their university training and hopefully offer suggestions for any improvements.

This research will focus entirely on the teacher and the classroom management strategies that they use. No student will be identified or any record of their behaviours in the classroom used in this research. As identified in the Department of Education's Research Policy, written

permission from all parents/caregivers and students will be obtained before any research is undertaken in the classroom.

I intend to keep the school's involvement in the administration of the research procedures to a minimum. However, it will be necessary for the teacher to send parent/caregiver information and permission notes home and collect them from the students prior to this research commencing. It would be appreciated if a note in the school newsletter, written by myself, could be included to advise all parents of the research. If permission from parents/caregivers/students is not forthcoming, the student will be unable to remain in the classroom for the duration of the taping, which could cause some inconvenience as they will need to be placed in another classroom.

To what extent is participation voluntary, and what are the implications of withdrawing that participation?

Participation in this research project is entirely voluntary. If any member of a participant group decides to participate and then later changes their mind, they are able to withdraw their participation at any time, without prejudice and without having to provide a reason. No data collected from them will be used in the research.

There will be no consequences relating to any decision by an individual or the school regarding participation, other than those already described in this letter. Decisions made will not affect the relationship with the research team or The University of Notre Dame Australia.

What will happen to the information collected, and is privacy and confidentiality assured?

Information that identifies anyone will be removed from the data collected. The data will be stored securely in a locked cabinet at the University of Notre Dame Broome Campus and can only be accessed by the researcher and university supervisor. The data will be stored for a period of five years, after which it will be destroyed. This will be achieved through shredding the video tape and erasing the digital recordings.

The identity of participants and the school will not be disclosed at any time, except in circumstances that require reporting under the Department of Education *Child Protection* policy, or where the research team is legally required to disclose that information. Participant privacy, and the confidentiality of information disclosed by participants, is assured at all other times.

The data will be used only for this project, and will not be used in any extended or future research without first obtaining explicit written consent from participants.

Consistent with Department of Education policy, a summary of the research findings will be made available to the participating schools and the Department. You can expect this to be available upon completion of the research, with the proposed date being December 2014.

Is this research approved?

The research has been approved by the University of Notre Dame's Human Research Ethics Committee and has met the policy requirements of the Department of Education as indicated in the attached letter.

Working with Children Check

The researcher has a current Working with Children Check. Attached to this letter is a copy of the Working with Children Check.

Who do I contact if I wish to discuss the project further?

If you would like to discuss any aspect of this study with a member of the research team, please contact me on the number provided below. If you wish to speak with an independent person about the conduct of the project, please contact Professor Richard Berlach on 9433 0151 or by email rberlach@nd.edu.au

How do I indicate my willingness for the school to be involved?

If you have had all questions about the project answered to your satisfaction, and are willing for the beginning teacher's in your school to participate, please complete the **Consent Form** on the following page.

This information letter is for you to keep.

*Amanda McCubbin
Assistant Dean, School of Education
University of Notre Dame Australia
Broome Campus
amccubbin@nd.edu.au
91920643*

Appendix G

Principals Consent Form



THE UNIVERSITY OF
NOTRE DAME
A U S T R A L I A

Consent Form for Principals

- I have read this document and understand the aims, procedures, and risks of this project, as described within it.
- For any questions I may have had, I have taken up the invitation to ask those questions, and I am satisfied with the answers I received.
- I am willing for this school to become involved in the research project, as described.
- I understand that participation in the project is entirely voluntarily.
- I understand that the school and teachers involved are free to withdraw their participation at any time, without affecting the relationship with the research team or The University of Notre Dame Australia.
- Participation in this research project is entirely voluntary. If any member of a participant group decides to participate and then later changes their mind, they are able to withdraw their participation at any time, without prejudice and without having to provide a reason.
- I understand that this research will be used to complete a Doctor of Education thesis and all participants or the school are not identified in any way.
- I understand that the school will be provided with a copy of the findings from this research upon its completion.

Name of Principal:

Date: / /

Signature:

Appendix H

Information Sheet and Consent Form for Parents



THE UNIVERSITY OF
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A U S T R A L I A

Dear Parent/Guardian

My name is Amanda McCubbin. I am a student at The University of Notre Dame Australia and am enrolled in a Doctor of Education degree. As part of my course I need to complete a research project.

The title of the project is: The readiness of primary trained graduate teachers to effectively manage classrooms in Kimberley schools in Western Australia.

My research concerns finding out the specific skills, techniques and knowledge that your child's classroom teacher has, as a result of recently completing a Bachelor of Education, which enables them to implement effective classroom management strategies.

The purpose of the study is to identify if Bachelor of Education courses in Western Australian universities effectively prepare beginning teachers to manage classrooms in the Kimberley.

To enable me to record what the teacher does to manage the classroom, I will be video-taping some lessons in your child's classroom. This means that the video camera may be recording the teacher's movements and discussions with the students in the classroom. During this time it is possible that your child will be recorded.

As this project is only focussed on the teacher, please be assured that at no time will anything that your child says or does be used in this research. In order for me to record the teacher and their interactions with the students in the class, including your child, I require both permission from yourself and your child to tape in the classroom. I will be visiting the classroom twice during this year, once while I am here now and once later on in term three and will be recording for about 1 hour.

If you agree to me videoing in the classroom can you please sign the consent form below and ask your child to sign it to indicate that I have permission from both of you. Should you not wish your child to be video-taped I have arranged for your child to be placed in another classroom for the duration of the recording.

Should you have any questions please ring me at Notre Dame University on 91920643 and/or my supervisor Professor Richard Berlach on 94330151.

Amanda McCubbin

I _____ give permission for my child (name)
_____ to be video-taped as part of the research project titled: The
readiness of primary trained graduate teachers to effectively manage classrooms in
Kimberley schools in Western Australia. I have been advised that nothing that my child
does or says in the classroom will be used in the research.

Parent Signature: _____

Date: _____

Student Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix I

Semi-Structured Interview Schedule II

1. Are you teaching the same year group that you had when I last spoke to you?
2. Do you have a classroom management plan?
3. Has it changed since we last spoke?
4. What has changed?
5. Why did you change it?
6. How did you go about implementing/changing the plan?
7. How did you go about letting the students know that your plan/rules/expectations have changed?
8. Have you found the plan has made any difference with classroom management?
9. What do you now do when a student is not on-task in your class?
10. What do you do if a student doesn't return to the required behaviour when you ask them to?
11. Do you find your classroom management strategies effective at preventing/minimising off-task behaviour?
12. How do you know they are effective?
13. Have you found any difference in the effectiveness of the strategies between the Indigenous and non-Indigenous students in your classroom?
14. What do you find does not work with Indigenous students?

15. Do you believe your practicas prepared you for effectively teaching Indigenous students in the Kimberley? Explain
16. What could universities include in their units that would better prepare beginning teachers for working with Indigenous students?
17. What do you know about working with Indigenous students that you would have liked to have known at the beginning of the year?
18. Do you make any allowances for students in your classroom regarding classroom management? Explain.
19. Have you attended any professional development/learning on classroom management?
20. Have you implemented any classroom management strategies based on the information provided during the professional development?
21. Do you have a mentor at the school or from somewhere else that you use to assist you with classroom management strategies/ideas?
22. Do you believe your classroom management strategies have improved since the beginning of the year?
23. What may be the reason for the improvement?
24. What do you do now that you didn't do then? Explain.
25. Do you believe you were able to transfer the classroom management strategies and skills you learned at university to this classroom successfully? Explain.

26. What do you know now about classroom management strategies that you would have liked to know when you commenced teaching at the start of the year?