

**MAPPING RESEARCH IN
TEACHER EDUCATION IN CANADA**

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Research in Teacher Education in Canada
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We want to particularly acknowledge those among the participants who prepared a discussion paper for one of the working groups prior to the conference: Peter Grimmett, Terry Carson, Jim Field, Julian Kitchen, and Tom Russell.

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Winnipeg and Calgary, April 2008

Thomas Falkenberg and Hans Smits

INTRODUCTION

Mapping Research in Teacher Education in Canada: A Pan-Canadian Approach

Thomas Falkenberg (University of Manitoba)

Background

What can be of greater concern to a society than the education of its children? Schooling has become *the* purpose-driven means of educating the next generation in Canada. Education has been continuously at the top of the list of the most important issues Canadians are concerned with – and it has always been taken for granted that ‘education’ means ‘formal school education’. With schooling being so important, those charged with ‘doing the schooling’ – teachers – are then central to a society’s concern for education. In a derived sense, this makes the education of teachers of great concern to Canadian society.¹

Compared to a tradition of comprehensive collections focused on research in teacher education in the USA (for instance, Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Murray, 1996), in Canada such work is sparse. To my knowledge, Wideen and Lemma (1999), Grimmatt (1984) and Wodlinger (1989) represent the collections dedicated to provide a more comprehensive understanding of (then) current research in teacher education in Canada. In addition there is a small number of collections dedicated to research into specific teacher education programs in Canada, like OISE/University of Toronto (Beck & Cosnick, 2006), the University of British Columbia (Farr Darling, Erickson, & Clarke, 2007), and Simon Fraser University (Wideen & Pye, 1994; Beynon, Grout, & Wideen, 2004).

Over twenty years ago, Marvin Wideen (1984, pp. 247-248) described “some problems that any research effort [in teacher education in Canada] is likely to face”:

Three things in particular stand out. First, we have a very small [teacher education] research community in Canada. While it is much better now both in terms of numbers and quality than it was 20 years ago, or even five years ago, it is still small. The priority for most of us in faculties of education is teaching, not research; the number of educational researchers in Canada is few, and fewer still focus on teacher education. Second, we lack a research tradition in teacher education presently. Despite locating over 140 studies dealing with some aspect of teacher education, it is evident that research in the area receives low priority in most institutions. When faculty or students do select research areas to pursue through

¹ For the purpose of this paper as an introduction to the conference proceedings, I will mean ‘pre-service teacher education’ when using the term *teacher education*.

research, inquiry into how we train and educate teachers does not appear to be a high priority. When they do, what appears to occur is that individuals (faculty and students) pursue curiosities here and there with little or no reference to work conducted elsewhere in Canada. In short, research into teacher education has no tradition in which a community of scholars share a common interest and try to build on that interest from year to year. We are aware of only one institution in the country that has given research into teacher education top priority, I am aware of only one institution in the country that has made an academic appointment in an area called teacher education. The effect then, is research limited in quantity and diverse in focus. Third, we are dealing with very complex phenomenon [sic] about which we know far less than we may think. Because teacher education is so close to us it may tend to be taken for granted.

What has changed over the last twenty four years? A more precise answer to the question has to be left up to a study on the current state of research in teacher education in Canada. However, here are some of my more anecdotal observations.² In terms of numbers, teacher education research is well established in Canada. The Canadian Association for Teacher Education (CATE) is currently the second largest association within the Canadian Society for the Study of Education (CSSE) – and since presentations are assigned by relative membership size, the number of CATE research presentations is currently the second largest at CSSE’s annual meetings, which happen in conjunction with the annual meeting of the Canadian Federation for the Humanities and the Social Sciences. At least at the more recent of such meetings, CSSE delegates have been representing close to 10% of the attendees of the Federation’s annual meetings, which makes CSSE one of the largest member associations represented at the Federation’s meetings and CATE’s research presentations one of the largest in number among all member associations of the Federation, 73 of which will be represented at the Federation’s 2008 annual meeting.

Two factors, however, qualify the high number of CATE research presentations as an indication of a change over time with respect to the first two points raised by Wideen – at least to some degree. First, the number is only high relative to the Canadian researchers represented in the Federation. Fisher and Edwards (1999, p. 47) write in their social history of CSSE that there has been “the perception that CSSE was unable to attract more than about one-third of the potential membership”, that only about 60% of full-time education faculty members (1990) were members in CSSE, and that many education researchers “turned their attention south or to Europe or Australia”. The membership in CATE has overall been somewhat stable over the last twenty years.³ It also seems to be the case that Quebec education researchers, including those involved in teacher education research, are not well represented at CSSE’s annual meetings.

The second qualification has to do with a somewhat loose understanding of the domain of teacher education research. Conceptually and practically, research on student learning in

² Some of the conference discussion papers printed in these proceedings, in particular the one by Julian Kitchen, speak to some of the questions addressed in this section.

³ The membership of CATE numbered 285 in 2007, while the membership numbers from 1980 to 1995 range from a high of 353 (1980) to a low of 261 (1995) (Fisher & Edwards, 1999, p. 30).

schools, for instance, is of great relevance to the education of teachers, although it is not directly research *on* the education of teachers. A cursory look over the titles of the research papers presented through CATE at CSSE's annual conference over the last few years suggests that the conference makes room for research that is *relevant to* teacher education as well as research directly *on* teacher education.

Another observation in revisiting Wideen's assessment of teacher education research in Canada over twenty years ago concerns observations shared by many of those attending the conference of which this article is part of the proceedings. The attendees shared their observation that in particular at larger and research intensive universities professorial faculty in faculties of education try to stay away from or get out of undergraduate teaching, which is where the teacher education happens in Canadian universities.

Although certain themes in research in teacher education in Canada have been emerging over time, like social justice issues in teacher education, Aboriginal teacher education, e-portfolio use in teacher education, there does not seem to be any indication of a larger community of scholars that collaborate on teacher education research questions across research institutions and over time; a situation Wideen already identified over twenty years ago.

An accurate picture of the current state of research in teacher education in Canada has to be left up to a study on this issue, but it seems to us that there is some evidence that central problems raised by Wideen over twenty years ago about the then current state of affairs in teacher education research in Canada still exist today – at least to a still concerning degree. For me, it is in particular the problem that there is – in Wideen's (1984, p. 248) words – “no tradition in which a community of scholars share a common interest and try to build on that interest from year to year” that was motivating us to conceptualize the Working Conference on Research in Teacher Education in Canada. Hans and I wanted to explore the possibilities for beginning such a pan-Canadian tradition. In the next section I will be describing my thinking around a pan-Canadian approach to research in teacher education in Canada.

Pan-Canadian Approaches to Teacher Education in Canada

Pan-Canadian approaches to research in teacher education in Canada can take different forms:

1. *Joint research projects*: collaborative research projects involving researchers from different institutions from different parts of the country; this project-based collaboration can range from joint research projects to joint strategic planning of research projects where each group goes then off to do their part of the larger project.
2. *Research-based critical friends*: researchers from different institutions working in similar areas of teacher education research serve as ‘critical friends’ for each others’ research work; this collaboration can involve support in research funding applications, data interpretation support, program evaluation support, and support in understanding the implications of one's research on policy and practice, for instance.
3. *Dissemination-based critical friends (collaboration)*: regular meetings of researchers working in the same area(s) in teacher education research to present and discuss their respective research findings; joint publications in edited books; and so forth.

4. *Research-interest-based connections*: researchers from different institutions stay in regular contact about the research area in general and their own research in the area of joint interest through bulletin boards, list-serves, meetings at conferences or other means.

The possibilities listed here are in descending order of ‘intensity of collaboration’. All of these approaches go beyond meeting once a year at CATE’s annual meeting, but they stay below an understanding of a pan-Canadian approach to research in teacher education as research done from the standpoint of a common vision for teacher education or research done that is somewhere centrally coordinated. The latter would neither be possible nor desirable. The collaboration Hans and I have in mind would span across the four different forms of collaboration listed above, would be on-going, and would be an effort to link the research together in a way that provides for a more comprehensive picture of teacher education in Canada and for a better understanding of possibilities and constraints of teacher education in the Canadian context to the benefit of teacher education programming and practice. Hans and I recognize and acknowledge the great value of a multiplicity of approaches to and foci in researching and practicing teacher education. There might be some approaches that are more acknowledged by Canadian policymakers than others, but through the different levels of pan-Canadian collaboration all approaches would / could have an (indirect) impact on policy making. We can see the Canadian Association for Teacher Education (CATE) with its already existing organizational structure as providing the support at the organizational level that is so important in building and sustaining a tradition of collaboration and ‘cross fertilization’.

I now like to argue that there is a need for a pan-Canadian approach to research in teacher education – understood in the diverse sense explicated above. I see at least the following four reasons for this need: (a) to account for the complexity of teacher education and teacher development; (b) to account for a greater interest in initial teacher education in Canada; (c) to account for the impact of the globalization trend in education on initial teacher education; and (d) to account for the Canada-specific context of teacher education and development in light of a dominant literature from the USA context. I discuss each reason in turn.

(a) One aspect of the complexity of the field of study of teacher education concerns its relationship to the many other fields of educational research. A good case can be made that teacher education research as a field of study draws upon most if not all other educational fields of study, from philosophy of education and educational psychology to adult education and pedagogy. For instance, to develop a deeper understand of the field experiences of teacher candidates, teacher education research will have to draw upon questions of purpose of schooling (philosophy of education), student learning (educational psychology), teacher candidates’ learning (adult education), and the teaching the teacher candidates engage in in their classes (pedagogy).

Another aspect of the complexity of teacher education research concerns the complexity of the structure of the phenomenon of teacher education itself. In the *Report of the AERA Panel on Research and Teacher Education* (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005) the panel distinguishes nine domains of research in teacher education for each of which they review the respective US-focused literature. If, in addition to this complexity of research domains of teacher education practice, one considers the possibility of quite diverse objectives or visions of what a teacher education program is to prepare teacher candidates for, the complexity of the many factors that are of core importance to understanding teacher education becomes even more evident.

Each of the nine research domains distinguished in the AERA Panel Report can now be looked at through the eyes of that particular vision of professional practice, leading, for instance, to a research question like: ‘What are the effects of methods courses and field experiences on helping teacher candidates develop competency in the professional practice as envisioned, for instance, by Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005, pp. 10-11)?’ If one also considers that the nine research domains are also interconnected in different ways, the complexity of teacher education research becomes even more daunting.

How can quality research into all these different aspects of the practice of teacher education be done without losing a sense for how all these different aspects are interconnected, and, thus, for a larger picture of teacher education practice? It is my suggestion that a pan-Canadian approach to research of teacher education in Canada in the variety discussed above can provide the necessary scaffolding for developing a deeper understanding of teacher education practice (in Canada). In particular, in order to capture the impact that *the connection between the different domains, across the different layers* have on teacher candidates development, expertise from different domains needs to be ‘pooled’ and, sometimes, larger-scale research projects need to be undertaken.

(b) More recent developments in education and educational research in Canada suggest that a greater interest in teacher education research in Canada has been emerging aside from the interest among the CATE membership. There is, first, the publication of the Accord on Initial Teacher Education (ACDE, 2006) by the Association of Canadian Deans of Education (ACDE) in 2006 (in the following ‘the Accord’). Several events and sessions at research meetings have been organized to promote the Accord and to link it to teacher education in Canada. Calls for submissions to two special issues for the Canadian Journal of Education have just been published, one of which is built around the Accord; as the call for that special issue reads: “This special issue of *CJE* will engage a critical perspective to expand the themes of teacher education for the twenty-first century and world as envisioned in the Accord on Initial Teacher Education.”

Second, there is currently under way the *Study of Teacher Preparation Programs in Canada*, commissioned by the Society for the Advancement of Excellence in Education (www.sae.ca). SAE claims on its website that this study is “the first pan-Canadian study examining pre-service training programs for teachers”.

In the following I want to discuss several reasons for why a pan-Canadian approach to research in teacher education in Canada is needed or, more carefully, is beneficial to teacher education in Canada in the light of these greater interests in teacher education research. The greater interest in establishing normative programmatic principles for initial teacher education, as exemplified by the deans’ Accord, needs to be accompanied by research. This will help with the *promotion* of those principles, as is suggested in the Accord (ACDE, 2006, p. 2):

By developing shared goals and principles and by undertaking cooperative research and data sharing, ACDE can enhance the profile of initial teacher education within all its member institutions and more broadly, promote greater understanding of the complexities and merits of teacher preparation programs to the public at large.

Teacher education research, however, will also be needed to support the *adequacy / understanding* of those principles. The first listed principle in the Accord, for instance, reads: “An effective teacher education program demonstrates the transformative power of learning for individuals and communities.” (ACDE, 2006, p. 4) It is only within a particular context of a program and the teaching and learning that happens within that program that “transformative power of learning” can be understood in a way that is meaningful for our engagement with the world; as all normative statements, the Accord’s principles for teacher education are about human engagement with the world. The principles, however, are intended to be pan-Canadian. Thus, there is also the need to understand the principles across particular contexts *while* grounded in the specific understandings within those contexts. It is here in particular where the value of pan-Canadian research approaches can make a difference. Taking into account what I previously said about the complexity of the field of study of teacher education, such research needs – or is at least better off with – a pan-Canadian approach. Also, as normative principles about effective teacher education programs, the adequacy / understanding of the Accord’s principles need to be confronted with case study research on exemplary teacher education programs (Howey & Zimpher, 1989; Darling-Hammond, 2006), the latter of which needed to have established a sense of what it means to be an ‘effective teacher education program’ prior to its inquiry. Such confrontation involves, thus, more pan-Canadian oriented teacher education research.

Another reason for why a pan-Canadian approach to research in teacher education in Canada is needed in the light of the greater interests in teacher education research has to do with the expansion of private or semi-private interests into teacher education (research), as exemplified by the SAEE teacher education study. The study is funded, according to the SAEE website, by the Donner Foundation (www.donnerfoundation.org) and the Max Bell Foundation (www.maxbell.org). I do not want to get into the particularities of the funding history of these two funding agencies, rather I want to raise it as a general issue that private foundations provide funding support with quite substantial amounts of money for research into teacher education in Canada. As is generally true for all such foundations, the websites of the Donner Foundation and the Max Bell Foundation make clear that they provide funding for (research) projects in order to have a desired impact on Canadian society. If and to what degree the sociocultural and sociopolitical perspectives of such foundations impact the actual research and the reporting of it has to be decided for each case, but I do have concerns for principled reasons if pan-Canadian research projects in teacher education are primarily or exclusively commissioned or funded by private or semi-private foundations. I want to stress that I do not see teacher education research undertaken, commissioned or funded by private or semi-private agencies and foundations as problematic *per se*. The SAEE study, for instance, is clearly filling a void – and raises the question, why there had been such a void in the first place. Public research funding for education in general and for teacher education in particular is relatively small in size. If publicly funded teacher education research wants to have an impact on and support policy making, pan-Canadian projects with pooled funding and expertise seem a good way to go about it.

(c) In 1999 the Canadian ministers of education have signed an agreement-in-principle on ‘teacher mobility’ as part of the labour mobility chapter of the Agreement on Internal Trade (see www.cmec.ca/else/agreement.en.stm). The aim of this agreement-in-principle is

to reduce barriers to teacher mobility. It is intended to allow any teacher who holds a teaching credential in one province or territory to have access to teacher certification in any other province or territory in order to be eligible for employment opportunities in the teaching profession.
(Council of Ministers of Education Canada, n.d.)

The mobility provisions in the agreement include two levels for inter-provincial teaching credentialing. At the first level, the provision lays out a set of minimum requirements that *all* applicants for inter-provincial credentialing need to fulfill. While this first level secures for all provinces that certain requirements that each of them considers central are met by all those who actually teach in their respective province, the second level regulates how inter-provincial credentialing takes into account the different certification requirements that exist in different provinces. In the most common cases, a teacher who is certified in one province gets at least a temporary teaching certificate in any other province he or she moves to to allow the teacher to work in the receiving province without delay (first level). The teacher then has to use the interim time to meet the specific credentialing criteria for the receiving province that he or she has not yet met (second level). If a teacher meets all those criteria from the outset, the moving teacher immediately receives permanent teaching credentials for the receiving province.

While this is an agreement-in-principle, the provinces of Alberta and British-Columbia have already ratified a Trade, Investment and Labour Mobility Agreement in April 2006 (www.tilma.ca). Generally, the labour mobility article in the agreement provides for any occupational certification from one province being recognized and leading to certification in the respective other province (Article 13). At the moment, the agreement, however, allows for exceptions to such inter-provincial recognition. In the case of teacher certification, teachers with British Columbia teaching credentials receive full credentialing in Alberta, while teachers credentialed in Alberta need “additional training and certification” for credentialing in British Columbia (TILMA, 2006, p. 28). However, the agreement articulates the intent by both provinces to work on the elimination of these exceptions.

In its 22 September 2007 edition the *Globe and Mail* (p. A13) featured an advertisement by US-based Daemen College (www.daemen.edu/Canadian), located near Buffalo. The advertisement was directed at Canadian university graduates to recruit them for its teacher education program that prepares Canadians for certification in Ontario with classroom observations and teaching practicum placements in Ontario schools.⁴ A colleague of mine in charge of the teacher education program at one large Ontario university told me that such accredited US-based institutions pay money to schools for practicum placements, which contributes to the challenges of her faculty’s program to find adequate placements in schools for its teacher candidates.

These two examples illustrate two policy-driven trends in teacher education in Canada in times of economic globalization: the trend toward centralization of certification and the trend toward globalization in the education of Canadian teachers. Currently, I can only see the beginnings of these trends, where provincial control over certification is still written into agreements and the education of teachers still bound to provincial certification standards and a form of program accreditation. However, they are trends, and with all trends, one needs to look into the direction they point into. The already established centralization of teacher

⁴ Notably, they also advertise for a master’s degree “in just 16 months!”

education certification in the UK and the de-regulation of teacher education in the USA and both their implications for teacher education and the teaching profession need to be kept in view when assessing these trends in Canada.⁵

I believe that a pan-Canadian approach to researching teacher education is greatly beneficial for teacher education in Canada in light of these two trends. As Grimmert suggests (this volume, p. 47), with a lack of research on governance and policy in teacher education in Canada, Canadian policy makers will be more susceptible to American trends in certification issues in particular and teacher education governance issues in general. If teacher education research is to impact policy making in Canada with a pan-Canadian orientation – and I think it needs to – it greatly benefits from a pan-Canadian orientation and with pooling the funding and personnel resources in some form to better address the pan-Canadian context of teacher education governance and policy making. This argument does not just have implications for research in teacher education governance. As the discussion of the deans' Accord above suggests, governance and policy issues in teacher education are linked directly to (all) other aspects of teacher education like programming and pedagogy and, thus, research in those areas can contribute directly or indirectly to matters of teacher education governance and policy making.

(d) In the executive summary of the AERA panel report mentioned above (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005) – the most up-to-date meta-analysis of research on teacher education in the USA – the panel acknowledges the sociopolitical embeddedness of the framing and focusing of their meta-analysis (*Executive Summary*, 2005, p. 3):

It is important to note that the work of the panel is situated both within but also outside of the contemporary policy and political scene. On the one hand, the panel's work responds to the policy context of the time, and our choice to evaluate the empirical evidence about some of the teacher education issues that are of most interest to decision makers has been influenced by current policy debates. On the other hand, explicit in the panel's working assumptions is a critique of the current policy focus and considerable skepticism about the feasibility of producing the kind of evidence that many policymakers now seem to want – research that settles the teacher education 'horse race' once and for all and declares a clear winner.

The sociopolitical and sociocultural context of teacher education in Canada is quite different from the context in the USA. To give one example, the USA has been undergoing a de-regulation of teaching certification, resulting in a wide variety of alternative certification routes and, as a consequence, has led to a wide variety of alternative teacher education programs. These programs are alternative in the sense that they are different from traditional teacher education programs as they still exclusively exist in Canada. Zeichner and Conklin write about the situation in the USA:

⁵ See Peter Grimmert's discussion paper in this volume (pp. 41-58); see also Young (2004) and Zeichner (2006).

According to Feistritzer and Chester's (2003) report on alternative certification in the United States, 46 states and the District of Columbia currently have some type of alternative teacher certification program, whereas in 1983, only 8 states reported that they had alternative routes to teaching. . . . State requirements concerning alternative certification programs vary. For example, only 13 states require any classroom training prior to a teacher's assuming full responsibility for a classroom, and only 19 states require a mentoring component (Education Week, 2003). (Zeichner & Conklin, 2005, p. 656)

In Canada, on the other hand, teacher education is across the board university -based, consists of university courses and practicum teaching in school settings; certification is granted on the basis of a successful completion of these programs, which result in most cases in a university degree, a bachelor of education. The university programs need to meet a minimum requirement set out by the respective provincial government or certification body (teacher colleges in British Columbia and Ontario), like a certain number of practicum days and the exposure to particular content, like multicultural and aboriginal education. Aside from those requirements, the program design is left up to the respective institution.

What does this difference in the Canadian and US context for teacher education mean for teacher education research in Canada? Certification requirements frame any teacher education programming, since university-based teacher education programs are only meaningful as long as they lead to certification by its graduates. As I argued for the previous aspect, with a lack of research on governance and policy in teacher education in Canada, Canadian policy makers will be more susceptible to American trends in certification and governance issues. If teacher education research is to impact policy making in Canada – and, again, I believe it needs to – the specificity of the Canadian context needs to be given high priority. A pan-Canadian approach to research in teacher education seems to us more suited to address and keep in mind this Canadian context, because it creates a Canadian context for doing, disseminating and discussing research in teacher education by Canadian teacher education researchers. They might right now orient themselves stronger towards, particularly, the educational research community in the USA and other English or French speaking contexts for disseminating and discussing their research, and, thus, will by necessity have to place their research in some way into these other sociocultural and sociopolitical contexts.

As Julian Kitchen in his contribution to this volume argues (this volume, p. 91), US research contributions to teacher education are of great value to the Canadian context, in particular, since many aspects of the school system as well as of teacher education programs are similar in both countries. The point here is not to challenge this argument, rather it is to argue that there are central differences in the educational contexts in both countries and that those need to be given the attention in teacher education research in Canada that they require.

By organizing the Working Conference on Research in Teacher Education in Canada Hans and I wanted to rekindle the tradition of providing a pan-Canadian perspective on research in teacher education in Canada. As argued above, we consider the timing of the conference as very opportune. In the next section I talk about the conference itself.

The Conference

About the Conference

In order to explore the possibility of and maybe set the stage for a pan-Canadian approach to research in teacher education in Canada, Hans and I conceptualized a meeting that would bring together a group of researchers with interests in such research. Rather than the usual paper presentation format, we wanted to provide opportunities for the researchers to have in-depth discussions about and explore possibilities in research in teacher education in the Canadian context with colleagues interested in the same research domain from across the country. For that purpose, we needed to keep the attendee group relatively small, which is why we wanted to go with an invitational conference. To reflect these characteristics of the conference, we conceptualized an invitational working conference on research in teacher education in Canada.⁶

In our invitation we announced the purpose for this working conference as follows:

- to review Canadian teacher education research to date
- to identify key areas and themes for research in teacher education
- to initiate clustered pan-Canadian teacher education research projects on identified areas of teacher education
- to establish lead groups of researchers in different jurisdictions
- to identify sources of scholarly and financial support
- to extend dialogue across provincial and territorial boundaries within Canada (but not the exclusion of course, of our international partners).

To provide focus for the discussions, we conceptualized different working groups in each of which one particular area of teacher education research would be addressed. One challenge was to have enough working group themes to capture at least what we would consider central aspects of (initial) teacher education, but, on the other hand, not having too many working groups to either have to have a large number of attendees or to have working groups that were too small. For the purpose of the conference it was important to us to keep the conference small enough to also allow for relationship building across the working groups, because many researchers would have interest in more than one working group and also because relationship building was a central part of the agenda. For that reason, for instance, we planned joint meals for the participants as an informal opportunity for getting to know each other better, professionally and personally.

We have, then, organized the conference around the following six themes, which formed the themes for the six working groups each participant assigned her- or himself to:

- Teacher education governance, policy and the role of the university
- Aboriginal teacher education and Aboriginal perspectives in teacher education
- Understanding of practices in teacher education related to diversity, identity and inclusion, and demographic challenges

⁶ ‘To confer’ comes from the Latin *conferre*, with *com* meaning ‘together’ and *ferre* meaning ‘to bring’, ‘to carry’: We wanted to *bring together* those like us interested in exploring research in teacher education within the Canadian context.

- The nature, role, and place of field experiences in teacher education and relationships with schools
- The education and professional development of teacher educators
- Teacher education program reform and development

Within each working group, we envisioned, participants would review what we know about each of the areas, identify key issues and questions for research in the area, and explore diverse approaches to inquiry within the area.

In order to have pan-Canadian representation, we sent out a letter to all deans of education with the invitation to identify two members of their faculty who have a research interest in teacher education and might be interested in at least one of the six themes. We extended our invitation for representation to the Association of Canadian Deans of Education, the Canadian Teachers' Federation, and the Council of Ministers of Education (Canada).

At the conference we had teacher education researchers from the following 18 universities and 2 organizations attending: Alberta, Brock, Calgary, Collège universitaire de Saint-Boniface/Manitoba, Laurentian, Lethbridge, McGill, Manitoba, OISE/Toronto, Ottawa, PEI, Queen's, Saskatchewan, SFU, Sherbrooke, UBC, Victoria, York, the Manitoba Teachers' Society, and the Manitoba Ministry of Education, Citizenship and Youth.

The Discussion Papers

In order to provide each of the thematic working groups with a potential starting point for their respective group work, we intended to invite one Canadian scholar for each of the six theme groups to prepare a paper describing their view of

- the current state of affairs of research in Canada with respect to their theme,
- central issues to be addressed in research in Canada with respect to their theme,
- a design of a research program that allows such research to be undertaken.

We were able to arrange for discussion papers for all but the second theme (for an overview publication on this theme, see Archibald et al., 2002). The respective discussion papers were then distributed prior to the conference to the participants of the respective working group.

In his discussion paper *Teacher Education Governance, Policy, and the Role of the University* (this volume, pp. 41-58) Peter Grimmert (SFU) discusses teacher education in Canada from the perspective of governance and sociopolitical context. He illustrates the importance of giving attention to these perspectives by discussing what he calls the effects of de- and over-regulation on the governance of teacher education in England and the USA, hoping that these experiences allow the framing of research questions for the Canadian context "that enables teacher education to avoid the more deleterious effects of well-meant but intrusive policy on the practice of rigorously preparing culturally responsive and contextually relevant teachers for a diverse, multicultural context." (this volume, p. 41). Grimmert identifies three central issues to be addressed in teacher education research in the Canadian context with respect to governance issues: (1) professional governance of teaching, which needs to be strengthened by critically investigating it; (2) governance and policy in teacher education, which Grimmert sees as under-researched, a state that "contributes to the susceptibility of Canadian policy makers to American trends" (this volume, p. 47); (3) policy context of teacher education, in particular the current move in Canada toward 'labour mobility'. Grimmert argues at length that university

can and should play an important role in the formulation of policies that affect the governance of teacher education in Canada, in particular by contributing research and critique on the three central issues listed before; he argues that through the ACDE's *Accord of Initial Teacher Education* (ACDE, 2006) teacher education institutions can bridge as well as buffer external demands. Accordingly, Grimmett describes as the foci of the four research programs for teacher education in Canada to examine professional governance, the policy context of teacher education, the implications of labour mobility agreements on teacher education programs, and the potential of the ACDE's *Accord*.

Terry Carson contributed the discussion paper to the theme *Understanding of Practices in Teacher Education Related to Diversity, Identity and Inclusion, and Demographic Challenges* (this volume, pp. 65-72). In it he approaches the issues of diversity and identity in teacher education through the question 'How do we create spaces for learning to teach for the teacher candidates?' and from the perspective that learning to teach is a "psychic event", an event in which teacher candidates negotiate their (teaching) identity. In the first part of his paper, Carson focuses on the negotiating of teaching identities that he says is going on in teacher education when the "internally persuasive discourses" in teacher candidates (in form of deeply held beliefs and orientations) encounter the "authoritative discourses of teaching" of university courses and practica. He asserts that "teacher education is poorly equipped to help student teachers learn for the inevitable resistances to difficult knowledge" (this volume, p. 67), and that "the problem of teacher education [lies in] a failure to appreciate what is at stake in the psychic event of learning to teach" (this volume, pp. 68-69). It is within this understanding of the role of negotiating teaching identities in learning to teach that Carson frames (at least in part) the issue of diversity and teacher education. Encounters with cultural diversity, Carson argues, provide poignant instances of such negotiating and often "resistance to difficult knowledge" when "the ego ideal of tolerance and acceptance is disorganized by another's reality of experiencing racism and intolerance" (this volume, p. 67). Reporting on experiences with the Diversity Institute that was created in 2005 at the University of Alberta, Carson exemplifies in the third part of his paper the challenges that teacher education faces when attempting to support teacher candidates' negotiating of their teaching identities with respect to diversity.

In his discussion paper *Experiencing the Field in Teacher Education* (this volume, pp. 77-85), Jim Field addresses as the main question what part the field experiences play in becoming a teacher. As Field writes, most of the paper is lifted off a handbook to be read by those involved in the teacher education program at the University of Calgary – students, university instructors and teachers. The paper lays out central assumptions that the teacher education program at the University of Calgary makes and upon which the program builds its answer to the question what part field experiences play in becoming a teacher. Two assumptions are central. The first assumption is that learning to teach involves only partially – and not even as its primary objective – learning the technical aspects of teaching. The primary objective is to develop teacher candidates, as Dewey says, into "thoughtful and alert student[s] of education" (see the quote and reference in this volume, p. 79). This assumption is directly linked to the second fundamental assumption, which is concerned with the question what orientation towards the world characterizes such thoughtful and alert students of education. The second assumption is that at the core of thoughtful and alert students of education is an inquiry stance, where inquiry is "the fundamental process of coming to know and to be, as a learner and a teacher" (this volume, p. 79). The focus of the inquiry process is what Field calls the pedagogical relationship between the student(s), the teacher and the curriculum. "Inquiry

begins . . . when we are challenged by the mystery of a situation, and we face the challenge” (this volume, p. 80). It is teacher candidates’ prolonged engagement in schools that provides for the experiences from which the inquiry stance is to be developed by moving the focus of inquiry from the students to the teacher to the curriculum as teacher candidates move through the program.

In his discussion paper *Towards a Pedagogy of Teacher Education in Canada: Advancing Teacher Education Practices and Programs through Faculty Development* (this volume, pp. 89-114) Julian Kitchen addresses the fifth working group theme: the education and professional development of teacher educators. In the first part of his paper, Kitchen argues for teacher education as a specialized field of study with a “body of knowledge”, which is why “the professional development of teacher educators is necessary” (this volume, p. 90). In this part, Kitchen argues with a focus on the North American context, that the teacher education reform efforts in the 1980s and 1990s have led to publications over the last couple of years that provide now a compendium of “foundational understanding of teacher education”, and “we then need to build on this base to develop a body of teacher education knowledge, practices and programs appropriate to the Canadian context” (this volume, p. 91). Kitchen reviews a couple of prominent US and Canadian works that he considers articulating this foundational understanding of teacher education. He then discusses the need for developing a pedagogy of teacher education as central part of the professional development of teacher educators, referring to self-study of teacher education practice as the centre piece of this professional development. In the second part of his paper, Kitchen identifies a number of challenges and impediments to the reform of teacher education on the basis of the already existing body of knowledge of effective teacher education: the often antagonistic commitments by professorial teacher educators to the field as well as to academic research, the lack of attention to and required support for teacher educators from the field, the lack of concern for teacher education by many professorial faculty members, and the lack of a professional development culture in teacher education faculties. In the last section, Kitchen discusses concrete ways in which this lack of a professional development culture in teacher education faculties can be addressed. The suggestions he provides are such that they also address other challenges and impediments discussed in the previous section of his paper.

Tom Russell contributes a discussion paper to the sixth working group theme: teacher education program reform and development (this volume, pp. 117-123). In his paper he first addresses the question of the current state of affairs of research on the theme in Canada.⁷ He asserts that teacher education reform is too often seen as being separate from reforming, changing, and improving teaching in schools; both, however, should be seen as located on the same continuum in Feiman-Nemser’s (2001) sense, a continuum that reaches “from preservice preparation through induction and initial professional development to continuing professional development” (this volume, p. 117). Russell sees the traditional division of labour between universities (course work) and schools (practicum) and the resulting perception of a theory-practice gap in teacher education by teacher candidates as a manifestation of the lack of perceived and experienced continuity between the different phases of learning to teach. Drawing on Linda Darling-Hammond’s (2006) three fundamental problems of learning to teach, Russell discusses central difficulties in learning to teach, difficulties that, he suggests, are

⁷ This first part is mostly a reprint of a publication by Martin and Russell (Martin & Russell, 2007). To be consistent, though, I will refer in the following only to Russell as the author of the position paper.

often not seen, not acknowledged and not given enough attention in teacher education programs and their courses. In the second part of his paper, Russell identifies a number of central issues that should be addressed in research in teacher education program reform and development. He, particularly, points to the underdeveloped status of teacher education as a subject of inquiry in faculties of education as a potential major obstacle to improving teacher education: “Without a critical mass in a faculty of education to act as a professional learning community, research on teacher education is as readily ignored as teaching pre-service candidates is avoided in favour of graduate teaching and supervision.” (this volume, p. 121) In the last part of his discussion paper, Russell responds with eight suggestions to the question what the design of a research program can look like to allow research on teacher education reform and development to be undertaken.

The Introductory Essays

There are two essays included in this volume that were scheduled as introductory presentations for the conference. The first one is a revised version of a lecture given on the first night of the conference by Anne Phelan (UBC).⁸ The lecture was given as the 2007 Jean Irvine Lecture on Teacher Education at the Faculty of Education at the University of Manitoba. We were fortunate that it was possible for the Dean of Education to schedule the lecture so that it would fall on the evening of the first day of the conference. The following comment is based on the revised version of the lecture printed in this volume.

In her lecture, Phelan discusses and warns of the shortcomings of an instrumentalist approach to teaching, teacher education and teacher education research, be it intentionally or by practice. The change toward a focus on outcome in education in general, Phelan observes, has teacher education researchers focus in their research on matters that would establish and protect teaching as a profession and university-based teacher education as the legitimate way of preparing for that profession. Phelan sees such utility or instrumental approach to teacher education research as an example of the problematic but wide-spread means-end thinking in education, where the focus is on the means (“in order to”) to achieve a particular end without engaging in questions about the adequacy of the end (“for the sake of”). Such instrumental thinking in teacher education research, she argues, can actually undermine teacher autonomy and teacher responsibility, because means-focused research can translate into paternalistic ways of influencing practice and into neglecting teaching and teacher education as forms of praxis, and, thus, undermine the very end for the sake of which the research was done in the first place, like “research carried out in the name of justice can be unjust, after all” (this volume, p. 28). Phelan does not deny the value in conceiving teacher education in terms of “production”, however, to do so solely, she argues, is to neglect teacher educators’ responsibility to help teacher candidates “discover their own worthwhile lives by helping them acquire the requisite knowledge, skills and dispositions or virtues to succeed in teaching” (this volume, p. 28) and is to neglect that means-end thinking needs to be seen in concrete contexts and the relationships that characterize these contexts. “Thinking responsibly in teacher education research” (this volume, p. 28) means for Phelan to not give in to the first impulse to ask and rush to answer the question ‘What do teachers need to know and be able to do?’, but rather to pause and “asking in Socratic style, what do we mean when we say . . . ?” (this volume, p. 29) and to

⁸ We are grateful to Anne Phelan as well as Peter Lang Publishing Group for their permissions to reprint a revised version of the lecture in these proceedings.

struggle and work with the “perplexity” and “unease” that will result from such pausing and questioning. With reference to Hannah Arendt, Phelan suggests for such thinking about teaching, teacher education and teacher education research: “Raising questions without providing neat answers was a key purpose in thinking” (this volume, p. 29).

In the introductory essay that I contributed to the conference (this volume, pp. 33-39) I discuss how the question ‘What is the purpose of teacher education?’ does and should impact on research in teacher education. If teacher education is preparation for something, this purpose question provides at least a central part of the answer to the question what teacher education prepares *for*. Drawing on different teacher education research examples, I illustrate the different roles that the question of the purpose of teacher education plays in *research* on teacher education.

Contributions in the Large-Group Discussions

On the first half-day of the conference a discussion was scheduled to allow all participants to engage in a more general discussion within the large group before the participants would break out into their respective smaller working groups the next day. The title of this discussion session was “Where are we and where do we need to go in research on teacher education”. The discussion was facilitated led but rather participants contributed freely to the conversation. Following I summarize the points raised by participants in different contributions to the large-group conversation. (The points were reconstructed from notes I took.)

Three larger themes emerged from the discussion contributions. The first theme is built around issues of need and focus of research in teacher education in Canada:

- We have no good sense of programs across the country.
- It is important to know what is going on across the country (program model; alternative approaches).
- We need to have / do research that helps policy makers to see what is going on in schools.
- There are groups that are looking for our research to help with change.
- We need to research what makes a difference in programs (efficacy studies).
- Are we attending to what students are experiencing in schools? Are we attending to the world experiences in schools? Are we looking out to society in our concern for teacher education?
- The qualities in teacher education that really matter have to be seen over a longer period of time [not just within the constraints of initial teacher education programs].
- Thinking of teacher education as a field onto itself limits the influence of other fields on the education of teachers. We need to look outside.
- We need to be conscientious about the nomenclature we use. “Teacher education research” is different from “research on the education of teachers”. The latter is long-term and starts early with the upbringing of (future) teachers.

The second theme that emerged from the conversation is built around the dual role that academic teacher educators play, namely their role as teacher educators and their role as researchers in the field of education:

- We have to take two *stances*, as teacher education practitioners and as researchers.

- We should define our work as research *and* practice where we conceptualize teaching as scholarship.
- Our intense involvement in teacher education practice functions like a drain on our resources. When do we write?

The third theme of the large-group conversation is built around the contextual conditions for our work as teacher educators and educational researchers:

- We need opportunities for the ‘big discussions’.
- We already have talked about the issues 50 years ago.
- We do not have enough communication with each other.
- We need to create a collaboration of young colleagues.
- We need to create structures that make things/change happen, including structures that allow us to write.
- Face-to-face connections are important.

The Working Group Reports

Each of the working groups was invited to prepare a report at the end of the conference that would summarize the working group discussion. These reports are included in the proceedings and are grouped with the discussion paper of their respective working group. I see a number of research projects, even programs that can be derived from the working group reports. Just to give two examples. In the report of the third working group on *Understanding of Practices in Teacher Education Related to Diversity, Identity and Inclusion, and Demographic Challenges* it states (this volume, pp. 73-75):

The project of teacher education and of teacher education research should be mindful of the task of the public school.

- Enhance the life chances of all students.
- Educating a public for a democratic society.
- Personal and life sustaining social reconstruction (as opposed to social engineering).

More normative oriented research can inquire into the task of public schools in Canada that teacher education (research) should be mindful of or into the notion of a democratic society in the Canadian context. More empirically oriented research can inquire into stakeholders’ views of the task of public schools in Canada or into the underlying assumptions about that task as they manifest themselves in schooling and teaching practices in Canada. Some working group reports point quite explicitly to possible questions and foci of research in teacher education in Canada, as is the case here in the following excerpt from the report by the sixth working group on *Teacher Education Program Reform and Development* (this volume, pp. 125-127):

What research is needed?

- We should research what we are doing in our programs.
- We should research what the assumptions are that underpin our programs.

- Following up on graduates of our programs is crucial.
- We need research on the process of teacher education.
- Can we follow up with discontinuing teachers? Why do teachers leave?

Where We Might Go from Here

Many participants of the conference said explicitly how they appreciated the opportunity they had through this conference to engage with colleagues from other parts of the country in fairly in-depth discussions about issues in teacher education (research) that are so important to them as educators and researchers. It is difficult at this time to gage the impact that this opportunity will have (had) on the participants and beyond of creating connections and motivation for engaging in pan-Canadian approaches to research in teacher education in Canada. These proceedings are another step toward supporting the required continuity of opportunities for such conversations, and Hans and I hope that the proceedings will draw others who did not attend the conference into the conversation. One other concrete outcome of the conference is that a number of groups of conference participants will present at CSSE's annual conference in Vancouver in 2008.

The Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada (SSHRC) has not too long ago created funding for Strategic Knowledge Clusters with the following objective:

The overall objective of the Strategic Knowledge Clusters program is to build upon and add value to research supported through SSHRC's other programs by supporting Canadian researchers in their efforts to develop and sustain creative, innovative knowledge mobilization networks that lead to increasing the impact of research on policy and program development.
(www.sshrc.ca/web/apply/program_descriptions/knowledge_cluster_e.asp)

In my view, Strategic Knowledge Clusters funding provide a possible funding structure to support the creating and sustaining of pan-Canadian research in teacher education in Canada. Several of the discussion papers and working group reports in this volume as well as some points raised in and documented from in the large-group discussion suggest, some very concretely, specific foci for such research and what organizational support and structure can support such joint efforts.⁹

I would like to end this introduction to the proceedings by quoting from the letter of invitation Hans and I sent out for this conference, expressing our excitement and hope for the project of a pan-Canadian approach to research in teacher education in Canada:

As teacher educators, it is our view, that given the considerable length of time that such an effort was attempted, it is an opportune moment to initiate and implement a program of systematic and broad-based pan-Canadian research into teacher education. The release of the *Canadian Deans of Education Accord on Initial Teacher Education* provides an impetus and possible parameters for such research, and is exemplary of a shared vision

⁹ See, particularly, the research program and focus recommendations in the discussion papers by Grimmett, Kitchen, and Russell.

about teacher education, and how it might live well in the contexts of our different jurisdictions. It is also significant that there have been a number of teacher education conferences recently hosted by different universities, and several teacher education programs in Canada have been or are in states of review. Not least, the *Canadian Association for Teacher Education* has become much more active in recent years on focusing on teacher education and advocating for a greater research presence in the area.

The interest in teacher education is reflective of the particular contexts in which we work, and the kinds of demands (in terms of expectations for teacher preparation, concerns about resources for teacher preparation, and the challenges posed by demographic and cultural changes in our communities, for example). Such challenges pose legitimate reasons to thoughtfully engage in research about teacher education, and how to foster understandings of good teaching and educational practices.”

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INTRODUCTORY ESSAYS

A New Thing in an Old World? Instrumentalism, Teacher Education, and Responsibility

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Introduction

A range of policies during the 1980s and 1990s in North America and Europe has contributed progressively to reducing education and teacher education to the production of pre-determined outcomes (Furlong et al; 2000). The definition of teacher competences, the establishment of teaching standards by “Colleges of Teachers”, the introduction of licensed and certified teacher schemes, the creation of prescriptive, outcome-based curricula, and systems of accountability through standardized testing are obvious examples of such reductionism (Smyth & Shacklock 1998; Phelan 1996). Some argue that concerns over educational provision, access, and social equity are being replaced by an emphasis on the generation of outputs in terms of economic requirements rather than on teachers’ judgments of individual student need (Winter 2000; Neave 1988). According to some writers, teachers’ and teacher educators’ professional autonomy is in danger of being seriously curtailed. In an effort to secure and protect some vestige of professional autonomy, prominent researchers (of teaching and teacher education) have become preoccupied with matters of *justification* (delineation of knowledge base for teaching and teacher education), *legitimation* (assertion of the need for university-based teacher education) and *recognition* of teaching as a state of the art profession. While the political necessity of such moves might be obvious, the upshot is that such language and preoccupation entangle teaching and teacher education in the very logic of utility (instrumental reasoning/means-end thinking) that characterizes much of contemporary policy. By instrumental reasoning I mean, “that mode of thinking that tries to answer the question of how we can reach an end rather than why that end is what we should aim for at all” (O’Byrne, 2005, p. 396).

In this chapter, I identify the prevalence of means-ends thinking in educational thought and practice. I argue that the expansion of instrumental thinking constricts the radical possibilities of teaching and teacher education as democratic action. I propose that teacher education might be better served by research that engages the aporetic condition of teacher education as a site of possibility.

The Instrumentalist Coin

The trouble lies in the nature of the categorical framework of ends and means, which changes every attained end immediately into the means to a new end, thereby, as it were, destroying meaning wherever it is applied (Arendt, 1998, p. 80).

On September 5, 2006, the first day back at school for many children in British Columbia, newspapers across Canada covered a story entitled, “President [Bush]’s National Strategy for Combating Terrorism.” In a presentation made to the Military Officers Association of America, President Bush said:

[W]e’re engaged in a global war against an enemy that threatens all civilized nations. And today the civilized world stands together to defend our freedom; we stand together to defeat the terrorists; and we’re working to secure the peace for generations to come...Our strategy for combating terrorism has five basic elements...to stay on the offense.... (The Globe and Mail, 2006)

In reading this text, one can easily be seduced by “simplistic rigid dichotomies--good and evil, the virtuous and the vicious. One of the deepest strains in our popular culture is the simplistic way in which we divide the world into the good guys and the bad guys. We demonize our enemies and in quasi-religious talk we speak of the evil ones to be eliminated. There is no compromise or diplomacy, no time for judgment, judicious discrimination, and negotiation (Bernstein, 2005).

One month previously, on August 12, the first day back at school for Quebec children, Sarah Dougherty of The Montreal Gazette, reported the following story of Melanie Bertrand, a beginning teacher:

Thrown into a tough secondary school during her teacher training, Melanie Bertrand started questioning her career choice. “There were fights, the cops were constantly there—it was mind-boggling,” Bertrand said. “The kids, they didn’t want to be there.” Bertrand had a starkly different experience at another school, which convinced her to stay the course. “You don’t have to discipline these kids, they actually ask for more work,” she said of her stint at the tony, private Lower Canada College in N.D.G. Bertrand is weighing job offers in both the public and private sectors as she gets set to start her teaching career this fall. Since the early 1990’s, Quebec universities with teacher-training programs have added courses in classroom management and beefed up in-class training. Despite this, some experienced teachers say their young colleagues need still more training in dealing with the growing number of disruptive and special needs students.... Bertrand wishes she had even more training in classroom management. “We were never taught to deal with the students, the unruly and unmanageable ones,” she says.” (Dougherty, 2006)

Not unlike a Commander-in-Chief, the risk-conscious teacher supervisor of unruly bodies--who being properly professional must be alert to potential dangers and attend to the systematic work of minimizing the possibility of trouble (McWilliam, 2008). To teach in “tough” schools where kids don’t want to be and where police intervention is an everyday reality, affords particular kinds of sense making to those with a desire to be professional (Phelan & Sumsion, 2008). The teacher must “trained” in the scrutiny of her students; “in-class training” must be “beefed up” to produce a teacher with an adaptable disposition towards the changing challenges of [public] school life (Phelan & Sumsion, 2008).

Caught in a cycle of disillusionment with a troubled world and nostalgia for a world in which nations and children are civilized, we enter political and educational discourses of safety/risk, order/disorder, normal/abnormal, and perpetrator/redeemer. In an era of risk consciousness, coldly rational calculation is now the logic for thinking about social and organizational good (McWilliam, 2008).

The dominant rhetoric of our time--especially in dealing with our own educational institutions--tends to mock and distort anything that doesn’t appear “tough-minded”, “realistic”, and “eminently reasonable”.... And this is what is happening in our time by those who are obsessed with improving test scores, measuring outcomes, imposing ‘objective’ standards, and providing material rewards for those who succeed in achieving those goals.... It is the manipulation of a generalized anxiety and fear (Bernstein, 2005, p. 2).

Nostalgia for a trouble-free world is not limited to right-wing ideologues, however. Attempts to reclaim “a robust, comprehensive, and unitary public sphere” that can “gather us together” around shared purposes is central to many communitarians and participatory democrats for whom democracy has been undercut by the emergence of the “national security state” and the rendering meaningless of the term “citizen” (Villa, 1997, p. 199). Claiming that alienation from one another is the source of the difficulty, educators, in this vein, devise curricula for social responsibility (British Columbia Ministry of Education, 2004) or mutual understanding (See Phelan, 2000 on teacher education in Northern Ireland), conspire to build communities of practice in educational settings, and critique the economic logic which drives institutional decision-making. Left-of-centre appeals to intersubjectivity, dialogue and democracy are seductive but Hannah Arendt cautions us that, “the chances that tomorrow will be like yesterday are always overwhelming” (Levinson, 2001, p. 14).

Attempts to recover or secure particular ends may reflect a regression to what Dewey called “the quest for certainty” and Hilary Putnam calls the “craving for absolutes” (Bernstein, 2005, p. 2). Recovery and security are two sides of the same coin of a generalized instrumentalism that reduces politics and education to anthropocentric projects of calculation, strategy, and human mastery. Sarah Dougherty’s report in the *Montreal Gazette* is endemic of such a process reality wherein larger questions of what and why are usurped by how (Arendt, 1998). The beginning teacher wonders “how” she will cope with the monstrous “other”. The journalist challenges teacher educators on “how” the university program “trained” Bertrand to cope. In an instant, and Arendt might say under the influence of modern psychology, pedagogy is posed as “a science of teaching in general” (2006, p. 182). Teacher education is reduced to a means, and usefulness its ultimate standard.

As the conversation staged by the journalist focuses almost exclusively on a beginning teacher's coping mechanisms, the private sphere encroaches on what might have been an opportunity for public dialogue about education, leaving only individuals with their respective personal and institutional accounts and eclipsing any other possibility introduced by the beginning teacher's story. There is no deliberation about educational ends, no consideration of authority in teaching, no apparent concern for the manner in which schools shape and are shaped by social inequities, no allusion to the larger responsibility of the teacher and teacher educators towards the life and development of children and for the continuance of the world. Instead, there is only an enchantment with "small things", where a logic of means/how persists (Phelan & Sumsion, 2008, p.12).

When questions of "usefulness and utility are established as the ultimate standards for life and the world of men" (Arendt, 1998, p 157), educators and political leaders lose an appreciation for "the distinction between utility and meaningfulness...between "in order to" and "for the sake of". Politics and education appear devoid of any intrinsic or independent value. Teachers and teacher educators are left deprived of principles that might serve them as guides for their doing and criteria for their judgement (Arendt, 1998).

I may well be in danger of reading too much into this news story. And yet, Arendt might say that this state of affairs is only a symptom of a larger problem of "existential resentment that drives modern humanity to take itself so far out of the world, to ascribe to itself a position from which the world might be mastered, remade, and disposed of" (Villa, 1997, p. 184). This is what she termed "world alienation" and it leads to "contempt for the world and worldly activities; it weakens our attachment to existence for its own sake" (Villa, 1997, p. 185).

Instrumentalism and the Teaching-Learning Trap

Much of the educational enterprise has been characterized by discussions of how we are to secure (or recover) particular ends. Possessed by instrumental thinking, educators educate, Pinar (2004) writes, *in order to* produce social justice, achievement scores, or psycho-social outcomes. Tracing the educational preoccupation with mastery of the world to Edward L. Thorndike's social engineering, Pinar continues,

Social engineering, simply called "human engineering" by Edward L. Thorndike, appears to assume that education is like a complex automobile engine: if only we make the right adjustments--in teaching, in learning, in assessment--it will hum, and transport us to our destination, the promised land of high test scores, or for many of us on the educational Left, a truly democratic society (Pinar, 2004, p. 1).

Pinar's discussion returns us to an era when the attentional economy of the masses was a central concern. William James's emphasis on the autonomy of attention ("each of us literally chooses, by his ways of attending to things, what sort of a universe he shall appear to himself

to inhabit” (in Pinar, 2004 p. 7), occurred when technologies and institutions, including the school, were being designed to command the attention of mass populations. Apparently, James is contradicting the influential work of another writer--William B. Carpenter--work done in the 1870s in which attention is described as an element of subjectivity to be externally shaped and controlled. Carpenter wrote:

It is the aim of the Teacher to fix the attention of the Pupil upon objects which may have in themselves little or no attraction for it... The habit of attention, at first purely automatic, gradually becomes, by judicious training, in great degree amenable to the Will of the Teacher, who encourages it by the suggestion of appropriate moves, whilst taking care not to overstrain the child's mind by too long dwelling upon one object. (Carpenter, 1886 in Pinar, 2004 p. 7)

Pedagogical regulation paralleled other disciplinary forms of self-regulation and self-control in the 19th century. As a result, Pinar argues, the notion of study was lost as was the notion of teachers inciting a passion for study and we have instead “learning” tied tightly, of course, to assessment and instruction. Even ‘curriculum’--presumably the content of learning--mutates to a means to the end that is assessment.

One result of this is that teaching became instrumental to learning. Once learning described what a person accomplished as a result of serious study, Pinar writes, now learning is seen as a consequence of teaching. “Concomitantly, learning limits study to what is taught, it performs the dirty work of accountability, that cover for the closure of academic--intellectual--freedom in contemporary classrooms” (Pinar, 2004, p. 8). While the author acknowledges that teaching can be theorized and practiced in fascinating, even magical ways, as the pedagogy of Ted Aoki suggests, he asks: “Does not the very concept tempt us to think we can at a minimum, influence, or more optimistically (or is it arrogantly?) produce, certain effects or consequences?” (Pinar, 2004, p. 11).

Disciplinary attention to instruction or teaching or pedagogy as the production of certain consequences sets intellectual and political traps for the teacher.

Power and responsibility accompany the command of attention. It becomes the teacher upon whom the student depends in order to learn: that is the intellectual trap. And it is the teacher who becomes responsible for student learning: that is the political trap. What the conjunctive relationship between curriculum and teaching... invites, then, is an inflation of the claims and liabilities of the teacher (intellectual/academic education, psycho-social reconstruction, or workplace utility) that deludes parents and politicians (not to mention students and teachers) that the locus of responsibility--the very site of education--is the teacher, not the student (Pinar, 2004, p.11/12).

The inflation of claims and liabilities of the teacher (as a means to the end of learning) has also driven several decades of educational research.

Instrumentalism and the Snare of Teacher Education Research

There are three classic routes by which educational research has tried to gain authority over and influence the practice of teachers (Pearson, 2005). First, rational empirical approaches reflect the operative principle “know the truth and the truth shall make you free”. The operative metaphor is “sowing the seeds of knowledge for a rich harvest of improved practice” (p. 3). The theory of action implied in such accounts of the impact of research on practice and policy is straightforward. The hope is that teachers are exposed to such research via educational journals, books, and conferences. In normative re-educative approaches the assumption is that research needs a little nudge and so staff developers are charged with negotiating change at the local level. Such approaches also include teacher research groups and school and district-based communities of inquiry. Finally, power-coercive approaches are evident when governments and other institutional bodies coerce teachers to change when using laws, court rulings, and legislative or executive mandates as the primary policy levers (Pearson, 2005). The event of teaching standards in Alberta, Ontario and British Columbia that attempt to shape teacher preparation and evaluation priorities is one such example.

Similarly, the history of teacher education as a field of study seems largely connected, in the United States, and the United Kingdom at least, to a confluence of events and reports asserting that *teachers are failing* and schools are in trouble. The critique of teacher education is never too far from the wake of such reports: lack of intellectual rigour, selectivity standards, structural arrangements, research base, failure to achieve positive results in schools and classrooms; ending in calls for program reform and more sharply focused research. Consider, for example, the questions that have driven research in teacher education since the 1950s (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2006):

1. How do we produce effective behaviours in prospective teachers so that program and policy decisions can be empirically based? (1950s-1980s)
2. What should teachers learn and be able to do? (1980s-2000s)
3. Does teacher education make a difference? (2000- present)

A recent news report illustrates the centrality of “teacher performance” in conversations about education in Asia and Australia:

Education administrators throughout Asia and Australia agree that the quality of teachers and teaching needs improvement but are still unsure how performance can be improved according to the Director of the South East Asian Ministers’ of Education Organization (SEAMEO), Dr. Edilberto de Jesus. Dr. de Jesus, who was previously the Philippines’ minister in charge of education, will be discussing the role of teacher education in improving teaching performance at the inaugural “Training Tomorrow’s Teachers” forum to be held at the University of Melbourne next week, commencing Monday 4 June. Everyone agrees that teachers need help so that they can do their jobs better, but it is not so easy to determine just exactly what their job is or how to help improve their performance” says Dr. de Jesus.” (University of Melbourne News, 2007)

Consistently, prominent researchers (of teaching and teacher education) seem preoccupied with matters of justification (delineation of knowledge base for teaching and teacher education), legitimation (assertion of the need for university-based teacher education) and recognition (teacher autonomy). While understandable and to some degree necessary in a climate hostile to education and educators, the danger is that such language and preoccupations entangle teaching and teacher education in a logic of utility (instrumental reasoning) that risks reducing both to a means to some end.

Linda Darling-Hammond and John Bransford's 2005 edited collection entitled: "Preparing Teachers for A Changing World: What Teachers Should Learn and Be Able To Do" may be a case in point. The text is sponsored by the National Academy of Education and it attempts to review research and theory in a range of knowledge domains including "Teaching Subject Matter" (Chapter 6), "Teaching Diverse Learners" (Chapter 7), "Assessment" (Chapter 8), and "Classroom Management" (Chapter 9). The major impetus of this body of work is the promotion of teaching as a state of the art profession, knowledge-based, deliberate and rational, teachers as knowledgeable, reflective curriculum leaders. The intent is that curriculum renewal in teacher education might be guided accordingly.

In the urgency to address perceived challenges or solve perceived problems, Darling-Hammond and Bransford seem to be curiously uncritical about the very sense of normativity they deploy (Butler, 2002). For the question, "what are we to do in/with teacher education?" presupposes "that the "we" has been formed and that it is known, that its action is possible, and the field in which it might act is delimited. But if those very formations and delimitations have normative consequences, then it will be necessary to ask after the values that set the stage for action" (Butler, 2002, p. 215).

First, induced by neo-liberal policies to assert a professional knowledge base for teaching and teacher education, such a compendium of research may end up denying the plurality that exists among researchers by collapsing disparate perspectives into unanimity, forcing premature closure. Particulars are devoured by generalities as pattern is mistaken for meaning. Claiming to operate in the public interest radically undermines the possibility of a common world, a public sphere where the project of education, and teacher education, must always raise deeply controversial and contested questions about the proper direction of human flourishing (Coulter, 2006). Second, there is the implication that teacher education based on theory and research guarantees effective teaching and subsequently, student achievement. When human action (the education of teachers in this case) is framed as a form of fabrication or production (teachers as assessors or classroom managers) the researchers are in danger of reverting to the age-old attempt to escape the fragility, unpredictability and frustration of action. All action is consequential—in the world and inter-est, between humans, affecting and altering the course of events (Arendt, 1998). Practical judgments of teachers or teacher educators are not authorized by certainties but can only propose versions of them (Wingrove, 2007). Seeking to emphasize the presentness of action, Hannah Arendt (1998) tried to guard against the faith of modern ideologies in the future consequences of present means. Third, it is this very unpredictability of action that allows faith in the power of educators to break away from the status quo, to start something new, to give expression to what others take to be impossible dreams and hopes. Could teachers or teacher educators not be people with a "revolutionary spirit", who can keep alive the utopian moment in thinking that refuses to accept what presently exists as the measure of all reality? Could there be more to teaching than the exercise of adaptive expertise (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005)? In summary, research that seeks

to secure professionalism in this manner is in danger of denying plurality and refusing the possibility of action; in promoting paternalism it constricts freedom. Ironically, the researchers may lead us away from that which they hoped to secure—professional autonomy. Research carried out in the name of justice can be unjust, after all (Lovelie, In Press).

None of this suggests, however, that teacher education can never be understood as *poiesis* or production, including decisions about what teachers should learn, organizing so that they might learn what are deemed desirable knowledge, skills or dispositions, setting up a program, evaluating. To think solely in these terms, however policy-driven or resistant, is to neglect teaching and teacher education as forms of praxis.

Praxis is concerned with ethical action and the ultimate end of *praxis* is to act well, to lead a good and worthwhile life, an activity that inevitably involves relationships with other people and the intertwining of ends and means. (Coulter et al; 2007)

Not unlike teachers, teacher educators are responsible for helping teacher candidates discover their own worthwhile lives by helping them acquire the requisite knowledge, skills and dispositions or virtues to succeed in teaching. Not unlike teachers, teacher educators are responsible for discovering the means and ends in context, in particular relationships (Coulter et al; 2007). Lovelie (In press) writes:

When ends and means are set, our responsibilities are accordingly set and circumscribed. The procedures for making validity claims good, the technicisms of legitimate action both extend and curb our democratic responsibilities. The same paradox befalls teaching when...virtues harden into set habits.... (p. 18)

The crux of texts such as “Preparing Teachers for a Changing World” is that responsible teacher education may just take the responsibility out of teacher education.

Thinking Responsibly in Teacher Education Research

And what is the use of use? (Arendt, 1998, p.154)

Not unlike teachers, researchers are perennially caught between the unconditional, ethical impulse to act for the sake of some “good”, and the conditional adaptation of this impulse to historically available institutional means for pursuing that “good” (Brennan & Zippin, 2008). In the contemporary political climate of United States, the institutional means for Darling-Hammond and colleagues is that of producing a so-called scientific evidence base to justify teacher professionalism and university-based teacher education. The language of “in order to” usurps that of “for the sake of”. Researchers thus find themselves caught.

That is not easy. It is even impossible to conceive of a responsibility that consists in being responsible for *two* laws, or that consists in responding to two contradictory injunctions. No doubt. But there is no responsibility that

is not the experience and experiment of the impossible. (Derrida, 1992, p. 44-5, original emphasis)

Research is like teaching and teacher education in this regard: it is entangled in an ethical *aporia*, or unresolvable perplexity (Derrida, 2001). Without acknowledging this perplexity, researchers may simply produce “comfort texts” that try to provide all the necessary consolations to policy makers and practitioners (Lather, 1997). An acknowledgement of ethical *aporia*, on the other hand, may invite an opportunity to think differently, in a materially difficult way, about “teaching” and “teacher education”. Arendt may be instructive here.

Thinking, for Arendt, is not about deducing, inducing, and drawing conclusions whose logical rules of non-contradiction and inner consistency can be learned once and for all and then need only to be applied. Raising questions without providing neat answers was a key purpose in thinking. She wrote that she did not feel duty-bound to solve the difficulties her thinking created. Thinking, for her, was a battleground, a fighting experience that can be won only through practice, through exercises. Kohn (2006) writes,

These (exercises) do not contain prescriptions on what to think and or which truths to hold. Least of all, he writes, do they intend to retie the broken thread of tradition or to invent some newfangled surrogates with which to fill the gap between past and future...the problem of truth is kept in abeyance; the concern is solely to move in this gap--the only region perhaps where truth eventually will appear (p. xiv).

Arendt (2006) seemed to reverse the established relationship between experience and thought. She refers to Kafka who, in her view, took the bare minimum of experience and create a kind of thought-landscape which harbored all the riches, varieties, and dramatic elements characteristic of “real” life (Kohn, 2006). Thinking with Kafka and Arendt, alongside Melanie Bertrand, what questions might her experience evoke/provoke? Given our educational legacy, our first impulse may be to ask: What must Melanie know and be able to do? However, Arendt, along with many postmodern writers such as Derrida, Butler, and Foucault, urge us to curb our impatience to resolve matters and to keep the avenues of dialogue open.

What if, in a hesitant pause, researchers wondered about the (im)possibility of hospitality towards the newcomer to the profession, the complications of friendship in teaching and learning, experience as both gift and curse, teacher learning as a loss of truth and self as much as an assurance of self and identity, teacher knowledge as site of hope and despair (Lovelie, 2005)? What if researchers focused on language, asking in Socratic style, what do we mean when we say...? In so doing, researchers might immerse themselves in the unresolvable perplexity of being at once guardians of an idea of ‘teacher’ but also bound by the responsibility of an intellectual to open the notion of ‘teacher’ to the difference that which is not, never was, and may never be ‘teacher’.

None of this means that research such as that conducted by Darling-Hammond and colleagues does not have a place—rather it calls for inquiries that widen the field of insight in teacher education. It does mean, however, learning to living with unease, Lather (2004) writes, always feeling a bit lost in the service of unlocking thinking and opening ourselves up to “intellectual bewilderment” (p. 8). Researchers who work in this manner refuse to be seduced by clarity or common sense while at the same time attempting to be understood. They risk

unrecognizability and unintelligibility as “researchers” while still attempting to appear ‘relevant’. They accept the terms of what has been/is while acting in ways that might renew those terms. While starting in existing states of affairs is necessary, researchers must eschew the tools and technicisms of instrumentalism, for the sake of teacher education that invites plurality of thought, welcomes the natality of action, and accepts the fragility of both.

Can our work in teacher education preserve thought and action? Can research proceed ‘without a project’ (O’Byrne, 2005)? Is teacher education “something that is capable of surprising itself, something interested in risking itself?” (Britzman, 1998, p 58). Could it be a new thing in an old world (Arendt, 2006)?

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Questions of Purpose in Teacher Education Research

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Introduction

In my short opening comments I would like to give some consideration to what could be called ‘questions of purpose in teacher education research’ in order to make the case for the relevance of those questions of purpose for our work here at the conference as an overarching theme, crossing the six working group themes.

There are two types of purpose questions in connection with teacher education research, both distinguished by the subject of the purpose. In the first case the focus is on the purpose of teacher education *research*, and the question is “What is the purpose of teacher education research?” In the second case the focus is on the purpose of *teacher education* and the question here is “How does the purpose of teacher education impact *research* on teacher education?” Here I will only speak on the latter case, namely the role that the purpose of teacher education can, should, and does play in *researching* teacher education.

The Role of the Purpose of Teacher Education in Research

When Linda Darling-Hammond and her collaborators recently published a framework for preparing teachers for a changing world¹, it was *a vision of professional teaching practice* that was at the centre of that framework. The current teacher education program at the University of Calgary as described by Anne Phelan (2005) is “inquiry-based, learner-focused and field-oriented” (p. 58) in order to “prepare teachers that can dwell within the rough ground of experience, appreciate its complexity and deep interpretability, and respond ethically. Put simply, the program attempts to develop the capacity for discernment” (p. 62). These are two examples illustrating the role of purpose in teacher education: it is the purpose of teacher education that frames program design and, hence, teacher education pedagogy.²

Thinking about teacher education outside of program design issues is also framed by questions of purpose, for instance in the discussion about teacher education and social justice. In their introduction to their edited book *Teacher Education for Democracy and Social Justice*, Michelli and Keiser (2005) suggest that a common vision for teacher education should be connected to “four historical purposes of public education”, of which one is “preparing students to be active, involved participants in democracy” (p. xviii).

At a theoretical level the idea seems to provide itself that our thinking about teacher education is guided by a vision of the qualities we want to see in our graduates and their teaching practice so that they can have the impact we hope they have on student learning and

¹ Bransford, Darling-Hammond, & LePage, 2005, p. 11; Darling-Hammond, 2006a, p. 84; Darling-Hammond, 2006b.

² Other examples can be drawn from Goodlad (1990), Grimmer (1998), Liston and Zeichner (1991) and many others.

student development – teacher education is ultimately *preparation*, and the purpose of teacher education provides the answer to the question “Preparation for what?”

What might seem to present itself less direct is, I think, the question of the role of the purpose of teacher education for *researching* teacher education, especially *more empirical* research. This is the question I want to discuss for the rest of the talk.

You might be familiar with the Report of the AERA Panel on Research and Teacher Education (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005), edited by the panel’s two co-chairs, Marilyn Cochran-Smith and Kenneth Zeichner. At the core the panel report is a meta-analysis of peer-reviewed empirical research on teacher education in the USA. The report analyses empirical research studies clustered into eight categories, depending on the aspect of teacher education they are inquiring into: the studies considered inquire into teachers’ characteristics, subject matter and foundational course work, methods courses and field experiences, pedagogical approaches, preparation for teaching a diverse population, preparation for teaching students with disabilities, the accountability process, and teacher education programs. The majority of the research studies considered in each of the eight categories is what could be called *impact* or *effect research* on teacher education, meaning that those studies investigate the impact or the effect that certain factors of teacher education have. (Not all teacher education research is impact or effect research in this sense. For instance, researching the demographics of those entering teacher education programs is not by necessity impact research in the sense used here. However, even this kind of research on teacher education is linked to the impact question in an indirect way as I will argue below.)

All impact or effect research implies the question – as Fred Korthagen (2001, p. 89) phrases it – “Effective toward what end?” It is here where the purpose of teacher education comes into play for empirical research on teacher education. Let me illustrate this point by drawing on one particular example of teacher education program research, namely on Korthagen’s (2001) presentation of research into a programmatic teacher education approach he himself promotes and calls Realistic Teacher Education, an approach he suggests to overcome the practice and theory divide in many teacher education programs. At the core of this approach are three principles for a Realistic Teacher Education pedagogy (Korthagen, 2001, p. 72), all three of which are either directly or indirectly linked to the idea of helping teacher candidates become reflective practitioners. In chapter 6 of his book Korthagen discusses empirical research into the effects of the Realistic Teacher Education pedagogy in particular and into programs and strategies that promote reflection in general. There he discusses what he calls “the problem of operationalizing reflection” (p. 91). He writes:

One issue on which these differ [that is the operationalizations of reflection] is the question of what educational aspects are worthy of reflection. . . . This question is directly related to the question of what constitutes good teaching.
(Korthagen, 2001, p. 91)

The Korthagen example illustrates several aspects of *the role* of the purpose of teacher education in *researching* teacher education. It illustrates how impact or effect research draws its answer to the question ‘Effective toward what end?’ from assumptions about the purpose of teacher education. In Korthagen’s example, the impact research he is interested in assesses the impact the Realistic Teacher Education program has on teacher candidates’ ability for

reflective teaching practice, which is a central purpose of the Realistic Teacher Education program.

The Korthagen example helps also illustrating a distinction between what could be called program-based assumptions and research-based assumptions about the purpose of teacher education. What I just discussed was an explicit program-based assumption about the purpose of teacher education, namely to help teacher candidates develop into reflective teaching practitioners. As Korthagen's "problem of operationalizing reflection" suggests, some programs might not explicitly articulate an answer to this problem. For research into the effect of the program this can mean that the research inquires first into the unarticulated assumptions about the program's purpose by, for instance, interviewing those working within the program. Korthagen has used this research approach when researching the effectiveness of Realistic Teacher Education (Korthagen, 2001, pp. 93-95).

Case study research into exemplary teacher education programs illustrates the other case: research-based assumptions about the purpose of teacher education. As the case study publications by Howey and Zimpher (1989) and Darling-Hammond (2006) illustrate, in exemplary case study research on teacher education programs exemplary programs are first chosen and then studied for their common features to inquiry into program features that seem to have an impact on the desired output by the exemplary programs. In contrast to the Korthagen example, here the purpose of teacher education used to assess the impact of the programs is set externally to the programs by the researchers in order to establish the exemplarity of the chosen programs (see Howey & Zimpher, 1989, p. 6; Darling-Hammond, 2006, p. 16). In other words, the purpose of teacher education is not program-based but rather research-based.

Another example of research-based purpose thinking is the demographic research I mentioned above. When we inquire into the gender, age, cultural background, and so on of those entering our teacher education programs, we do so because we are concerned with the impact those factors have on the teaching and learning in classrooms. We are interested in the social, cultural and ethnic background of teacher candidates because we might be concerned about the impact that a homogeneous, monolingual, white, middle class teaching force has on a socially, culturally and linguistically diverse student population. This impact – and this is the crucial point here – might not be compatible with the purpose of school education as we see it, which is why we inquire into demographic aspects of our teacher candidates. We would not be interested in researching the shoe size of teacher candidates because we are not concerned about its impact on students. This means that even in demographic research we are concerned with purpose questions *because* we are concerned with impact that might not be compatible with a specific vision of educational purpose.

For this example of demographic research in teacher education I have drawn upon the purpose of institutionalized education or schooling, less so on the purpose of *teacher education*. But in my view both are closely linked, although not identical or equivalent. It seems to me that implicitly or explicitly given purposes of teacher education programs fall into three categories. First, those programs that focus their purpose on helping teacher candidates develop competency in engaging in particular teaching practices. The work by Darling-Hammond and her collaborators referred to above can be seen as a prototypical example for this case. Second, they can focus their purpose on developing particular human qualities in teacher candidates. The purpose of the Calgary teacher education program might be taken as a

prototypical example in this case. And, finally, the programs can focus their purpose on the purpose of schooling.

As suggested, all three responses to the purpose question for teacher education are linked. It is particular knowledge, skills and attitudes (to use the Alberta Learning standards framework) that teachers have to have in order to engage in the professional teaching practice that Darling-Hammond envisions, and the idea of developing discernment and practical wisdom in teacher candidates in the Calgary program will be directly linked to a vision of what it means to engage adequately in the lives of schools. And ultimately, all those visions are linked to a view of what schooling is to be about for which teacher candidates in these programs are to be prepared.

However, if we talk about the *focus* of a program, we need to acknowledge differences in focus of purpose. Those differences can be seen when asking the question how those different program foci impact on *researching* teacher education. In his chapter *A Research Agenda for Teacher Education* in the AERA Report I mentioned above, Kenneth Zeichner (2005) writes:

One critical outcome that has been largely neglected in the teacher education research literature is *student learning*. . . . We think that greater efforts need to be made by researchers to connect teacher education to student learning. In doing so, researchers need to explore measures of other aspects of academic student learning in addition to that which is assessed in standardized achievement tests. . . . Researchers should address these other aspects of student learning such as students' social, emotional, aesthetic, and civic development. We need broader conceptions of how to measure student competence or success.

(Zeichner, 2005, p. 743; emphasis in original)

Researching the impact of teacher education programs on pupils' competency and success – as Zeichner suggests – cannot be a behaviouristic 'black box'-type of research, where one only looks at program qualities and then assesses student learning in classes with graduates of those programs. There are so many factors influencing students' learning success beside what the teacher contributes³ that we want to know what teacher qualities and teacher practices contribute to student success. That means researching the impact of a teacher education program on student learning *will have to include* researching the impact of the program on teacher candidates' human qualities and the practices they engage in. On the other hand, researching the impact of a teacher education program on teacher candidates' teaching practices *does not* require the consideration of student learning in the research – which is exactly the point Zeichner raises.

For purposes of teacher education programs this means that when the program focuses on developing teacher candidates' ability and inclination to engage in particular teaching practices, the program might, if at all, make the *assumption* that this practice makes student learning of a particular type more likely.

The role of the purpose question in researching teacher education, I argued, is – simplified – to provide an answer to the question what impact we are interested in. The last

³ This is a point made by Cochran-Smith (2005, pp. 414-415) against a misconceptualized focus on outcomes in teacher education research.

point just raised, then, suggests that in researching teacher education, researchers should consider the ‘ultimate’ purpose of teacher education, namely to have a desired impact on student learning. This affects impact research regardless of whether the purpose is program-based – given explicitly or implicitly – or where the purpose is research-based and, thus, brought by the researchers to the inquiry into the impact of a particular version of teacher education.

I now like to conclude with one big suggestion for our work tomorrow with a couple of smaller attachments derived from what I said previously.

Conclusion

I suggest that regardless which research theme of teacher education we are inquiring into, we need to be explicit about our own and – where applicable – the programs’ assumptions about the purpose of teacher education. This suggestion fits into the more general recommendation by others to consider larger theoretical frameworks and assumptions in research on teacher education. For instance, Fred Korthagen writes:

Perhaps the biggest problem with evaluative research in this field is that such underlying philosophies of education are seldom made explicit, which makes any claim about effects of promoting reflection questionable or at least unclear. What is needed are coherent theories in which the relation between effects of the promotion of reflection and views of good teaching are made explicit.
(Korthagen, 2001, p. 91)

Kenneth Zeichner writes:

Another aspect of design that we think is important for future research is to better *situate research studies in relation to relevant theoretical frameworks*. Failure to do this will result in continued difficulties in explaining findings about the effects or lack of effects of particular teacher education practices.
(Zeichner, 2005, p. 741)

If you are familiar with Brent Davis and Denis Sumara’s work on complexity theory and educational research (David & Sumara, 2006), you might appreciate these recommendations for including ‘a larger picture’ – and I also hope, for including the purpose question – into our researching teacher education.

My discussion about the purpose of teacher education would then add the following five ideas to considering the purpose question in teacher education research.

1. It is the purpose of teacher education that provides the standards against which impact research into teacher education is assessed.
2. The purpose of teacher education is relevant even in teacher education research that is not focused on program impact, because teacher education is *preparation*, and the purpose question provides a central component to the answer what that preparation is for.

3. Assumptions about the purpose of teacher education can be program-based – meaning that the teacher education program inquired into provides the purpose of the program – or the assumptions can be research-based – meaning that the researchers bring their vision of the purpose of teacher education to their inquiry into teacher education.
4. When considering the purpose of teacher education in researching teacher education, the ‘ultimate’ purpose of teacher education should be kept in focus: impacting student learning and development in a desired way.
5. The purpose of teacher education should provide one of a series of underlying and guiding assumptions in a larger theoretical framework that needs to be explicitly in focus when doing research in teacher education.

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TEACHER EDUCATION GOVERNANCE, POLICY AND THE ROLE OF THE UNIVERSITY

Teacher Education Governance, Policy, and the Role of the University

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Introduction

This paper addresses the following four questions:

1. What is the current state of affairs of research in Canadian teacher education governance and policy?
2. What are central issues to be addressed in research in Canadian teacher education governance and policy?
3. What role could (should) the universities be playing in the formulation of policy affecting the governance of teacher education in Canada?
4. What could a design of a research program look like that allows for such research to be undertaken?

My purpose here is to characterize the current state of affairs in Canadian teacher education governance and policy as a way of framing the central issues within the Canadian context that need to be reframed as research questions. It is also to show the role that universities could play in enabling teacher education in Canada to avoid the more deleterious effects of well-meant but intrusive policy on the practice of rigorously preparing culturally responsive and contextually relevant teachers for a diverse, multicultural context. Finally, I end with a sketch of a research program in the area of teacher education and governance that permits the pursuit of viable, theoretically sensitive research.

What Is the Current State of Affairs of Research in Canadian Teacher Education Governance and Policy?

I begin by characterizing three decades of teacher education research and policy to demonstrate how the current governance of teacher education in Canada is potentially subject to the insidious mix of over-regulation alongside a policy emphasis on de-regulation, leading to a possible undermining of the professional agenda.

Phase 1 (1960-1980): Teacher Education as Training; Benign Government Control. During this period teacher education was viewed as training with an emphasis on direct instruction and classroom management. The governance of teacher education was largely in the hands of benign governments. This phase ended because training, direct instruction, and an emphasis

on classroom management was seen to have little or no effect on producing the kind of citizens needed for a democratic society and the workforce requisite for sustaining economic viability; as a consequence, benign government control was replaced by institutional governance. The catalyst for phase 2 was *A Nation At Risk* and the advent of the Holmes Group.

Phase 2 (1980-2000): Teacher Education as Learning to Teach; Institutional Governance. During this period teacher education was viewed as learning to teach with a focus on teacher's beliefs, values, and their learning as professionals. The governance of teacher education was largely institutional. This phase fell apart because research and practice had become consumed with a focus on teacher's beliefs, values, and their learning as professionals, to the neglect of attention to quality assurance and outcomes. Institutional governance became suspect because universities were seen not as partners with the field but as independent institutions protecting their vested and prioritized interests. The catalyst for the third phase with its competing policies of professionalization and de-regulation was the unrelenting criticism of right-wing think tanks and the public mistrust of teacher education institutions.

Phase 3 (1990-2010): Teacher Education as Policy; Professionalization and De-Regulation. During this period teacher education is viewed as a policy problem with a contrasting emphasis on professionalization alongside de-regulation. The governance of teacher education has largely moved from institutional to professional. This phase is not stable because the competition between professionalization and de-regulation policies is making the governance of teacher education very difficult for higher education institutions and professional bodies alike. The delicate balance between professional accreditation and institutional autonomy has not been attended to with care. Consequently, the forces of professionalization are not holding. Higher education institutions want to contest what they see as unwarranted intrusion into their programs and autonomy. They fear a "worst" possibility that entails the dismantling of professional preparation and the consignment of teacher education to schools, as has happened in England.

Policy Effects of De-Regulation and Over-Regulation on the Governance of Teacher Education in England and the USA

What I want to explore briefly here are the effects of the contesting forces of professionalization and de-regulation on teacher education in two Anglophone contexts, England and the USA, where a policy emphasis on de-regulation has turned into an insidious mix of over-regulation alongside talk about professionalization. Whereas the first phase of government control occurred under classical liberalism (the individual is characterized as having autonomy and can practice freedom, and the role of government is to protect individual freedom), the third phase falls under the ideology of neo-liberalism wherein the state *creates* individuals who are enterprising and competitive entrepreneurs. That is, the end goals of "freedom," "choice" and "competition," etc., are government constructions that are continuously monitored by New Management technocrats, and represent not a retreat from government intervention but a re-inscription of particular techniques required for the exercise of government. The purpose of this examination is to frame research questions within the Canadian context that enables teacher education to avoid the more deleterious effects of well-meant but intrusive policy on the practice of rigorously preparing culturally responsive and contextually relevant teachers for a diverse, multicultural context.

England

A major tide of policy initiatives has affected teacher education in England since 1988. These policies appear to be reductively re-fashioning teaching and learning practices within narrowly prescribed and measurable learning outcomes. These effects are further sustained through the setting up of a standards discourse that subjects practice to assessment, monitoring and appraisal through various systems of surveillance and inspection. Gale (2007) uses Foucault's (1997) framework to suggest that the purpose of teacher education now is "the production of 'docile bodies', who have agency only to the extent that they adopt the standards, adhere to the models of practice, and co-operate in putting the new policy prescriptions into place" (p. 473).

A powerful campaign of attack on teacher education both from within and without contributed to this direction in teacher education in England. During the Thatcher era, it was claimed that too much time was devoted in teacher education to abstract theoretical studies—so-called "trendy theories" based on dubious sociological or philosophical premises. Ball (1990) called it a "discourse of derision" that came from right-wing critics and some insider educators. Most notably, David Hargreaves (2000) criticized the practice of teacher education, insisting that education reform must be driven by central government, not teacher educators, and that the unit of effectiveness is the school, not university, college-based teacher education. Hence, higher education institutions were expected to become knowledge providers to schools as institutions of education reform and teacher education. The consequence of this was that the teacher's job has thus become bureaucratically controlled; teachers are to implement decisions made by others.

The establishment in 1994 of the Teacher Training Agency (TTA), together with the Office of Standards in Education (Ofsted), reinforced this direct control. Hill (1994) maintained that the major effect of such circumscription of teacher education course content is to de-theorize, de-critique and de-intellectualize teacher education.

The USA

In the USA, Zeichner (2005) has called on teacher educators to focus on what is important for the future of teacher education, ensuring that the agenda of de-regulation is contested to safeguard quality in teacher education:

It would be a terrible mistake, in my view, to continue on the path of deregulation and to destroy college and university teacher education and to lower standards for entry into teaching. (p. 336)

But that is exactly what is part of the agenda in the USA. The *No Child Left Behind* (NCLB) legislation was passed in January 2002. In June, 2002, the then USA Education Secretary, Rod Paige called for a radical transformation of teacher certification systems by raising standards and lowering barriers that keep many highly qualified candidates from pursuing teaching careers. To raise academic standards, prospective teachers would be required to pass rigorous exams in the subjects they plan to teach. To lower barriers, institutions of higher education would be required revamp their teacher preparation programs and eliminate many of their rigid certification requirements, such as the massive number of methods courses.

Alternative approaches to certification are now burgeoning in the States. Selwyn (2007) claims that the NCLB increased focus on testing to determine who can teach is both pushing

out and alienating potential teachers whose strengths and interests do not show up on tests, and/or who do not believe that this is the best way to serve the public school students. He posits that this emphasis treats teachers like they are incapable of making good decisions based on their knowledge of curricula, kids, and human development. Moreover, NCLB holds teacher education institutions accountable for the test scores that their graduates' students achieve thereby pressuring them to violate what they know and believe about teaching and learning, and, in the process, perpetuate an unethical system of privilege and inequality.

According to Darling-Hammond & Younge (2002), the policy objectives of *No Child Left Behind* for improving teacher quality essentially mean the “dismantling of teacher education systems and the redefinition of teacher qualifications to include little preparation for teaching” (p. 13). NCLB’s almost exclusive focus on subject matter knowledge to the neglect of pedagogy and other professional knowledge and skills is a particular concern (Cochran-Smith, 2005). As Berliner (2005) has said, “We should not confuse a highly qualified taker of tests about teaching with a highly qualified classroom teacher” (p. 208).

Consequently, the standards-based discourse now saturating the entire United States’ educational policy represents a single “fix” and minimizes the variations in school context we know contribute to inequities in students’ opportunities to learn. NCATE and, to a lesser extent, TEAC, have merely tinkered with the existing standards-based preparation and licensing system.

In sum, NCLB represents what Apple (2001) has called the politics of “conservative modernization”—the complicated alliance behind the wave after wave of educational reforms that have centered on neo-liberal commitments to the market and a supposedly weak state, neoconservative emphases on stronger control over curricula and values, and “new managerial” proposals to install rigorous forms of accountability in schooling at all levels. This situation has given rise to what might best be called an *audit culture* (Apple, 2007). Leys (2003) describes the widespread nature of such practices that typically submerge other approaches to effectiveness and democracy:

In place of a society of citizens with the democratic power to ensure effectiveness and proper use of collective resources, and relying in large measure on trust in the public sector, there emerged a society of “auditees,” anxiously preparing for audits and inspections. A punitive culture of “league tables” developed (purporting to show the relative efficiency and inefficiency of universities or schools or hospitals). Inspection agencies were charged with “naming and shaming” “failing” individual teachers, schools, social work departments, and so on; private firms were invited to take over and run “failing” institutions. (Leys, 2003, p. 70)

The ultimate result of an auditing culture of this kind is not the promised de-centralization that plays such a significant role rhetorically in most neo-liberal self-understandings but also what seems to be a massive re-centralization and what is best seen as a process of de-democratization (Apple, 2007).

What these two Anglophone jurisdictions demonstrate is that, when professionalization and de-regulation policies are in competition, the latter undermine the former, resulting in the serious circumscription (if not restriction) of the exercise of professional judgment in teacher education institutions. De-regulation supporters argue that people internal to the profession

will not reform teacher education programs, and therefore only external intervention and market forces can stem the tide of vested self-interest in the profession that is characterized as not being in the interests of children and their learning. *My thesis is that when policy makers align their thinking about education with market forces, the “beast” of harsh political imposition emerges.* Such a profound intensification of the gaze of the state have a highly personalized and individualized impact on teachers, leading to the “performativity” that Ball (2003) characterizes as terrorizing the teacher’s pedagogical soul.

There are two ironies of note in this situation. First, while postmodernist critiques have opened our eyes to many instances of marginalization and injustice, they have also, as Lefebvre (1991, p. 56) points out, “in the very process of heaping invective upon [neo-liberalism] come under its spell and [succeeded] only in glorifying its power beyond all reasonable bounds”. Second, given the “small government” rhetoric of neo-liberalism, the irony of this command-and-control tendency ought not to be lost. Neo-liberalism can be said to have failed on its own terms. Rather than delivering the diminution of the state, it has shifted state functions away from nation-building enterprises toward market-based regulation of civic life. Such contradictions need greater recognition.

While governments have traditionally set targets and provided support, empowering partners to seek ways of achieving the targets, the present regimes in England and the USA have used their power to determine both the means and the ends, and to supervise these in a punitive manner. Furlong (2005) characterizes the situation in England thus: “This move away from seeing teaching as a key concern in policy development means that the government have won their struggle to reduce teacher education to an unproblematic, technical rationalist, procedure” (p. 132). Apple’s (2007) characterization of the situation in the USA, while damning, is not as final:

Education and teacher education can only do so [work toward democracy] if they are protected from those who see them as one more set of products to be consumed as we measure them and who interpret the intellectual and emotional labor of those who are engaged in educational work through the lenses of standardization, rationalization, and auditing. (p. 115)

I have juxtaposed three phases of research and policy in Canadian teacher education governance and policy with a foreshadowing of what is possible after the current phase by focusing on what has occurred in England and the USA. That is based on the predication that the forces of neo-liberalist policy, neo-conservative values, and New Public Management have not yet penetrated that deeply into the governance of teacher education in Canada. In many ways, the existence of professional governance in BC and Ontario has done a lot to prevent this intrusion but the possibility exists that even professional regulation can take on trappings of an audit culture if it fails to distinguish the need for standards and accountability from the neo-liberalist saturated discourse in which such topics are typically discussed and framed. Moreover, the future of professional governance, itself an experiment, hangs in the balance, particularly since professional bodies govern by delegated authority from provincial governments, and delegated authority can, under certain political circumstances, be taken back. Hence, although Canada is still largely free of the worst form of neo-liberalist policy intrusion into the governance of teacher education, there is no guarantee that this state of affairs will

continue indefinitely without teacher educators taking concerted action. Rigorous research is the best form of critique and protection. How then can Canadian teacher education forge its own distinctive direction? What can teacher educators do to prevent an auditing juggernaut overtaking the professional agenda in Canada? What are the central issues that need to be reframed into research questions?

What Are Central Issues to Be Addressed in Research in Canadian Teacher Education Governance and Policy?

Teacher education in Canada has been soundly criticized in every decade since the Second World War. Neatby (1953) became a sensation overnight with her stinging indictment of the lack of intellectual challenge in the progressiveness of the Canadian education system. Peterson and Fleming (1979) criticized almost every aspect of teacher preparation in Canada, including its organization, staffing, and the curriculum. Canadian-born Goodlad's (1990) study left little doubt that major problems confronted faculties of education in North America and highlighted the need for radical reform in teacher preparation. Indeed, his comment that programs of teacher education are "disturbingly alike and almost uniformly inadequate" (p. 13) summed up the views of many critics in different countries.

As we begin the 21st century, it does not appear that much has changed in teacher education since the critiques of these authors. At the same time, massive, far-reaching changes have been occurring in society. Although these changes have been building for some time, they have begun to coalesce in a way that sets a very different context for schools. Today's youth and its culture are dramatically different from even ten years ago (Grimmett & Echols, 2000). Likewise, the landscape of Canadian teacher education is changing with the shifting urban/rural trends and the increasingly multicultural nature of society (Connelly & Clandinin, 2001). Consequently, these changes must affect how faculties of education prepare teachers for schools inhabited by today's youth. It is difficult to imagine how the old ways of doing business in faculties of education—critiqued so thoroughly and found so wanting—can possibly survive in this new context. Thiessen and Cole (1993) attempted to frame the direction that Canadian teacher education should take. This was consolidated by contributions by Grimmett (1995a), Munby and Russell (1994), Knowles and Cole (1996). However, Cole's (1999; 2000a; 2000b) subsequent investigations in Anglophone Canada have indicated that, despite the resolve of individual teacher educators, institutional realities have so constrained faculty members' commitments that little progress has been made in teacher education reform.

Teacher education in Canada has therefore reached a turning point in its history. It now has no option but to heed Grimmett's (1992) call for structural collaboration and proceed in earnest to co-construct its curriculum and pedagogy with members of the field in order to address the challenges that today's teachers and learners face.

Hence, a central issue in Canadian teacher education is collaboration and professional governance. Given what is happening in England and the USA, it is critical that we forge our own direction to prevent an auditing juggernaut overtaking the professional agenda in Canada. In a real sense, Canada leads the world in professional governance. At the same time, this form of governance in Canada has proved highly problematic—the court cases in BC, and the accreditation difficulties in Ontario. It would be easy to claim that it has served its time. But that, in my view, is profoundly foolish and short sighted. Professional governance is an

experiment we need to endorse and get behind to ensure that it does not fail; otherwise Anglophone Canada will be potentially subject to the harsh policy environment that currently exists in England and the USA.

Another central issue has to do with the policy context within which professional governance takes place. Even in those provinces other than BC and Ontario in which government and institutional governance still pertain in one form or another, it is important to ensure that policies regulating the governance of teacher education are oriented to defending the profession and improving its practice. Because of Canada's proximity to the USA, many policy makers are susceptible to policy directions emanating from our southern neighbors. A central issue in the governance of teacher education in Canada revolves around the sources that these policy makers are exposed to. The lack of research on policy in teacher education in Canada contributes to the susceptibility of Canadian policy makers to American trends. This situation can only be rectified as Canadian teacher educators increase their research productivity with a specific focus on governance and regulation.

A third central issue in teacher education governance comes from the policy context, notably, labor mobility agreements. The Trade and International Labor Mobility Agreement (TILMA) arrangement between Alberta and British Columbia (effective January 1, 2007) is designed to bring cross-border provincial equivalence to professional qualifications and credentials. It is an outgrowth of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) that serves as a precursor to such equivalence agreements being effected across all provinces. Much of the substance in the negotiations has been of a legal nature but the part affecting teacher education and teaching credentials has been negotiated between Alberta Education (as the governing body in Alberta) and the BC College of Teachers (the professional governing body in BC). It is still early days but the effects of this agreement will eventually be felt in teacher education programs. For instance, what will happen if one jurisdiction emphasizes exposure to Canadian studies, human rights, and social issues, and another jurisdiction issues a credential based on a different orientation that has less provision for the appreciation of ethnic, cultural, linguistic, and demographic diversity? At the moment, Canada does not have alternative routes to certification but legislatively such an option is possible—culturally difficult but legally possible. How, then, will the future labor agreements in Canada take account of the need for rigorous professional preparation before entry into teaching is permitted? My point is that safeguards must be put in place to ensure that any equivalence of teaching qualification from jurisdiction to jurisdiction does in fact meet local standards. At the moment, this agreement is only in place between Alberta and BC but it is projected to extend across all provinces of Canada. It is not out of keeping with the neo-liberalist policy logic embedded in NAFTA for a case eventually to be made for labor mobility agreements to extend to the whole North American free trading zone.

What Role Could (Should) the Universities Be Playing in the Formulation of Policy Affecting the Governance of Teacher Education in Canada?

An obvious university contribution comes from the many forms of research that it can spawn and help spawn to address these three central issues in teacher education governance and policy. By many forms of research I mean not only faculty-sponsored studies (funded or otherwise) and graduate student research but also co-constructed research studies with field-

based teacher educators including (but not limited to) self-studies of teacher education practice and programs. What would be the broad-brush strokes of university involvement?

First, I believe very strongly that universities need to provide both substantive and strategic support for professional governance. Supporting professional governance means getting involved with the process in a manner wherein we teacher educators add our positive contribution to co-constructing the process. A necessary and productive contribution can come in the form of helping professional bodies maintain a semblance of independence both from governments and from teachers' unions. From governments because real power still resides with governments, and it is vital that professional bodies do not succumb to becoming the means whereby government policy directives are made more palatable to universities. From unions because any politicization of professional regulation ultimately undermines the professional body's capacity for safeguarding standards and the public trust in the eyes of the public that relies on its judgment to protect society's good. Such an exercise in political control, whether by government or unions, inevitably orients professional bodies to engage in bureaucratic expansionism and professional protectionism, thereby distorting the "professional" aspect of self-regulation by making it into a mechanism of control rather than a means for re-invigorating practice and safeguarding the public trust by upholding the standards of the profession. A further contribution would come in grappling with them around what it means to "safeguard the public trust." Sometimes, protecting the public interest is used as a rationalization for justifying an action taken by a professional body, particularly actions that are pitted against universities. It is always assumed that only professional regulatory bodies are charged with safeguarding the public trust and, remarkably, that teacher education institutions are not. Such misunderstandings need not only to be critiqued but also their consequences pointed out. Where one party in a collaborative endeavor grabs the high ground to justify their decisions about the other's programs as "protecting the public interest," then both sides eventually end up playing a game of fabrications designed to satisfy the other but which have little impact on actual practice. Hence, neither party ultimately safeguards the public interest, and impact on or improvement of practice is negligible.

Second, universities need to study the policy context of teacher education in other jurisdictions to provide critique, alternative visions, and strategies for getting from the present to preferred futures. This would entail teacher educators re-visioning a sense of agency that interrupts a fatalistic view of themselves as mere pawns in the neo-liberalist policy juggernaut. This does not mean being naïve about the structural impediments to agency but it does involve fighting the tendency to see teacher education programs as victims of policy. Teacher educators must therefore reject passivity and engage the struggle to re-vision our work so that our practice is theoretically sensitive and grounded in moral purpose. We must work to sustain teacher education in a manner that spawns resilience within and among all teacher educators. Furedi (2005), in *Politics of Fear: Beyond Left and Right*, argues that with increasing deference to market forces comes increasing deference to fate, resulting in people having a declining sense of power and experiencing themselves merely as the passive objects of policy-making or as dissatisfied consumers. People are encouraged to defer to fate and accept what is as the limit of possibility. For Furedi (2005), such a culture of inevitability leads to thinking of oneself as "vulnerable" that denies agency and confines people to victim-hood, which in turn underplays people's capacity for making choices and history.

Research and critique are powerful contributions that universities can make to this phenomenon. A critique of the current situation is a precursor to an alternative vision of what is possible in teacher education. The purpose of such critique is to trouble the given by focusing macro-concerns on local or micro issues in order to situate policy in practice and thereby dismantle it from its pontifical pedestal by rendering its discourses not totalizing. At the same time, we must not forget that, while many of the neo-liberalist policy reforms may be oppressive, the hegemony is not complete (McInerney, 2007), because the people who work in practice (rightly or wrongly, for good or ill) always mediate policy (Brain, et al., 2006). Even Plank and Dunbar (2004) writing in the Finn and Hess (2004) book *Leaving No Child Behind* acknowledge the importance of teacher buy-in if accountability is to be effective. No system will work, they write, if it does not make sense to teachers. Those expected to respond to incentives (sorely lacking in NCLB's version of accountability) and sanctions (abundant in NCLB including the threat of being transferred or being emblazoned with the scarlet letter of failure) have to view the system as legitimate. And, astutely, Plank and Dunbar add "they [teachers] must have confidence that changes in their own behavior will produce positive consequences in terms of access to rewards or avoidance of punishment" (Finn & Hess, 2004, p. 156). If one reads Meier and Wood's (2004) *Many Children Left Behind*, however, it is hard to find compelling evidence that NCLB enjoys that confidence.

Another example of critique at work would be taking the work of, for example, Valli, Croninger, and Walters (2007) to expose fallacious assumptions in a neo-liberalist policy framework of accountability. Valli et al., in examining the premise underlying teacher accountability policies that annual student learning gains can be attributed to individual teachers, found that learning results from multiple teachers, concluding that any policies isolating individual teacher contributions to learning should be approached with caution because they may have a detrimental impact on other professional reforms like collaboration and learning communities. This, in turn, permits re-examination of a core assumption of NCLB—that teacher quality contributes to student achievement and some authority ought to be accountable for assuring that level of quality—according to what is requisite professionally for quality assurance of student learning. Put differently, we can reframe the NCLB core assumption from its highly controvertible emphasis on individualism to recognize the quality of *teachers'* contributions to student learning.

Along similar lines, teacher educators can engage in a form of policy analysis that "explicitly links the 'bigger picture' of global and national policy contexts to the 'smaller pictures' of policies and practices within schools and classrooms" (Vidovich, 2007, p. 285). Put differently, this line of thinking is based on viewing policy as "both text and action, words and deeds, it is what is enacted as well as what is intended" (Ball, 1994, p. 10). In this manner, the terrain of policy is broadened to include the micro level of schools and classrooms, in addition to the macro level of governments. This postmodern turn changes the formulation of outcomes. For example, Ball (2003) has shown how the stringent UK accountability approach has produced some unexpected and undesirable outcomes:

What is produced [under inspection] is spectacle, or game playing, or cynical compliance, or what we might see as 'enacted fantasy' which is there simply to be seen and judged – a fabrication . . . The heart of the educational project is gouged out and left empty. Authenticity is replaced by plasticity. (Ball, 2003, pp. 222, 225)

The increases in effort and time spent on core tasks are off-set by increases in effort and time devoted to accounting for task work or erecting monitoring systems, collecting performative data and attending to the management of institutional “fabrications”. This line of critical research would enable the documentation of the extent to which accountability systems that fail to account for practitioners’ mediation of policy and practice exemplify Lyotard’s (1984) law of contradiction. This contradiction arises between intensification as an increase in the volume of first order activities (i.e., direct engagement with students, research, curriculum development) required by the demands of performativity and the costs in terms of time and energy of second order activities that is the work of performance monitoring and management.

Third, there is a need for concerted study of labor mobility agreements as they affect teacher education programs. Labor mobility agreements are analogous to a form of policy that attempts to circumscribe practice. Consequently, they can be studied in terms of the policy-practice relationship. The relationship between policy and practice constitutes a dilemma in that policy depends on people in practice for its success. Thus while policy is designed to address problems, the important problem solvers are those who allegedly have the problem, i.e., practitioners. Frequently the link between policy makers and practitioners is weak, meaning that policy makers rarely understand the level of capacity that practitioners may or may not have to implement any given policy successfully. The more change a policy creates, the more difficult it is to manage the policy-practice dilemma toward collaboration. So the default position in any policy change is frequently conflict. As Elmore and McLaughlin (1988) observed, “the use of policy as an implement of reform grows out of a fundamental distrust of professional judgment. But the dilemma that accompanies this use of policy is that the fate of reforms ultimately depends on those who are the object of distrust” (p. 34). In a very real sense, the labor mobility agreements are an example of policy used to circumvent professional judgment.

How then do teacher educators deal with this potentially conflicted situation? Understanding the policy-practice relationship as a dilemma focuses us on examining the link between a policy’s *aims*, its *instruments* or resources, practitioners’ *capacity* for change, and the socio-political *environment* surrounding the reform. The TILMA aims are framed around the key assumption that teacher education professionals should be able to move without impediment from province to province. As an aim, that appears to have some justification and we will make greater progress if we focus on the policy instruments and capacity building needs that accompany the reform. *Policy instruments*, or tools, are “mechanisms that translate substantive policy goals into concrete actions” (McDonnell & Elmore, 1987, p. 134). These instruments include money, mandates, inducements, capacity building, system changing initiatives, and ideas that inform, and sometimes inspire, implementation. For example, what ideas are shared to stimulate those charged with teacher education governance (on whom the reform depends for its success) to work toward upholding standards in teacher education when implementing the labor mobility agreement? To what extent is the change merely a collection of mandates, backed up with instruments that constrain people to one direction and inhibit the exercise of professional expertise and judgment, that vital responsibly autonomous quality that all professionals need if they are to carry out their governance responsibilities seriously? *Capacity* is another focus that provides an evidentiary basis for sound educational critique. It represents the resources that people in practice bring to the policy process. These resources include interests, ideas (including knowledge, values, and skill), personal resources such as will, and

such other things as money. These elements of capacity mirror several of those that characterize policy instruments; that is no accident, for when instruments are effective, it is partly because they help to mobilize the capacities that enable practitioners or organizations to deal with policy implementation. For example, what provision is made in the policy instruments of the labor mobility agreements to ensure that practitioners charged with professional governance develop the capacities required to help teacher education programs maintain their distinctiveness in preparing teachers? *The environment* also shapes policy and TILMA has arisen in a discourse of economic rationalism framed by dominant neo-liberalist market assumptions. While the general critique of TILMA must take account of the policy environment, it will not, in my view, be as productive as spending one's energy and time examining the policy's instruments and capacity building initiatives in light of what it takes to implement its aims successfully.

Fourth, a strong university contribution can be framed around the *ACDE Accord on Teacher Education* (see Appendix A) to build a strategic coherence for future directions in governance and policy. Teacher educators are subject to multiple external demands. Fuhrman (1993) refers to this as a heightened state of policy incoherence. To give direction to programs, teacher educators must craft coherence among this "policy epidemic" (Levin, 1994) where "every policy maker is making more policy" (Fuhrman and Elmore, 1990). How can they do that? Honig and Hatch (2004) suggest that they engage in the strategic actions of bridging and buffering. Organizations that strategically manage their external demands develop internal "simplification systems" that enable them to draw resources from their external environments without becoming overwhelmed with the complexity of information, requirements, and other features of resource-rich (or demand-rich) environments. I prefer the term "focusing frameworks" because they both help teacher educators to understand how to use external demands by delimiting their reach to ways that advance program goals. The Canadian *Accord* thus permits teacher education institutions to use its core principles to bridge and buffer external policy demands.

Bridging. Bridging activities involve teacher education institutions' selective engagement of environmental demands to inform and enhance the implementation of their program goals and processes. Newmann et al., (2001) posit that this engagement of policy demands can sometimes provide opportunities for higher education institutions to obtain additional resources (e.g., funding, access to professional networks, etc.), to negotiate with stakeholders, and to innovate for improved performance. But this has to be undertaken with care to ensure that they are not entering into a "Mephistophelean bargain" (Grimmett, 1998) where they would be advised to sup with a long spoon. If and when this action is undertaken, teacher educators need to ensure that such opportunities provide them with a language and a set of activities for realizing previously elusive goals and processes and, in some cases, amending their goals and processes in light of new knowledge (McLaughlin & Talbert, 2001).

Higher education institutions can bridge to external policy demands in several ways. They can pull the environment in—by incorporating members of external organizations into their own organizational structures. By co-opting those who are exerting external pressures, institutions can blur boundaries between their organization and the external environment, thereby increasing opportunities to use the external demands to advance internal goals and processes (Selznick, 1949). They can also work in this way to shape the terms of compliance with external demands. That is, they lobby policy makers and media to have input into policy

and external demands (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). To do so successfully, however, teacher education institutions need to get in early on the act of influencing external demands.

This is one of the primary strengths of the Canadian *Accord*. Whereas neo-liberalist reform policies have ravaged teacher education settings in England and the USA, the Canadian context has been left largely untouched because a) education is constitutionally a provincial jurisdiction and no national policy on teacher education has yet been formed, and b) two of the leading provinces, British Columbia and Ontario, have set the tone by establishing professional self-regulating bodies (Colleges of Teachers) to set policy and standards for teacher education programs. Hence, there has been a national policy void that the *Accord* is designed to address. It represents a preemptive attempt on the part of the Canadian Deans of Education to influence any standards-based discourse from which a national policy on teacher education, its governance and accreditation, could be formed. And there are forces at work at the federal level to indicate that a national policy could be forthcoming.

Buffering. By contrast, teacher education institutions can advance their goals and processes by buffering themselves from external demands. By buffering, Honig and Hatch (2004) do not mean the blind dismissal of external demands but strategically delimiting which external demands to engage. Buffering can be used to allow important ideas for innovation to emerge from internal deliberation and debate, while permitting institutions to ignore negative feedback from the policy environment that could derail their progress. An institution can decide to do this by deciding to suspend its interactions with the environment. This typically temporary strategy occurs when an institution declines external targeted funding because it does not wish to be tied closely to the accompanying conditions. Thus, ignoring negative feedback from external sources is an important buffering strategy (and, frankly, I haven't yet met a Dean who doesn't know how to do just that).

Another example of buffering is when institutions advance their goals and processes by limiting environmental linkages without completely suspending them. This hybrid, bridging-buffering strategy typically entails the symbolic adoption of policy directives by adding peripheral structures to the institution. In other words, institutions appear to adopt external demands but do not allow those demands to influence the program's core activities. That is, they align their stated goals with external demands but deliberately leave the daily work relatively unchanged (Cuban & Tyack, 1995; Spillane & Zeuli, 1999). This happens in school reform when classroom teachers talk about integrating new strategies into their practice (i.e., they adopt the language of reform) but do not change their actual practice at all (Cohen & Ball, 1990; Spillane & Zeuli, 1999). Another trick (as distinct from strategy) practiced by some schools is to make as if their current practices already meet or exceed external demands; in this way, these organizations too adopt external demands without changing their ongoing operations (Elmore, 1996) and are labeled "early adopters" into the bargain.

While the *Accord* does not set out to spawn these kinds of reactionary stances, it nevertheless is a vehicle of ideas that permits and encourages the positive use of buffering. For example, many teacher education institutions across the country have added structures on to their organization; that is, they have set up research centers specifically focusing on the policy and practice of teacher education. Members of these centers not only conduct important theoretical and applied research but also interact with and interpret external policy makers so as to help institutions to determine an appropriate stance vis-à-vis policy or standards-based demands. Such centers and the *Accord* serve as important buffers and guides to any required institutional response. Such centers also give institutions the opportunity to bridge to policy

makers by pulling the policy environment in, while using its research expertise to buffer the program from unwarranted intrusion. Simon Fraser University led the way in introducing a differentiated staffing model (we second teachers from the field as Faculty Associates in the teacher education program), a model that enables us to bridge easily to the field environment and buffer the program from stereotypical criticism that it is disconnected from practice. Hence, we have set up a situation in which we enjoy the myth of having strong support from the field for our practice-oriented approach (in the reflective, not reification sense) and strong support in the academy for the research we do. Bridging and buffering thus helps create the kind of positive myths that bring both respect and effectiveness to a program, and *the Accord* is a framework that, in a similar way, spawns a lot of thinking and acting about teacher education renewal without it being harshly imposed by policy makers from without.

What Could a Design of a Research Program Look Like that Allows for Such Research to Be Undertaken?

- Develop a research program that examines the external and inner workings of professional governance, framed around the following possible questions:
 1. How do professional bodies relate to governments and unions on the one hand and teacher education institutions on the other? To what extent do they dwell in the tension to focus on improving practice, and to what extent do they engage in bureaucratic expansionism and professional protectionism as they make palatable the directives of governments and/or unions?
 2. How do professional bodies understand and use the notion of “protecting the public interest”? How are conflicts between professional bodies and teacher education institutions over what constitutes the public interest resolved?
- Develop a research program that critiques and creates alternatives for the policy context of teacher education in Canada and other jurisdictions around the world, framed around the following possible questions:
 1. How can teacher educators re-vision a sense of agency about their work with pre-service teachers? How can they develop a deep sense of intellectual and practical resilience that spawns the conviction that preparing teachers is a most worthwhile endeavor?
 2. How do macro-level policy initiatives affect the micro level of practice in teacher education programs? To what extent do standards-based accounting structures impede teacher educators’ ability to be accountable? Does Lyotard’s law of contradiction apply to pre-service teacher education, such that teacher educators spend more time on second-order monitoring activities than they do on first-order instructional activities?
 3. To what extent is the evaluation of teacher education programs (whether by professional bodies, governments, or accrediting agencies) a game of fabrications?
- Develop a research program that examines the implications of labor mobility agreements for teacher education programs and their governance, framed around the following possible questions:

1. As a policy framework, what aims, instruments, and attention to capacity is paid by labor mobility agreements? How do they take account of the responsibilities exercised by those charged with the governance of teacher education?
 2. What is the relationship between labor mobility agreements and professional standards? To what extent are labor mobility agreements capable of overriding professional standards in a local jurisdiction?
- Develop a research program framed around the *ACDE Accord on Teacher Education*:
 1. How can the *Accord* help teacher education institutions craft a sense of strategic coherence in its programs?
 2. How can the *Accord* be used to bridge institutional programs to the policy context in which they are governed?
 3. How can the *Accord* be used to buffer institutional programs legitimately against the more inhibiting and deleterious aspects of the policy context in which they are governed?
 4. How does the *Accord* help teacher education institutions re-mystify (i.e., add good myths) its teacher education programs?

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APPENDIX A

Figure 1. ASSOCIATION OF CANADIAN DEANS OF EDUCATION (ACDE) PRINCIPLES OF INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION

ACDE supports the following principles for initial teacher education in Canada:

An effective teacher education program demonstrates the transformative power of learning for individuals and communities.

An effective initial teacher education program envisions the teacher as a professional who observes, discerns, critiques, assesses, and acts accordingly.

An effective initial teacher education program encourages teachers to assume a social and political leadership role.

An effective initial teacher education program cultivates a sense of the teacher as responsive and responsible to learners, schools, colleagues, and communities.

An effective initial teacher education program involves partnerships between the university and schools, interweaving theory, research, and practice and providing opportunities for teacher candidates to collaborate with teachers to develop effective teaching practices.

An effective initial teacher education program promotes diversity, inclusion, understanding, acceptance, and social responsibility in continuing dialogue with local, national, and global communities.

An effective initial teacher education program engages teachers with the politics of identity and difference and prepares them to develop and enact inclusive curricula and pedagogies.

An effective initial teacher education program supports a research disposition and climate that recognizes a range of knowledge and perspectives.

An effective initial teacher education program ensures that beginning teachers understand the development of children and youth (intellectual, physical, emotional, social, creative, spiritual, moral) and the nature of learning.

An effective teacher education program ensures that beginning teachers have sound knowledge of subject matter, literacies, ways of knowing, and pedagogical expertise.

An effective initial teacher education program provides opportunities for

candidates to investigate their practices.

An effective initial teacher education program supports thoughtful, considered, and deliberate innovation to improve and strengthen the preparation of educators.

Working Group Report
for
Theme #1: Teacher Education Governance, Policy and
the Role of the University

Laura Atkinson (Manitoba Teachers' Society), Jean Clandinin (Alberta), Peter Grimmett (SFU),
David Mandzuk (Manitoba), Kathy Sanford (Victoria), Jon Young (Manitoba)

An initial discussion paper written by Peter Grimmett (this volume, pp. 41-58) provided one starting point for the group's day and a half discussions. Peter's introduction sets out to, "show the role that universities could play in enabling teacher education in Canada to avoid the more deleterious effects of well-meant but intrusive policy on the practice of rigorously preparing culturally responsive and contextually relevant teachers for a diverse, multicultural context" and further to sketch out, "a research program in the area of teacher education and governance that permits the pursuit of viable, theoretically sensitive research" (this volume, p. 41). A second major influence was Anne Phelan's 2007 Jean Irvine Lecture on Teacher Education (this volume, pp. 21-32), that encouraged us to think about a research agenda in teacher education framed by a language of "*for the sake of*" that "invites plurality of thought, welcomes the natality of action, and accepts the fragility of both" (this volume, p. 30) rather than simply an instrumental stance of "*in order to*" - a distinction, she argues, between meaningfulness and utility.

The conference provided an extremely rich opportunity to pursue these questions. Our conversation moved in and out of a variety of topics, and the notes below provide only a brief and initial summary of six of the key ideas and research agendas that we kept coming back to.

- What is the current state of (initial) teacher education governance across Canada?
- Who defines the substance and quality of initial teacher preparation – the role of "standards" and the place of "site"/"process".
- What is the special claim of Canadian public universities to be the sole sites of initial teacher preparation?
- How do research intensive universities position and (de)value initial teacher preparation within their mandates and culture?
- How is Canadian teacher education governance affected by/informed by international policy initiatives, national and international labour mobility agreements, and by the establishment of, and initiatives of, The Canadian Council on Learning?
- What are the connections between pre-service and in-service teacher education – and what are the consequences of continuing to see them as discrete entities?

1. What is the current state of (initial) teacher education governance across Canada?

Taking the interplay between government, the profession, and universities as a central dynamic in the governance of initial teacher education, and recognizing that since 1980 different provinces have moved in quite different directions in terms of the relative

authority of each of these participants (for example only British Columbia and Ontario have established Colleges of Teachers), we saw a valuable research agenda to be a description and analysis of the different models of governance in play across Canada. Aspects of this could include:

- a. how these different models have been contested and constructed, and the discourse of “co-construction” as distinct from the language of “brokering systems”;
- b. the sites and structures of these constructions (i.e. Colleges of Teachers in British Columbia and Ontario; the Teacher Education and Certification Committee in Manitoba etc.);
- c. the history of Colleges of Teachers in Canada;
- d. the significance of the Deans’ Accord in the construction of the governance of initial teacher education.

2. *Who defines the substance and quality of initial teacher preparation – the role of “standards” and the place of ‘site’/’process”*

Deregulation or “competitive certification” in some other jurisdictions – most obviously a number of states in the USA – has seen the development of an extensive set of entry to practice standards and, in places, the invitation to many different “service providers” apart from the traditional university sites. How Canadian provinces and Canadian Faculties of Education have engaged with these questions constitutes a rich research agenda.

3. *What is the special claim of Canadian public universities to be the sole sites of initial teacher preparation?*

Since the movement of the Normal School onto university campuses in Canada between 1945 and 1980, universities have become essentially the only approved provider on initial teacher preparation. (They have relied heavily on schools and the teaching profession to support the practical aspects of teacher preparation, but generally this has not led to shared governance of initial teacher preparation.) In an international, neo-liberal context of “deregulation”, “competition” and “labour mobility”, and in a context a proliferation of colleges, university colleges, and faith-based teacher education programs, and where the boundaries between public and private universities, between Canadian and international “service providers” (where it is the institution that is coming to Canada rather than simply a few of their graduates), and between universities and non-universities as “service providers” are being blurred, this question cannot be avoided – and universities need to be able to engage in this research debate. Aspects of this could include:

- a. empirical studies that seek to establish substantive differences between teachers prepared in different institutions. (This has not proven, as yet, to be a very fruitful avenue in the USA.)
- b. “logic of confidence” type studies that look from a political stance at how public confidence in university-based teacher preparation has been sustained or eroded (including the place of teacher education in research intensive Canadian universities).

4. *How do research intensive universities position and (de)value initial teacher preparation within their mandates and culture?*

Faculties of Education as professional schools within the university, it has been noted, have a precarious location where they may be, simultaneously, criticized as being ‘an ivory tower’ by the profession and “Mickey Mouse” by main campus. In a number of research intensive

universities in Canada initial teacher preparation is taught primarily by sessional instructors, graduate students, and teachers seconded from the field. This situation creates an interesting research environment for exploring the roles of the profession and the academy in initial teacher preparation – and for the critique of Faculties of Education as being tolerated only as a necessary “cash cow” for universities.

5. *How is Canadian teacher education governance effected by/informed by international policy initiatives, national and international labour mobility agreements, and the establishment of, and initiatives of, the Canadian Council on Learning?*

As British Columbia and Alberta sign off on an inter-provincial agreement that fully recognizes each others' teacher certificates (www.bcct.ca), there is growing pressure to move this to a Pan-Canadian arrangement, and the impact of inter-provincial labour mobility agreements on initial teacher certification and preparation, along with the impact of the federally funded Canadian Council on Learning, become timely research agendas. Driven by pressures located outside of/above individual provincial Ministries of Education, these developments would seem to have potentially substantial impacts on the conception of teachers' work as well as provincial autonomy in public education. Related international trade agreements such as NAFTA (that Peter Grimmer's discussion paper referred to as a “Trojan horse in teacher education”) moves this research into an international arena. The development of bridging programs for Internationally Educated Teachers at Canadian universities provides another important research topic.

6. *What are the connections between pre-service and in-service teacher education – and what are the consequences of continuing to see them as essentially discrete entities?*

Our discussions focused mainly on initial teacher preparation, but from time to time existing distinctions between pre-service and in-service education, between pre-service and induction, and the different status and priorities given to different stages in a career long process of professional learning seemed to impose limits on how to frame a discussion of teacher education. Research on the governance of initial teacher preparation could usefully be embedded into a wider consideration of career long professional learning.

Working Group Report
for
Theme #2: Aboriginal Teacher Education and Aboriginal
Perspectives in Teacher Education

Jan Buley (Laurentian), Joe Engemann (Brock), Helen Robinson-Settee (Manitoba
Ministry of Education, Citizenship and Youth), Angela Ward (Saskatchewan)

1. We need to define Aboriginal teacher education research.
 - Concerns that Aboriginal peoples are the most researched in Canada
 - We need to find out what is being done across Canada and internationally
 - What is the role of non-Aboriginal researchers in this work?
2. We would like to facilitate the gathering together of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal peoples for conversations about . . .
 - Who are these voices? Who is speaking on behalf of Aboriginal educators?
 - What are and should be the relationships?
3. We need to revisit, review and reflect . . .
 - Where are we now?
 - How might we proceed?
4. Funding – to support the time, connections and relationship-building process.
5. More conversations – perhaps establishing a National Working Group in Aboriginal Teacher Education and Research.
(Note: There are already a number of groups and conferences working in this area e.g. through the Aboriginal Knowledge Centre at the University of Saskatchewan. We need more information before we proceed to establish yet another research entity.)

UNDERSTANDING OF PRACTICES IN TEACHER EDUCATION RELATED TO DIVERSITY, IDENTITY AND INCLUSION, AND DEMOGRAPHIC CHALLENGES

The Time of Learning: A Dilemma for Teacher Education's Response to Diversity

Terry Carson,
(University of Alberta)

The public school system sits at the crossroads of Canada's demographic change.

(Victoria Lacey, former Ontario Deputy Minister of Education, 2007)

The task of the public school is not to educate for democracy, but to educate the public for a democratic society.

(John Dewey, *Democracy and Education*, 1916)

To consider the vicissitudes of learning from difficult knowledge, education must begin by acknowledging learning as a psychic event, charged with resistance to knowledge. The resistance is a precondition for learning from knowledge and the grounds of knowledge itself.

(Deborah Britzman, *Practice Makes Practice*, 1991)¹

Teacher education struggles with the impossible task of trying to fit the time of learning to teach within a predetermined time frame for education that is allowed within a university-based program. Such a fixed time frame implies that teacher education consists in the acquisition of a pre-given body of knowledge, skills and attributes. The reality of teacher education is a tumultuous time of learning, which is merely inaugurated in the encounter, initiated by the formal teacher education program, between authoritative discourses about teaching and personal desires about who one wishes to become as a teacher. The time of learning to become a teacher refuses to conform to the time of education, because the authoritative discourses about teacher education, which include subject matter knowledge, the educational sciences, school governance policies and traditions – constituent elements of the curriculum of most teacher education programs – serve to activate a complex mélange of conscious and unconscious memory that constitute one's personal identifications with teaching. These identifications are fraught with desires and resistances that must be “worked

¹ Britzman, 2003, p. 119.

through” while learning about teaching. A working through knowledge typically requires spaces for negotiating authoritative and internally persuasive discourses. These are difficult to schedule within the time-constrained plans of teacher education “programs”, which characteristically consist of collections of coursework and field experiences – programs that seem to be continually caught in an awkward dance between theory and practice.

Not only is teacher education constrained by the time of teaching allotted by the university curriculum; there is little acknowledgement within this time that learning to teach is a psychic event. Deborah Britzman points to the lack of opportunity for negotiating identities in conventional teacher education programs.

Within such contexts, where desires are assigned and fashioned, student teachers strive to make sense and act as agents in the teacher’s world. Indeed, much of their time is taken up with negotiating, constructing, and consenting to their identity as a teacher. This process, however, is problematic because particular orientations to autonomy, authority, certainty, and order taken up by those already there, work to dismantle this negotiatory stance and threaten to make *student teacher* an oxymoron. (Britzman, 2003, p. 221)

As Britzman suggests, much of the psychic work of learning is taking place in the context of the field experience practicum. It is here that the student teacher enters not only the teacher’s world, but also, with the teacher, they now encounter the increasingly diverse communities that public schools serve in Canada. Most student teachers are well aware of this and expect that attention to diversity to be a significant aspect of their teacher education. But this presents a double question for teacher education programs: how are we to attend to the unfolding diversities of public schools within programs that already offer so little space for negotiating teaching identities? Teacher education programs routinely render student teaching oxymoronic by scheduling field experiences late in the program. This is reinforced by attendant discursive practices that work to inflate the importance of “real world” school experience while devaluing the “ideal world” of education courses. In so doing an unbridgeable divide between theory and practice is regularly maintained and reinforced.

In this paper, I come at the question of addressing diversity in teacher education through this more general question of how we might open up *spaces for learning to teach* within university based teacher education programs. To open a space of learning means creating opportunities for students to engage who they are now and who they are to become as teachers – to enable them, and us, to become students of teaching in the service of educating a public for a complex and changing Canadian society. The paper is divided into three parts: Part I discusses the process of learning to teach as a negotiation among authoritative and internally persuasive discourses; Part II attempts a description of the landscape of diversity from where I sit in Alberta; Part III describes an engagement with diversity in teacher education through the example of our experience with the Diversity Institute at the University of Alberta.

Negotiating Teaching Identities

In *Practice Makes Practice: A Critical Study of Learning to Teach* (2003), Deborah Britzman, leaning on Mikhail Bakhtin's observation that we become who we are through "a process of selectively assimilating the words of others (Bakhtin, 1981)", interprets teacher identity formation as a "dialogical relationship between authoritative discourse and internally persuasive discourses (2003, p. 42)". Following Bakhtin, she explains "this relationship determines one's ideological becoming: the orientations, investments, beliefs and dispositions that are already inscribed in the specific discourses we take up (42)".

Applied to the psychic event of learning to teach we can understand how the scene of teacher education becomes the place in which student teachers are actively negotiating identities. This is a time in which authoritative discourses of teaching come into contact with student teachers' internally persuasive discourses in ways that may either unsettle and complicate, or inspire and confirm deeply held beliefs, orientations and investments in teaching. Encounters with cultural diversity provide some of the most poignant instances of this in the case, for example, when internally persuasive discourses of tolerance, often buttressed by authoritative discourses of human rights protection, are upset by another's story of systemic discrimination. The ego ideal of tolerance and acceptance is disorganized by another's reality of experiencing racism and intolerance. This is a time of learning that is suffused with difficult knowledge. The question is what does teacher education do with such difficult knowledge? Lacking in insight into the ego's defence mechanisms of denial, rationalization, projection and so forth, teacher education is poorly equipped to help student teachers learn from the inevitable resistances to difficult knowledge. As a result teacher education responds either by trying to overcome resistance, or ignoring it altogether. In any case the pedagogical opportunity is lost, because of the failure to appreciate the crucial importance of resistance in learning from knowledge.

The following table represents an interpretation of the kinds of internally persuasive discourses and authoritative discourses that are in play at the scene of teacher education:

<u>Authoritative Discourses</u>	<u>Internally Persuasive Discourses</u>
Teaching subject matter disciplines.	Personal biography of schooling.
Educational sciences (psychology, sociology, administration, etc.).	Family history.
Discourses of experienced teachers.	Cultural and faith traditions.
Ethics and laws of the teaching profession.	Political commitments.
Teacher certification requirements (KSAs).	Gender and sexuality.

Obviously, many of the authoritative discourses of teacher education form the recognizable components of the curriculum of teacher education programs, but conflicts among them exist and must be negotiated by student teachers in the formation of teacher identity. Conflicts among the authoritative discourses of the campus-based program and the authoritative

discourses of experienced teachers that consistently bedevil teacher education is an important and often troubling site of negotiation for student teachers. Unfortunately, it is also a site too often abandoned by teacher educators.

It is in the negotiations between the authoritative discourses and internally persuasive discourses that teaching identities are most crucially formed. While many student teachers enter their teacher education programs with some awareness of internally persuasive discourses – “I’ve always wanted to be a teacher”, “I loved (hated) school” – the program itself serves to activate many of the internally persuasive discourses that lie beneath the level of student teachers’ every day consciousness. This is particularly true of the practicum where student teachers’ bodies are thrust into classroom encounters with subject matter, students and other teachers. The results are often surprising and unsettling for student teachers as the lovely knowledge of ideals that constitute an imagined teaching self are tested against harsh realities of school experience.

There are obviously important implications for teacher education’s response to diversity in student teachers’ negotiation of authoritative and internally persuasive discourses. For example, strong commitments to anti-discrimination education, justice and social reconstruction may find their origins in a variety of internally persuasive discourses. Student teachers will likely find consistency and support from authoritative discourses circulating in the campus-based teacher education program, but may be disconcerted by veteran teachers’ negative remarks about “political correctness”, or even outright racial slurs that can circulate in the confines of certain school staffrooms. Thankfully, cases of bold-faced racism are increasingly rare in Canadian schools, and racist remarks are less likely to go unchallenged than in years past. Nonetheless, the powerful effects that the discourses of experienced teachers have on the identity formations of student teachers should not be underestimated. These discourses often pass unchallenged as the voice of “the real world”, as they work to undo other authoritative and internally persuasive discourses.

While the voice of experience may work to undo student teachers’ negotiations of authoritative discourses and internally persuasive discourses, the “cultural myths of teaching” threaten to dismantle a negotiatory stance altogether. Britzman points out that student teachers are “summoned” by three cultural myths of teaching, which she identifies as: everything depending upon the teacher, the teacher as the expert, and that the teacher is self-made. She explains

In the case of student teachers, cultural myths structure a particular discourse about power, authority and knowledge that heightens individual effort as it trivializes school structure and the agency of students ... Cultural myths are persuasive because they reorganize contradictory elements of authoritative and internally persuasive discourse. They perform the work of discourse; communities are counted and discounted; particular orientations to authority, power and knowledge are offered; discursive practices are made available; and persons are constructed or “interpellated” as non-contradictory subjects.

(Britzman, 2003, p. 223)

In light of the above discussion on teacher identity formation, it is apparent that the problem of teacher education does not lie in some kind of gap between theory and practice,

but a failure to appreciate what is at stake in the psychic event of learning to teach. As teacher educators we might mobilize our efforts to better effect if we were to appreciate that the time of learning to teach is a time in which student teachers are negotiating, consenting to, and refusing authoritative and internally persuasive discourses. Central to this undertaken is giving recognition to the time of learning even as we work against and within the time of teaching allotted to us in the teacher education program. Within these constraints (and opportunities) we can now ask how we are to attend to the unfolding diversities of public schools.

Mapping the Landscape of Diversity

A few months ago a question was asked about the extent of diversity in Edmonton schools at a meeting of the Edmonton Public School District's Diversity Advisory Committee. The response was a complex answer. At the heart of the complexity is the ambiguous and contested meaning of the signifier "diversity". The initial response from the school district staff was understandably pragmatic. The staff indicated that of the two hundred schools served by the Edmonton Public School Board, seventy-five are designated "high needs". High needs are defined as those schools having a high percentage of aboriginal students and/or English language learners coupled with low levels of household income in the community served by the school. This is but one administrative, operational definition of diversity, which is determined by the demands a diverse school population makes on the provision of district services. School district staff admitted that, in the end, they must adopt a reactive posture to diversity, responding to a variety of actual students and their families who show up at the schoolhouse door. This is a difficult and uncertain task these days, because Edmonton is a fast growing cosmopolitan city with a hot economy, which not only attracts many immigrants (Alberta ranks fourth among the immigrant receiving provinces of Canada), but also attracts immigrants resettling from other parts of Canada. Moreover, like other western Canadian cities Edmonton also has a substantial and rapidly growing population of aboriginal students.

Edmonton exemplifies what Victoria Lacey, Ontario's former deputy minister of education, noted as urban public schools being at the "crossroads of a redefining Canadian citizenship (Lacey, 2007)". While 2006 census data indicates that over 20% of the population as born outside of Canada, these figures do not adequately reflect the variety of ethnicities, religions, family structures, and settlement patterns of recent Canadian immigration. As Lacey points out, recent research shows that new settlement is increasingly taking the form of ethnic enclaves in low-income neighbourhoods. The map of high-needs schools in Edmonton reflects this phenomenon. Lacey asks, "How do you build a [public education] system that moulds citizens and builds cohesive society" from such diversity?

Nearly a century ago John Dewey claimed, "The task of the public school is the education of a public for democratic society (Dewey, 1916)". He envisioned education as the "fundamental method of social progress and reform (1929, p. 22)", with the teacher being the "social servant set apart for the maintenance of proper social order and securing of the right social growth" (p. 23). Dewey saw school life as gradually growing out of home life, "taking up and continuing the activities ... and deepening and extending the sense of values wrapped up in the home life" (p. 19). The question for Canadian public education is how are we to fashion democratic society and social progress from the complex landscape of diversity that now typifies the Canadian nation? Teachers meet an emerging Canada in the public school

classroom, the contours of which are shifting and cannot be known in advance. The impossibility of realizing Dewey's assumption of school life growing out of home life is precisely what is at issue and what makes teaching in the public school so difficult these days.

The Diversity Institute: An Experiment with the Time of Learning

Over the past several years at the University of Alberta we have been attempting to engage this complex terrain of teaching through the teacher education program. The impetus was observing the growing diversity of the public school population in Alberta contrasted against the still quite homogenous and largely Euro-Canadian backgrounds of students entering the teacher education program. With the support of a Multi-Culturalism in Canada SSHRC Strategic Grant we designed a "Diversity Institute" that consisted of a variety of interactive workshops organized around a "diversity of diversities". We approached the effort as an action research project that proceeded through spiral phases of planning, action, observation and reflection. Having begun in 2005, the action research has now gone through three yearly cycles. We are now engaged in the planning for a fourth cycle.

We have found that making a place for the Diversity Institute in the teacher education program is itself a compromise between the time of teaching and the time of learning to teach. With the exception of two professional terms, University of Alberta program is structured around a regimen of traditional fourteen-week courses in subject area disciplines as well as a few courses in the educational sciences (mainly educational psychology). The majority of the educational sciences courses – policy studies, curriculum, evaluation, etc. -- are taken during the two professional terms. The "professional terms" are so designated, because they contain field experience components: five weeks in the Introductory Professional Term (IPT), and nine weeks in the Advanced Professional Term (APT). Within this limited space allowed by the time of teaching in the program, the one full day and three half-day workshops, which constitute the Diversity Institute were inserted into the five weeks allowed for campus-based courses during the APT.

In our first year of the Diversity Institute, in 2005, we ambitiously included workshops on racial, cultural, ethnic, religious, linguistic, sexual, and gender diversities. Conscious of teacher identity formation, the design of the Institute employed the metaphor of the self crossing over a bridge from "awareness of others", to "a discovery of personal responses", arriving at "a becoming different in oneself (Dee and Henkin, 2002)". Interviews with student teachers following the Institute, and their field experiences indicated that our hopes for their personal transformation were naïve given the limited time and the information-loaded structure of the Diversity Institute. Student teachers responded with self-satisfaction for having attending the institute, but also with the feeling they had only scratched the surface of a vast area for which they were still quite unprepared. In spite of this feeling of not being prepared, most felt confident that a good-hearted openness would ultimately see them through the encounter with diversity in schools. Contrary to our wishes that student teachers might come to understand their identities in relationship with the other, most continued to objectify diversity as being the property of others. As one student commented "Okay, I'm not a minority ... part of me felt kind of bad – less cultured ... I do have a background, but it's all European". This image of the good-hearted, but apologetic Euro-Canadian stuck with us as we planned the next Diversity Institute in subsequent cycles of action research.

Reflecting on the experience of the original Diversity Institute we have become increasingly aware of how deeply the structure of the teacher education becomes embedded in our consciousness and our desires as teacher educators. This first effort to include diversity, while paying lip-service to learning from knowledge – “awareness of others, the discovery of personal responses” – contained within it the desire to go the next step by attempting to map out the response – “becoming different in oneself”. We realized that in our attempts to set the time of learning to the time of education, the signifier “diversity” necessarily seemed to become frozen as an object of attention, despite our wishes and intentions to do otherwise.

Since the initial Diversity Institute we have been trying to find our way through the problem of being caught in a curricular language of diversity. In these efforts we have been guided by a growing awareness of how diversity operates as a “slippery signifier (Aoki, 2005, p. 315)”, which both represents, but also profoundly misrepresents our attention to the matter of encountering difference in teacher education. Informed by psychoanalytic theories of learning and not learning, we are aware that diversity is to some extent a “fantasy that serves as a defence against the horror of the Real ... an escape from the truth of our being (Taubman, 2006, p. 10)”. As such the concept of diversity works to name the un-nameable fears that haunt the present condition of teaching.

At this point we continue to work towards shifting the Diversity Institute in the direction of pedagogical encounters with difference. The latest, 2007 version of the Institute has been designed to encourage student teachers’ deeper autobiographical engagements with a particular theme of diversity by having participants join one of four working groups: Aboriginal Education; Sex, Sexuality and Gender; Faith and Spirituality; or Race and Culture. Within these working groups we hope for student teachers to find opportunities to reflect on their own identities in relation to the complexities and ambiguities of diversity in contemporary schools. We hope also for an appreciation of the diversity of expressions, articulations and understandings that diversity takes. In addition to developing a more in depth experience with a particular theme of diversity, the 2007 Institute also attempted to create dialogical spaces within the working groups, while encouraging dialogue between the groups in the form of cooperative learning activities.

The Diversity Institute is very much a work in progress. What we know so far in trying to include diversity in teacher education is this: Understood as a time of learning, teacher education is a time of learning from knowledge and a working through knowledge. In the encounter with diversity student teachers also encounter their personal histories of learning, as well as the history of public education’s encounter with difference. These histories are filled with conflicts and repressed memories, which genuine encounters with diversity might occasion. The question before us now we join in the review of the undergraduate program at the University of Alberta is how seriously are we prepared to take on teacher education as a time of learning? It is only through this undertaking that we can engage deeply with the question of diversity.

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Working Group Report
for
Theme #3: Understanding of Practices in Teacher Education Related to
Diversity, Identity and Inclusion, and Demographic Change

Terry Carson (Alberta), Olive Chapman (Calgary), Ann Chinnery (SFU),
Yatta Kanu (Manitoba), Judy Lupart (Alberta), Kas Mazurek (Lethbridge)

We have framed our response to the question of understanding the practices of teacher education related to diversity within a broader consideration of the project of teacher education. From this starting point we offer the following:

1. The project of teacher education.
 - Teacher education is a tumultuous time of learning in which authoritative discourse of teaching encounter internally persuasive discourses about who one wishes to become as a teacher.
 - University-based teacher educators endeavour to intervene pedagogically in learning to teach during the limited time that is allotted to the formal teacher education program.
 - Teacher education implies a normative vision of the good society concerning social inclusion, equity, and human rights.
 - Teacher education implies a humane vision for the future: Becoming more fully human (Paulo Freire, Jean Vanier).
2. Teacher education is intimately related to public education. As such teacher education is responsible to public education, but not accountable for public education.
 - Because teachers have lost a large measure of professional control over their work, neither they (nor teacher educators) should be held completely accountable for the state of public schools. Politicians, the media, and the public in general must also be held to account.
 - Research in teacher education, and educational research more generally, should have as their major focus the state of public schools today. To conduct such research responsibly we need to have a critical awareness of the investments and the discursive practices that we bring to this research.
 - Teacher education research, especially, should give highest priority to the issues with which public schools are struggling i.e. what kinds of children, youth and families are now turning up in the school? How is the school as a public institution responding to these students?
 - The response of teacher education should not be merely reactive to the conditions of schools; it requires a progressive focus, adopting a posture of “supportive adhocracy”.
 - Schools, like all public institutions are faced with challenges of having to respond to complexities of new and highly diverse “publics”. Thus teacher education should join in broader community and university research alliances, i.e. interdisciplinary and inter-

agency research alliances working together on common social questions and institutional responses to these.

3. The project of teacher education and of teacher education research should be mindful of the task of the public school.
 - Enhance the life chances of all students.
 - Educating a public for a democratic society.
 - Personal and life sustaining social reconstruction (as opposed to social engineering).
4. The scholarly foundations of inquiry in teacher education – i.e. what are scholarly discourses that should be deployed to appropriately inform and engage the questions of teacher education?
 - Broadly, the questions to be engaged are twofold: 1) the pedagogical practices of teacher education (subjectivities, pedagogical relationships, structural determinants). 2) The questions facing public schools and public education.
 - Curriculum theory (as the interdisciplinary study of educational experience) may best serve as a scholarly foundation for teacher education inquiry. Specifically, the project of curriculum theory has been to address the professional subjugation of teachers (and teacher education) by challenging the pervasive and damaging effects anti-intellectualism in the teaching profession.
5. With respect to the matter of addressing diversity in teacher education programs we need to consider the following:
 - What is the difference that makes a difference in relation to public schools? How does it make a difference? Here the concern is with addressing the effects of identifying difference on the welfare and the education of students who are so identified. For example, the dual importance of recognition of difference and the need for social inclusion; attention to special needs (like English language learning), while remaining alert to the dangers of needs based, deficit models of education.
 - We note that diversity is expressed locally, and in its particularities. Thus our focus should not be on schools “diversity in schools”, which is an abstraction, but on how diversity expressed in “this school” and in “this community”. At the same time teacher education, in general, needs to address the overall reality that learning to teach means engaging with difference.
6. Mindful that learning to teaching now includes learning to teach across differences in cultural, linguistic, racial, religious, and gender histories, teacher education needs to address some specific issues:
 - Given the psychic event of learning to teach, what strategies might we employ to promote intellectual and emotional engagement of teacher candidates with issues of diversity?
 - What are the productive research directions and pedagogical practices that will enhance the capabilities of teacher educators to address issues of diversity appropriately?

- How are we to act responsibly as teacher educators by not placing teacher candidates, who may be deeply committed and knowledgeable in matters of diversity, in positions of vulnerability in public schools? (Examples of dangers include expecting minorities to take up the burden of diversity and anti-discrimination education, sending out student teachers as the “new experts” to try to reform schools, adopting an overall oppositional posture in relation to the public schools as being the source – as opposed to being the historical effects -- of negative discrimination.)
- As teacher educators, how might we position ourselves as supportive professional colleagues, acting in solidarity with teachers in this emerging Canada?

The Nature, Role, and Place of Field Experiences in Teacher Education and Relationships with Schools

Experiencing the Field in Teacher Education

Jim Field
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Introduction to the Text: Experiencing the Field in Teacher Education

In reference to the title, I want to begin with the assertion that the term “ field ” in field experience not be conflated with the term “school”, and, in the same vein, that the term “experience” not be considered synonymous with the term “practicum”. My concern here is with losing some important ground, in much the same way that a lot of territory is lost, I believe when we conflate schooling with education, or curriculum with the programs of study that arrive from provincial governing bodies, or when teacher preparation simply becomes preparation for “what is”. However, I also want to acknowledge how difficult it might be to conjure different meanings for what constitutes field experience, given our lives at university, the nature of schools, and perhaps more importantly, given the external demands we face to prepare students, increasingly it seems, in very specific ways for accreditation as teachers.

My concerns go to the heart of a very broad, but basic question: What does becoming a teacher mean? My hope for this paper is that it will offer some points of discussion for a slightly more focused question: What part does the field experience play in becoming a teacher? To turn this more toward the generation of possibilities, we might ask, what part *ought* it play? This also might help us see that these questions are bound up with questions of what is right and good at least as much as they are located in empirical results, or more pointedly, in “evidence-based practice”. In an era of multiple, competing goods, this is difficult terrain to venture into, but such is the nature of practice in teacher education, I believe. Both in the field and at university, for example, one can experience profoundly different and deeply contradictory modes of practice, from the kind of pedagogy that predominated in the late 1800’s, to what we might call technologically infused, 21st century inquiry. While pluralism seems to be a social fact, how we respond to it as educators I believe is a matter of interpretation, debate and dialogue. And here I agree with Charles Taylor (1991)—pluralism remains, in this country, at the level of “inarticulate debate”. This I think is what we might want to discuss in greater detail at this conference.

To introduce that discussion, let me make some brief remarks about pluralism, before jumping into the body of the paper, which will take a different course, away from this topic. There seems to be two predominant responses to the pluralism we experience, both of which bewitch us in teacher education, I believe. In the face of pluralism, given the emphasis on individualism in this society, it becomes all too easy to adopt what Taylor (1991) calls a position of “soft relativism”, that is, teaching and learning are pursued as modes of individual self-

fulfillment and/or style, personal journeys of development, if you like, that one gets to choose, and *the choices are regarded as equal*. This is the position that I suspect the majority of our university students acquire, mostly by default. It's a position that we as a university are increasingly forced to adopt, particularly with the enthusiastic endorsement by many districts of what are generally known as "schools of choice".

I do think we need to adopt a different stance in teacher education, but also I think we need to acknowledge that schools are what they are. In other words, I no longer believe we ought to use teacher education and student teachers as a flying wedge for change in schools. But neither can we become "pedagogical chameleons", and take whatever kind of practice that confronts us in the field as given, thereby focusing our efforts on simply helping our students become unwitting ciphers of the state or market place. We are caught, it seems, in a really difficult spot. Thus the question of what is essential to teacher education presses in, ever more urgently, it seems.

What follows is an attempt to respond to this question. It might strike the reader as an odd piece, given that it was written for and almost lifted in its entirety from the Division of Teacher Preparation's Handbook here at the University of Calgary. The references to the "Year 1 program", particularly the themes, may be confusing and seem out of place—the writing gets too particular in places. The voice comes across in a flat declarative tone, the text is probably over-determined and tends to straighten things out too much. The use of the royal "we" is probably downright annoying. The stance of staking out a position tends to bring a kind of discursive equanimity with it. One final apology: the paper ends suddenly—the original text drifts into "rules and regs", hardly a worthwhile topic for consideration at a teacher education conference. Therefore, I ask the forgiveness of my readers up front; the writing, to quote Dennis Lee (1998), attempts to "concentrate on the nuclear hunches from which the subject radiates" (p.51), thus it is a little odd in its sound and cadence, and it lacks a final bell. I will rely on the generosity of my audience to compensate, in order that we might start a conversation around what consumes us all: the proper education of our students.

The Meaning and Intent of Field Experiences

When we speak of the field, we are not simply referencing a concrete place, but also *a field of action and meaning, a field of relationships between things*, most importantly perhaps, between teachers, students and curriculum. This means that the word "field" is not synonymous with the word "school", something we often take for granted I think, but also, perhaps more seriously, the word "experience" in field experience is not synonymous with the word "practicum" either. By experience we mean something more than spending time in a place and getting caught up in the busyness of it, as wonderful and as captivating as that is. We also mean something more than learning to plan, to manage, to assess, to relate to students, as essential as these are for learning to teach. As it is used here, experience refers to *meaningful development*, "a potential learning process produced by an encounter with something new, an obstacle or a challenge that moves the subject beyond where it began" (Jay, 2005, p.403). Experience is characterized, at the front end, by "a willingness to risk losing the safety of self sufficiency and go on a perilous journey of discovery" (Ibid, p.405). So when we say that the Master of Teaching Program here at the University of Calgary is "field oriented", we do not mean field-based.

The Oxford English Dictionary, in its definition of orientation, helps clarify this by providing the essential clues: “the action or process of ascertaining one’s bearings, or relative position or of taking up a known bearing or position; the (development of the) faculty of doing this” (Brown, 1993, p. 2022). This definition not only sets out the basic intent of the field experiences and seminar, but also describes an important part of each and every component of the program: helping students understand who they are as professionals by becoming aware of how they orient and re-orient themselves in relation to things, be they persons, events, institutions or texts. And it needs to be said here that this is an orientation, *primarily* in moral space, towards the good, as Aristotle would say, because as a profession we are committed to helping human beings, including ourselves, develop their capacities to flourish (Nussbaum, 1996). This means that questions of value and worth are always at the forefront in what we do with others, and who we are in relation to them. We look for the good of things, but more importantly, the betterment of things, “to see whether we can make things better by finding out how experienced situations (which of course include ourselves as components) can be reconstructed” (Hickman, 1998, p.168). Put another way, we do not take a strictly technical approach to teacher education. We aren’t in the field simply to be doing things in schools, the more the better, or to be watching teachers teach, or to be acquiring planning or classroom management skills. Certainly it is necessary to do and learn these things, but they are neither sufficient nor primary in the enterprise of learning to teach. John Dewey (1904) elaborates:

Practical work (in the field) should be pursued primarily with reference to its reaction upon the professional pupil in making him (sic) a thoughtful and alert student of education, rather than to help him get immediate proficiency. For immediate skill may be got at the cost of power to go on growing.

The Meaning of Inquiry and Its Role in the Field Experience

How is it that we orient “towards the good” and build the “power to go on growing” in the field? The simple answer is through inquiry, although this is by no means a simple or easy process. And, like being *field oriented*, inquiry isn’t something that is confined to the field, nor is it simply a teaching technique that one employs here and there with students. We are claiming something more here for inquiry, that is, that it is nothing less than *the fundamental process of coming to know and to be, as a learner and a teacher*.

Knowing is not outside this process (of inquiry) but part of it. While experience concerns transaction as it is, knowledge has to do with the value or meaning of experience...we can say that knowledge results from the cooperation of experience and action. The move from trial and error action to intelligent action is effected by the insertion of *reflection*, which takes place by means of language. (Biesta and Burbules, 2003, p.55)

This is why the program is said to be *inquiry based*, as opposed to “field based”, “skill based” or “project based”. The distinctions are not trivial.

At its most basic level then, inquiry can be defined as a form of active intelligence: “the primary means by which the human organism, whether child or adult, adapts to an ever changing environment”. (Fesmire, 1995, p. 215). It is also, as Davey (2006) notes, a process of *becoming enculturated*, that is, “becoming literate in the subject matters that form a given culture” (p.69). Subject matter is to be taken broadly here, for *it includes us as participants in the process*. We are all *subjected to* learning and teaching in the field, we are “subjects that matter”, as Dewey has noted above. That is why becoming enculturated involves more than the acquisition of technical skill, it “entails the acquisition of a practiced receptiveness and courtesy towards what is strange, unexpected, and that which lies beyond our most immediate cultural horizon” (Davey, 2006, p. 66).

Inquiry begins appropriately as wonderment, in the face of what Dewey calls an “indeterminate situation”. This is a fitting description of the perplexity and mystery that confront a teacher every year, when for the first time she or he encounters a classroom full of energetic, intelligent, wilful beings in dynamic interaction with the world and each other. Inquiry begins, then, when we are challenged by the mystery of a situation, and we face the challenge filled with “astonishment mixed with admiration and curiosity” (Brown, 1993, p. 3046). Questions seem to arise naturally from encounters of this kind: What is going on here? Who are these people? What are they up to? Why? Perhaps that is why inquiry is often described fundamentally as the process of asking questions, but it is also the process of carefully trying things out, of thoughtful experimentation. The links between noticing, thinking and acting are tightly tied together in a process of systematic investigation. The outcome of inquiry is meaningful experience and a kind of knowledge, tentatively held, probably best described as “hypotheses that articulate alternative courses of action” (Hickman, 2002, p.174). Dewey substituted the phrase “warranted assertibility” for knowledge to denote something tied to action and local situations. Hickman (2002, pp. 167-168) explains:

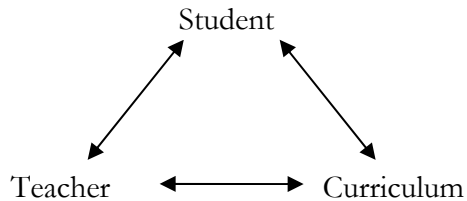
Warranted’ denotes an individual outcome, and thus points backwards in time toward something that has been accomplished. What is warranted is the result of reflection that has been effective in the sense that some specific doubt or difficulty has been resolved. “Assertability” points forward in time toward something yet to be done. What is assertible is something general, and therefore something potentially applicable to future cases that are relevantly similar.

We can see how relevant inquiry is for the kind of work required in schools (and for the Field Seminar)—essentially, it is a never ending process that requires that we carefully assess past accomplishments, and from this generate proposals for more finely attuned (intelligent) action in the future. Hopefully, the experiences in the field and in the Field Seminar will be organized primarily to enhance the work of inquiry, the *undergoing*, as well as the *outcome*: the growing wisdom of an enculturated “student of education”.

The Focus of Inquiry: The Pedagogical Relationship.

Inquiry is always inquiry into something in particular, as the subject matter of investigation. In this case the *general* subject matters are provided by the themes of the Year 1 program:

Learners and Learning, Teachers and Teaching, and Curriculum Studies. The themes were chosen because each one represents an important component of any teaching and learning situation: the primary pedagogical relationship. This relationship might be represented like this:



We need to note that this is a complex, living relationship, one in which the “objects” depicted change – they might better be called subjects because of this – and the roles are not fixed either, for e.g., our students can become our teachers at any given moment, if we are open to learning from them. Curriculum isn’t simply what arrives in a package from a provincial governing body, but should be thought about more broadly as the substance or subject matter of the world: a captivating piece of art, a good book, a mathematical puzzle, an alpine meadow, Lois Riel’s journal entry. The relationship between is characterized by a fluid process Dewey called “transaction”, so named because of the mutual changes brought about in the “objects” by the process. We call this relationship *primary* because we make this claim: *The quality of knowing and learning are dependent upon the quality of this relationship*. Developing trustworthy knowledge and authentic learning means developing trustworthy, authentic relationships between teachers, students and curriculum.

While the themes in semester are general, *meant to provide directions in which to look, they are not meant to be a determinant of what will be seen, specifically, acted on momentarily, or investigated in particular*. What gets noticed, seen or acted on will be a part of the concrete experience of the participants in the “indeterminate situation”, what gets investigated will be generated out of reflection on the significance of what has been experienced. As Dewey (1938) has so poignantly said, “To see that a situation requires inquiry is the first step in the inquiry” (p.111). The “work of seeing” might be an appropriate way to describe the work of the Field Seminar, particularly if it’s aimed at “seeing things differently”.

Experiencing the Field over the Course of the Year: The Journey from Learners and Learning through Teachers and Teaching to Curriculum Studies

Students begin their field experiences with a full week’s immersion in the schools – there are no on-campus classes during this week. The intention of immersion week is to provide students with a significant, initial encounter with life in schools, to provide the impetus for meaningful discussion and inquiry in the field seminars, and to ground the investigations undertaken in Case Seminar and Professional Seminar in the concrete particulars of learning and teaching.

Following the immersion week, students are in the schools two days a week for five weeks of the semester (either Sept/Oct OR Nov/Dec). They return to the school in January

for 12 weeks, two days a week, with another immersion week, usually scheduled in March. *The prolonged engagement at the school site is intended to help students develop their ability to establish pedagogical relationships and most importantly to learn from them.* We begin this pursuit in Year 1 with a focus on Learners and Learning, the first theme. We are focussing on the student in relation to us, but also in relation to what they are learning (curriculum). We learn about ourselves, the student and their learning simultaneously, *but from the student's perspective.* Our focus is on the students' experience of learning, and this remains tantamount, throughout the program. That's why we say the program is *student focused*, and why we constantly should be attending to the question: How can we use students' experience of learning to help us be better teachers? Nona Lyons (1998) frames it this way: "Can I listen to a student and capture something of tremendous worth here and, then, use it to feed my own professional development?" (p. 49).

And so we begin to orient ourselves in the field with questions like: Who are the learners—in particular? How do they experience learning? What kind of experience is meaningful for them? Under what conditions do they learn best? What possibilities are there here for promoting their engagement and development? Again, it needs to be said that these questions only provide directions in which to look, the situation itself (including the transactions) will likely transform them into more appropriate places to begin (seeing).

We suggest that these kinds of questions be addressed *first* because we make this claim: *Learning how to see learning and teaching through student's eyes (and minds and hearts) is tantamount to being a good teacher*, that is, tantamount to being the kind of teacher that can respond appropriately to the strengths, interests and needs of their students. How else could one learn to structure classroom experiences that are significant and relevant? How else could we as teachers support meaningful development and help our students flourish?

What cannot be forgotten in all of this is who we are as learners and what we bring to each educational encounter. Brookfield (1995, pp. 49-50) elaborates why who we are needs to be carefully and constantly examined:

We may espouse philosophies of teaching that we have learned from formal study, but the most significant and most deeply embedded influences that operate on us are images, models and conceptions of teaching derived from our own experiences as learners...Of all the methods available for changing how we teach, putting ourselves regularly in the role of a learner has the greatest long term effects.

Dewey (1904) is a little blunter: "The person who does not know himself is not likely to know others" (p. 5). Becoming and being a teacher then requires that we inquire into our own experiences as learners to surface and scrutinize those "deeply embedded influences that operate (unknowingly) on us", as Brookfield points out. What experiences have we had, as learners that have powerfully affected our learning, both positively and negatively? What have we made of these experiences, in terms of what we assume good or bad learning experiences to be? What conditions, including routines and practices, helped us learn? Why? Which ones hindered or frustrated our learning? Why? Is this true for others—the students we work with and our colleagues? The point here is that our assumptions need not simply be remembered and affirmed, but treated with a certain amount of skepticism, that is, treated as hypotheses in need of critical examination and testing out through inquiry. The outcome of this process, conducted properly, is *self understanding*.

The move from “Learners and Learning” to “Teachers and Teaching” might be thought of best as a re-orientation to learning, whereby everything learned in the first theme comes into play, in a slightly different way, in the second theme. We aren’t finished with “Learners and Learning” in the first 6 weeks and subsequently ready to move on to something entirely different in the second half of the semester. We are simply viewing the pedagogical relationship from a different vantage point, and assuming a different position in the relationship, one which brings added considerations and responsibilities. We ought to be asking questions like: *As a teacher*, when I act in a certain way with my students, how do they respond as learners, that is, what effects on learning, both intended and unintended, do my actions have? *As a teacher*, how might I enhance the learning experience of my students? We call this kind of teaching *responsive teaching* because it illustrates, from a teaching perspective, what being *student focused* means: engaging in a give-and-take, back-and-forth relationship with students, sometimes learning, sometimes teaching. At times, this might involve what is known as “direct teaching”, and at other times it might involve a more indirect or facilitative approach. But the teacher is not the central figure in the story, nor is the student, so that the approach to teaching should not be configured as either “teacher-centered” or “student-centered”, nor should either of these descriptions be juxtaposed with teaching that is inquiry-based. *The kind of teaching we are hoping to engender in the field involves (constantly) asking after what can be done to enliven the pedagogical relationship, and acting accordingly*. It involves carefully asking about the situation, and the participants, and what has gone on before, as well as what might happen in the future, and making some (finely attuned) judgments about what is best, at this particular time, in this particular place, on this particular path, with these particular people. Therefore, as teachers, we aren’t simply facilitators of someone else’s learning, although at times we might hold back to give our students room to grow, nor are we simply ciphers of a prescribed curriculum, although at times we will need to structure learning along fairly prescriptive, predetermined lines. Instead of thinking of ourselves as *simply one thing or another* (facilitators, experts, coaches, or critical friends, for e.g.), we need to think of ourselves in more complex ways, as active agents that change, in an on-going relationship, one aimed as much at our own transformation as it is at the transformation of others. Teachers need to be able to act with authority and integrity, but also be in the service of others. As can be seen, this is difficult and perilous work, because it is full of conundrums, and our very selves are at stake. There is no “one right way to be in teaching, but also “every which way” won’t do either.

The shift from “Teachers and Teaching” to “Curriculum Studies” in Semester 2 reminds us that the pedagogical relationship is, *at the very least*, a three-way relationship. This is what differentiates it from other kinds of relationships that are similar, like friendship, parenting and therapy, for example. It is also what differentiates education from entertainment and military training, because thoughtful, substantive learning should come out of curricular work, and this should be wondrous, engaging and deeply pleasurable, but that is not equivalent to “doing fun activities with the kids”, or on the other side of things, “whipping them into shape”. Extending this a little, worksheets aren’t necessarily “bad” and manipulatives “good”, both can lead to what Marcuse (1964) calls “the systematic moronization of students” (p. 94). Both too have the potential to have us come to know the world in ways that help us transcend who we are.

“Curriculum Studies” is meant to designate something more than studying the Program of Studies and figuring out how, by hook or by crook, we can herd students, in mass, toward pre-specified outcomes, or download required content into their heads, or worse yet, simply get them ready for provincial exams. While it does not mean ignoring these things, we do not

want to simply conflate curriculum with schooling. We are claiming that there are more important considerations to be made to try to understand what curriculum is, and in particular, what potential it has for making a difference in our lives and the lives of our students. And the phenomena of “making a difference” needs to be critically examined as well, because there are differences we might not want to make, like conjuring the belief, in our students, that after 12 000 hours of instruction, that “Math sucks”, “English is boring” or “History is useless”. We must always keep in mind that *curriculum can educate as well as mis-educate*, that it can do harm as well as good, and we need to be mindful, given the history of education, of its potential to do both.

Madeline Grumet (and others) can help us in this regard, *by framing curriculum studies as the study of how humans come to know the world, and how the world responds*. She illustrates, using Mathematics as an example:

We can ask our students to step back from mathematical formulae and problems to consider mathematics as a source of questions about the world. We can ask ourselves and our students what are the questions that mathematics asks of the world and what kind of world does mathematics find? How are the objects of the world related to each other? What patterns are repeated even when the objects change? How can I use this understanding to imagine relationships among objects that I cannot see and touch? (2006, p. 50)

Inquiry in Curriculum Studies should be “aimed at the world that curriculum points to” as Grumet (2006) would say. The primary questions to be investigated are: What kind of knowledge counts, and to whom? How might that be acquired? What differences will it make to and what significance does it hold for our students? Who and what will they become through their learning? What kind of world are we educating for? Assumptions, intentions and outcomes (that is, what actually “comes out of” curricular work) should be critically examined, resulting in what Dewey calls “knowledge of antecedents and consequences”. Put another way, in “Curriculum Studies”, Programs of Study need to be investigated for their ability to help us come to know the world, for the kind of world they would have us imagine and create, (as well as destroy), for the kind of people they would have us become (and not become), they should not simply be taken for granted and implemented without critical scrutiny. Such a course of action “arrests inquiry and closes the channels that lead on to deeper and wider insight” (Phenix, 1974, p. 130)

Helping Students Experience the Field and Flourish as “Students of Teaching”

Being a mentor to an MT student in the field might be a little different than delivering instruction on campus, or being a teacher with younger students in a classroom. We use the word mentoring to try and describe the kind of professional, helping relationship that should develop between partner teachers, MT students, and university instructors. Being a mentor is being an “experienced and trusted advisor” (Brown, 1993, p. 1744). In spite of the apparent ease of its definition, being a good mentor (and mentee) is difficult to accomplish, partly because, at its core, mentoring is a relationship that develops through negotiation and

“working alongside”, and not simply through assignment, or task specifications. It occupies the middle ground, the space between the hyphens of “student-teacher”, so to speak. Being a liminal space, roles are not fixed here, so the question of who teaches and who learns at any given moment is an open one, or should be at least, in order that a dialogic, give and take relationship is possible. Not enough can be said about this, because *the quality of the field experience will depend, to a large degree, upon the quality of the relationship between partner teachers, student teachers and university instructors*. Good will, good judgment and being faithful to the practice of dialogue are tantamount to a fuller notion of success in the field.

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Working Group Report
for
Theme #4: The Nature, Role, and Place of Field Experiences in
Teacher Education and Relationships with Schools

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Our discussion began with us exploring and asking after the nature of our particular programs, and from this the landscape of our conversation emerged. It might be described more as a “meandering through” and a ‘bumping into’ than as a systematic mapping and description of familiar territory. We do not know if we have gotten a sufficient hold of the phenomena or the issues yet; certainly we could not fit them into categories or themes, and there is a disjunction between the questions we were given and the nature of our response.

We talked a lot about the disjointed and contested nature of the field and the collision of (at least) three worlds: the world of our student teachers, the world of school, and the world of the university. We borrowed from Anne Phelan’s discussion (this volume, pp. 21-32), and wondered about the normative categories at work in these action contexts. This is our first question then:

1. What are the values that set the stage for action in the field?

Related to this, and given the disjunctions and contestations, we noted that self is a precarious thing in the field, certainly multiple in its forms and expressions, so we asked,

2. What are the subjectivities in play in the field? What relations between? How are subjectivities negotiated?

Related to subjectivity we talked about what is deeply felt in the field – the play of love and hate, of attraction and revulsion, those things that Nussbaum (2001) refers to as “upheavals of thought”. We borrow from our colleagues to ask,

3. What is the emotional landscape of teaching? What nascent theories of teaching and learning are located there? What language is available to help us understand this dimension?

The notion of a trajectory of practice caught our attention in the context of asking the question, “What happens to students?” We talked a lot about contours and rhythms, so we wondered,

4. With respect to practice, what develops over time? How does practice unfold or become? What is the nature of its temporal dimensions?

Perhaps we are being harsh here, or displaying our own ignorance, or both, but we wondered about the scholarship of teaching, and noted our dissatisfaction with much of it, particularly its inability to produce insight. So we ask,

5. What kind(s) of scholarship might inform (delight, move, interrupt, overturn, open up new territory) in the field?

With respect to our students and their subjectivities, we noted that, overwhelmingly, the practicum is the most significant part of their experience in teacher education, so we ask,

6. How can we live with the fact that our students are powerfully drawn to the field? How might we live and work with them in the (space of) the field?

We talked about the things that endure in teacher education, and the notion of care came up, but we were uneasy with the more naïve, romantic expressions of care: that it can create the two traps Anne Phelan talked about (this volume, pp. 24-25) – the teacher becomes responsible for learning and the students become dependent on the teacher.

7. What forms of care might enliven the pedagogical relationship, and not overburden the teacher or enslave the student?

A lot of our conversation was about seeing (and being seen), and we were captivated by Terry's notion of looking out (and looking in), but also about the metaphorical dimensions of seeing, the necessity of "seeing as". So we ask,

8. What is it that helps our student teachers see (the imaginative dimensions of teaching and learning, for example), and see themselves as (researchers, for example), or teaching as (scholarship, for example).

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THE EDUCATION AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATORS

Towards a Pedagogy of Teacher Education in Canada: Advancing Teacher Education Practices and Programs through Faculty Development

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Introduction

Teacher education has long been recognized as being in need of reform. While there have been many reform efforts, comparatively little attention has been given to the professional development as a means of improving teacher education practices and programs. There is now a specialized body of knowledge about teacher education which needs to be understood and applied by teacher educators. Significant challenges, however, limit the dissemination and application of this specialized knowledge in education faculties. Professional development based on increasingly accepted understandings can play an important role in the improvement of teacher education practices and programs. After reviewing this specialized field and identifying challenges, I will examine professional development approaches that could contribute to the advancing of teacher education practices and programs in Canada.

Teacher education has emerged as a specialized professional field of educational research and practice over the past 25 years. In response to criticisms of teacher education programs and practices (e.g. Holmes Group, 1986; Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession, 1986; Goodlad, 1990; and Fullan, 1993), significant efforts have been made to improve teacher education in Canada and around the world. While many reforms in the 1990's were unsuccessful, often because they were piecemeal or disconnected (Fullan, 1999), the last few years have seen the development of a significant body of knowledge, best practices, and scholarship. Disseminating information and promoting understanding of the emerging consensus in teacher education should be a priority for leaders in teacher education. Learning about best practices and exemplary programs should be a priority for all teacher educators.

Professional development has a crucial role to play in advancing teacher education in Canada. Although there is now a wealth of knowledge concerning teacher education practices, it is unclear how widely this knowledge has been disseminated and utilized. Certainly, there is reason to doubt that knowledge translates into research-based professional practices by teacher educators (Russell, McPherson, & Martin, 2001).

Significant challenges need to be overcome in order to develop a professional development culture within teacher education. At the heart of the challenge is the positioning of teacher education "betwixt tower and field" (Heap, 2006). Some teacher educators are

mainly beholden to the ‘field’, particularly adjunct professors who have been hired for their experiences in schools. Others are more beholden to the ‘ivory tower’, especially tenure-tracked professors who teach graduate students and have specialized programs of research. Many struggle to balance the competing demands of field and tower. One could argue that teacher education is a specialized field without specialists or, perhaps, without trained specialists. At the very least, it seems safe to argue that there is a lack of systematic preparation for teacher educators, whether they emerge from schools or the academy. In order to develop more effective practices and programs, teacher educators need to develop and enact pedagogies of teacher education based on the specialized knowledge, practices and scholarship in the field. “Staff development cannot be separated from school development,” wrote Michael Fullan (1991, p. 129). Innovative approaches to professional development have an important role to play in teacher education reform.

Teacher Education as a Specialized Field

The professional development of teacher educators is necessary because teacher education is a specialized field of practice and research. There is a significant body of knowledge and skills that needs to be understood and applied, and research is leading to common understanding within the field.

Teacher Education Reform in the 1980's and 1990's

Teacher education has been under scrutiny since the 1980's. In the United States, criticisms by the Holmes Group (1986), the Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession, and Goodlad (1990) led to significant reform efforts. Canadian teacher education programs also faced calls for reform. As Cole (2000) notes, “In Canada, since the late 1980's, nearly every education reform document...has included a call for changes to teacher education” (p. 139).

These calls for change prompted many reform efforts by teacher educators and teacher education faculties. Howey and Zimpher (1989) identified fourteen attributes necessary for program coherence. Goodlad (1990) advocated the development of cohort groupings. He also noted the problems arising from the low-status of teacher education in academia. The prevalence of theoretical knowledge in university-based teacher education prompted many teacher education specialists, including a good number of Canadian scholars, to advocate more authentic approaches to teacher education. Grimmatt (1995) promoted the “craft knowledge” of teachers, while Munby and Russell (1994) stressed the “authority of experience” and Knowles and Cole (1996) drew attention to the socio-cultural dimensions of teaching.

Russell, McPherson and Martin (2000) articulate nicely one of the central understandings that emerged from teacher education reform efforts during this era:

The inability of traditional programs to prepare beginning teachers with more than an imitative understanding of their role emerges, in large part, from the lack of explicit connections between the actions of teachers and the pedagogical theories that inform practice. (p. 42)

In order for teacher education reform to be effective, they argue the need for greater program coherence and greater collaboration with partners in schools. This also requires teacher educators who understand these challenges and are committed to “an interactive process that facilitates personal and professional understanding and growth” (p. 48).

Frustrated by the stall of teacher education reform, Fullan *et. al.* (1998) advocated the professional development school model as a structure for grounding theory in practice. They also identified “a stronger knowledge base for teaching and teacher education” and “rigorous and dynamic research” on teacher education among the main components of necessary reform (p. 58). Cole (2000) also noted that the most likely successes were the initiatives that were democratic in nature, rather than ones directed by faculty or university leaders. Cole (2000), like Russell, McPherson and Martin, emphasizes the need for “a coherent and articulated set of values related to the improvement of teacher education” (p. 149).

Fullan *et. al.* (1998), Cole (2000), and Russell, McPherson and Martin (2000), all regarded traditional programs as entrenched. Cole (2000) writes, “[T]eacher education in North America has remained essentially unchanged for generations” (p. 151). Nonetheless, each remained hopeful, stressing that we can learn from what Fullan *et. al.* refer to as the *rise and stall* of previous teacher education reform efforts.

Teacher Education Reform in the New Millennium

Although the 1980's and 1990's were often frustrating for teacher education reformers, much was learned about the characteristics of effective teacher education, as well as the complex challenges of developing coherent and collaborative teacher education programs. The first years of the new millennium have been significant for the efforts to develop a consensus on key elements of teacher education, identify the characteristics of exemplary programs, and build a consensus on the preparation of teachers in the United States.

As Canadian teacher education programs are similar to those in the United States, evidenced by the tendency of Canadian scholars to refer to American examples and contribute to the international debate, we can learn a great deal from the development of teacher education as a specialized field south of the border. We then need to build on this base to develop a body of teacher education knowledge, practices and programs appropriate to the Canadian context.

Three collaborative works by American scholars are highlighted as providing a foundational understanding of teacher education. These multi-author volumes offer teacher educators foundational understandings and a solid grounding in the field. While one need not accept all their claims, they provide like a solid basis for the professional development of teacher educators.

Preparing Teachers for a Changing World: What Teachers Should Learn and Be Able to Do (2005); edited by Linda Darling-Hammond and John Bransford. This volume, which features articles by members of the National Academy of Education's Committee on Teacher Education, is an attempt to codify common understandings about the preparation of teachers.

The editors argue, “Over the last two decades, the teaching profession has begun to codify the knowledge base of professional practice and standards for the work of practitioners” (p. vii). They compare this effort to the emergence of common building blocks for medical education and legal education a century earlier. This volume “outlines core concepts and strategies that should inform initial teacher preparation” (p. vii), with a particular

emphasis on how what we know about student learning and teacher learning should inform teaching and teacher education. The recommendations, identified as being “developed through professional and scholarly consensus based on research about learning, teaching, teacher learning, and teacher education” (p. ix), are the result of a process similar to those used to develop curricula in other professional fields.

The most significant point made is that teacher education programs need to focus on the development of “adaptive expertise” (Hotano & Oura, 2003). In order to adapt to changing social and professional circumstances, adaptive experts continuously add to their knowledge: “knowledge of learners and their development in social context”; “knowledge of subject matter and curriculum goals”; and “knowledge of teaching” (Bransford, Darling-Hammond & LePage, 2005, p. 11). To become adaptive experts, pre-service teachers need opportunities to draw on their knowledge, skills and dispositions in authentic classroom situations (Bullough & Gitlin, 1995). They need to make informed pedagogical decisions, reflect on those decisions, and make adaptations (Schon, 1983). They need to feel a sense of moral agency within collaborative professional communities (Bransford, Darling-Hammond & LePage, 2005). These are large demands requiring powerful strategies and thoughtful approaches.

Chapters in this book identify consensus perspectives on many subject areas in teacher education, including subject matter, diverse learners, assessment, classroom management and the design of teacher education programs. This book “focuses not on what current institutions generally deliver, but on what *students* need for teachers to know if the teachers are to do a responsible job of guiding student learning” (p. 21).

The vision of teacher education developed in this report is complex and coherent. Overall, teacher education should take place in a *learning community* guided by a strong *vision* around which develop *understanding, practices, dispositions* and *tools* (p. 386).

Carefully thought through by leading experts who are also teacher educators, this is an excellent book for teacher educators developing courses and for reformers devising teacher education programs that are complex, coherent and collaborative.

Studying Teacher Education: The Report of the AERA Panel on Research and Teacher Education (2005); edited by Marilyn Cochran-Smith and Kenneth M. Zeichner. This report is a major study of teacher education research in the United States. The editors state, “[O]ur change was to try to make sense of what the research did and did not say about teacher education and to craft a new research agenda that might begin to answer some of the most important, but previously unanswered questions” (p. ix). The individual papers synthesize the research literature in specific fields of teacher education and identify areas for further inquiry in order to develop theory-driven practices. Among the topics are research on the characteristics of teachers, the effect of various types of courses, and the effectiveness of teacher education programs.

One of the interesting findings is that, in many areas of teacher education research, studies tend to be small and not easily generalizable. They encourage making teacher education a priority for bodies that fund larger and longer studies.

A cursory review of Canadian scholarship suggest that the messages articulated here would serve Canadian teacher educators equally well as we develop our practices, programs, and research.

Powerful Teacher Education: Lessons from Exemplary Programs (2006); Linda Darling-Hammond “in collaboration with” multiple authors. This volume is a natural follow-up to *Preparing Teachers for a Changing World*, as it offers examples of exemplary teacher education

programs. It is one thing to identify, for example, the need to conceptualize an understanding of student cognition, but quite another to develop a program that effectively achieves this goal. The examples in this book illustrate how the many different aspects of effective teacher education can be brought together in complex, coherent and collaborative programs.

Darling-Hammond begins by challenging two “damaging myths” about education. The first is that “good teachers are born not made,” which has resulted in too few “sustained initiatives to ensure that all teachers have the opportunity to become well prepared” (p. ix). The second is that “good teacher education programs are virtually non-existent and perhaps even impossible to construct” (p. ix). This myth causes practitioners and policymakers to act as if “teaching is mostly telling others what you know and therefore requires little more than subject knowledge” (p. ix). In order to counter these myths, Darling-Hammond’s team studied exemplary programs. The exemplars described and studied have “long track records of developing teachers who are strongly committed to all students’ learning—and to ensuring especially that student who struggle to learn can succeed” (p. 5).

While each of these exemplary programs was very different, seven common components were identified as powerful (p. 41):

- A common, clear vision of good teaching permeates all coursework and clinical experiences.
- Well-defined standards of practice and performance are used to guide and evaluate coursework and clinical experiences.
- Curriculum is grounded in knowledge of child and adolescent development, learning, social contexts, and subject matter pedagogy, taught in the context of practice.
- Extended clinical experiences are carefully developed to support the ideas and practices presented in simultaneous, closely interwoven coursework.
- Explicit strategies help students (1) confront their own deep-seated beliefs and assumptions and (2) learn about experiences of people different than themselves.
- Strong relationships, common knowledge, and shared beliefs link school- and university-based faculty.
- Case study methods, teacher research, performance assessments, and portfolio evaluation apply learning to real problems of practice.

These common components, illustrated through descriptions of exemplary programs, touch on many of the suggestions made by change advocates in the 1990’s. Indeed, many of these programs were developed or modified in response to these concerns.

Another worthwhile book, *Innovations in Teacher Education: A Social Constructivist Approach* (Beck & Kosnik, 2006) also examines exemplary teacher education programs. This volume draws on examples from Canada, the United States and beyond; among the programs is the Midtown Option at the University of Toronto in which the authors have been involved as teacher educators and researchers on their practices.

The articles in *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education, 3rd Edition* (Cochran-Smith *et. al.* 2008), due to be published in January 2008, should also provide useful frames for understanding teacher education as a specialized field of research and practice.

The Canadian Context

Canadian teacher educators have made significant contributions to the debate around teacher education reform nationally and internationally. Many leading Canadian teacher educators are published regularly in Canadian, American and international journals.

Most, however, focus on specific facets such as field experiences (Beck & Kosnik, 2002a; Schulte, 2005; Clarke & Collins, 2007; Mitchell, Clarke & Nuttall, 2007), cohort groupings (Mather & Hanley, 1999; Beck & Kosnik, 2001; Manzuk, Hasinoff, & Seifert), portfolios (Rolheiser & Schwartz, 2001), school-university-partnerships (Woloshyn, Chalmers, & Bosacki, 2005), and equity issues (Lund, 1998). There are also many individual studies of teacher education practices, whether reflective in nature (Chierian, 2007; Kitchen, in press 2008) or employing action research methods (Ross, Rolheiser, & Hogaboam-Gray, 1999; Kitchen & Stevens, in press 2007).

While there have been many papers on various facets of teacher education since Wideen and Holborn (1986) identified the need for a better understanding of the context of teacher education in Canada, there remains a need for more replication and better understandings of the context of teacher education.

Two useful studies of the broader context are “Coherence and Collaboration in Teacher Education Reform” (Russell, McPherson & Martin, 2001) and “Indicators of Success in Teacher Education” (Russell & McPherson, 2001). The first article highlights some of the changes taking place in Canadian teacher education programs, and identifies important patterns of change. In particular, coherence among program elements and collaboration with outside partners are identified as priorities. Like the aforementioned American studies, this paper identifies similarities among successful teacher education programs. These include respecting the authority of the experiences of teacher candidates, school-university partnerships, bridging gaps between theory and practice through modelling and field-based classes, and carefully planned teacher induction programs. Interestingly, while the authors praise changes in many universities, they also note that these changes tended to occur independent of each other. In other words, there is an absence of a Canadian agenda in which teacher educators at various universities work collaboratively to develop effective practices or common research projects.

In the second article, Russell and McPherson (p. 5) also emphasize the importance of:

- making explicit what teachers actually do and think in the course of planning, implementing and evaluating their teaching;
- taking candidates’ experiences and concerns as central in discussions that enable them to study their own fledgling practice as they work to see the theory involved in practical decisions;
- creating collaborative environments, within student cohorts...

The authors place great emphasis on the voices of teacher candidates, which have often been ignored by teacher educators perpetuating the transmission model of teacher preparation. A similar observation was made by Volante (2006), who studied the perspectives of preservice teachers in a cohorted teacher education program. The ten essential elements for effective teacher education programs identified by Volante’s participants—diverse student bodies, effective program faculty, useful curricula and pedagogy, theory into practice orientation, program coherence, small class sizes, cohort class structure, supportive associate teachers,

prolonged practicum experiences, and ongoing program review—are very similar to the ones identified by experts in the field.

The Association of Canadian Deans of Education highlighted the importance of teacher education in their “Accord on Initial Teacher Education” (2006). In the preamble, they recognized that “initial teacher education should involve the development of situated, practical knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and academic content knowledge, as well as an introduction to research and scholarship in education” (p. 2). The actual principles listed in the accord include the importance of school-university partnerships, collaboration, interweaving theory with research and practice, and the development of a research disposition. While principles signed by academic deans cannot transform teacher education, they can help establish a context in which teacher education reform by dedicated teacher educators can transform practices and programs. This pan-Canadian accord may offer opportunities to develop a pan-Canadian teacher education agenda.

Developing and Enacting a Pedagogy of Teacher Education

While teacher educators are highly educated scholars and/or very experienced educators, their knowledge and experiences are generally not in the field of teacher education. Teacher educators, like teachers, begin as novices who “focus on surface features or particular objects” (Munby *et. al.*, 2001, p. 889). Teacher educators who emerge from scholarship may be inclined to emphasize what Korthagen *et. al.* (2001) term *episteme*: traditional and scientifically-derived propositional knowledge. This knowledge is sometimes criticized for being too theoretical and general to be applied in to specific situations and problems. Educators who emerge from practice in schools, on the other hand, may be inclined towards *phronesis*: practical wisdom based on concrete experiences in specific situations (Korthagen *et. al.*, 2001). This wisdom, sometimes derided as ‘war stories’, may not be grounded in scholarship and or be easily transferred to the teacher education context. Neither the theoretical knowledge of scholars nor the practical experience of practitioners is sufficient. Even teacher educators with both scholarly and practical backgrounds may not have integrated them into a pedagogy of teacher education.

In order to develop a pedagogy of teacher education, teacher educators need to grapple with the challenges of teaching about teaching and teaching about learning. Like the teachers they teach, they need to go through a novice stage of survival before advancing their pedagogy (Huberman, 1993). Novice practices, however, will perpetuate themselves (Britzman, 1991) unless there is reflection on practice combined with knowledge about expert practices. They can learn from the tacit knowledge of experts, which “does not easily translate into direct instruction and formalization” (Munby *et. al.*, 2001, p. 889). In particular, there is value in turning to the “authority of experience” (Munby & Russell, 1994) of teacher educators who have reflected deeply on their teacher education practices and have shared their stories of practice in scholarly publications. They can learn much about exemplary practices and programs by the read works such as those cited above .

John Loughran, in *Developing a Pedagogy of Teacher Education* (2006), has drawn on the authority of his experiences to convey his complex understanding of effective teacher education practice. In defining pedagogy, he emphasizes the importance of the “relationship between teaching and learning and understanding through meaningful practice” (p. 2). Given the complexities of learning about teaching and teaching about learning, as well as the

“competing cognitive and affective tensions that influence learning and growth through experiences in practice settings” (p. 3), teacher education is a highly complex and specialized field of practice. Developing a pedagogy of teacher education entails an examination of this complex interplay in order to effectively prepare beginning teachers. In particular, as there is a vast difference between telling and teaching, teacher educators need to devote as much attention to *how* they teach as to *what* they teach (Russell, 1997).

The complex dynamics of effective teacher education practices are nicely expressed by Loughran (2006):

Teaching about teaching therefore hinges on: supporting students of teaching as they learn to be comfortable about progressively relinquishing control in order to learn to better manage the many competing aspects of teaching through engaging with the problematic; while at the same time responding similarly to the very same situation in one’s own practice. In many ways, seeing anew what one already sees is one way of managing the complexity of teaching about teaching as it requires a familiarity with practice in concert with maintaining a distance from practice in order to see what is happening while it is happening. (p. 35)

Canadian teacher educators have played an active role in the self-study of teacher education practices. For example, nearly half the articles in *Enacting a Pedagogy of Teacher Education* (2007), a follow-up volume to *Developing a Pedagogy of Teacher Education* are by Canadian teacher educators. Clare Kosnik (2007) of the University of Toronto discusses ways in which researching her practices has enriched her understanding of teacher education and improved programs for students in her cohorts. Ruth Kane of the University of Ottawa discusses how she learned to make her teaching explicit and to articulate a conceptual framework for teacher education through research on her practice in New Zealand and Canada. Shawn Bullock (2007), a teacher educator and doctoral candidate at Queen’s University, explicates how he learned to value innovative pedagogy in his methods classes. Andrea Martin (2007) of Queen’s University explores from within the challenges of program restructuring. Tom Russell (2007) of Queen’s University reflects on how studying his practices has enabled him to enact a pedagogy of teacher education over 30 years.

This body of knowledge and examples of exemplary practices has the potential to inform and, perhaps, transform teacher education in Canada. Its impact will not be significant, however, unless major impediments to reform are addressed.

Identifying Challenges to the Professionalization of Teacher Education

Betwixt Tower and Field

Education faculties, like many other professional schools, stand “betwixt tower and field” (Heap, 2006). Heap (2006) defines the “tower” as “a place of employment committed to the values, traditions and practices of the academy” and the “field of education” as a place of paid employment and volunteer activity which encompasses teaching and learning.” This

location is fraught with tension as teacher educators are collectively accountable to both masters. Historically, teacher educators in “normal schools” and “teacher colleges” were oriented primarily towards the field. Since teacher colleges were merged into universities (since 1969 in Ontario), discipline-oriented professors are more likely to face the tower. Heap argues that these tensions can be resolved by focusing less on traditional scholarly objectives and more on “scholarly impact objectives” that recognize the importance of provoking discussion in the field; practitioner utilization of theories, practices and materials; and the improvement of education.

The positioning of education faculties as professional schools within universities has significant implications for the scholarship and practices of teacher educators. If teacher education is a specialized field in which scholarship and practice are integrated meaningfully, then the work of teacher educators needs to be defined, supported and assessed in ways that recognize their Janus-like positioning on the educational landscape.

Peter Grimmett (1998), almost a decade ago, stressed the importance of reconfiguring the work of teacher educators in order to better serve the community:

[T]eacher educators need to reconceptualize their mission as enculturating teachers into the practice of teaching with a sense of hope and purpose, now, in collaboration with other colleagues in higher education and the field.
(p. 264)

Grimmett proposed “building a culture of inquiry” that is “reconfigured around team-teaching and facilitation of practitioner inquiry” (p. 262).

Teacher educators in faculties of education are a highly diverse group. They range from academics with little practical knowledge of schools to experienced teachers with little theoretical knowledge of education. In between, there are many individuals with experiences in and loyalties to both tower and field. Regardless of where individual teacher educators are located on this continuum, they experience tension as they attempt to serve both masters.

If teacher education is to be regarded as a specialized field of scholarship and practice, both clinical faculty and tenure-track professors are in need of effective professional development in this area. The experiences and positioning of each group, however, makes the development of teacher education specialists very challenging.

Grounded Clinical Faculty

Experienced teachers have long played an important role as clinical faculty in teacher education programs. Cornbleth and Ellsworth (1994) identified three major roles for “clinical faculty”: enhanced practice teaching roles, teaching university courses, and engagement in teacher education program teaching, planning and decision-making. In this section I refer to three groups who play a large role in the delivery of teacher education courses and programs: teachers (active or retired) who serve as part-time instructors; teachers who are seconded from the classroom for fixed terms; and retired teachers who work as full-time teacher educators.

Clinical faculty grounded in the practical realities of teaching in schools have long been identified as playing a potentially important role in bridging the perceived gap between the field and the academy (e.g. The Holmes Group, 1995). In Canadian universities, they play a prominent yet largely unexamined role in the delivery of teacher education courses and

programs. As instructors, they bring recent field experiences from their roles as teachers and/or school administrators. They also act as contacts with teachers and school boards. Part-time and retired instructors, who are generally hired on modest sessional contracts, provide teacher education programs with rich experience at a modest cost. Howey and Zimpher (1994), however, have cautioned that clinical faculty often lack the theoretical understandings necessary to extend beyond a basic orientation to schools. If teacher education is a specialized field, these experienced and capable teachers may be so oriented to the field that they are not responsive to theoretical orientations or to the specialized demands of teacher education.

In order to explore this further, I draw on a case study of 17 seconded teacher educators at the University of British Columbia (Badali & Housego, 2000) and my seven years as a seconded instructor at the University of Toronto (Kitchen, 2005a; 2005b). Badali and Housego note that their research participants neither actively pursued positions as clinical faculty nor had experience working with adult learners. While such an approach may lead to the hiring of effective and, at times, exemplary teachers is “hit and miss” and the results are likely to “uneven at best (Maynes, McIntosh, & Wimmer, 1998). I was hired in a similar manner when a position suddenly became available. Subsequently, at the University of Toronto, seconded instructors faculty were recruited through newspaper ads, while part-time and retired instructors generally applied on their own or were encouraged to apply by existing instructors. A graduate degree in education increasingly became the norm among clinical faculty at the University of Toronto and many had experience in school board professional development and/or the delivery of university in-service courses. Nonetheless, like the secondees at the University of British Columbia, we lacked preparation in teacher education, and received only limited orientation programs prior to beginning our work as teacher educators. In both institutions, while technical support was given when asked, new clinical faculty often felt overwhelmed by the demands of course planning and the need to adapt to working with adult learners. Underlying the approaches in these and other universities seems to be the implicit assumption that effective teacher only needed to draw on their teaching repertoire and experiences to become effective teacher educators. Generally there is little explicit recognition that teacher education is a specialized field or that there is a pedagogy of teacher education.

In “Teachers’ Secondment Experiences”, Badali and Housego (2000), offers an interesting glimpse into the experiences of clinical faculty. Most did not actively seek out positions as teacher educators. Most felt that that the program orientations they were given were insufficient; many felt overwhelmed by the demands of course planning and the need to adapt to working with adult learners. Most interesting, “[s]econded teachers do not appear to develop secure identities as teacher educators” (p. 336). Badali and Housego write:

Although seconded teachers are given responsibility for many of the practical dimensions of teacher education, they remain on the periphery, never gaining entry to the mainstream university culture. In summary, seconded teachers took the initiative to organize their own support, the faculty neither suggested nor designed it to any degree beyond the orientation phase, and departments had mixed success in welcoming and including them. (p.336)

As a seconded faculty member at the University of Toronto, I found course planning demanding although I was able to combine my practical knowledge as a teacher with my

theoretical knowledge as a doctoral candidate. Many of my colleagues, however, relied primarily on their practical experiences to impart knowledge and model effective practice. Much of the program was administered by clinical faculty while tenure-track professors focused primarily on graduate courses and their programs of research.

Dawson (1996) revealed that clinical faculty place a higher value on practical, experiential knowledge than on theoretical knowledge. While this is understandable given their experiences, a greater awareness of the specialized field of teacher education would help them be more effective as teacher educators. Indeed many seconded faculty, who arrive with deep commitments to ongoing professional learning and collaboration, would be receptive to further professional development. As Badali and Housego (2000) remarked, “teachers expected to build similar collaborative relationships with full-time faculty” (p. 341) who often seemed out of touch with them. Part-time faculty, particularly retired teachers, may be less willing to commit to additional professional development, given the duration and uncertainty of their contracts.

As clinical faculty without doctorates play a significant and growing role in teacher education, their professional development is critical to advancing teacher education practices and programs. In addition to better screening clinical faculty for their suitability as teacher educators, more can be done to prepare them as teacher education programs and to provide them with stronger professional communities with education faculties.

Is it possible to offer a balanced teacher education program when most of the instructors are clinical faculty? According to Beck and Kosnik (2003), a balanced and effective teacher education program needs both clinical faculty and professors of education working collaboratively in a program in which theory and practice are integrated. Although clinical faculty have an important role to play, it is essential that professors of education be appointed “who have a solid commitment to linking theory and practice and, in particular, to engaging in preservice education and forming partnerships with practicum schools” (Beck & Kosnik, 2003).

The Aspiring Professoriate

In most education faculties, there is a good mix of practice-oriented clinical faculty and theory-oriented professors. The presence of both groups, however, does not automatically mean that teacher candidates benefit from the best of both orientations. As the literature on teacher education practices and programs has revealed, each teacher educator has a role to play in bridging this theory-practice divide in their own practices. This entails an increased commitment to teacher education by professors and the institutions in which they are employed.

Ducharme (1993), in *The Lives of Teacher Educators*, professors of education enjoy “a new life of self-direction, of autonomy” (p. 48) very different from what they may have experienced as teachers. The “mystique” of this “esoteric” and “special way of life with implied responsibilities” often cause teacher educators to focus increasingly on scholarship and graduate courses (p. 48-49). Indeed, according to Ducharme, teacher educators regard scholarship as having greater importance—with attendant pressures to produce—regardless of the size of the university in which they work.

The gap between education faculties and the field has widened since teacher education has been housed within universities. According to Wimmer and da Costa (2007), “all signals

point to a direction of research intensification in the work of the education professoriate” (p. 85) that could widen the divide between professors oriented towards the tower and clinical faculty oriented towards the field. Their research at the University of Alberta, which was confirmed by their experiences in the same context, reveals that recently retired professors were more field-oriented than recently hired faculty. “Education programs lack the intellectual traditions of the liberal arts but have tried valiantly to conform to university norms,” according to Kennedy (2001, p. 29). In order to increase their status within the university, education professors often measure themselves against academic standards that are consistent with those in core disciplines within the university (Heap, 2006). Doing so may lead to a reduced commitment to improving teaching, which drew them to educational studies in the first place.

As a faculty member at the University of Toronto and Brock University, I have heard tenure-track professors express reluctance to commit too deeply to the teacher education program. This is understandable given the “labor-intensive nature of teacher preparation” (Howey & Zimpher, 1989). The benefits of increased lesson preparation must be balanced with scholarly demands. Visiting teacher candidates in the field, which may play a critical role in linking theory to practice, comes at the expense of sustained periods of time devoted to research projects. As I write this paper or work on my program of research, I too find myself carefully managing my time so that I can serve both tower and field.

In describing their involvement in an innovative teacher education, Beck and Kosnik (2001) note that “this type of work usually has low status and is rewarded poorly in terms of tenure, promotion, and merit pay” (p. 946). In “From Cohort to Community in a Preservice Teacher Education Program”, after highlighting the many benefits of the community model they developed in the “Mid-Town Option” at the University of Toronto, they conclude that “the model will not become widespread without increased institutional support” (p. 946). On a more hopeful note, they write:

The problem of heavy workload and lack of rewards can be overcome to some extent by doing research on one’s own teacher education practice, as we have done in this and other studies...Such research has the added advantages of helping us improve the program and making our work more satisfying. It also enables us to make a stronger case at an institutional level for support for this kind of program, something we plan to do in a more systematic way in the future. (p. 947).

If professors of education are to engage in teacher education instruction, teaching, program development and field supervision, it is vital that recognition and reward structures is given to this work (Beck & Kosnik, 2003; 2002b).

Beck and Kosnik’s remarks are consistent with Heap’s (2006) scholarly impact objectives and Lincoln’s (2001) call for innovative incentives for scholarship in teacher education programs.

The *Accord on Initial Teacher Education* (ACDE, 2006), signed by members of the Association of Canadian Deans of Education (ACDE), could be a crucial step in this direction:

It is ACDE’s view that programs of initial teacher education should involve the development of situated practical knowledge, pedagogical knowledge,

and academic content knowledge, as well as an introduction to research and scholarship in education. (p. 2)

Absence of a Professional Development Culture

One of the most consistent findings of school improvement research is that “school improvement cannot occur apart from a closely connected culture of professional development” (Hawley & Valli, 1999, p. 127). Professors in education faculties have written extensively on this symbiotic relationship, proving that workshops, conferences and individually guided professional development models are largely ineffective (Hawley & Valli, 1999). Despite this knowledge, there is little systematic effort to link faculty development to the improvement of teacher education programs. Indeed the individualistic culture of the academy makes this particularly challenging. Clinical faculty with experience in schools are often receptive to professional development opportunities yet few are afforded them due to the short-term nature of their contracts. Education professors, who must divide their time between scholarship and teaching, often lack the time or commitment to be part of the kinds of collaborative faculty development activities that have been demonstrated to be effective.

This has long been recognized as an impediment to teacher education reform. Crowell and Haring (1978), the editors of a *Journal of Teacher Education* theme issue on faculty development, noted that “little thought appears to have been given to university faculty development” (p. 7). Arends, Murphy and Christensen (1986), who echoed these concerns, emphasized the importance of shifting from norms of professional autonomy to norms of collaboration and commitment to program goals. They, like Brittingham (1986), Grimmett (1998) and Howey (1998), stressed the importance of organizational leadership in supporting and sustaining programs of research that are meaningful to practitioner and greater collaboration with the field of practice.

While systematic professional development is difficult in schools, it seems doubly challenging in education faculties. Hawley and Valli (1999) identify eight traits that contribute to “substantive and lasting changes in the knowledge, skills, and behaviours of educators that strengthen student learning” (p. 137). I have adapted these to the development of teacher education faculty:

1. Driven by goals and standards for teacher candidate learning and performance;
2. Teachers involved in the identification of what needs to be learned;
3. Based in the pre-service program and/or the education faculty as a whole;
4. Collaborative problem-solving;
5. Continuous professional development supported by the leadership of the faculty, university and the community;
6. Incorporate multiple sources of information about student learning and implementation processes;
7. Informed by scholarship in the field;
8. Part of a comprehensive change process focussed on improving teacher candidate learning

Individual teacher educators can play an important role in improving their own practices and developing a professional development culture. Encouragement and support from deans of education and the university administration are critical to the long-term success of faculty development. In turn, faculty development is critical to comprehensive teacher education

improvement efforts. The internal obstacles to teacher education reform identified by Nolan (1985), and linked to the Canadian context by Cole (2000)—lack of time, varying degrees of commitment, lack of rewards, isolationist university culture and inadequate discussion of program development issues—can best be addressed through faculty development.

Reasons for Hope: A Foot in Both Camps

There are many teacher educators who have both a firm grounding in teaching practice and solid scholarly credentials. Professors of education are often experienced teachers who have engaged in graduate studies as a natural extension of their commitment to improving education (Arends, Murphy, & Christenden, 1986; Ducharme, 1993; Cole, 1999). Although the norms of the university may draw them to scholarship, they are likely to be receptive to practitioner inquiry, partnerships with the field, and collaborative professional development.

Ardra Cole's (1999) life history study of the experiences of seven pre-tenure professors of teacher education demonstrates that many new professors are receptive to both teacher education reform and to faculty development approaches that would contribute to partnerships with the field, practitioner research and a culture of inquiry (Grimmett, 1998). Cole (1999) writes:

Given that many contemporary teacher educators come to their roles and positions after a long career in classrooms and schools, it is not surprising that pedagogical reform is a high priority for them. They bring to their university classrooms values, belief, and knowledge of “good” teaching that usually contrast starkly with the traditions and expectations of the teacher education classroom...As they see it, their job is not to “deliver the curriculum” but to engage in and demonstrate “good” pedagogy. This goal is a constant source of tension, frustration, and challenge and one they relentlessly pursue because, as one participant said, “We have to model what we believe in... (p. 284)

These teacher educators were frustrated by the lack of coherence in the program and alienated by the university culture of competition and self-promotion. They preferred to cling to the “norms of collaboration and community” (p. 290) they brought with them from schools. The good news, according to Cole, is that these “highly competent, committed and caring” professors have the potential to “shape and mould teacher education” (p. 294). The bad news, she continues, is that the culture of education faculties and, particularly, the rewards system are barriers to reform.

Education professors such as these, with deep field experiences, solid scholarship and receptivity to collaborative faculty development, are powerful potential agents of reform. Faculty development has a critical role to play in harnessing their potential to enhance teacher education practices and programs.

In the first section of this paper, I argued that teacher education has become a specialized field with core readings, exemplary practices and programs, and a growing body of scholarship. Key works in this literature form the basis for meaningful professional development for teacher educators. In the second section, I identified significant challenges that need to be addressed in

order to create the conditions for meaningful professional development for clinical faculty and education professors. In the final section, I will consider ways in which to enhance faculty development for teacher educators in Canada.

Enhancing Faculty Development for Teacher Educators

It is ACDE's view that programs of initial teacher education should involve the development of situated practical knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and academic content knowledge, as well as an introduction to research and scholarship in education. (Association of Canadian Deans of Education, *Accord on Initial Teacher Education*, p. 2)

In the *Accord on Initial Teacher Education*, the Association of Canadian Deans of Education (ACDE) recognized the complexity of teacher education as a specialized field of higher education in which “[t]here is both an intellectual and a practical component” (ACDE, p. 2). Teacher education must be situated in the university context, they argued, “in order to allow the meaningful interaction of student-teachers with research-oriented faculty and to promote the awareness of the interconnected nature of theory, research and practice in the profession” (p. 2). In order to enhance the profile of teacher education, they seek to make the public aware of the “complexities and merits of teacher preparation programs” (p. 2) and promote greater understanding of program components, such as field experiences. The final principle in the *Accord on Initial Teacher Education* states, “An effective initial teacher education program supports thoughtful, considered, and deliberate innovation to improve and strengthen the preparation of educators” (p. 5).

The professional development of teacher educators has a crucial role to play in enhancing the profile of teacher preparation programs. Effective professional development can both improve teacher education practices and programs, and provide evidence of the effectiveness of programs and their components.

In order to increase the effectiveness of teacher education programs, professional development processes for teacher educators should be sensitive to the unique challenges facing teacher educators and based on the emerging consensus in this teacher education as a specialized field. In this section, I identify four possible components of a pan-Canadian program of professional development for teacher educators:

1. Initial Teacher Educator Preparation;
2. Ongoing Professional Development;
3. Practitioner Research by Teacher Educators;
4. Disseminating Teacher Education Research and Reforms.

These components are outlined in broad strokes, with examples from programs in Canada. Much more information needs to be collected in order to develop and illustrate these possible components.

1. *Initial Teacher Educator Preparation*

If teacher education is a specialized field of practice and research, then it is essential that teacher educators be appropriately prepared for their roles. This is particularly important given the short duration of teacher education programs in much of the country. Unfortunately, there seems to be little in the way of systematic preparation of teacher educators. Below are some ways in which the initial preparation of teacher educators might be enhanced.

a. Graduate Courses on Teacher Education

Many graduates of masters and doctoral programs in education become involved in the teaching of initial or in-service teacher education courses, yet there are few courses offered in the study of teacher education practices or programs. Some universities offer an elective course on teacher education. Others offer open-ended courses in which graduate students could elect to study an aspect of teacher education.

Most education faculties, or departments within faculties, require graduate students to complete core courses in the discipline and/or research methods. None, as far as I can tell, has a compulsory course in teacher education.

Even in universities with specialists in teacher education, the course offerings are limited. In other universities they seem largely non-existent. More specialists in teacher education research are needed, both to conduct research and to disseminate such research through graduate courses. It would also be interesting to learn more about the graduate courses on teacher education that currently exist, including the assigned readings, assignments and pedagogical practices.

If enhancing teacher education practices and programs is to become a priority, more courses need to be available. Indeed, given the likelihood that many doctoral students and graduates of programs will serve as teaching assistants and/or instructors in teacher education courses, consideration should be given to making teacher education a core requirement for graduation.

b. Mentoring Future Professors

Although there are few graduate courses in teacher education, many graduate education students seem to receive mentoring and experience in this area. In many universities, graduate students are hired as teaching assistants and/or sessional instructors in preservice teacher education courses. While some graduate students are ably prepared and mentored by experienced and reflective teacher educators, others are simply assigned courses to teach with little understanding of teacher education as a specialized field or an awareness of the importance of developing a pedagogy of teacher education. Unless these teaching experiences are framed as opportunities for meaningful learning about teacher education, practice will make practice (Britzman, 1991) and will do little to enhance teacher education.

Teacher education can be improved when graduate students—as instructors or teaching assistants—explicitly study their practices as part of their program of studies. Arlene Grierson, currently at Nipissing University, based her doctoral dissertation on three terms of teaching a literacy methods course to preservice teachers. In the first term, Grierson (2007) shared with preservice teachers her resources and strategies. Engaging in a continuous cycle of reflection on the teaching and learning in her class caused Grierson to ask important questions about teacher education practices. Over the next two terms, she placed a greater emphasis on

ensuring that preservice teachers were able to reflect consciously and critically on their practice. Now a professor of education, she is well prepared to enact her pedagogy of teaching and to share with peers her understanding of the complexities of teacher education.

Experts on teacher education, even though they may not teach many graduate courses in their specialty field, play an important role in mentoring future professors. Professors in the Centre for the Study of Teacher Education at the University of British Columbia, for example, have supervised multiple dissertations in the area of teacher education. Also, it is likely that these doctoral students have benefitted by observing, teaching and/or researching the work of their professors in the innovative Community and Inquiry in Teacher Education elementary teacher education cohort (Clarke, Erickson, Collins & Phelan, 2005). Todd Dinkelman of the University of Georgia has engaged in interesting work with graduate students teaching teacher education courses. Two recent papers highlight the insights two graduate students developed as they made the transition from classroom teachers to university-based teacher educators (Dinkelman, Margolis & Sikkenga, 2006a; 2006b).

The mentoring of graduate students in teacher education merits greater research and the dissemination of findings. There are many fine initiatives that are only known inside their own faculties. For example, at the University of Toronto over thirty doctoral students are assigned to the preservice program as teaching assistants working with teacher educators or supporting preservice teachers through workshops and one-on-one supports. When I was a teacher educator at the University of Toronto, I worked closely with several of these teaching assistants. When I inquired for more information, I was informed that there had been no formal research conducted on this innovative program. I was disappointed but not surprised, as teacher education across universities often lacks the necessary resources and status.

c. Preparation of Clinical Faculty

At the two institutions in which I have worked as a teacher educator there has been little preparation offered to new clinical faculty. Other institutions do provide more extensive preparation, but I am not aware of the details. Given the specialized knowledge needed for teacher education and the challenges of transitioning from teaching to teacher education, the initial preparation of all clinical faculty should also be a priority for education faculties. Also, a pan-Canadian priority should be the dissemination of information about approaches to the preparation of clinical faculty across the country.

2. Ongoing Professional Development

Clinical and tenure-track instructors in education faculties are very committed to developing professionally. Clinical faculty are generally very active in a range of professional activities with organizations such as subject associations, local school boards and ministries of education. A clinical faculty member teaching literacy, for example, may focus primarily on understanding best practices as presented in resources for practitioners. Professional development in the form of research, writing and conferencing are at the heart of the work of most professors. A professor specializing in literacy may be more inclined to focus on current research involving language acquisition or new literacies. As teacher educators, they both need to be knowledgeable about scholarship and practice.

Although professors have plenty of autonomy, they are also highly accountable. Professors generally complete annual academic plans in which they list their professional

activities: courses, thesis supervision, research grants, attendance at conferences, conference presentations, scholarly publications etc. During tenure and promotion, the professional practices of professors are carefully scrutinized. The emphasis, or the critical differentiator, seems to be scholarly production. Good course evaluation rankings are generally sufficient to determine satisfactory teaching. I am not proposing putting the teaching practices of professors under the close scrutiny that prevails in some American states. The teacher educators at Langston University in Oklahoma, for example, are required by state law to demonstrate ongoing professional development, including involvement in public school teaching (Langston University, 2005). I am suggesting, however, that the emphasis on scholarly production reflects the status differential between the scholarly and teaching dimensions of professorial work.

Many universities now have centres for instructional support which offer university instructors practical workshops and one-on-one sessions on effective presentation skills and instructional design. While the supports provided by these centres are invaluable to professors in other faculties, most teacher educators already possess these basic skills. In order to become more effective, teacher educators need to develop a pedagogy that addresses the unique nature of teaching teachers. This might include workshops, study groups, and other approaches to informing teacher educators about the specialized knowledge base of and best practices in teacher education. Also, it is important that teacher educators learn to model effective pedagogy and make implicit their decision-making processes as educators. Equally important is finding ways to integrate theory and practice within courses and across the program. This requires an institutional commitment to developing a culture of collaboration among all teacher education instructors. In order for this to happen, according to Beck and Kosnik (2003), “the theoretical insights and commitments of permanent staff and the continuity they provide are essential” (p. 198). Beck and Kosnik (2003) used a “faculty team approach” in order to integrate theory, practice, and research in the cohort instructional team.

3. Practitioner Research by Teacher Educators

Peter Grimmett’s (1998) reconceptualization of teacher education emphasized the importance of building a culture of inquiry in which practitioner research is supported and facilitated.

Practitioner researchers combine understanding educational practices with changing their educational practices and their understanding of themselves as teachers. Through this process, they “become producers, as well as mediators and consumers, of knowledge” (Ziechner & Noffke, 2001, p. 306). The knowledge acquired through practitioner research, however, has long been discounted by academic researchers. As Somekh (1993) writes, “In this way, the operation of power in the social system works to neutralize the voice and influence of practitioners and promote the hegemony of traditional academic researchers” (p. 28).

Practitioner research such as action research and self-study of teacher education practices, however, has assumed a greater status in recent years. Zeichner (1999) identified the emergence of practitioner inquiry and self-study as one of the promising directions of the “new scholarship” of teacher education. He praised the “deep and critical look at practices and structures” in much of the practitioner research he reviewed.

Action research engages practitioners in the collection of data on practice and reflection on that data for the purpose of enhancing student learning and improving professional practice (e.g. McNiff, 2002). I have engaged in action research as a teacher and a teacher educator. As a

teacher educator, I have also engaged preservice teacher educators in action research as a means of encouraging them to become intentional inquirers into their own practice. In one research project (Kitchen & Stevens, in press 2007), my teaching assistant and I used action research to ask the following question: “Given the requirements and limitations of our preservice teacher education program, is it possible to introduce action research to our students in a way that will empower them professionally?” Examining the learning of preservice teachers, surveying the literature on action research by teacher educators, and critiquing our practices as teacher educators led to an authentic faculty development experience that had a direct impact on the quality of the program we delivered to preservice teachers. Also, by framing our inquiry as a rigorous research project, we were able to earn scholarly currency by presenting our research at conferences and having it published in a major international journal.

Self-study of teacher education practices, a methodology characterized by examination of the role of the self in the research project and “the space between self and the practice engaged in” (Bullough & Pinnegar, 2001, p. 15), is another way in which teacher educators can research their own practices in order to improve the learning of preservice teachers. While self-study research has “used various qualitative methodologies and has focused on a wide range of substantive issues” (Zeichner & Noffke, 2001, p. 305), the primary emphasis is on reflection on practice. As Bullough & Pinnegar (2001) state, it is through written reflection and teacher conversations that we negotiate the tensions between ourselves and our contexts, between biography and history. Discovering self-study validated the reflection on practice that I was doing independently, and provided me with tools to enhance further reflection on practice. Also it provided me with an external community of practice which shared my commitment to improving teacher education practices and programs. In two articles written for *Studying Teacher Education, A Journal of Self-Study of Teacher Education Practices* (Kitchen, 2005a, 2005b), I was able to formulate and articulate my philosophy of teacher education. Also, self-study has enabled me to combine my development as a faculty member with a program of research and scholarship. For example, reviewing several years of my responses to reflective portfolios by preservice teachers both improved the quality of my feedback and led to an article in a teacher education journal (Kitchen, in press 2008).

In recent years, collaboration among teacher educators has become one of the defining characteristics of self-study (Lighthall, 2004). While self-study is primarily a personal inquiry, researchers benefit by working with collaborators who help them “step outside” themselves in order to notice patterns and trends in their work (Loughran & Northfield, 1998, p. 14). Collaborative self-studies offer possibilities for connecting across programs and institutions (Loughran, 2002). At Brock University, nine pre-tenured education professors formed a self-study group in order to support each other in the development of teacher education practices. This faculty development work was given added currency by the opportunity to frame our work as research (e.g. Gallagher, Ciuffetelli-Parker, Kitchen, & Cherubini, 2007).

Practitioner research is a powerful faculty development approach to improving teacher education practices. It has the added value of giving scholarly currency to the fine work of teacher educators who combine teaching and program development with research and scholarship.

While the results of practitioner research have proved useful to teacher educators in other settings, the AERA Panel on Research and Teacher Education has suggested that the impact of this research is diminished by its small scale. As a result, they encouraged American

practitioner researchers to engage in multi-site research initiatives (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005). Perhaps this is a suggestion that could be taken up by Canadian teacher educators too.

4. *Disseminating Canadian Teacher Education Research and Reforms*

The dissemination of information about teacher education research and reforms in Canada can play an important role in the development of faculty engaged in teacher education. In addition to contributing to knowledge, best practices and program development, the publication of research on practices and programs confers academic recognition and reward to teacher educators who engage in improving teacher education.

The annual conference of the Canadian Society for Studies in Education brings together many teacher educators to share their research and practices. A quick perusal of the conference program reveals that there are many teacher education paper presentations across the constituent associations of CSSE. The Canadian Association for Teacher Education and its special interest groups, such as the Self-Study of Teacher Education Practices SIG, have played important roles in recognizing and disseminating research by teacher educators. These papers have the potential to inform faculty development across Canada. Conference presentations, while important, are only a first stage in the development and dissemination of research and scholarship. Too often conference papers are not followed up with contributions in scholarly journals or books. This means that important work on improving teacher education practices and programs is not widely accessible to other teacher educators, and the work of professors of education receives less recognition and reward from their own universities.

Teacher educators need to submit their work for publication and journals need to be more receptive to practitioner inquiry by teacher educators. Internationally, there are a growing number of journals that accept practitioner-oriented articles by teacher educators. Some are teacher education journals interested primarily in articles supported by considerable research, but also receptive to evidence-based reports on innovative practices and programs. *Teaching Education*, a well-regarded interdisciplinary forum for innovative practices and research in teacher education, accepts many articles about socially-progressive teacher education practices. *Studying Teacher Education*, a journal of self-study of teacher education practices edited by Tom Russell and John Loughran, has published many self-studies by Canadian teacher educators.

In Canada there are many journals willing to accept work by teacher educators. In preparing this paper, I was particularly impressed by the *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, a major journal which has published many thoughtful, small-scale research articles by teacher educators. The *Canadian Journal of Education* too has published important articles on teacher education, though it seems less receptive to practitioner research. As almost every faculty of education has a journal, there are many possible venues for teacher education research. Many of these journals may not be readily available or frequently accessed by teacher educators from other universities.

It is important that information and research on Canadian teacher education practices and programs be disseminated more widely. Teacher educators, who too often lack the time or resources for research on practice, should be encouraged to develop their practitioner research into a form suitable for submission to minor or major Canadian or international journals. Education journals in Canada may wish to extend invitations to teacher educators to submit more work. This could include special issues on teacher education or a regular journal section devoted to teacher education. *Teaching Education*, for example, has a section in which teacher

educators can report on courses of study. Another idea is to have a section of a journal devoted to concise reports on innovative teacher education practices and programs. The *Alberta Journal of Educational Research* has a section titled “Research Notes” in which a scholar briefly reports on an ongoing research project. Perhaps a journal could devote space to “Teacher Education Notes” on innovative practices and programs. In addition to providing a venue for publication, this could help develop pan-Canadian knowledge and understanding. Finally, it may now be time for the creation of an on-line Canadian teacher education journal with a focus on practitioner research and reports on programs and practices. Such a journal would be a readily accessible source of information on Canadian teacher education, and way of recognizing and rewarding the work of teacher educators.

Finally, there would be great value in creating Canadian equivalents to the major American volumes that were highlighted in the first section of this paper. What is the consensus of leading Canadian experts in teacher education? What can we learn from exemplary Canadian teacher education programs? What should the research agenda be for Canadian teacher educators?

Conclusion

Teacher education is a specialized field of scholarship and practice in which there is both a core body of knowledge and ongoing research and innovative practice. Within the culture of universities, the highly-skilled and time-consuming work of teacher educators is often regarded as low-status in comparison to higher education, research and scholarship. These challenges often make professors of education reluctant to engage significantly in the process of developing innovative practices and programs.

Faculty development has an important role to play in deepening understanding of teacher education among clinical faculty and professors of education in Canada. Education faculties can improve programs and practices by making the initial preparation and ongoing professional development of teacher educators a priority. More important than courses and workshops, however, is developing within education faculties a culture of collaboration and practitioner inquiry that values teacher education practices, program development, research and scholarship. The dissemination of teacher education research and scholarship is key to expanding the body of knowledge and best practices among Canadian teacher educators. More importantly, by conferring academic recognition and reward to teacher educators who engage in improving teacher education practices programs and scholarship, it can help raise the status of teacher education in the academy.

Teacher education reform is a very complex process. The failure of reform efforts over the past quarter century serves as a warning that there are many hurdles to be overcome in order to enhance teacher education practices and programs. Through these reform efforts, however, there is a growing body of knowledge on effective teacher education and ways to bring about meaningful change. Faculty development has a crucial role to play in surmounting obstacles to the advancement of teacher education practices, programs and scholarship. Individual teacher educators can make a difference by improving their knowledge of teacher education practices, building a culture of collaboration, and engaging in practitioner inquiry. Progress will continue to be limited and piecemeal unless faculty development is a high priority of professors of education, as they are critical to establishing continuity and building bridges

between tower and field. Professors of education, however, are unlikely to embrace this role in large numbers unless deans of education demonstrate leadership in promoting faculty development and overcoming the challenges facing teacher education in the academy.

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*Working Group Report
for
Theme #5: The Education and Professional Development
of Teacher Educators*

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Over the course of the conference, Group 5 had an interesting discussion of the professional development of teacher educators.

Before being able to address the professional development of teacher educators, however, we revisited terms such as “teacher education”, and even “education”. The normative assumptions underlying conventional terms and proposal for teacher education reform were interrupted and subject to inquiry.

These discussions prompted a shared interest in gathering more information about the professional development of teacher educators in Canada.

Some questions (and supplementary questions) for further inquiry:

1. Who are the teacher educators?
 - a. What are their experiences
 - b. What are the main influences on their thinking?
 - c. How do different perspectives and contexts (e.g. roles in academy, department/university, and province) inform their beliefs and practices?
2. What are teacher education programs doing to develop a vision and identity within their universities?
 - a. Whose vision?
 - b. What issues are raised by accreditation and program review? How do they respond to these reviews?
3. What professional development is out there for teacher educators?
 - a. Why do some teacher educators remain active while others move to other roles?
4. What are some of the ideas that inform our discourse?
 - a. What are some new questions and perspectives?
 - b. How do we generate further questions and perspectives?

Overall, we concluded that this is a time for developing further discourse on teacher education. New perspectives and new information can contribute to a rich discourse. Only after such a discourse can we address the mechanics of teacher education and the professional development of teacher educators.

TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM REFORM AND DEVELOPMENT

Teacher Education Program Reform and Development

Tom Russell
(Queen's University)

The Current State of Affairs of Research in Teacher Education Program Reform and Development

This is my 31st year as a pre-service teacher educator in one Canadian university. I continue to be struck by the lack of deep criticism or fundamental innovation in our pre-service teacher education program. I have been part of the Self-Study of Teacher Education Practices SIG within AERA since its formation in 1993 and I have found self-study to be a key factor in my wanting to continue working beyond normal retirement age. We experienced a dramatic program reform at Queen's in 1997-1998 (Upitis, 2000, provides a positive account) but quickly retreated to a more traditional theory-first structure. I am aware that significant changes have occurred at Calgary and Manitoba (Schulz & Mandzuk, 2005), but it is not easy to build a clear understanding of what those reforms have involved in terms of what is unique and different in terms of graduates' qualities as beginning teachers. There are pockets of innovation at UBC, but the overall Canadian climate still seems to be traditional, perhaps in part because all programs must meet the provincially-specified criteria for the award of teaching certificate.

The remainder of this first section of this paper is a short paper that Andrea Martin and I prepared recently (Martin & Russell, 2007). It does not speak as directly as I should to the topic of this section, but it does highlight certain pieces of recent teacher education research and commentary.

Preservice teacher education is rarely remembered as the lighting of a fire, but we believe it could and should be. Calls for teacher education reform, like calls for improvement of teaching in elementary and secondary schools, have been with us for decades. Curriculum changes come and go, assessment and evaluation practices are heralded and then modified, and yet the "lighting of a fire" seems to remain elusive. Many challenges arise simply because the two levels of reform are not seen as complementary pieces of the same large intellectual and practical puzzle. Feiman-Nemser (2001) has outlined a continuum of teacher education from preservice preparation through induction and initial professional development to continuing professional development. In one sense, the principles and insights captured in her review and analysis should be enough to initiate and sustain teacher education reform throughout the

English-speaking world; we “know” so very much about what preservice teacher education is trying to achieve and we certainly know what its familiar shortcomings are. One of the most stable conclusions of teacher education research is that the practicum is the most valued element of a preservice program. The high value placed on first-hand teaching experience contributes to the perception of a huge gap between theory and practice. If those learning to teach then fail to perceive coherence across the many elements of a preservice program and links between school and education classrooms are not clearly established, then we should hardly be surprised when prospective teachers find their programs lacking.

Feiman-Nemser explains that these shortcomings are not limited to pre-service programs:

The problems of preservice preparation, induction, and professional development have been documented. The charge of fragmentation and conceptual impoverishment applies across the board. There is no connective tissue holding things together within or across the different phases of learning to teach.

The typical preservice program is a collection of unrelated courses and field experiences. Most induction programs have no curriculum, and mentoring is a highly individualistic process. Professional development consists of discrete and disconnected events. Nor do we have anything that resembles a coordinated system. Universities regard preservice preparation as their purview. Schools take responsibility for new teacher induction. Professional development is everybody’s and nobody’s responsibility. (Feiman-Nemser, 2001, p. 1049)

As we explore these issues in our own teacher education classrooms, we have found helpful Sarason’s attention to the importance of creating contexts of productive learning, for which he suggests three criteria (Sarason, 1999, p. 143):

1. Recognizing and respecting the individuality of the learner.
2. The teacher knows the subject matter well enough to know when or where the learner may have difficulty.
3. The teacher is always seeking ways to stimulate and reinforce the learner’s wanting to learn and do more.

For many and complex reasons, these insights into productive learning seem to remain hidden from view by longstanding habits and expectations. The following statement helps us understand why.

Conventional teacher education reflects a view of learning to teach as a two-step process of knowledge acquisition and application or transfer. Lay theories assume that learning to teach occurs through trial and error over time. Neither view captures the prevailing position that learning occurs through an interaction between the learner and the learning opportunity. If we want to understand how and why teachers learn what they do from a given learning opportunity, we have to investigate both what the experience

was like and what sense teachers made of it. (Feiman-Nemser & Remillard, 1996, pp. 79-80)

Three Fundamental Problems in Learning to Teach

Darling-Hammond (2006) has described three fundamental problems associated with learning to teach and these problems present challenges to familiar assumptions and perspectives.

1. The problem of the “Apprenticeship of Observation”: “Learning to teach requires new teachers to understand teaching in ways quite different from their own experience as students.” (p. 35)
2. The problem of “Enactment”: “Learning to teach requires that new teachers not only learn to ‘think like a teacher’ but also to ‘act like a teacher.’” (p. 35)
3. The problem of “Complexity”: “Learning to teach requires new teachers to understand and respond to the dense and multifaceted nature of the classroom.” (p. 35)

The first problem, concerning the apprenticeship of observation, is not only intriguing but also rarely addressed explicitly in planning and enacting a preservice program. “A significant challenge teachers face is that they enter teaching having already had years of experience in schools.” (p. 35) Darling-Hammond quotes from Lortie’s seminal sociological analysis of teaching:

They are not privy to the teacher’s private intentions and personal reflections on classroom events. Students rarely participate in selecting goals, making preparations or postmortem analysis. Thus they are not pressed to place the teacher’s actions in a pedagogically oriented framework (Lortie, 1975, p. 62).

One may add that, even when pressed, many teacher candidates find it challenging to articulate how and why they went about selecting goals, making preparations, and conducting postmortem analyses of their own teaching. As a case in point, candidates may seem to understand what we refer to as reflection but they are often challenged when attempting to critically and meaningfully re-think what they are doing in a practicum classroom.

Many of the innovative teaching approaches that we urge our students to consider and that we believe could improve what happens in schools have emerged from and are supported by the extensive research over the last 40 years on how people learn. Research tells us that people learn best when they are active, challenged and engaged. Research reminds us that all students come to us with prior knowledge in the subject area. The largely invisible Apprenticeship of Observation generates the prior knowledge and beliefs that our candidates bring with them, but teacher educators are not necessarily adept at exposing it, responding to it and building it into our teaching.

If prospective teachers consider themselves to be “blank slates” or if they are treated as such, they are unlikely to see teaching in new ways that help them understand and cope with the first years of teaching and go on to become the teachers that they and their teacher educators hope they will become. The problem of the Apprenticeship of Observation spills over into the problem of Enactment. “Learning how to think and act in ways that achieve one’s intentions is difficult, particularly if knowledge is embedded in the practice itself.” Much information “best emerges in the actual work of teaching—and guides the planning and

instruction that follows” (p. 37). “Novices bring their own frames of reference to the ideas they encounter in teacher education; these may be incompatible with the approaches they are learning about in their coursework and clinical work” (p. 38). To illustrate the problem of Complexity, Darling-Hammond cites the work of Lampert (2001) and extracts these four elements:

1. *Teaching is never routine.*
 2. *Teaching has multiple goals* that must be addressed simultaneously.
 3. *Teaching is done in relationship to diverse groups of students.*
 4. *Teaching requires multiple kinds of knowledge to be integrated.*
- (Darling-Hammond, 2006, p. 39, emphasis in original)

We understand the meaning of these propositions about the complexity of teaching, but how do teacher education courses help candidates to appreciate the problem of Complexity as teacher educators work to help candidates prepare for their practicum experiences and for their first year of teaching? Teacher candidates often expect that they will wear the teaching mantle with ease. Preservice programs may unwittingly suggest that putting on the teaching mantle is relatively straightforward. Until candidates acknowledge and confront their educational histories as well as the diversity of learners in every classroom and the challenges of creating contexts of productive learning, teacher education will continue to be the poor cousin of university disciplines.

Central Issues to be Addressed in Research in Teacher Education Program Reform and Development

When I was hired at Queen’s in 1977, I was told that I was offered the position even though my Ph.D. counted against me, because I was to replace someone in the pre-service program and most people then teaching in that program had Masters degrees as their highest academic qualification. Teaching was the central focus of the organization; those with Ph.D. degrees who were hired to open a Masters program tended to do research and to publish. In 2007, the situation is quite the reverse. No one is hired into a tenure-track position who has not earned a Ph.D., and research, not teaching, is what matters most. The result is that most people now have a research program, but *pre-service teacher education is only rarely the focus of a teacher educator’s research*. I expect that similar situations exist elsewhere across Canada.

Central Issues with Teacher Educators

Consider again the three problems named by Darling-Hammond (2006, p. 35):

1. The problem of the “Apprenticeship of Observation”: “Learning to teach requires new teachers to understand teaching in ways quite different from their own experience as students.”
2. The problem of “Enactment”: “Learning to teach requires that new teachers not only learn to ‘think like a teacher’ but also to ‘act like a teacher.’”
3. The problem of “Complexity”: “Learning to teach requires new teachers to understand and respond to the dense and multifaceted nature of the classroom.”

It is easy enough to recognize that these problems are significant for those learning to teach and to go on to consider how well or poorly pre-service programs respond appropriately to them. I place them here as issues for teacher educators because each problem is also a problem for the teacher-educator-as-teacher. Have we come to terms with our own Apprenticeships of Observation, in school, university, and pre-service teacher education? Have we addressed the problem of Enactment as it applies in the pre-service classroom? (Segal, 2001, raises significant doubts.) Have we resolved the problem of Complexity in the pre-service classroom? I fear that we have done so far less than we should and could, and it is here that I see self-study as an important way forward for teacher educators. Self-study has made such a profound contribution to my understanding of my own practices since 1993 that I am compelled to suggest that teacher education reform is unlikely to be achieved in significant and successful ways without extensive support within a faculty for self-study research and publication.

Darling-Hammond's (2006) attention to the familiar phrase "apprenticeship of observation" has re-inspired my own thinking about how I teach pre-service candidates (in physics methods and in practicum supervision). I "know" that my new students each year come with extensive prior knowledge of teaching, and they tend to be unaware of its extent and influence on their early practicum work. As I listen to them, I always ask myself if their views can be traced to their own apprenticeships of observation. I am increasingly aware of the extent to which self-study helps me come to terms with my own apprenticeships of observation ("we teach as we were taught," "we supervise as we were supervised").

Each year, near the end of the 4 weeks that precede the first practicum experience, candidates tell me that they are frustrated by those who lecture them about the importance of not lecturing to high school students. I have no idea how extensive such practices may be, but I find it increasingly difficult to resist the conclusion that most teacher educators have never fully come to terms with their own apprenticeships of observation.

Every teacher educator needs to read teacher education research and consider it in relation to the teaching of pre-service candidates. Several recent publications have pushed me to ask important new questions about our enterprise (Hoban, 2005; Loughran, 2006) and I recently had the opportunity to add one that I hope will do the same for others (Russell & Loughran, 2007). Without a critical mass in a faculty of education to act as a professional learning community, research on teacher education is as readily ignored as teaching pre-service candidates is avoided in favour of graduate teaching and supervision.

Central Issues with Teacher Education Programs

- No teacher education program can achieve coherence and collaboration (Russell, McPherson, & Martin, 2001) without *listening*, early and often, to pre-service candidates' perspectives on their courses and their practicum experiences.
- Does increasing the time allocated to practicum experiences encourage teacher educator complacency, if they assume that a large portion of a program is "out of their control"? I often hear suggestions that we need to better prepare associate teachers to work with our candidates, and the gap between our goals and those of associate teachers could be an easy excuse that we cannot do more. But just as we must work with the qualities of our students, so we must work with the qualities of our associate teachers, and they must work with our qualities.

- Pre-service teachers consistently report that the practicum is the most valuable part of their program, for good reason. The practicum is where they have to ACT, and it is where they develop routines that will help them survive the first year of teaching. It is also the setting where they learn how to build productive relationships with students. Do our programs acknowledge the high value of practicum experience and do our programs incorporate those experiences into the program? Do we as teacher educators make assumptions that interfere with recognizing the high value of practicum learning (Russell, 2005)?

Design of a Research Program that Allows Research on Teacher Education Reform and Development to be Undertaken

- Build a cross-Canada network of people who have some significant interest in teacher education research generally and teacher education development in Canada.
- Track graduates into their first 2 years of teaching, for many purposes:
 - Understanding what we are preparing them for
 - Finding out what we did that was most helpful
 - Finding out what they think we need to change or improve
- Compare teacher education programs across Canada, so that we have some sense of what others are doing. We need to know what our differences are and whether they are real or superficial in terms of their impact on the teachers we graduate.
- Analyze our own programs from the perspective of major pieces in the teacher education literature. For example, Zeichner and Tabachnick's (1981) paper is often cited to suggest that subsequent experience in school washes out the impact of pre-service teacher education. My reading of the paper suggests that this was not the authors' intention, and that they were more concerned that there might be no effects that could be washed out. Do we know what effects our programs have? How would we decide, and how would we find out?
- Construct a network of Canadian teacher educators ready to engage in a medium- to long-term dialogue of self-study of their own teacher education practices. Explore questions such as "why am I teaching candidates as I am?" and "what alternatives have I failed to pursue?"
- Study and report how faculty members support the experiences of candidates in practicum settings, and explore how associate teachers view their work with candidates and the place of their efforts within a pre-service program.
- Study and report the attitudes of all faculty in teacher education institutions toward their own research in education and toward research that focuses on teacher education itself.
- Study and report the potential contribution to teacher education reform of seeing teaching as a discipline and teacher education as the home of that discipline (Loughran & Russell, 2007).

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Working Group Report
for
Theme #6: Teacher Education Program Reform and Development

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Themes that were identified in the introduction:

- The importance of teacher education
- The need for program reform
- Concerns that some programs are predominantly taught by adjunct professors
- Some programs are currently or have recently undergone reforms
- It is not always clear whether faculty within institutions have a shared understanding of the underlying program goals, values or themes
- Faculties are in various stages of review and revision, both internal and external
- Lack of fit between the structures and policies of institution and the goals of professional faculties
- Tensions between serving the academy and serving the profession
- Inconsistencies in how Canadian programs operate – e.g. placing a single candidate alone in a practicum school; sending candidates out to practicum unprepared; seconded teachers
- Disconnected courses within the program – potential of cohorts
- There are a lot of questions (research questions) that we need answers for
- Exploring the potential of e-portfolios as evidence of candidate learning across the program; students compile artifacts of their learning across the program; students are interviewed at the end of the program as to their understanding of their learning

How can research inform who we are and what we do in teacher education?

- Support and encourage colleagues to do research in teacher education.
- We should engage in research informed teaching.

What research is needed?

- We should research what we are doing in our programs.
- We should research what the assumptions are that underpin our programs.
- Following up on graduates of our programs is crucial.
- We need research on the process of teacher education.
- Can we follow up with discontinuing teachers? Why do teachers leave?

What Are the Issues in Teacher Education Programs that Could Be Informed by Research?

(1) Focus: *Students and Teachers*

- (a) How are teacher candidates selected into programs?
 - (i) To what degree are selection procedures consistent across Canada? Across similar programs?
 - (ii) To what extent are selection procedures reflective of the philosophical goals of the program?
- (b) Who are our student teachers and what preconceptions, experiences and expectations do they bring to the program?
- (c) Who are the teacher educators and what preconceptions, experiences, and expectations do they bring to the program?
 - (i) In what ways do they impact on their practice as teacher educators?
 - (ii) In what ways are they socialised into or prepared for their new role as teacher educators?
- (d) How do we create a community of teacher educators inside our faculties?
 - (i) How can we ensure that adjunct professors work with tenure professors to build links between research and practice?
 - (ii) In what ways do cohort structures lend themselves to building teaching, learning and research teams?
- (e) What role is played by adjunct/sessional professors within programs of teacher education?

(2) Focus: *Organizational Context*

- (a) What kind of visions/program approaches are being reflected in teacher education programs across Canada?
 - (i) What are the philosophical and foundational assumptions that underpin the teacher education programs in Canada?
 - (ii) To what degree are these fundamental assumptions evident in the approaches to our pedagogy and practice?
 - (iii) To what degree are “standards” (e.g. OTC Standards of Practice; Quebec – Competencies; Alberta – Teaching Quality Standard; UBC – BC College Standards) reflected in teacher education programs?
 - (iv) In what ways can we address the fragmentation and/or coherence of teacher education programs?
 - (v) What is the role of practicum in the program?
 - (vi) What is the balance between praxis and content? (Coverage kills creativity?)
- (b) How do you effectively implement a change in teacher education programs?
 - (i) Can we document the process of teacher education program review with the view to illuminating the challenges and potential solutions to reframing teacher education reform?

- (ii) Document cases of teacher education reform that have been successful in reframing teacher education to enable us to better understand the procedures of reform, the challenges and barriers, and ways of negotiating the change process.
- (3) Focus: *Impact*
 - (a) In what ways can we determine and evaluate the impact of teacher education programs? Do we make a difference?
 - (b) How do the student teachers experience the program of teacher education?
 - (c) How do student teachers understand their own learning during teacher education?
 - (d) How does their understanding of learning impact on their practice?
 - (e) What are the conditions within the program that support student teacher learning?
 - (f) Associate teachers overwhelmingly support the on-site program (as to faculty, students) but how do we know that we are preparing beginning teachers who reflect constructivist views of learning?
 - (g) How do our graduates effect the contexts within they work?
- (4) Focus: *Alternative Teacher Education Experiences*
 - (a) How can we extend the teacher education program so that we engage our teacher candidates in experiences beyond the program itself into wider school communities and families?
 - (i) What is the impact of these extended opportunities on their learning and practice as a teacher?

What could we do together to address these issues in terms of research programs?

Issue 1d:

Potential for Self-Study on institutional and/or individual basis.

Issue 1e:

Potential for an “audit” of the situations in different institutions and to examine the current status of staffing in terms of: tenured; seconded; part-time; adjunct etc. Explore different models and their implications.

Issue 2a:

Mapping the nature of teacher education programs across Canada.

Issue 3a:

In-depth interviews; observations; questionnaires

Issue 3b:

Investigating impact in different contexts.