# What is Canadian about Teacher Education in Canada?
Multiple Perspectives on Canadian Teacher Education
in the Twenty-First Century

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Acknowledgements

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INTRODUCTION

The Canadian Association for Teacher Education

The Canadian Association for Teacher Education (CATE) is one of eleven associations that make up the Canadian Society for Studies in Education, the national educational research organisation. CATE is one of the larger associations in the Society, and its membership includes university-based researchers and instructors, graduate students and professionals in the field of education who are interested in research in teacher education, both initial and on-going professional development for teachers. A recent preoccupation has been the building of a corpus of research on teacher education in the Canadian context. One means for doing so is the Working Conferences on Teacher Education, which provide opportunities for researchers from across Canada to come together to present and discuss their work in draft forms, and then publish the finished product in this format. The following section provides

Background to the Working Conferences on research on Teacher Education in Canada

In early 2007 Thomas Falkenberg of the University of Manitoba and Hans Smits of the University of Calgary, both long time members of CATE, sent out the first invitation to a working conference on research in teacher education in Canada. The invitation went to every dean of education across the country inviting them to send two delegates from their faculties to attend this working conference to be held in Winnipeg at the University of Manitoba in November 2007. The purpose of the working conference was to bring together Canadian scholars in the field of research in teacher education to meet, converse, form collaborations, and eventually publish together. Thomas and Hans both believed that there was excellent research on teacher education being conducted in Canada, but that it was not necessarily defined as Canadian in international contexts. They also believed that there is a need to increase the body of research on Canadian teacher education, and to make it more visible, both at home and abroad.

To ensure a certain amount of focus in the discussions, Thomas and Hans chose a theme, along with 4 related questions, and asked participants to choose one of the questions to

work on. This permitted them to form working groups fairly easily. The requirement to prepare a chapter in advance of the conference was put in place for the 3rd working conference. This led to the opportunity to discuss and critique the chapters during the conference, and then to create an online publication soon after. Links to the two publications currently available are provided at the end of this document.

Subsequent working conferences were held in November in 2008 (Queen's University, Kingston, ON), 2009 (U of M, Winnipeg), and 2010 (also in Winnipeg). After 2010, CATE officially took over organising the conferences, beginning in 2011.

There has been a concerted effort to maintain many of the structures of the first four working conferences as it was felt that these were highly successful. These structures include: holding the conference at a university, scheduling the conference from Thursday evening to Saturday afternoon in early November, announcing the theme in advance of the conference, requiring participants to submit a document prior to attending, organising on-sight catering for many of the meals so as to promote socialising and exchanges, and allowing non-CATE members to attend.

Documents related to the working conferences can be found on the Working Conference Series website at the U of M http://www.umanitoba.ca/education/TEResearch/ , including the publications from the 2009 and 2010 conferences. For subsequent publications, go to the CATE webpage link https://sites.google.com/site/cssecate/fall-working-conference .

The Fifth Working Conference on Research in Teacher Education in Canada

The invitation to participate in the fifth working conference went out in August 2011, and this conference took place at York University in November, with 37 participants. The conference theme was **"What is Canadian about Canadian in Teacher Education?"**, and participants were asked to choose to work with one of the following focus questions:

- A common conceptual framework for teacher education in Canada: Is there one? Should there be one? Does the ACDE Accord on Initial Teacher Education in Canada support this common framework? In what ways?
- Other than geographical location, what is Canadian about your teacher education programme? Does the research support this?

- What challenges and advantages does teacher education in Canada share with other countries? How do they differ from these countries?
- What recent innovations can be found in teacher education? What do these respond to?

Participants were required to submit a three page outline of their chapters in advance of the conference and these were shared with the other members of the small groups that were organized around each of the above focus questions. The discussions that took place during the two and a half days that we spent together helped to deepen and broaden the understandings of the initial research papers, and supported the creation of the completed chapters found in this publication.

This volume contains four sections, organized around the chapters that respond to the above questions. Part 1 questions the notion of a common conceptual framework for teacher education in Canada, and includes four chapters that examine this question. In Part 2 we find papers that consider what is particularly Canadian about various teacher education programmes across the country. Part 3 focuses on research that explores challenges and advantages that Canadian teacher education programmes share with countries around the world, and Part 4 looks at recent innovations in Canadian teacher education and the needs that these innovative programmes attempt to respond to.

I would like to thank all of the participants from the fifth Working Conference on research in Teacher Education in Canada for their contributions, collegiality and warm support. The conversations begun in November 2011 continue today, and will continue into the future as result of the work published here.

Part I: *Is there a common conceptual framework for Teacher Education in Canada?*

Chapter 1

Comparing fundamental conceptual frameworks for Teacher Education in Canada

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We posit that there seems to be little that is unique about the conceptual frameworks of Canadian teacher education programs. Instead, the use of a conceptual framework that could be referred to as theory-into-practice seems widespread and largely unquestioned. We point out several of the limitations of this framework as the basis for teacher education programs and go on to articulate an alternative conceptual framework of practice-and-theory that would lead to different kinds of programs. We illustrate the difference between programs based on these two frameworks by describing theory-into-practice programs at our home universities, as well as alternative practice-and-theory approaches in which we have been involved. We conclude with a discussion of several key issues implied by a practice-and-theory conceptual framework for teacher education and a call for more explicit—and critical—discussion of the conceptual frameworks underlying Canadian teacher education programs and the many important implications stemming from them.

Introduction

We write as five teacher educators from four Canadian universities who share significant concerns about the fundamental conceptual framework that appears to be implicit in pre-service teacher education programs throughout North America. We do not believe that there is, at present, anything uniquely Canadian about the conceptual frameworks of programs within Canada. We do believe it would be productive and uniquely Canadian to begin a

national dialogue on the issues associated with alternatives to the predominant conceptual framework, which we describe as one of *theory-into-practice*. Other phrases for this framework would include *theory first, then practice*, or *technical rationality*.

One of our major concerns is the familiar gap between education courses and practicum experiences. Teacher candidates consistently report that their practicum experiences are the most important and valuable component of a pre-service program (Elliot, 1991; Veenman, 1984; Zeichner & Tabatchnik, 1981). Teacher educators naturally see the courses they teach as important and relevant, yet their importance and relevance often seems not to be apparent to those who take education courses. As Hascher, Cocard, and Moser (2004) argued, "This differentiation between theory (considered as useless knowledge) on one side and experience and learning on the other side might lead a student [teacher] to the following reductive opinion: 'Forget about theory, practice is all'" (p. 635). We believe that the theory-into-practice perspective is at the core of this longstanding tension within teacher preparation. Accordingly, this chapter develops an alternative framework and compares it to the typical framework, a framework that is so implicit in most programs that we tend to be unaware of it and thus fail to critique it. We illustrate both frameworks with program examples from our own work in teacher education. Finally, we conclude with a discussion of some major issues associated with building teacher education programs on an alternative conceptual framework.

Limitations of the theory-into-practice perspective

Every teacher educator strives to prepare new teachers for their earliest years of teaching, yet the fundamental structures of teacher education programs have remained remarkably stable over decades despite extensive evidence that beginning teachers continue to report that they were not fully prepared for the earliest years of their teaching careers. (See broad surveys of research by Wideen, Mayer-Smith, & Moon, 1998 and Clift & Brady, 2005.) Many, but not all, beginning teachers have spent 16 or more years continuously attending school, with each year punctuated by a summer change of pace. Learning in school can be characterized in many ways, but it tends to include very little learning from first-hand experiences. Pre-service teacher education programs are almost always situated in universities where learning

tends to continue in familiar patterns (Carlson, 1999; Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2005; Korthagen, 2001; Tom, 1997). Only in practicum placements are would-be teachers exposed to learning from experience (Korthagen, 2001; Schön, 1987), and that learning from experience is shaped in powerful ways by the experienced teacher who provides advice but who also evaluates overall performance. Thus, the opportunities to learn from experience are quite unlike the learning from experience in the earliest years of teaching, as first-hand learning can be constrained by advice from an experienced teacher and a university supervisor. Learning by listening to oneself and to one's students tends to be quite limited until one assumes that long-awaited role as the fully responsible teacher in the classroom.

Teacher educators have long struggled to make their efforts more practical and relevant for those learning to teach, and this struggle continues. (See Wideen et al, 1998 and Rosean & Florio-Ruane, 2008). Mevoratch and Ezer (2010) discovered that the metaphors that teacher educators in Israel use to discuss their perceptions indicate that there is a "discrepancy between the aspirations of teacher educators for teacher education and the reality of teacher training" (p. 442). Perhaps this is part of the reason that teacher education reform is so difficult; we want to believe that our aspirations are being met and thus it can be challenging to confront the realities of our institutional constraints.

One important effort to move this struggle forward is presented in *Linking Practice and Theory: The Pedagogy of Realistic Teacher Education* (Korthagen, 2001) and another is presented in *Powerful Teacher Education: Lessons from Exemplary Programs* (Darling-Hammond, 2006). In his summary chapter, Korthagen (2001) describes a perspective on the state of teacher education at the time that still feels very familiar to us:

> The realistic approach has its roots in a wish to bridge the gap between theory and practice, a problem that has dominated teacher education for a long time. We saw that the theory-practice gap is a result of the view that the goal of teacher education is to teach expert knowledge (resulting from psychological, sociological, and educational research) to student teachers, who can then use this expertise in their practice (the technical-rationality approach). This view leads teacher educators to make a priori choices about the theory that should be transmitted to student teachers. Research shows that this approach has a very limited effect on practice. The main causes of the failure to transfer theory to practice are the socializing influences of the school context, student teachers' own preconceptions about

learning and teaching, the feed-forward problem (theory always comes too early or too late), and the nature of theory relevant to practice. (p. 255)

Many years ago, Zeichner and Tabachnik (1981) suggested that teacher education programs have limited impact on the existing views of those learning to teach, yet the issue went no further for some time. Korthagen and colleagues (2001) later took up the challenge of limited impact and developed what they termed a *realistic* approach that includes starting from practical problems in real contexts, promoting systematic reflection (using the ALACT model of Action, Looking back, Awareness, Creating alternatives, and Trial), recognizing the importance of personal interactions between teacher educators and future teachers, working with three levels of professional learning (gestalt, schema, and theory), and integrating theory and practice (p. 273).

Darling-Hammond (2006) offers perspectives similar to and consistent with those of Korthagen (2001). Her work includes extensive illustrations from seven exemplary university programs in the USA and she emphasizes three fundamental problems associated with learning to teach:

There are some special, perennial challenges in learning to teach. Three in particular stand out. First, learning to teach requires new teachers to understand teaching in ways quite different from their own experience as students. Lortie (1975) called this problem "the apprenticeship of observation," referring to the learning that takes place by virtue of being a student for twelve or more years in traditional classroom settings. Second, learning to teach requires that new teachers not only learn to "think like a teacher" but also to "*act* like a teacher"—what Mary Kennedy (1999) terms "the problem of enactment." . . . Finally, learning to teach requires new teachers to understand and respond to the dense and multifaceted nature of the classroom, juggling multiple academic and social goals that set up trade-offs from moment to moment and day to day (Jackson, 1968). They must learn to deal with this "problem of complexity," which derives from the non-routine and constantly changing nature of teaching and learning in groups. (p. 35)

These three fundamental problems of learning to teach—the apprenticeship of observation, enactment and complexity—are complicated and not easily addressed in individual education

courses. Beginning teachers must struggle to shift from a student's perspective to that of a teacher as they also try to learn to act according to their own values in situations that are always complex in many different ways.

Teacher education programs have been aware of the issue of the theory-practice gap for some time and have taken steps to try to close the gap. One of the major means of trying to do so has been the incorporation in their programs of the use by teacher candidates of reflection on their experience. In fact, it is difficult, if not impossible, nowadays to find a program that prepares new teachers that does not refer frequently to the word *reflection*. Prior to the mid-1980s, those learning to teach were frequently asked to record (and, hopefully, analyze) their teaching experiences in journals. When Schön's (1983) book, *The Reflective Practitioner: How Professionals Think in Action,* was published, teacher educators took note; by the 1990s, new teachers everywhere were being asked to reflect, and that practice continues to this day. In our opinion, this change in wording failed to address the problems outlined by Korthagen and Darling-Hammond, even though it had considerable potential to do so. LeCornu and Ewing (2008) provided a sobering overview of the inherent limitations with the shift in conceptual orientation from *practice teaching* to *practicum* <u>during the 1980s</u>, raising the issue of whether those involved with teacher education fully understood the implications of combining the field experience with the concept of reflection. By using the term *reflection*, Schön tried to give unique new meanings to a term with very powerful everyday meanings; as a result, it was relatively easy to add the term *reflection* to the vocabulary of teacher education without taking on board the new meanings that were intended. Schön's (1983, 1987) books have been widely discussed and rightly criticized from a number of perspectives, but we believe it is useful to provide a brief account in his own words to illustrate the relevance of his arguments to the longstanding challenges that pre-service teacher education has not yet resolved. These excerpts are from an article (Schön, 1995) that argued that a "new scholarship" requires a new epistemology within universities that are deeply rooted in the epistemology of "technical rationality." Naming the challenge in this way goes a long way in helping us understand why teacher education programs remain so stable and why the intended meanings of *reflection* were lost as the terminology became ubiquitous.

The relationship between "higher" and "lower" schools, academic and practice knowledge, needs to be turned on its head. We should think about practice as a setting not only for the application of knowledge but for its generation. We should ask not only how practitioners can better apply the results of academic research, but what kinds of knowing are already embedded in competent practice.

Perhaps there is an epistemology of practice that takes fuller account of the competence practitioners sometimes display in situations of uncertainty, complexity, uniqueness, and conflict. Perhaps there is a way of looking at problem-setting and intuitive artistry that presents these activities as describable and as susceptible to a kind of rigor that falls outside the boundaries of technical rationality.

When we go about the spontaneous, intuitive performance of the actions of everyday life, we show ourselves to be knowledgeable in a special way. Often we cannot say what we know. When we try to describe it, we find ourselves at a loss, or we produce descriptions that are obviously inappropriate. Our knowing is ordinarily tacit, implicit in our patterns of action and in our feel for the stuff with which we are dealing. It seems right to say that our knowledge is in our action. And similarly, the workaday life of the professional practitioner reveals, in its recognitions, judgments, and skills, a pattern of tacit knowing-in-action. (p. 29)

The preparation for teaching that most would-be teachers receive does not name or provide practice in the skills required for learning from experience. A conceptual framework grounded in theory-into-practice, or technical rationality, seems to assume that such skills are not required. Similarly, such a framework seems to assume that practical experience does not generate new knowledge and understanding. In our experience, practice is a key element in enabling teacher candidates to identify what it is they need to learn in order to become the kind of teacher they set out to be. This has led us to construct a *practice-and-theory* perspective as an alternative to theory-into-practice. It also serves as a middle ground between the extreme frameworks of theory-into-practice and practice-into-theory. Zeichner (2005) argues that research in teacher education needs to "better situate research studies in relation to relevant theoretical frameworks" (p. 741). Our paper uses multiple case studies to illustrate how we conceptualize various theoretical approaches to teacher education.

Comparing perspectives: Theory-into-practice and Practice-and-theory

Table 1. Comparing Perspectives on Teacher Education Design.

	Theory-into-Practice Perspective	Practice-and-Theory Perspective
What is the nature of teachers' knowledge?	The knowledge candidates need to teach is propositional, and its meaning can be comprehended without teaching experience.	A teacher's practical knowledge involves images, feelings, values and experiences as well as knowledge expressed in propositions. Theory cannot be fully understood without personal practicum experiences.
What do teacher candidates already know about teaching?	Candidates know little about teaching. They come to learn theory and other generalizations about teaching that they later express in practice teaching placements.	Candidates have an extensive stock of images of teaching that guide their initial actions. They lack access to the thinking that accompanies teaching actions. Only during practicum experiences can candidates learn to link thought and action.
How strong are teacher candidates' educational values?	Candidates' values for improving teaching are fragile, weak, and easily eroded by exposure to undesirable practices in schools. Education classes should help them resist the inclination to adopt existing practices uncritically.	Candidates' pedagogical values are strong and grounded in images of their former teachers. They can and do apply these values to existing school practices, just as they apply them to analysis of how their education courses are taught.

How much experience does a new teacher require?	Short periods of experience (2 to 3 weeks) are adequate for practicing the knowledge acquired in teacher education classes.	Extended experience supports and consolidates learning from experience and better prepares candidates for the first full year of teaching by building personal confidence.
Can candidates learn from their own experiences?	Candidates must be told how to think about theory and experience. Those with more experience should tell them how schools can be improved	Candidates can and must think for themselves. They see value in learning from others' experiences as well. Significant others include associate teachers, faculty, and other candidates.
How does a new teacher improve as she or he gains experience?	Candidates improve with experience as their mentor teachers provide practical tips for them to accumulate. (Some associate teachers view what is taught in education courses as impractical or unrealistic.)	As associate teachers provide constructive criticism, candidates learn to critique their practices themselves. Candidates' improvements are also driven by their personal values and reasons for entering teaching.

Illustrations of Canadian programs grounded in a theory-into-practice perspective

The pre-service teacher education programs in which we teach appear to share many features of the theory-into-practice perspective, and in this section we describe those programs and their enduring problems.

Queen's University

The Faculty of Education at Queen's University offers both concurrent and consecutive programs leading to the Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) degree and subsequent certification by the Ontario College of Teachers. The concurrent education program allows teacher candidates to take education courses concurrently with their Arts and Science courses,

beginning in their first year of university. In their first, second and third years, they have brief field experiences (10 to 15 days), consisting of observation and some teaching opportunities. Following successful completion of all requirements for their B.A. or B.Sc. degree, they then have an additional year in the Faculty of Education where they join candidates in the one-year, post-degree consecutive program and complete their remaining education courses and three more practicum placements.

Since 1999, the program has included two 4-week practicum experiences in the Fall Term and one 4-week practicum placement in the Winter Term. The Fall Term was front-loaded with on-campus classes in September, followed by a 4-week practicum, 3 weeks of on-campus courses, and a second 4-week practicum. The Winter Term was similarly configured with 6 weeks of classes followed by the third 4-week practicum and a 3-week Alternative Practicum that is not formally evaluated and offers an experience in an alternative educational setting that may or may not be school-based. In April, candidates returned for an additional 3 weeks of on-campus classes. Assumptions grounded in technical rationality were again apparent in a 2012 decision at Queen's to reduce the total practicum experience from 12 weeks to 10 with little attention to the potential impact on the quality of practicum learning. This resulted in each of the two Fall Term placements being reduced from 4 to 3 weeks. The change was made so that a constant number of course hours could be spread over 9 weeks each term rather than the present 7 weeks. The prevailing assumption appeared to be that simply increasing the time period for classes would produce a higher quality of learning because there would be more time for candidates to appreciate what is offered in education courses.

Well established in the literature is the value that pre-service candidates attach to their practicum experiences (e.g., Ontario College of Teachers, 2012; Segall, 2002; Zeichner & Melnick, 1996). However, when coherence among pre-service program elements is lacking and when links between Faculty of Education classes and school classrooms are not well established, then it is not surprising that prospective teachers find their programs lacking (Russell, McPherson, & Martin, 2001). Feiman-Nemser (2001) notes that these limitations are not confined to pre-service programs:

> The typical pre-service 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 pre-service preparation as their purview. Schools take responsibility for new teacher induction. Professional development is everybody's and nobody's responsibility. (p. 1049)

The absence of a coordinated system confirms that the theory-into-practice model of technical rationality is pervasive and deeply embedded in teacher education practices. Whether one is a teacher educator or a field practitioner, truly collaborative opportunities are constrained by the immediate demands of one's practice. Teacher educators in universities emphasize the intrinsic importance of what they teach; teachers in schools emphasize the intrinsic importance of classroom experience.

Since 1997 the B.Ed. program at Queen's has included a Faculty Liaison role whereby the same individual teaches a section of an on-campus course and supervises the candidates in that section in their Associate Schools. Candidates are assigned to Associate Schools in cohorts and one individual supervises all the candidates in each Associate School, thereby increasing the potential for productive dialogue among those learning to teach. The Faculty Liaison role has considerable potential to improve linkages between courses and practicum experiences, but that potential declined when the course credit was reduced by 50%.

A perspective grounded in technical rationality tends to devalue the importance of what teachers do in their school classrooms. In response, and with frustrating memories of their own pre-service programs, associate teachers tend to devalue the potential of education courses to enrich what is learned from practicum experiences (Verbeke & Richards, 2001). The program at Queen's continues to struggle with the universal teacher education challenge of creating strong connections between campus courses and field experiences—what Darling-Hammond (2009, cited in Zeichner, 2010, p. 91) has called the "Achilles heel of teacher education." The program does not recognize the extent to which candidates' ability to comprehend practical implications of theories requires first-hand practical experience of teaching and improves as they acquire that experience. In other words, would-be teachers

require classroom teaching experiences in order to fully understand what they need to learn to become a good teacher. Once they have gained experience, their professional learning requires support and guidance from experienced teachers who both understand and know how to validate the authority of experience (Beck & Kosnick, 2006, Breunig, 2005; Munby & Russell, 1994). Adopting a practice-and-theory perspective would call for an explicit acknowledgement that, as candidates accumulate practicum experiences, their responses to educational concepts and theories will change, often markedly.

University of Ontario Institute of Technology (UOIT)

The Faculty of Education at UOIT offers both concurrent and consecutive programs leading to a Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) and recommendation to the Ontario College of Teachers for certification as either a Primary-Junior (K-6) or Intermediate-Senior (7-12) teacher. The concurrent education program is currently offered in conjunction with the Faculty of Science. Students are admitted on the basis of high school grades and must maintain an average of 70% in both subjects they plan to present for teaching certification (e.g., physics, chemistry, biology, computer science, or mathematics) and an overall fourth year average of 70% in order to maintain their admission to the fifth year of the program, where they join consecutive education students. They are required to have field experiences during the first and second year of their B.Sc. (two weeks and three weeks, respectively) as well as completing 20 days of placement in an alternative educational environment. Concurrent students take two education courses in their first year and one in their third year. Consecutive education students are admitted to either the Primary-Junior program or the Intermediate-Senior program on the basis of university grades and on an individual interview.

The concurrent education program, like many other concurrent models, is not truly concurrent because it does not place education courses on an equal footing with discipline-specific courses. The focus of the program is clearly on the requirements for the B.Sc. degree, with education courses ostensibly playing the role of preparing students for their field experience placements. Concurrent education students complete the same program as their consecutive counterparts, except they are exempt from one course (having already

completed it during the third year). Thus, this program is called "concurrent" but it is still firmly grounded in a theory-into-practice approach. The main theoretical concern is, of course, the acquisition of appropriate content knowledge about teachable subjects. The yardstick for measuring whether or not teacher candidates know their content is completion of a B.Sc. with a particular average. Thus, UOIT does not allow teacher candidates to complete requirements for their teaching certification before completing the theoretical requirements of content knowledge obtained during a B.Sc. Concurrent education students cannot count their field experiences obtained during their undergraduate degree for teaching certification; such experiences are considered a bonus and marketed as an advantage because "In total, concurrent teachers obtain 106 days in the classroom!" (UOIT, 2012).

The B.Ed. program (i.e., the fifth year at UOIT for concurrent students and the 9-month post-degree program for consecutive students) does have an interesting, minor disruption to the theory-into-practice model during the fall semester. After completing three weeks of coursework in August, teacher candidates join associate teachers in host schools to participate in the first week of the school year. They have an opportunity to experience the unique challenges and opportunities afforded by the first week of school. Candidates return to coursework after their one-week placement, and they complete the remainder of the fall semester in alternating segments between the on-campus courses and field experience placements lasting approximately one-month each. During their field experiences, faculty advisors, most of whom are retired teachers or principals, support teacher candidates. At the time of this writing, there are no tenured or tenure-stream faculty who act as faculty advisors.

The theory-into-practice approach at UOIT is most readily apparent during the winter semester. Teacher candidates return to campus in the first week of January, after their December placement and subsequent holiday break. With the exception of reading week in February, teacher candidates participate in nine consecutive weeks of coursework. Classes end sometime in mid-March, before candidates go out for their final field placement, which lasts six weeks. There is a one-day, "culminating," day at the end of April when students pick up their marked assignments, attend a presentation from a motivational speaker, and return the laptops they leased for the duration of the program. Clearly, if tacitly, the second semester is built on the assumptions that teacher candidates should be presented with all of

the remaining theory to be taught in the program before moving to a final, extended field-experience placement in which they can "practice" what they have learned.

McGill University

McGill offers B.Ed. degrees leading to certification in several teaching areas: K/elementary, secondary, TESL, and music education. Students are admitted to the programs on the basis of appropriate academic background and sufficient grade point average. The underpinning of these programs is a government framework of twelve professional teaching competencies intended to serve as both outcomes and content of the programs. The programs are structured as four-year programs (mandated by the Quebec government), comprising 120 credits. Of those 120 credits, 100 are devoted to course work and only 20 to field experience. The course work is largely front-end loaded in the program, focusing a good deal on foundations courses and methods courses (with varying degrees of attention to related academic courses) as preparation for the longer field experiences which occur in third and fourth year. Although there is a field experience in each of the four years of the programs, the field experiences in year one and year two are quite short, two weeks of observation and three weeks of beginning teaching respectively. In fact, the second-year field experience occurs only <u>after</u> the completion of the second-year course work. The longer field experiences occur in third year and fourth year. In the fall of 2011 McGill increased the third-year field experience from 40 days to 60 days spread over the entire fall semester. The fourth-year field experience remains at seven weeks at the end of the winter semester, <u>after</u> all course work in the program has been completed. All field experiences have concurrent seminars or course work, except the fourth-year one, but it is not clear how these seminars and courses seek to work with teacher candidates' simultaneous teaching experiences. During their field experiences, supervisors, virtually all of whom are retired teachers or principals, support teacher candidates. There are no tenure-track faculty who act as supervisors.

McGill recently received permission from the Quebec government to offer a Master's of Arts in Teaching and Learning leading to secondary certification. This is a 60-credit program divided into 45 credits of course work, mostly front-end loaded, and 15

credits of field experience, mostly back-end loaded. In other words, the McGill programs seem to be clear examples of a technical-rationality, or theory-into-practice, conceptual framework in which theory is largely presented first as guidance for subsequent student teaching, which tends to come later and to be of a lesser scale than the course work.

University of Ottawa

The Faculty of Education at the University of Ottawa offers a one-year (8-month), post-baccalaureate teacher education program that leads to a B.Ed. degree and teaching certification through the Ontario College of Teachers for teaching in elementary or secondary schools.

To be eligible for consideration in the program, applicants must hold an approved university undergraduate degree. Admission to the Faculty of Education is very competitive and enrollment is limited. Selection is based equally on academic standing and the online statement of experience written by the applicant. The evaluation process requires the applicant to have maintained an overall academic average of at least 68% across the best 20 one-term undergraduate university courses completed. Applicants must also have acquired relevant experience and skills as evaluated by their Statement of Experience score.

Teacher candidates must choose one of the following program options: Primary/Junior Division, Junior/Intermediate Division, or Intermediate/Senior Division.

Students undertake 6 half-courses in each of the fall and winter semesters (12 in total). In addition, student teachers experience the realities of the teaching profession by completing two separate practicum placements and spend a total of nine weeks of their 32-week program in schools. Students work alongside an Associate Teacher in a classroom for Practicum 1 (four weeks late October-November) and Practicum 2 (five weeks late March-April).

The use of the "theory" and "practice" in this teacher education program is almost mutually exclusive as the practicum office requires that Faculty instructors responsible for providing the course work maintain strict separation from the practicum experience, citing the danger of overwhelming the students with assignments and/or reflective responsibilities while in participating schools.

The University of Ottawa program is an example of a "theory-into-practice" teacher education approach, noteworthy for a large proportion of course work vis-à-vis student teaching, with that course work largely front-end loaded in the program, and characterized by a complete separation between course work and the limited student teaching which is back-end loaded in the program, with five of the nine weeks of practicum occurring at the very end of the program. Traditional approaches to teacher education, like the University of Ottawa program, are based on the notion of a great deal of conceptual learning for students, followed by separate opportunities designed in principle to apply, or practice, that conceptual learning in more limited teaching situations, in short, a "theory-to-practice" (Carlson 1999) pedagogical approach based on what Schön (1983) calls the "technical-rationality" model and Clandinin (1995) calls "the sacred theory-practice story". However, much research shows that such approaches have been largely ineffective. For example:

- Students' theoretical learning about teaching often "washes out" during student teaching (e.g., Zeichner & Tabachnik 1981).

- Students suffer from "transition shock" in their first years of teaching, as shown for example by the Constanz University group in Germany, and soon become socialized into the existing culture of the school (Zeichner & Gore 1990).

- Eventually, students blame teacher education as being too theoretical and useless (Elliott 1991), thus rendering teacher education programs relatively ineffective in the eyes of students.

Illustrations of Canadian approaches built on a practice-and-theory perspective

We have had experience in working successfully within approaches to teacher education based on a practice-and-theory conceptual framework. We describe those approaches here as a means of illustrating what alternatives to the typical theory-into-practice approach might look like. In addition, we seek to highlight the potential of a practice-and-theory perspective for resolving some of the longstanding, apparently intractable, limitations of a theory-into-practice perspective.

Queen's University Practice-and-Theory Design

After a pilot project with 60 concurrent education students in 1996-1997, the B.Ed. program at Queen's University operated on a practice-and-theory model for two academic years, 1997-1999. After a brief registration and orientation experience in late August, teacher candidates began a 14-week practicum on the first day of the school year. They taught from September through December with the exception of a 2-week return to Queen's for on-campus courses near the midpoint of the 16-week Fall Term. In the Winter Term, the majority of teacher candidates' time was devoted to education courses; this period also included a 3-week alternate practicum—an opportunity to spend time in an educational setting that was not a school. The program concluded with a final 4-week teaching placement after the official end of the academic year.

We see this as an illustration of a practice-and-theory perspective because the program began with extensive experience that enabled teacher candidates to identify the skills and concepts they needed to develop and explore in order to become successful and productive teachers. Candidates responded well to concepts and theories because they had recent, first-hand experiences that required analysis and interpretation. At the same time, however, extensive teaching experience reduced their tolerance for courses in which content and pedagogy were inconsistent with or incompatible with the craft knowledge and skills they had developed during practice. A broad range of perspectives on this practice-and-theory design were reported by Upitis et al. (2000). Upitis (2000), from her perspective as Dean, offered these comments about a program based on learning from experience:

> Evidence from a number of diverse sources indicates that experience-based learning is an effective way of learning about a new discipline or subject and/or becoming attuned to the characteristics of a particular culture. . . . In our program, teacher candidates join the communities of practice embodied in the Associate Schools, thereby learning something of the school cultures of which they become a part. . . . All of these researchers and theorists—Dewey, Lave, and Schön—claim, in one way or another, that there is a need to gain contextualized experiences before it is possible to abstract from or about such experiences. One of the challenges of a teacher education program that is based on learning through experience is to help candidates develop a critical stance or perspective on those experiences, so that teacher candidates emerge not only with strong teaching skills and sensitivity to students and changing curricula, but do so with a broader perspective on education and schooling. (p. 49)

As part of the preparatory pilot project, consultations and focus groups were held with associate teachers, principals and teachers' federations. While these groups and the participants in the pilot project supported the new design, a range of concerns were raised by both faculty and concurrent education students. Ultimately, faculty members voted to proceed with the new design, but at the conclusion of the first year the overall faculty reaction was negative and a vote was taken to abandon the first-day-of-school extended practicum after the 1998-1999 academic year. While some faculty members were enthusiastic about the early and extended practicum (see Russell, 1998), most were not and the program was redesigned to begin with 4 weeks of education classes prior to the first practicum experience. Beginning with an extended period of experience and using practice as a basis for exploring and developing concepts and theories proved to be too dramatic a transition.

Moving quickly from a traditional, longstanding and unexamined theory-into-practice perspective to a practice-and-theory perspective was complex and challenging. There had been no attempt to set out the underlying epistemological assumptions, assumptions that we tend to be unaware of because a theory-into-practice perspective has been implicit in virtually all our experiences of learning and teaching. The experience of radical change made it easier to identify the alternative assumptions as a range of tensions and differing interpretations became apparent.

McGill University: The Dillon Project

From 2004 to 2011 Dillon (Dillon, 2010; Dillon & O'Connor, 2010) offered an optional approach to the third-year fall semester of the McGill K/elementary program. On paper, teacher candidates register for 6 credits of course work on generic aspects of teaching and 8 credits of student teaching. In reality, the optional approach to the semester is based on two key principles of experiential education, designed to closely integrate practice and theory.

First, the experience of the targeted learning—that is, teaching—is the basis for students' learning as students begin in schools with teacher workdays in late August, before children start school, and continue daily until early December for a minimum of 15 weeks of

student teaching. The goal for teacher candidates during this time is to step as fully as possible into a teacher's shoes and take on as much responsibility as possible for running a class and contributing to the larger life of a school. Indeed, virtually all students in this option are fully responsible during the month of November.

Second, in order to help teacher candidates make sense of their teaching experience, and to imagine how they might transform and improve it, teacher candidates meet one afternoon per week in a regional school-based seminar. While the government framework of professional competencies provides topics for seminar discussion, the topics are addressed in a developmentally appropriate manner for teacher candidates during the semester. Most importantly, the pedagogy used in the seminar is a socio-constructivist, or problem-posing, one, as opposed to the typical transmission approach used in most courses. That is, teacher candidates work together to try to address the questions and challenges which they are encountering in their teaching, or in other words, to transform their experience into knowledge, or "theory." A key component of this pedagogy is the development of a "showcase" teaching portfolio during the semester in which teacher candidates are challenged to articulate their emerging professional understanding and to check their actual professional practice against their articulated understanding to make sure that they "walk their talk."

Next, in order to foster a sense of community among students—and to enhance the socio-constructivist pedagogy discussed above, teacher candidates are placed in groups of 3 to 6 in each of the participating schools and regional seminars draw students from 3 to 5 schools to form seminar groups of approximately 15 that meet weekly in a participating school. Teacher candidates report the school groups being their most valuable source of daily support and help, but also endorse the value of the weekly seminars for exchanging experiences and practices with other teacher candidates in other schools and for trying to build understanding together.

Finally, in order to develop strong relationships among the key players in this semester, the instructor works with essentially the same network of participating schools and cooperating teachers, as well as the same team of practicum supervisors, from year to year. These ongoing relationships allow everyone involved to understand the role and context of

the other players and they form the basis for a closely coordinated and integrated approach by seminar instructor, supervisor, and cooperating teacher to support the growth and development of teacher candidates during the semester. A caring and supportive approach to teacher candidates is a primary value of this optional semester.

Since this alternative approach occurs in the third year of a course-heavy 4-year program (simply as the most obvious opening in the program for such an alternative), it can appear to be an example of a theory-into-practice conceptual framework. However, Dillon believes that such a semester could occur just as successfully at the very beginning of the program (as was the case with the Queen's 1997-99 program). Informal surveys of teacher candidates at the start of each iteration of this alternative semester indicate that they bring with them and use very little, if any, information or guidelines from their two years of previous course work. At best, students may identify one or two aspects of previous course work which they remember and feel will be helpful. During the weekly seminars, teacher candidates may occasionally refer to an aspect or two of previous course content, but it seems clear from the discussion that they are now making sense of that content in an entirely new way by actually trying to incorporate it into their practice for the first time. In addition, during the semester students often have to unlearn and relearn content from previous course work that was actually unhelpful for them. A prime example is lesson and unit planning which was learned in the abstract, with no actual class of pupils in mind. As teacher candidates take on more planning responsibility during this semester in the context of an actual classroom, they realize that they now have to start learning to differentiate instruction, anticipate problems, develop back-up steps in their plans, plan for behaviour management, and so on.

Thus it seems that this approach is an example of what might be called a practice-and-theory conceptual framework, since both aspects of the equation are developed so simultaneously during the entire semester.

McGill First Nations and Inuit Teacher Education Programs

The Certificate and Bachelor's of Education for First Nations and Inuit (FNIE) program is administratively housed in the Faculty of Education at McGill University. The Certificate in Education for First Nations and Inuit is a 60-credit program that provides an opportunity

for Cree to become qualified as teachers. Graduates of this program receive Ministry certification to teach at the elementary school level in First Nations and Inuit schools. The Bachelor of Education for Certified Teachers is a 90-credit program intended for teachers who are already certified to teach in elementary schools and who wish to earn a B.Ed. degree. A minimum of 60 credits must be taken in the program and no more than 30 credits may be transferred from other institutions. Credits may be transferred from the Certificate in Education for First Nations and Inuit, which is normally completed before the B.Ed. Students completing the Bachelor of Education for Certified Teachers following the Certificate in Education for First Nations and Inuit will have accumulated a total of 120 credits, 60 for the Certificate and a further 60 for the B.Ed.

In reality, however, the programs are delivered in select coastal communities of eastern James Bay and the inland communities of subarctic Quebec and supported at a distance by McGill's Office of First Nations and Inuit Education (FNIE). It is a community-based teacher education program built through a framework that promotes a practice-and-theory approach that supports the participants to remain in their home communities for the entire program delivery. Students admitted to FNIE programs are recommended by their communities, they must meet McGill regulated academic standards, provide a letter of intent and letters of recommendation, and yet the right of final acceptance rests with McGill. As this program is community-based, it represents a strong desire by the James Bay Cree School Board to situate teacher education in Cree communities and to utilize the communities' elementary and secondary schools as much as possible. All the students who participate in the FNIE programs are either already working in the schools or are immediately placed within a select school once the program begins. The majority of the course work is provided by instructors who travel to the Cree communities to deliver intensive 3-5 day seminars in the participating schools. The Cree School Board has utilized the program to address specific gaps and needs identified through educational reform initiatives.

The alternative approach utilized through the FNIE program is completely school-based, integrated, and professional. As part of his doctoral work studying factors that contributed to the successful outcomes of the alternative experimental Indigenous programs, O'Connor (2009) discovered that all work for the semester (course work as well as student

teaching and integrated assignments) taking place in participating schools contributed significantly to how well students learned and developed as professional teachers. Similar community-based teacher education programs are also provided to the Inuit of Nunavut and Nunavik, to the Algonquin of western Quebec, to the Mohawk of southwestern Quebec, and to the Mi'kmaq of Nova Scotia.

The FNIE programs are based on the key principles of experiential education, achieved through field experiences and community/band school-university partnerships:

- Students spend up to 4 iterations of 15 weeks each in local community schools. These field experiences are designed to immerse students in school life and to approximate the work of a teacher as much as possible. Course work is integrated throughout the field experiences (practice-and-theory) to allow for reflection and the gradual gaining of professional competencies.
- Students are placed in smaller cohorts (2-8) in their home communities/schools, in larger regional cohorts (10-20) in rotating regional communities/schools, and in program-wide cohorts (20-35) in Montreal at different periods of their program to support various partnerships that support community involvement, resource sharing, and pedagogical and cohort relationships

In summary, the effect of the alternative programs was to create a professional learning community in contrast with the typical academic learning experience associated with campus-based courses.

Place-based education is an approach to teaching that is grounded in the context of community, both natural and social (Gruenewald, 1993; Raffan, 1995; Theobald & Curtiss, 2000). It connects place with self and community (Woodhouse & Knapp, 2000). The delivery of this programming might be best characterized as the pedagogy of place; the integration of the student into their home school (practice) and the reinforcement of the essential links between the student, their peers, and place through targeted course work (theory). Through this integrated process students made connections to their schooling through school-based courses that are based on realistic, immediate, and important statutes. The goal was to have the student teachers see the relevance and importance of their studies

since those studies have immediate causal effect on their present pedagogical context as professional teachers and, ultimately, the well-being of themselves and their students.

Unfortunately, applications of such experiential, community-driven, and place-based initiatives are commonly labelled unscholarly and frivolous by more academic programs. The notion that students should be supported in their own community schools as teacher-researchers who explore their own pedagogical lives and connect academic information with their own lived experience is often foreign to many educational programs (Harris 2002; Kincheloe & Steinberg 1998; O'Connor, 2009).

Discussion

Although most teacher education programs have adopted the rhetoric of Schön's (1983) phrase *reflective practice* (which is based on a conceptual framework of practice-and-theory), it seems ironic that most teacher education programs continue to be based implicitly on a conceptual framework of theory-into-practice. We see several major issues that contribute to a lack of change in the traditional approaches of teacher education programs and also to resistance to implementing the principles of a *reflective practicum* (Schön, 1987). We consider them here in an attempt to make explicit what is often unexamined, in hopes of stimulating a Canadian dialogue on these epistemological issues.

Perhaps the primary issue is the absolute centrality of teaching experience as a foundation for learning to teach. In calling for a reflective practicum to improve the preparation of professionals in university-based programs, Schön (1987) was suggesting a reversal of the traditional figure and ground of university courses and practicum, making practicum early, extensive, varied, and valued at the centre of a professional program and course work playing a largely supporting role to that experience.

If teaching experience is to be central in a teacher education program, then school (and perhaps community) becomes privileged as a primary place for learning to teach, as well as a major influence on our pedagogy. In calling for a reflective practicum, Schön (1987, pp. 157-172) drew from several types of campus-based practica—the music conservatory, the art studio, and the design studio. However, in teacher education programs, practicum occurs

primarily in schools. If the place of school experience in teacher candidates' learning was acknowledged as the anchor and heart of the teacher education program (as opposed to campus-based course work), then the traditional figure and ground of university professional programs would be challenged. That is, rather than the major component of course work being the starting point and driving force toward practicum in a teacher education program, practicum would become the starting point and the basis of much course work. In addition, an approach that balances school and university learning would create more pressure for universities to develop genuine partnerships with schools for the development of teacher candidates. Such partnerships could help teacher education programs address their common fear of exposing teacher candidates to less-than-ideal practices in schools, because such partnerships could improve both teacher education programs and school practices and achievement.

However, more extensive teaching practice alone does not lead to effective development as a teacher. Just as important as teaching experience is the development of an accompanying pedagogy of teacher education designed to support teacher candidates in addressing the problems and challenges they face. A pedagogy related to practicum experiences is also required to assist candidates in making sense of their experiences and to re-imagine that experience in order to improve it. Rather than using their expertise primarily to transmit information about teaching to candidates for later application in practice, teacher educators would need to use it to "coach" (to use Schön's term) teacher candidates, that is, to pose questions and challenge candidates' thinking in order to foster reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. Such pedagogical approaches are often referred to as socio-constructive or problem-posing and tend to be rare in teacher education programs (Kincheloe, 2003; McMahon, 2003).

This kind of sense-making on the part of teacher candidates will tend to foster the development of *phronesis,* the kind of practical wisdom that is situational, or the building of theory with a small t. Such knowledge and understanding have tended not to be valued in teacher education programs in comparison with *episteme*, the kind of public, scientific knowledge of a discipline, or Theory with a capital T (Korthagen, 2001). However, *phronesis* (developed through experience) may well be a necessary base from which candidates can

come to understand the traditional scientific content of teacher education programs, thereby moving away from the traditional theory-into-practice perspective.

Our argument in this chapter is not a call to replace theory-into-practice with practice-into-theory. We share Zeichner's (2010) goal of rethinking the connections between campus courses and field experiences. Zeichner urges rejection of the typical "binaries" of theory vs. practice and academic vs. practitioner knowledge so that "an either/or perspective is transformed into a both/also point of view" (p. 92). Thus we identified at the outset our goal of achieving a practice-AND-theory perspective. Zeichner suggests that this middle ground could be a "third space" and offers a number of possibilities that might be explored in the American context. The unique features and smaller scale of the Canadian context could make progress in such explorations much more feasible.

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Chapter 2

What does it mean to be a "Canadian" teacher? Experiences of immigrant teacher candidates

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In exploring the notion of a common conceptual framework for teacher education in Canada, this paper posits that within the landscape of Canadian teacher education, implicit frameworks shape the construction of a teacher identity. Drawing from critical ethnographic research and the counter-stories of teacher candidates enrolled in a B.Ed. program in Ontario, who self identify as immigrant, the ways in which particular constructs of "teacher" are privileged by the system are explored. This paper considers some of the challenges immigrant teacher candidates (ITCs) experience entering a B.Ed. program and obtaining credentials upon graduation as well as challenges and specific tensions developing effective teaching practices through collaboration with Associate Teachers. Throughout, layers of privilege regarding what a teacher candidate can reveal and what is chosen not to be revealed as an "immigrant" are explored.

Introduction

As a scholar in teacher education I am cognizant that there are numerous tensions inherent in teacher preparation work. Within the academy and within elementary and secondary schools the interdisciplinary nature of teacher education complicates and enriches various experiences and viewpoints. I argue the image of "teacher" is still typified as white, Caucasian, female, Christian and English-speaking, with a standard "Canadian" dialect, a profile I refer to as the prototypical teacher that is reflected by current realities of the teaching force in Canada (Ryan, Pollock, & Antonelli, 2009). One tension that I am particularly concerned with is the ways in which teacher candidates who self identify as immigrants are positioned in relation to a normative profile of "teacher". There is a body of

literature on racialized teachers (see Causey, Thomas, & Armento, 2000; Cochran-Smith, 2004; Solomon & Levine-Rasky, 2003) but there is limited research on racialized students who are also immigrants in the process of becoming teachers.

In this paper, I juxtapose immigrant teacher candidates' (ITCs) experiences with a teacher preparation program in Ontario and the Association of Canadian Deans of Educations Accord on Initial Teacher Education (2006). I situate myself within the context of the Accord by centering the construct of "teacher" and querying who is included and who is *excluded* within the label of "teacher". In particular, in asking the question "What is Canadian about Canadian Teacher Education?" I am likewise interested in asking, how is "Canadian" defined within the context of teacher education and what does it mean to be a "Canadian" teacher? Are there implicit qualities or sensibilities to being a teacher in Canada that are more valued than others? What are the barriers to disrupting the prominent teacher identity? For the purposes of this paper, I intend to examine two of the twelve principles in the Accord to tease out the implicit frameworks operating within teacher preparation programs. First, I explore Principle 6, "[a]n effective initial teacher education program promotes diversity, inclusion, understanding, acceptance, and social responsibility in continuing dialogue with local, national, and global communities" (p. 4); and, second, Principle 5, "[a]n 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" (p.4). By exploring the complications and challenges encountered by teachers-as-immigrants, I query the ways in which teacher educators can make explicit what constitutes "success" within teacher preparation programs. Is success measured by the reconciling of differences between teaching in Canada and experiences of teaching and learning in other countries? How might the Accord press initial teacher education programs to recognize and address the complexity of the human condition as a core responsibility for being a teacher, a responsibility that I posit is paramount to addressing the conditions that could make things "otherwise" (Simon & Dippo, 1986) in our schools.

The landscape of teaching

ITCs are often situated in relation to the prototypical image of a teacher sometimes with deficit comparisons being made. As Guo (2009) argues, "[t]he deficit model of

difference led us to believe that differences are deficiency, that the knowledge of immigrant professionals, particularly those from Third World countries, is incompatible and inferior, and hence invalid" (p. 48-9). In terms of the teaching profession those entering the profession who are also marked as "immigrant" encounter several deficit constructs: perceived lack of knowledge of overt and explicit aspects of the curriculum; speaking with a non-standard dialect; and, the racialization of their bodies. These so-called "deficits" suggest that teacher education programs are operating within implicit frameworks in terms of who "qualifies" to be a teacher. Colonialism has shaped how our schools are structured and whose knowledge counts (Dei & Kempf, 2006). In Ontario, it is of significance that immigrants who are able to gain entrance into a B.Ed. program, navigate the program and graduate, are disproportionately over represented (48%) in the occasional/supply teacher workforce as opposed to their Anglo-Canadian counterparts (Ontario College of Teachers, 2005), suggesting that there are systemic and institutional factors limiting immigrant teachers' access to teaching jobs and that not all immigrants are afforded equal access to teaching positions within Canada's borders, with European immigrants taking precedence over ethnic immigrants and people of colour (Elabor-Idemudia, 2005).

Recently, a confidential memo regarding Toronto District School Board hiring preferences was made public. The leaked document indicated preference for the hiring of males, visible minorities, Aboriginal and French speaking teacher candidates, which sparked outrage that the directive was "exclusionary" despite the reality that in Toronto72 percent of students are visible minorities while three quarters of the teachers are white and 77 percent of elementary teachers are women (Hammer & Alphonso, 2013). Making hiring needs explicit may be an attempt to address some of the effects of institutional and systemic discrimination but it does not dismantle the underlying root causes that are embedded within the public education system.

Public education in Canada beginning around 1847 was designed to instill patriotism in Canadian youth and ensure that new immigrants and Indigenous people understood what it meant to be a good Canadian citizen (Joshee, 2004). Citizenship education morphed into multicultural education, a discourse that purports to celebrate diversity while implying that white culture is still the norm against which all other cultures and races are measured (Roman, 1993). While the intent of multiculturalism may have had its roots in transformative

educational practices, the discourse of multicultural education is constrained by numerous institutional structures such as the hidden curriculum (Anyon, 1980) and hegemonic practices that reinforce white privilege (Roman, 1993).

My critique is situated within a landscape of teaching that purports to represent the diversity of Canada and yet the teaching workforce reflects "teacher" in ways that are not adequately representative of the Canadian demographic landscape. This paper will, in part, draw upon a critical ethnographic project with teacher candidates who self-identify as immigrants in an Ontario Bachelor of Education program (Cho, 2011). I am interested in the ways in which ITCs bump up against the constraints and attempts to mould atypical teacher candidates into a commonly held image of a teacher, sometimes to the point of excluding them from the profession. While this paper seeks to examine the hidden within teacher education it does so by utilizing a project based on a single program in Ontario, and as such is indicative of a particular Ontario context and may not be representative of the broader Canadian context. The participants' counter-stories give a glimpse into the representation of a teacher diversity within the workforce and within a particular teacher education program to begin a conversation about the ways in which teacher education might be implicated in perpetuating the dominant demographic of "teacher".

Methodology: Immigrant teacher candidates' counter-stories

This paper draws from the counter-stories of ITCs enrolled in an initial teacher preparation program in Ontario and as such is one story within the broader landscape of teacher education. To clarify, Solórzano and Yosso (2002) posit that counter-stories "are a method of telling the stories of those people whose experiences are often not told (i.e., those on the margins of society). The counter-story is a tool for exposing, analyzing, and challenging the marjoritarian stories of racial privilege" (p.32). While Solórzano and Yosso situate their work within the Critical Race Theory literature, it is important to note that majoritarian stories can also be stories of socio-economic priviledge, gender priviledge, heteronormativity, nationality, etc. The participants in this project are navigating multiple social locations and as such offer ways to explore and examine discriminatory practices across numerous markers of social location in education as well as opportunities to challenge privileged epistemologies around schooling.

While there are existing definitions in the literature with regard to the label of immigrant, a marker that was intended to be temporary, it must be noted that I did not provide a definition of "immigrant" in my call for participants as I was interested in how individuals view themselves and in what way the marker of "immigrant" is applied by individuals in terms of their own self-identification. As Bannerji (2000) argues, "the irony compounds when one discovers that all white people, no matter when they immigrate to Canada or as carriers of which European ethnicity, become invisible and hold a dual membership in Canada, while others remain immigrants generations later" (p. 112). Li (2003) argues the term "immigrant" has become a codified term and a social construction for particular groups of people: racially and ethnically diverse individuals for whom English is an additional language and speak with a non-standard dialect. The participants in my project found they could not become "invisible" and were entering a system that presumes over-familiarity with the teacher's role, particularly when the construct of teacher is equated with a prototypical model of teacher.

<u>The participants</u>

This project, for which tri-council ethics was obtained, invited participation from teacher candidates who self-identified as immigrants enrolled in a consecutive Bachelor of Education program in Ontario. In all, seven ITCs participated. There was one male and six female participants in the project. Five of the participants were qualifying in the primary-junior stream[1]. Two of the participants were enrolled full-time in the intermediate-senior division. English was the first language for the male participant[2] in the study who immigrated first from Guyana to England and then to Canada in 1973. English was an additional language for the rest of the participants who came from the following countries: Sri Lanka, Egypt, Pakistan, Iran, and India and who immigrated to Canada between 1992 and 2006. Six of the seven participants were visible minorities. There was one Caucasian participant from Germany who immigrated to Canada in 1997.

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[1] 2 P/J candidates were full-time students and 2 were part-time P/J candidates. The only male in the study was also a part-time P/J candidate.

[2] However, he indicated he was enrolled in "English as a Second Dialect" classes when he arrived in Canada as he spoke with a non-standard dialect of English.

The participants' counter-stories have been obtained from three primary sources of data: transcripts from focus groups and individual interviews (conducted at or near the end of the partipcants' B.Ed. year) in which participants shared their experiences in the teacher preparation program as well as writings in the form of reflective journals and personal narratives from assignments completed for mandatory courses in the program. Data analysis included an initial 'analysis in the field' phase (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003) utilizing both socio-culturally grounded speculation as well as the generation of ideas about the themes that were identified and categorized from the interview and focus group transcripts as well as triangulation of the participants' written reflections and course assignments.

Immigration and success as a teacher in Canada

Previous studies have considered how coursework can be re-imagined to better meet the needs and expectations of ITCs such as Gupta's (2006) US-based research which utilizes immigrant and minority teacher candidates' narratives to uncover how their own values, traditions and experiences shape their understanding of coursework. As Gupta explains,

> Insights into [teacher candidates'] experiences, and the nature of the challenges and hurdles they faced and overcame, the nature of lessons learned and valued, and the sifting, sorting and selecting of which narratives to share, are all indicators of beliefs, attitudes, and values that teacher candidates hold to be important. . . since teachers' cultures, race, class and personal histories shape their cognitive frameworks or worldviews …their effectiveness as teachers can only be enhanced if their personal funds of knowledge and their beliefs are formally acknowledged in a concrete manner within the teacher-education classrooms. (p.17)

In the teaching profession there is a great value placed on teachers' ability to possess and transmit the assumed cultural capital of the dominant group. The narratives of what it means to be a successful teacher in Canada are narratives told through the cultural beliefs, attitudes and assumed values, or what is presumed to be a common understanding of what society holds to be important. As Elbaz-Luwisch (2004) argues,

> Stories of teaching in a new culture are rare in the literature on teaching, perhaps because the phenomenon itself tends to go against the grain: teachers are seen, at least in part, as representatives of the culture, responsible for passing it on to the new generation, and one would not expect this important task to be put in the hands of newcomers to the culture. (p. 389)

The lack of counter-stories from those who have immigrated reveals aspects of an implicit framework that defines who qualifies as a teacher. Diversifying the commonly held construct of "teacher" requires interrogating biases, examining the taken-for-granted and actualizing the "promotion of diversity, inclusion, understanding, acceptance, and social responsibility" (ACDE, 2006). Teacher education is more than the communication of knowledge and skills; it should press all teacher candidates to interrogate their own experiences and explore how their cognitive frameworks and worldviews are and can be used to inform their understandings of teaching and learning.

Ogbu (1993) offers a way to understand the positioning of immigrants, or "voluntary minorities" in Canada. For the most part, immigrants willingly decide to move to a new country because they believe it will lead to greater economic well-being. Voluntary minorities, Ogbu argues, accept that they will be required to assimilate and fit in to their new society. Immigrants are not motivated to compete for status with the dominant group. Rather, they look to their own peers in their new country or "back home" to measure their self-improvement. He argues that immigrants do not look to the dominant group to assess success. As Ogbu argues, "voluntary minorities or immigrants also tend to trust dominant group members more or at least acquiesce in their relationship with the dominant group" (p. 485). As such, the counter-stories of ITCs may reveal different perspectives and priorities from majoritorian stories. The following discussion situates the participants as voluntary minorities with a focus on two key questions: what/how are ITCs expected to do/behave/perform in order to be considered a "teacher" in Canada? What are ITCs asked to give up?

Promoting diversity, inclusion, understanding, acceptance and social responsibility

What does it mean for ITCs to become teachers in an environment in which ethnic and cultural diversity is presumed to exist in the classroom while the teaching force remains largely non-representative of that same ethnic and cultural diversity? Principle 6 from the Accord on Initial Teacher Educators posits that "[a]n effective initial teacher education program promotes diversity, inclusion, understanding, acceptance, and social responsibility in continuing dialogue with local, national, and global communities" (p. 4). Research on reproduction theory suggests that schools are designed to value, reward and reproduce existing power structures in our society and to devalue those in subordinate positions (Giroux, 1983; McLaren, 2003). As Britzman (2003) argues, the cultural myths around the work of teachers serve as essential truths to legitimize common sense discourses around teaching: teacher as "expert", "self made"; "sole bearer of knowledge", and a "product of experience". These myths are positioned in such a way as to resist complication. As Sumara and Luce-Kapler (1996) suggest,

> Learning how to teach is described as a process of transposing teaching skills onto persons who have the virtues required to become a teacher. The self that comes to the enterprise of teaching is viewed as the foundation for the skills and behaviours needed for effective teaching. (p. 67)

The counter-stories of ITCs complicate unexamined truths regarding the work of teachers.

Tensions: Credentialing and the continuing dialogue with local, national, and global communities

Drawing from my Ontario-based research, when students successfully complete the requirements of the B.Ed. degree they are recommended for certification with the Ontario College of Teachers (OCT). There are numerous challenges for ITCs in obtaining documentation that is acceptable to the various accrediting bodies, challenges that necessitate greater interrogation of what it means to be in "dialogue with local, national, and global communities" (ACDE, 2006). This is not a situation unique to the education profession. The underemployment and underutilization of immigrants' credentials in Canada (credentials and education that in many cases garnered entrance into Canada) is a common concern. While there are several ways to immigrate to Canada, many skilled workers and professionals apply through the immigration points system selection process. Points are

awarded for income and net worth, education, language ability, work experience and age, among other criteria. Often, upon arrival, many immigrants find their points do not translate into valued knowledge and skills in Canadian institutions, leading to either underemployment or employment in jobs for which they are overeducated. Wald and Fang (2008) argue immigrant underemployment or holding jobs for which a person is overeducated is a form of compensation for "inferior quality" degrees. While an often used example, and one for which many Canadians may be accustomed or complacent about, it remains that in Canada over 200 immigrant taxi drivers have doctorate or medical degrees (Xu, 2012).

One of the compounding factors in terms of credential recognition stems from the fact that Canada does not have a centralized office responsible for the evaluation of foreign credentials. As Guo (2009) argues, many immigrant professionals find themselves having their credentials assessed and evaluated by several governing bodies: provincially and territorially, by professional regulatory bodies, various educational institutions and possibly the employers themselves (in this case school boards). For some, the length of time it takes to obtain transcripts and acceptable paperwork puts ITCs at a distinct disadvantage, both financially and competitively, in a very competitive job market. In addition, securing and submitting paperwork that is deemed acceptable by OCT may take longer than 2 years. The process itself may result in ITCs giving up any advantage they may have in securing a teaching job. Of course, OCT is not the only organization ITCs contend with. There is also the procurement of documentation such as QECO (Qualifications Evaluation Council of Ontario), OECTA (Ontario English Catholic Teachers Association) or OSSTF (Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation) among others to determine placement on the salary grid, post graduation and these bodies may have additional requirements for ITCs.

For some ITCs in my project, the challenges with paperwork and transcription forced them to give up their previous university credentials and obtain Ontario certification. Makarim[3] chose to complete a degree at an Ontario university so she would not have to submit her transcripts from her university in Iran when it came time for certification[4]. She explains,

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[3] All names are pseudonyms.
[4] When Makarim immigrated to Canada, her degree from Iran gave her advanced standing in the university as a third year student with nine credits.

At first when I applied to OCT I said that I had another degree from Iran as well, because I had some transferred courses and they said the University has to send us all the transcripts and everything. I have my transcripts, translated with a good translation, that's what I did with OSSTF (the Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation) this year. And they accepted this, but with OCT they wanted the university to send them the transcripts directly. Right now I haven't got my OCT certificate, it's in the process. I sent them a letter and I said I don't want my first degree to be considered because it's hard and they said okay. I thought it's just something extra and they said no I don't need it and I have another bachelor from [an Ontario university] and that's enough I guess. (Makarim interview July 30, 2009)

Asked to explain her process and decision to only have her Ontario degree considered, Makarim responded,

That's one thing that everybody was surprised why I did it. I did it because it was easier for me to get a job. That's why I did it basically, because I had a degree but it wasn't from the top university of Iran, so they don't know it. Recently they've worked with more universities but it took awhile and at that time I wasn't sure how it was going to work and if I wanted to do graduate studies it would be easier if I graduated from the university here. (interview July 30, 2009)

ITCs may feel it is beneficial to give up their non-Canadian credentials in order to qualify to be a teacher in Ontario. Whether they hide their foreign credentials or are forced to re-credential, ITCs are implicitly required to present domestic degrees so they can begin to fit in to the Ontario or Canadian system. A domestic degree may give the impression that ITCs will be able to deliver the curricular content in Ontario schools because they have successfully demonstrated their own learning in a Canadian environment (and have demonstrated success in school in either French or English). However, presentation of a Canadian-earned degree might not translate into employment. As Xu (2012) found in the case of immigrant taxi drivers, 29.4% who held PhDs or MDs obtained their degrees in

Canada. In addition, obtaining a B.Ed. in Ontario when an ITC already has a teaching degree from outside of Canada serves to mask their experience and credentials. As Guo (2009) argues, "non-recognition of foreign credentials and prior work experience can be attributed to a deficit model of difference" (p. 46). Elke, who was a certified teacher in Germany explains her experience trying to get on the occasional teacher list when she first immigrated to Canada, "People don't know that you still have experience. They don't know the background. And then on top of that, it's probably when they see a foreign name that's a second reason they wouldn't request you [for occasional teaching work]" (interview July 30, 2009). Elke completed a four year teacher education degree in Germany but this was not useful gaining employment as a teacher in Canada as it does not appear on her transcript or OCT certificate of qualifications as a teaching degree but rather appears as a non-specific undergraduate degree. Because OCT did not recognize her degree, she re-credentialed in Ontario. Elke's initial four year teacher education degree was not recognized as an asset and, as she states, her foreign name may create an additional barrier to being requested for an occasional teaching job.

Recently posted on the Ontario College of Teachers' website is a document entitled "Requirements for Becoming a General Education Teacher in Ontario" (OCT, 2011). This document, which did not exist in its current form when my participants were either applying for or enrolled in the B.Ed program, strives to make the application process for certification more transparent. It outlines specific requirements for certification by the Ontario College of Teachers. The document states, "It is our responsibility to ensure that everyone who is licensed to teach in this province is qualified" (OCT, 2011, p. ii). The recent addition of this document is directly related to the frustration ITCs have experienced searching for the criteria for obtaining an Ontario teaching certificate and, as Guo (2009) argues, "the claimed neutral assessment and measuring usually disguises itself under the cloak of professional standard, quality, and excellence without questioning whose standard is put in place and whose interests it represents" (p. 48). Rajni's experience illuminates the myriad of challenges:

> I went through the website, there was something, but that was not something that they
> really needed. What they needed when you speak to them is different from what is
> posted on the website. So you know, like on the website it gives you details of so

many things but when you really speak to them they said, "that's not all we need, we need this much more". So the bar always keeps going higher and higher. (Focus group 2, July 29, 2009)

For those applicants who completed their postsecondary schooling outside of Ontario, a situation that is true for many of my participants, the OCT requires an academic transcript amongst other paperwork. Of course, applying to the B.Ed. program at the university also requires the presentation of official university transcripts. It is important to note that the documentation required for acceptance into a B.Ed. program may differ from what is required by the OCT, the governing body that grants certification to teach in Ontario. For example, in order to be certified to teach in Ontario, if you completed your post secondary degree in a language other than English or French an official transcript and translation of your documents must be submitted to OCT. Obtaining documentation and meeting the OCT requirements was challenging for many of the ITCs in my project. It should also be noted that once an applicant begins the certification process with OCT they have 2 years to ensure all the documentation is received or they must begin the application process again (OCT, 2011). The challenge obtaining documents and getting clear direction in terms of what is required is well described by Rajni,

To start with, when I came [to Canada] I decided that I wanted to come to Teacher's College I went to the [university] registrar's office to know what the qualifications were to get into Teacher's College, and they were not able to tell me because I come from another country, because it was a four year BA and a certain percentage of months before you could get into the [B.Ed. program]. And looking at my transcripts didn't make any sense to them so they referred me to the World Education Services in Toronto. I sent them the application, they lost the application the first time, so the second time we had to go over there and submit all the transcripts in person. And then they wanted all the transcripts to be sent again from India, so I had to call my friends in India to go to the university, have the university send all the applications here. And it was a long process but finally I got all the papers done and finally I applied and I'm lucky I got in. (Focus group 2, July 29, 2009)

The university examines transcripts in relation to other Canadian university transcripts with specific expectations in terms of what a transcript should look like. B.Ed. entrance requirements vary from university to university but for the most part require prospective students to have an undergraduate degree that is equivalent to at least three years of full-time study from an accredited postsecondary institution. Typically there will be some cut off in terms of the prospective candidates' overall grade average. Rajni states that her transcripts "didn't make any sense to [the university]". The institution is requiring her to ensure parity which has the effect of delaying her opportunity to apply for admission. Despite all her hard work securing her credentials and her dedication to ensuring all the necessary paperwork was acquired and correctly translated, Rajni attributes her admission to the B.Ed. programme to her being "lucky". Her counter-story reveals the many additional obstacles for international students who apply for admission to a B.Ed. program as well as the ways in which ITCs may not credit themselves with the perseverance required to navigate the numerous barriers and obstacles. Rather, Rajni positions herself as lucky as opposed to an individual with agency who successfully navigated a difficult terrain because the system only provides her indications of her deficiencies. Rajni continues to explain the complexity of the OCT certification process, pending her graduation,

> And again once it was almost time for me to graduate, Ontario College of Teachers wanted the same thing, all the documents sent back from India. So again I had to contact my friends and with Ontario College of Teachers they wanted the letter in a certain specific format, but they didn't have the format, which was the funniest thing. But finally I kept after them asking them what are the details you want? Because they didn't just want the transcripts. So they told me what they wanted so I called my professors back in India by that time, because I had to do something and they made me a letter or whatever in the format that [OCT] wanted including all the details that Ontario College of Teachers was looking for and finally, it came through. But it was a long process and so I do understand. I started real early because when I started Teacher's College I started the process because I knew it would be taking a long time so going back and forth, documents went about three to four times, getting rejected. And it takes a long time for documents to come from there. So I started in 2006 and

finally by 2008, March they had it all right and it was perfect timing because I was about to graduate. (Focus group 2, July 29, 2009)

Rajni was fortunate to still have friends and family to contact in India to secure acceptable documentation and transcription. She also anticipated the requirements for documentation and the length of time it would take to obtain them so she started the process immediately. In addition, Rajni was enrolled in the part-time program which takes 2 years to complete as opposed to the full-time consecutive 8 month program. Rajni is conscious of the ways in which she must navigate the system by starting her work to secure documentation early, anticipating the possible rejection of the paperwork. Rajni maintains her agency by being proactive and positioning herself as a capable TC who can navigate the bureaucracy. Another participant, Khayrah, had similar challenges only she no longer has close contacts in the country where she obtained her post secondary degree. She speaks with frustration because as a result of the bureaucratic red tape she is forced to give up opportunities to apply for teaching jobs. She states,

> I just thought that since I've done this paperwork for [World Education Services] and I've done it for [the university], it should be okay for OCT. I should have started [the paperwork] the moment I got here. I did it in April and it's now July and I've heard from [the university] there are still things that need to come from [Pakistan] and I'm sitting here and I'll miss even the next batch of postings that would come up because I don't have [the OCT certification]. (Khayrah, Focus group 2, July 29, 2009)

Typically, student handbooks contain instructions for TCs in terms of what they have to do near the end of their B.Ed. year to obtain OCT certification and apply to QECO, OECTA or OSSTF for salary grid placement. Are ITCs directed to begin the process early if they require transcripts from another country? What forums exist for ITCs to share their experiences with each other to facilitate the navigation of various institutions that they will encounter? Elke's challenges with paperwork permeated much of her discussions. As Elke states,

They don't accept my education [from Germany], so they treat me as a newcomer student by not counting the experience I had before and in the private schools and things. It was so much work to get it all from Germany and at least it's a country that Canada has good relations with. There's no government that makes it difficult. That's very, very difficult after all to get all this. And then I took so many courses, I took more than you were supposed to because I just liked it and it was thousands of dollars in translations because of all the credits that I got. It was a very long process it took me two years to get all that. (interview, July 30, 2009)

As a result of the stripping away of previous credentials and experiences (on paper), ITCs may interpret their previous work and education as not valued or as not good enough for Canadian standards. They are placed in a position where they are perpetually proving themselves and working to fit in. In contrast, by not disrupting or exposing this aspect of credentialing, Canadian-born teacher candidates can remain ignorant of the factors that limit the expansion of the teacher workforce and are not part of the larger dialogue regarding global communities.

Permeating many of the interactions related to the participants' status as immigrants is a deep-seated threat that they will take jobs away from prototypical Canadians. There is a perception that ITCs will want to, or be able to, return to their home country and therefore have access to job prospects both in Canada and abroad. This translates into a pressure on ITCs to work harder, to prove themselves alongside their colleagues and to ignore discriminatory comments. As Elke explains,

[The teacher candidates] made it feel like they were thinking, "what does she want here?" "she can go back if she wants to teach, you can go back to your home country, why is she taking our places in our jobs". Or maybe they were just jealous. I don't know. They were probably thinking, "how is she doing that? Single mom and she's having her grades and I'm straining all by myself don't have to take care of a family" you know maybe like that, too. But there was something about being not Canadian. (interview July 30, 2009)

In a climate of fewer job prospects for teachers, there is added resistance toward the ITCs. The perception of ITCs as a threat is perhaps a questioning of their legitimacy – questioning their citizenship affiliations and suggesting that they might have greater job prospects because they can "go back home". An issue that is often raised regarding ITCs is their perceived length of time in Canada. Khayrah explains this hierarchy of expectations,

> The fact was, I was more accepted if I was a new, than if people thought that I had been here longer. OK, she's from Toronto or where she grew up, and she's here, but she'll go back there. I got this, that if I explain to them that I am new then, OK, they would be tolerant, not, 'she's not meeting our level'. (Focus Group 1, April 22, 2009)

However, contrary to deficit constructions of "new" immigrants, Khayrah and others found newness worked to their advantage. Associate Teachers, professors and TC colleagues were more accommodating to ITCs who were viewed as recent arrivals, as opposed to those ITCs who are perceived to have been in Canada for a longer time and therefore should demonstrate greater evidence of their ability to assimilate. Newness translates into "less of a threat". Racialized Canadian-born TCs are seen to be in a competition with prototypical Canadian TCs, whereas recent immigrants are "down a level" and therefore not an immediate threat. Khayah explains, "you can't be an immigrant if you were born here, you're really trying to compete with me and that's something different than the yeah, you're fine, you're still down a level". (Focus Group 1, April 22, 2009). Perhaps an erroneous assumption exists that there is a great demand for diverse teachers in the profession and as such TCs who do not represent this desired diversity may feel threatened by ITCs, an assumption that is reinforced by the visual imagery of a diverse workforce contained in OCT documents, for example, as well as the cultural mosaic concept embedded in Canada's Multicultural Act.

This section has focused on what the participants' counter-stories reveal in terms of Principle 6 of the Accord with respect to "initial teacher education programs promot[ing] diversity, inclusion, understanding, acceptance, and social responsibility in continuing dialogue with local, national, and global communities" (p. 4) . Next, I will explore a second

principle of the Accord, Principle 5, which pertains to partnerships and collaboration to develop effective teaching practices.

Limited opportunities: Teacher candidates' collaboration with teachers

A second principle of the Accord that I wish to explore pertains to the opportunities for teacher candidates to engage in collaboration with teachers to develop effective teaching placements. ITCs who did have extensive classroom experience, whether inside or outside of Canada, felt a tension between being viewed as a neophyte teacher by the institution and utilizing their expertise and previous teaching/education experience. While this is not necessarily unique to ITCs it is another layer of devaluing with which they have to contend. Investigations involving immigrants from other professions also reveal layers of bureaucracy implicated in the devaluation of foreign credentials and prior work experience (see Guo, 2009). Schools are a site of socialization (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977) and in order for ITCs to fit themselves into the Ontario system some feel pressure to assume the role of the neophyte teacher, as Nigel attempted to do. He states,

> When I went on my first practicum I had more classroom experience than my associate but I took it "okay, she is the expert and I'm just here to learn. I'm that empty vessel, fill me up." And that wasn't a very wise thing to do because I wasn't being as authentic as I possibly could have been. And in this case you can't do that. And I realized that and caught myself sufficiently enough to make sure that that didn't happen in any of the subsequent practicum (sic). (interview July 30, 2009)

Initially Nigel takes the position that he has nothing to bring to the education setting, despite his many years as an educational assistant in the public system. He also completed his own high school education in Canada. He began his work in schools by eclipsing his experiences as an educational assistant with the premise that he could be moulded into the teacher that he was expected to be. Nigel begins by attempting to position himself as expected (the "empty vessel") to try and secure the best possible outcome for himself in terms of his success, both academically and professionally on placement. There is a tension between being "authentic" as an education student in terms of one's knowledge and experience and

conveying it to your Associate Teacher and the role of the Associate Teacher in terms of providing feedback and guidance, encouraging risk taking on the part of the TC, modeling effective practice and recognizing and utilizing previous experience. Nigel also articulates the ways in which he felt the cultural and social capital necessary to be deemed successful as a teacher was not made transparent for him. As Nigel states, "if that was communicated to me, what I need to do, orally or written or whatever, whichever way, that that's what I needed to do or to be, I probably would have taken it and ran with it". There are expectations and subtle nuances of what it means to qualify as a teacher, inherent dispositions that are not necessarily made explicit in program handbooks and OCT Standards of Practice. As Nigel says he could have been a better teacher candidate if what he needed to *be* was clearly articulated. There are invisible, culturally nuanced expectations of what constitutes a teacher and Nigel's comment reveals the ways in which access to the expectations are restricted for some teacher candidates. The message seems to be, if you do not know, we cannot tell you.

In my project, many of the ITCs shared incidences in which they felt the Associate Teachers were reluctant to give them critical feedback, situations they felt were complicated by race. While lack of feedback may be an issue in general for practicum supervision it is difficult not to consider race as a complicating factor when a white, Canadian-born TC with the same AT is given direct, specific and concrete feedback and the ITC is not, challenges well documented by Solomon (2000). In this section, I will expand upon the differential treatment and explore the ways in which Associate Teachers' reading of the ITCs may create challenges with regard to their working relationship that requires critical feedback. While it is difficult to tease apart the role of race and the challenges with getting effective feedback the counter-stories may be indicative of challenges to giving feedback to anyone who is viewed as "different". Rajni recollects,

> Everything I did was "okay", "good" or the teacher didn't say anything. And then you think back … you want to hear something from an experienced teacher. I think maybe she was a little bit afraid that I'm coming from a totally different background so she wasn't very sure how I would take it if I am criticized or given directions. I thought that most of the teachers did have that, like a barrier. Like, they didn't know. (Focus Group 2, July 29, 2009)

What is informing the Associate Teachers reluctance to give critical feedback? At first glance, perhaps they are afraid of being critical of a person of colour, that in doing so they might be perceived as being racist. Percolating throughout the ITCs' counter-stories is a premise that white teacher candidates are provided with more feedback. Many of the ITCs in my project wrestled with perceived differential treatment by Associate Teachers. As Dayani writes,

> Having a staff member at my placement disregard me and acknowledge a fellow student teacher was probably one of the most heart churning moments in these situations. At that point, I was trying to think of countless reasons for that staff member's reaction to me but I could not think of anything other than the reason for my physical appearance. In comparison to all the suffering, solitude, and stigma many others have endured, the incidents I encountered seem like a little girl's cry due to unfair play on the playground." (narrative of self, December 2008)

When confronted with a negative interaction, Dayani responds by attributing the Associate Teacher's reaction to a discomfort. Dayani wants to minimize the effect of this incident on herself by suggesting other racialized people have experienced much worse and suggests her own response is immature. Dayani's experience with exclusion forces her into a situation where she does not have the same access to instruction and feedback from her instructors. It is only when ITCs observe how their Associate Teachers treat their prototypical counterparts that they realize they are not getting the same access to instruction. When asked to elaborate on her experience during an individual interview, Dayani had the following to say,

> I didn't click with my first Associate Teacher. She seemed to support [a student from another university] more than me, for some reason. She was just trying to get me out of her hair after she came, which was a week after I got there. Even before when I met her for the interview she already told me that she was going to have another student [from another university] who she had already met before and she was saying after she comes I can go into another classroom, perhaps. I felt like, like my opportunities were

limited in her classroom. (interview July 28, 2009)

I pressed Dayani further to elaborate on why she felt her opportunities were "limited". She explained,

> As soon as [the other TC] got there [the AT] already had everything planned for her and she had math lessons that she wanted her to teach. I saw all the time she was giving her and then I saw that girl teach as well, so I felt like she was given more opportunities to assist with the classroom routines and all that kind of stuff. (interview July 28, 2009)

Dayani described the other TC as female, Caucasian and Canadian-born enrolled in a similar credentialing program. In the end, Dayani only delivered 5 consecutive lessons, the minimum requirements for this initial placement. Dayani describes the ways in which she felt her experience was undermined and in turn how she dealt with the situation by completing the minimum expectations for the placement as laid out in the practicum handbook. As a result Dayani had limited exposure to key learning opportunities in the classroom. I would argue that for many ITCs who are also eager to learn more about "Canadian culture", limiting their teaching time and interactions with the students further limits their ability to acquire knowledge about the dominant culture and that lack of knowledge is restricting their access to the teaching profession. Perhaps Associate Teachers feel that they do not have the knowledge or tools to deal with what they perceive as racial, language and cultural differences which they connect to ITCs' challenges, or deficits, in the classroom. Associate Teachers are often products themselves of the education system that I am critiquing so it is plausible that there will be gaps in their cultural proficiency. The counter-stories of ITCs were probably not part of the Associate Teachers' teacher preparation programs. The deficit model is perhaps heightened when ITCs' experiences with education are from more traditional pedagogies such as rote learning or the Socratic method, which may be evident in their lessons. Lack of feedback will not disrupt traditional teaching approaches and may give the impression of condoning such practices. Regardless, lack of critical feedback is one way

that ITCs (and future teachers in general) are deprived of key aspects of teacher professionalizing education and are not afforded opportunities to collaborate with teachers.

Markarim speaks about her challenges acquiring materials and feedback from her Associate Teacher.

> I actually find the teachers here are not sharing stuff that much unless they really like it. Like my Associate Teacher. I think it was very normal to give [resources] but she didn't give me anything. Basically, although she could and she had lots of good stuff that could have helped me. I don't know, maybe she didn't like me. She even had difficulty for me to stay and watch her. (interview July 30, 2009)

There is a discrepancy between who gets access to materials on placement. Associate Teachers are in a power position and as such may serve as information gatekeepers, as in Markarim's and Dayani's experiences. Lack of access to feedback and materials from Associate Teachers is one area of concern that I acknowledge may not be limited to just ITCs, however, it is of significance when it happens to ITCs already marked as "different" and when feedback is not forthcoming *and* ITCs are viewed as lacking particular nuances of the Canadian education system. In addition Makarim also explains that her teacher candidate colleagues were also not forthcoming with support. She states,

> Nobody came to me and said, "Okay you need to do this". And the other students didn't want to share. I mean I had difficulty to go to students and there weren't a lot of students that were in my situation, even if they were, I couldn't get the support from them as well, which it was very disappointing for me. We have to support each other and we're not. (interview July 30, 2009)

Makarim's story is reminiscent of the challenges with paperwork and the lack of communication amongst ITCs and from the university in terms of how to navigate the system. In what ways is the university working to support ITCs? As Makarim states, "there weren't a lot of students that were in my situation" because there are so few ITCs enrolled in

the program. Many of these counter-stories speak to the ways in which difference complicates the relationship between Associate Teachers and ITCs, further limiting actions and interactions and reveals tensions in Principle 5 that might limit collaborative opportunities with Associate teachers.

Conclusion

This research indicates there is an unspoken assumption, or an implicit framework, that suggests becoming a successful teacher in Canada means you need to learn, practice and embody particular yet unarticulated ways of being. Interwoven in the complex counter-stories I have recounted are the ways in which ITCs are confronted by forced conformity. The Accord attests to the role of the education system to prepare elementary and secondary students for an increasingly diverse and multi-cultural world. Yet, how do we shift an invisible and intangible culture that is shaping and defining teacher education when good intentions blur and mask the implicit stronghold that maintains a teaching workforce reflective of the dominant group? A conceptual framework needs to put practical experience at the fore and ensure equity of access and to acknowledge that the playing field is not level. The recognizing and unpacking of experience requires teacher educators who are flexible, responsive, and open and who are cognizant of the pressures to conform on multiple levels within the field of teacher education. The work of this project supports the on-going education of teachers and future teachers in learning from and learning about immigrants' experiences and those similarly Othered in the Ontario education system. Certainly there are implications for larger regional and national studies. One of the most profound findings from this project was the ITCs' comments that they learned more about being Canadian in eight months of a teacher education program than they had in any other context during their time in Canada. This speaks to the phenomenal and particular socializing aspects of our education system and presses the question, what does it mean for future generations of students and teachers if a person is never able to closely resemble the desired traits of a teacher in our society to replicate the prototypical teacher? And, what does it mean for those who do the work of resisting replication? And more importantly for the purposes of this paper, how do we reflect this reality in an *effective* initial teacher preparation program?

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Chapter 3

Toward a National Conversation about Teacher Education in Canada: An Examination of CATE Conference Presentations

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In this chapter we have sought to address the focus question of whether there is a common conceptual framework for teacher education in Canada, whether there should be, and whether the ACDE Accord on Initial Teacher Education supports such a framework. We have analyzed 5 years of presentations offered under the auspices of the Canadian Association for Teacher Education at the Canadian Society for the Study of Education national conference looking for evidence of a national or regional conceptual framework in Canada. Our findings indicate there is no common conceptual framework guiding teacher education in Canada even though there were foci shared by different regions in Canada. We conclude with an argument that in an era of accountability in which teacher education is increasingly being scrutinized and criticized, that national organizations such as the Council of Ministers of Education and Association of Canadian Dean's of Education, in consultation with the provinces, need to take a larger role in conceptualizing and leading teacher education in Canada.

Introduction

As teacher educators we wear many hats and pursue many interests when it comes to preparing teachers for the profession. Presuming that actions speak louder than words, it is then the research projects, papers and conference presentations that offer some insight into the areas Canadian teacher educators are motivated to explore and thus, can be used as an

indicator of what resonates with them. This is particularly valuable as teacher education programs around the world are increasingly being questioned (Duncan 2009). What do they do? Are they necessary? Are they driven by priorities that serve the teaching profession? How do they compare with one another? Are answers to these questions evident in the work and subsequent presentations of Canadian teacher educators?

This book delves into *What is Canadian about Canadian Teacher Education*. This chapter will analyse five years of teacher education presentations at CSSE (Canadian Society for the Study of Education) providing a glimpse into the research oriented work of teacher educators and thus, to paraphrase the theme of the book, '*What Canadians are doing in Canadian Teacher Education'.* We believe that a conference like CSSE, directed at education academics, and specifically CATE (Canadian Association for Teacher Education) - an association focused on teacher education, can be used as a source of insight into the research, both annually and geographically, of Canadian teacher educators. We believe that by analysing the presentations of Canadian teacher educators at CSSE, we can begin to determine if these larger questions confronting teacher education around the world are being reflected in the research and conference presentations of Canadian teacher educators as well.

CSSE is an annual conference held in conjunction with the Congress of the Humanities and Social Sciences. This Canadian bilingual conference provides an opportunity for the discussion of educational issues among scholars from across the nation and to a much lesser extent, from around the world. Proposed presentations are peer reviewed and there are a variety of formats for presenting at the conference. Currently, approximately1100 delegates register to attend CSSE, with roughly 400 of the 1100 being members of CATE (Canadian Society for the Study of Education 2012). Each year Congress is given a theme, and in the past five years those themes have been:

- 2011 Coasts and Continents: Exploring People and Places
- 2010 Connected Understanding
- 2009 Capital Connections: Nation, Terroir, Territoire
- 2008 Thinking Beyond Borders: Global Ideas / Global Values
- 2007 Bridging Communities: Making Public Knowledge – Making Knowledge Public

In 2012 the theme will be 'Crossroads: Scholarship for an Uncertain World'. These themes are intended to act as a focus for presentations offered at the Congress, and this includes CSSE. Evidence of this theme can be seen in keynote speaker addresses and in the preamble of the various conference programmes, but after reviewing the presentations offered within the context of CATE over the past five years, it is not apparent that the overarching theme has any noticeable influence on the topics and work being presented each year.

CSSE is made up of many associations which have their own executives and who provide a disciplinary venue for Canadian academics to present their work. The association focused on teacher education is CATE. This chapter will focus exclusively on presentations offered under the mandate of CATE by Canadian presenters (as determined by the listed affiliation in the conference programme). CATE has a general membership as well as four Special Interest Groups (SIG's): TATE (Technology and Teacher Education), CAREC (Canadian Association for Research in Early Childhood), SSTEP (Self-Study of Teacher Education Practices), and PHETE (Physical & Health Education Teacher Education). These SIG's represent those academics who have further specialized within the field of teacher education, and wish to pursue this specialization with like-minded colleagues. We debated whether to include these presentations in the analysis as they represent the work of many Canadian teacher educators. The result of their inclusion would be an increase in the number of presentations in very specific areas, but it would not necessarily reflect the overall work of teacher educators. Since CATE, as an umbrella association, also hosts many presentations which have a disciplinary focus mirrored by each of the SIG's, we decided to exempt presentations from the SIG's to avoid presenting a skewed view of the work of Canadian teacher educators. It is our intention to capture the generalized work of teacher educators in Canada, and believe that the presentations for PHETE, for example, if included might convey the erroneous impression that there is larger percentage of Canadian teacher educators working on physical education topics than would actually be the case.

This chapter will analyze the five most recent years of presentations by Canadian academics (2011-2007) through CATE at CSSE. The presentations analysed are drawn from the conference programmes for these years, and will not include such things as Panels, Keynotes and SIG presentations. These sessions have been grouped into categories, using a

label for each category drawn from the presentations themselves capturing how we define it and why we placed the presentations we have within that grouping. Admittedly, since we were only working from the titles of the presentations it was difficult at times to decide what a presentation was intended to convey and thus left us feeling some ambivalence about which category in which to place it. Nonetheless, since there were 375 presentations grouped using this technique; presentations which may be better described by being placed in a different category did not significantly affect the overall numbers of presentations placed in each category. Using the listed home affiliation of the lead author, we sought to trace the region of origin for each presentation in order to determine if patterns emerged related to geography. In a few cases if it was a presentation being offered by a group of academics who affiliate themselves with different institutions, they were identified as pan-Canadian presentations.

In the latter stages of this chapter, we use the categories derived in our analysis as a frame of reference for comparison to the teacher education emphasis of other nations as found in the research literature. This discussion addresses the question of whether the emphases reflected in the work of Canadian teacher educators is unique to Canada, or whether it is shared with the emphases of scholars working in other countries. We conclude with a discussion of how the derived categories compare to the Canadian Dean's Accord on Teacher Education (www.csse-scee.ca/docs/acde/acde_teachereducationaccord_en.pdf).

Methodology

For this chapter, we have analysed the last five years of CATE presentations at CSSE (2011-2007), as documented in the CSSE conference program for these years. Thus, the analysis is limited to teacher education presentation titles, any brief descriptions included in the program, and the listed affiliations of the presenters. We grouped the presentations that shared a similar emphasis into categories labelled with headings derived from the presentations themselves. Additionally, we noted which year the presentation was given, and the affiliation of the presenters. For example, the presentation *The Role of Formative Assessment in Reflection Journals,* by Jodi Nickel at Mount Royal in Alberta, was grouped under the heading 'Assessment' along with other presentations that focused on assessment topics. This coding / categorization process was conducted with every presentation offered through

CATE at CSSE from 2011 to 2007. The result was 375 presentations were analyzed and ultimately grouped into 21 different categories. These categories are listed and explained further in the analysis section of this chapter.

In any coding process of this type, there are three limitations. First, the authors have used their own judgement to determine which proposals are placed in each category and how each category is labelled. We recognize that other teacher educators might make different decisions on the basis of their own experiences and scholarship. Second, many of the presentations could have been grouped in more than one category. For example, the presentation "International Field Placements" could have been group in a "Field Experiences & Practica" category, or in the "Diversity & Intercultural Awareness" category. We sought to the best of our ability to determine from the information provided in the conference programmes, the primary emphasis of each presentation and place it in a category that best fit that emphasis. Third, the process of categorization can show patterns of similarity, but it can also limit the range of what is considered when looking at the titles of the presentations. As Eisner (1998) describes,

"the creation of patterns derived from observation as a basis for explaining and predicting is both the boon and bane of observation. Knowing what to look for makes the search more efficient. At the same time, knowing what to look for can make us less likely to see the things that are not part of our expectations". (p. 98)

This focus bias was mediated in this work by having all three authors categorize the presentations separately, and then negotiate the location for each presentation. This negotiated grouping strategy allowed the diversity of experience and scholarship of this chapter's authors to increase the likelihood of the presentations to be grouped appropriately.

This technique of using the data itself as the source for the categorizations is borrowed from the well-documented approach of 'coding' used with grounded theory methodologies. Glaser (2002) and Creswell (2002) discuss 'emerging' grounded theory data

analysis designs which utilize categories, but choose to have the research data act as the origin for the labeling of the categories within which they are eventually grouped, in contrast with the more regimented 'fit to practical applications' analysis approach of Strauss and Corbin (1998) in which the data is fit into preconceived categories. Our approach also seeks a form of 'saturation', as described by these grounded theory proponents, by having no new categories emerge from the data after repeated returns to it. The data being the source for, and ultimately grouped by, the categories suggested that those chosen represented the entirety of the data. However, this is not a grounded theory study – we are not seeking a central explanatory 'core category' which is intended to become the basis for a thesis that explains the phenomenon being studied. This study is very deliberately intended to offer insights on the work of teacher educators in Canada. Despite extensive discussion and comparison of the insights drawn from the data, we are not seeking to unite them under a common thesis or explanatory framework other than to address the question, is there anything uniquely Canadian in the work of Canadian teacher education scholars?

It is interesting in and of itself to see the kind of work teacher educators are presenting at CSSE, and to seek to find patterns in these presentations through a categorization process. However, for this chapter, we have further sought to determine if there was a geographic pattern to the work of Canadian teacher educators. Thus, once the five years of presentations were grouped into their categories, we mapped these categories to the five regions of Canada: British Columbia/Yukon, Alberta/North West Territories, Prairies/Nunavut, Ontario, Quebec, and Atlantic Canada. The number of proposals in each category was summed, and then these categories were overlaid with the authors' affiliated institution. The top five categories were calculated for each region and then graphed in order to display the teacher education focus of the different regions of Canada. These graphs are included in the analysis section.

Analysis

Our analysis of the five CATE conference programs from the last five years (2007-2011) yielded 21 categories of presentations (n=375) (see Table 1 below). Among these diverse topics, four emerged as the categories into which 36.5% of CATE papers (137) fell – *Discipline-Specific* (12%); *Field Experiences and Practica* (8%); *Innovations, Challenges, and Directions*

in Teacher Education Programs (8%); *Pedagogy* (7%). Approximately half of the categories saw relatively equal representation at CATE's annual conference (between 14-23 papers over the 5 years), while some lesser-represented categories included the remaining 8% of the papers (e.g., "Regional Challenges", "Inclusionary Practices"). In terms of geographic distribution, we see the following trends emerge from the data with respect to the top five categories of research in each region (see Figure 1 below).

Table 1- Categories of Presentations at CATE from 2007-2011

CATEGORIES

Categories (bottom to top): Social Justice, Diversity & Intercultural Awareness, Internationally-trained & Immigrant…, Assessment, Communities of Practice, Discipline-Specific, Teacher Identity, Professionalism & Professional Growth, Professional Development, Beginning Teachers, First Nations Education, Pedagogy, Innovations, Challenges & Directions…, TE Program Structure & Reform, Field Experiences & Practica, Policy and Governance in TE, Research Approaches, Technology, Student-related Challenges, Regional Challenges, Inclusionary Practices

Figure 1: Top Five Regional Research Foci in Teacher Education

(as represented by CATE 2007-2011 data)

BC-Yukon

1. Pedagogy

2. Assessment

3. First Nations

4. Field Experiences

5. Discipline-Specific

Alberta-NWT

1. Discipline-specific

2. Teacher Identity

3. Technology

4. Pedagogy

5. Beginning Teachers

Prairies-Nunavut

1. Beginning Teachers

2. Discipline Specific

3. Communities of Practice

4. First Nations

5. Research Approaches

Ontario

1. Field Experiences

2. Discipline Specific

3. Diversity & intercultural awareness

4. Social Justice

5. Internationally trained & immigrant teachers

Québec

1. Innovations, Challenges & Directions in TE

2. Pedagogy

3. Professionalism & Professional Growth

4. Beginning Teachers

5. Field Experiences

Atlantic Canada

1. Innovations, Challenges, & Directions in TE

2. Field Experiences

3. Professional Development

4. Diversity & Intercultural Awareness

5. TE Program Structure & Reform

Discipline-Specific

The category with the most CATE presentations (12%- *Discipline-Specific*) comprised papers focused on particular subject areas typically taught in K-12 schools (e.g. the Arts, Science, Mathematics, Language and Literacy, Social Studies and Civics Education, and Health and Wellness). Physical Education and Health (PHETE) have a specific SIG within

(but somewhat separate from) CATE, but the papers included here were presented specifically as CATE sessions. With 26 papers (56.5% of papers in this category), mathematics was the one subject that was much more strongly represented at CATE than any of the other subject areas. For example, Language and Literacy and Science each accounted for 13% of the total number of papers in this section, whereas Social Studies and Arts Education together represent this same percentage. Papers in this section included – "**Mathematics** teacher educator identity: A specialist and generalist conversation (Glanfield & Murphy, Saskatchewan, 2007); "Teaching of s**cience** as inquiry: The role of the personal biography" (Bartley & Melville, Lakehead, 2009); "The connected classrooms: Helping pre-service **social studies** teachers bring the world into their school practices" (Barchuk & Harkins, MSVU, 2010); and *"*Building **literacy** capacity in a secondary vocational school" (Lopez & Reed, Ontario, 2008).

Field Experiences and Practica

One of the largest categories, and thus one of the most popular topics at CATE, is that of the role of *Field Experiences and Practica* in the initial teacher preparation program (8%). This category includes studies and discussions related to alternative practicum experiences (e.g., Alternative practicum experiences in teacher education through service learning (Maynes, Nipissing, 2011)); optimal conditions for the practicum in the teacher education program (e.g., Predicting practicum success – Identifying variables which contribute to performance on the extended practicum – A continued analysis (Stegemann, Thomson River, 2010)); international field experience opportunities (e.g., Bringing benefit home: Application of key learning from non-traditional and international practica to Quebec classrooms (Riches & Benson, McGill, 2011)); and issues related to the practicum such as stress, self-efficacy, and intern-mentor relationships (e.g., A study of practicum-related stresses in 4th year student teachers: A Canadian context (Badal, Regina, 2008)).

Initial Teacher Preparation Programs

There is an emphasis, especially in certain parts of the country (i.e., Ontario, Quebec and Atlantic Canada), with initial teacher preparation programs. Although the category entitled *Innovations, Challenges and Directions in Teacher Education Programs* made up 8% of the total papers presented at CATE, related topics such as *Field Experiences and Practica (8%)*,

Teacher Education Program Structure and Reform (2%), and *Pedagogy (7.5%)* connect very closely to this topic. These categories differ from many of the other teacher education topics in that they are not concerned with issues related to practicing professionals, but more specifically to pre-service teacher candidates. This was also one of the few categories that included pan-Canadian paper presentations (four of them). Papers in this category included: "Using the lens of anecdotal evidence to re-perceive teacher education programs" (Kristmanson & Hirschkorn, New Brunswick, 2011); "A pedagogy of place: Its nature and potential importance in teacher education" (O'Connor & Dillon, McGill, 2011); and "Bridging the theory-practice divide: Field-based university coursework in teacher education" (MacDonald, Prince Edward Island, 2010). As mentioned *Field Experience and Practica* is linked closely to teacher education programs, but we felt it did emerge as its own distinct category.

The Beginning Teacher

All topics in teacher education can presumably be connected in some way, but we distinguished the presentations related to practicing teachers, including those in the first five years of their career, from the research being done with preservice teachers. These *Beginning Teachers* were the focus of 5.8% of the papers over the last 5 years and covered topics ranging from transition to the profession (e.g., "What facilitates new teachers' transition into the teaching profession" (Ewart, Manitoba, 2008)); retention and attrition (e.g., "Mentorship and teacher attrition: Exploring the links with beginning teachers" (Beck, Alberta, 2009); and issues related to the life and work of beginning teachers (e.g., "Exploring first-year teachers' workload using mixed methodology" (Zhang & Hellsten, Saskatchewan, 2010). This particular category was particularly evident among researchers at Prairie-based institutions.

Education and the Practicing Teacher

In terms of the "education" in which teachers engage once they have begun their career, there were four categories connected to this broad topic- *Professionalism and Professional Growth- 4%* (e.g., "Electronic portfolios for teacher development: Identifying learning stages" (Sanford, Hopper & Kurki, Victoria, 2011)); *Professional Development* – 4% (e.g., "Teacher professional development in remote networked schools" (Laferrière, Laval, 2008)); *Teacher Identity- 4%* (e.g., "Teacher identity and educational change through the lens of the structure-agency debate" (Farrell, Calgary, 2007)); and *Communities of Practice* – 5.8% (e.g., "A

participant-observer case study within a learning community context: Key research findings" (Pancucci, Brock, 2011). All of these categories link to the way teachers, and sometimes pre-service teachers, are engaged in shaping and building their professional knowledge and finding a place for themselves in the profession of teaching.

Diversity and Social Justice

It is evident from these data that those involved in teacher education are also engaged in research related to an array of issues around diversity. From topics related to *Social Justice* (5%), *Intercultural Awareness and Diversity* (5%) and *Internationally-trained and Immigrant Teachers* (3%) to studies set in the *First Nations* (4.5%) context, the CATE programs over the last five years demonstrate that Canadian teacher education researchers have more than a passing interest in studies examining both equality and sensitivity to difference. In particular, the *Social Justice* category included presentations on topics such as ethnicity (e.g., "Anti racist science education: Bridging pedagogies" (Molnar & Jessen-Williamson, Saskatchewan, 2009)); gender (e.g., "Stuck on stereotypes? Introducing a new gender vocabulary in teacher education for social justice" (Airton & Esmonde, Toronto, 2009)); and sexuality (e.g., "Vital care needs of queer students" (Benson, McGill, 2008)). In addition this category addresses the theme of equity and ways to integrate equity-informed practices into both schools and teacher education programs (e.g., "The impact of school reforms on progressive teacher education programs: Doing social justice work in real schools and communities" (Singer & Solomon, York, 2011)).

With respect to the *First Nations* category (4.5%), the western institutions appear to be the most implicated in this type of research. From the preparation of teacher candidates for first nations teaching contexts (e.g. "Paying attention to learning: Developing non-Indigenous student teacher resonance with Indigenous ways" (Tanaka, Victoria, 2008)) to equipping in-service teachers with knowledge of the aboriginal perspective (e.g., "Sticky points: Teacher educators re-examine their practice in the light of a new Alberta social studies program and its inclusion of Aboriginal perspectives" (den Heyer, Alberta, 2010)), this category of paper was presented in each of the 5 years of CATE conferences. Of the 15 presentations in this category only 3 originated in non-Western institutions.

Technology and Assessment

The *Technology (3.7%)* and *Assessment (5.3%))* categories dealt with particular issues facing both initial teacher preparation programs and the public school system. For example, the *Assessment* category encompassed papers related to portfolio assessment (e.g., "Ethnographic stories of "Being There": The role of the visual in pre-service teachers' constructions of professional portfolios" (Strong-Wilson, Rudd & Mongrain, McGill, 2008)); self-assessment (e.g., "The use of self-assessment for increasing pre-service teacher engagement in the university classroom" (Milford & Brown, Victoria, 2010)); rubrics ("Improving the practical implementation of rubrics: A faculty mentor and student teacher working together in the field" (MacMath & Elshout, Fraser Valley, 2011)); and formative assessment ("Exploring barriers to implementation of formative assessment practices in schools" (Fisher, Victoria, 2007)). Scholars hailing from BC and Ontario institutions submitted the majority of papers in this category. With respect to *Technology*, although there is a related SIG, some papers on this topic were also included in the regular CATE program particularly those pertaining to pre-service teacher education (e.g., "Provoking the potential of participatory culture in teacher education Learning-to-be-a-Teacher in online Spaces" (Iftody, Alberta, 2009); and "A case study of teacher educators' integration of technology: Between discourse and reflections about actions", (Davidson, Concordia, 2010)).

Research Approaches

The final category that bears some specific attention is that of *Research Approaches* (4.8%). In the CATE research community there are several scholars from across the country, but most notably in Ontario, looking specifically at approaches to inquiry in the context of teacher education. These approaches included action research (e.g., "The value of "Failure" in collaborative action research" (Windle, Windsor, 2009)); discourse analysis ("Discourse analysis in research on teacher education and professional development: Listening to us working" (Moffatt, UBC, 2009)); narrative (e.g., "Using case study and narrative inquiry to support new teachers" (Goldblatt, Toronto, 2008)); and case study (e.g., "Enriching multi-media case methods: Bringing together researchers, case teachers, and preservice science teachers" (Pedretti, Bencze, Hewitt & Skinner-Winslow, OISE, 2007)). Also included in this category are 3 self-study articles that were not part of the self-study SIG (e.g., "Self-study as

re-thinking research and practice in teacher education: Exploring field experiences" (Martin, Elliott-Johns, O'Connor & Bullock, Queen's, 2011)).

The Outliers

Some categories that emerged contained very few papers but had a distinct nature and could not be combined with other categories. These included: *Inclusionary Practices* at 1.6% (e.g., "Exploring the Autism blogosphere and culture in inclusive teacher education" (Thompson, Regina & Aylward, Acadia, 2009)); *Governance & Policy in Teacher Education*- 1% (e.g., "Translating policies into practice: The role of middle-level administrators in language policy implementation" (Wang, Mt St. Vincent, 2007)); *Regional Issues*- 1% (e.g., "Rural teachers: Narratives of practice" (Barter, Memorial, 2011)); and *Student-related Challenges*- 1% (e.g., "Teaching teachers to just say "know": Reflections on drug education (Tupper, British Columbia, 2008)).

In summary, the data presented in this section shows both the range of topics explored by researchers presenting at CATE and the topics given the most attention. In addition to this national picture, these data also indicate the regional tendencies with respect to teacher education research. In the section that follows, we will examine the data more closely in order to interpret the possible implications for the state of teacher education research in Canada.

Discussion

In keeping with the theme of this book, what is Canadian about Canadian teacher education, we frame this discussion of results around two questions: What scholarly questions are driving the work of Canadian teacher educators? And, is there anything particularly Canadian about that work? As these questions are closely interrelated we do not attempt to address them sequentially in this section but, rather, move back and forth between them as appropriate.

The most striking feature of the scholarship of Canadian teacher educators as reflected in the data presented is its balanced (in terms of numbers of papers) diversity. We found a total of 21 categories with none being particularly dominant. The number of papers

in particular categories range from 4 to 46 but almost half of the categories fall in the middle of the range with between 14 and 23 papers in each. As noted above, some related categories can be combined to suggest significant interest in particular themes such as initial teacher preparation.

As well as a substantial range of categories, there was a fair degree of internal diversity in most of the categories. The Assessment category, for example, contains papers around two very different themes: mechanisms for assessing progress in becoming a teacher; and mechanisms for helping pre-service teachers understand and employ various approaches to assessment in their own teaching. The category with the most papers, Discipline Specific (46), is one of the most internally diverse containing collections of papers from five curriculum areas. It is clear from the data that Canadian teacher educators have a wide range of interests and that no particular themes dominate scholarship in the field. Individual researchers and institutions, to a very large extent, seem to set their own agendas for scholarship.

While we describe the field as balanced in the sense that a wide range of themes, questions and issues are addressed, that is not to say it is balanced in terms of the depth or comprehensiveness of the coverage. In some cases, discussed in detail below, important areas seem to be missing altogether and in others the coverage appears very idiosyncratic. For example, we placed 46 papers under the theme of Discipline Specific with 26 of those (56%) addressing issues related to the education of mathematics teachers. This in itself is not strange given widespread public and professional concerns about numeracy and comparative performance on international standardized assessments of math (e.g., Chai, 2012; Bobis, 2000). The relative lack of papers focused on literacy (only three papers) appearing in this category is initially striking but some presentations related to this area were given as part of a SIG's (CAREC) program and so were not reviewed for this chapter.

Among the range of themes there are some that strike us a quite generic, taking up topics important to teacher education internationally and those that have a more uniquely Canadian focus. A key example of the former is the Communities of Practice category with 22 papers including representation from all six regions. Work in this category examines a range of practices related to collaboration in professional formation and practice including professional learning communities, collaborative learning groups, and community partnerships. This reflects a wider concern for the role of professional learning

communities in professional education generally (Wenger 1998; Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder 2002) and significant attention within teacher education more specifically. It has, for example, been a major focus of work in the United States where Linda Darling-Hammond and her colleagues argue that "working in professional learning communities is a key to changing school cultures" and, therefore "teacher education curriculum should help teachers learn how to work on improving practice as members of such communities" (Bransford, Darling-Hammond & LePage, 2005, p.3). In related work they contend that "communities of practice play a key role in developing and transmitting knowledge from practice to research and back again (Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, Bransford, Berliner, Cochran-Smith, McDonald, M., et al., 2005, p.383). This emphasis also seems to be a priority for teacher governing bodies such as the Ontario College of Teachers (Ontario college of Teachers, 2013). Gambhir, Broad, Evans and Gaskell (2008) argue that attention to professional learning communities as sites of both initial teacher education and ongoing professional development is increasingly prevalent in Canada. The scholarship examined here fits well within this larger body of research.

The considerable focus on difference and diversity seems to us to be more distinctively Canadian. Kymlicka (2007) points out that, "issues of accommodating diversity have been central to Canada's history" (p. 39). He argues that over the past several decades the trend across virtually all Western democracies has been toward greater recognition and accommodation of diversity in several ways: increased autonomy for national minorities; a move away from polices of assimilation of immigrants toward integration; and greater recognition of the rights of Indigenous Peoples. Canadian policies have largely followed these trends and have not been particularly unique. However, "Canada is distinctive," he argues, "in having to deal with all three forms of diversity at the same time" and "in the extent to which it has not only legislated but also constitutionalized, practices of accommodation" (Kymlicka, 2003, p. 374).

As Peck and her colleagues demonstrate (Peck, Thompson, Chareka, Joshee, & Sears, 2010; see also Joshee & Johnson, 2007), the distinctive nature of Canadian diversity has been a persistent concern in educational research, policy, and practice as well. Indeed the Association of Canadian Deans of Education (2005a, 2005b) make meeting the challenge of diversity a central theme of both their General Accord and their Accord on Initial Teacher Education and a review of teacher education in Canada argues that "constructively

responding to diversity" is a key issue for teacher education programs across the country (Gambhir et al. 2008, p 21). These data derived from the 5 year analysis of CATE presentations demonstrate that focus is also reflected in the work of Canadian teacher educators. It should be pointed out that while Kymlicka's work is largely about ethnic, racial or national diversity, scholarship in education generally and in CATE presentations in particular extend the focus to include diversity in areas such as intellectual or physical ability, gender, and sexual orientation. Combining the four categories related to difference (Social Justice, Diversity/Intercultural Awareness, Immigrant and Internationally Trained Teachers, and First Nations) gives a total of 68 papers (not including several in other categories with some connection to the overall theme of respecting and accommodating difference) and constitutes the closest thing to a central focus of CATE presentations.

We would raise two caveats, however, related to the centrality of addressing issues of difference in Canadian teacher education. First, as Gambhir and her colleagues point out, the development of inclusionary practices related to the full participation of students of varying ability levels is both a key aspect of creating a just and diverse education system and a common concern across jurisdictions in Canada (Gambhir et al., 2008). It would seem that we are recognizing the diversity evident in Canada, but are less inclined to discuss the inclusive systems being created to address the diversity. Given its relative importance there were very few papers related to this theme and it did not appear in the top five concerns of any of the regions.

Second, while CATE sessions over the past five years have included a number of papers across the four other categories related to difference, none appears in the top five categories in more than two regions and two (Social Justice and Immigrant and Internationally Trained Teachers) appear in the top five of only one region (see Figure 1). Two of six regions (Alberta and Québec) include none of these categories in their top five (see Table 2). Given that lack of national pervasiveness, it is a stretch to argue that even this expanded category is a national priority in teacher education. We understand that these are generalizations being made on the basis of presentations at a conference venue that many scholars may not choose to attend (Ex. Quebec) but the presentations of CATE do not seem to support Gambhir's assertion that diversity is a common concern across jurisdictions in Canada.

Table 2: Comparison of Top Five Themes by Region

Number of Regions in Which Category Appears	Categories
6	
5	
4	Field Experiences, Discipline Specific
3	Pedagogy, Beginning Teachers
2	First Nations, Innovations/Challenges/Directions in TE, Diversity and Intercultural Awareness
1	Assessment, Teacher Identity, Technology, Professionalism, Professional Development, Research Approaches, TE Structure/Reform, Immigrant and Internationally Trained Teachers, Social Justice, Communities of Practice

Perhaps the most strikingly Canadian aspect of scholarship in teacher education is the lack of any sense of national or pan-national priorities or points of discussion. As a number of commentators have demonstrated, this is quintessentially Canadian. It is widely held that "Canada is generally regarded as "the most decentralized western democracy" (Sears, Clarke & Hughes 1999, p. 120; also see Lipset, 1990) and this is nowhere more evident than in the realm of education. Commenting on a report on education issued by the OECD, Robertson (2006) makes the point that "among the OECD's member states, Canada stood alone. Every other nation, including those which, like Canada, are structured as federations had devised a vehicle for articulating, debating, and adopting national policies and for coordinating education research" (p. 410).

This lack of capacity for national discussion, let alone the setting of national priorities, in Canadian education has been demonstrated in a number of fields. For example, Hughes, Print and Sears (2010) compare the elements that made for successful curriculum reform across four national jurisdictions (Australia, Canada, England and the United States)

finding, among other things, "that countries where national debate about citizenship and citizenship education was encouraged and conducted were more likely to produce substantial and widely implemented programs in the area" (p. 297). They go on to write, "Canada is unique among these countries in the complete lack of national debate or policy initiative of any kind in the field" (p. 299).

Similarly, a recent edited collection examines the "wars" about history in the curriculum in a number of countries around the world (Taylor & Guyver, 2012). While virtually all other jurisdictions that were examined had sustained national deliberations around the issue of what and whose history to teach, Sandwell (2012) makes the point that in Canada "debates in any particular province or region have seldom reached a national level, and when they did, they were not sustained for long in Canada's ten provinces and three territories" (p. 71).

The data presented here indicate this phenomenon holds with regard to teacher education. Despite a commitment seven years ago by deans of education across the country "to identify and address national issues in education especially those involving initial teacher education" and to engage a range of stakeholders, including teacher education researchers, "in dialogue about the development of pan-Canadian principles for initial teacher education" (ACDE, 2005a, p. 5), there is very little evidence of progress on this front in the programs of CATE. In the well over 300 papers presented over the past five years less than 15% are authored by teams that extend beyond regional boundaries and many of those are panel sessions pulled together for the conference and not representative of ongoing collaboration around common issues. A total of 16 themes appear in the top five list of the various regions but not a single one appears in all six or even five of six regions (see Figure 1). Two appear in four regions and two, in three, four in two, and fully half of the 16 appear on only one top five list.

Some argue that the Council of Ministers of Education, Canada (CMEC) is the forum for national policy discussions in Canada but there is little evidence that the Council serves this role. Charles Ungerleider (2003), who served as deputy minister of education in British Columbia and was therefore deeply involved with the CMEC, contends that there is a significant absence of national leadership from any body in education in Canada. He argues that "putting public schooling on the Canadian agenda requires a champion of great stature

who can explain its importance to Canada and Canadians" (p. 281). For Ungerleider, the CMEC has not been that champion.

In terms of teacher education specifically, the CMEC has been involved in working for greater inter jurisdictional teacher mobility within Canada through the Agreement on Internal Trade (AIT). The CMEC's (1999) agreement in principle on labor mobility in the teaching profession contains some general statements about the shape of teacher education in Canada but offers no specific policy directions or even suggestions beyond vague statements like, "There is a growing recognition of the need for more than an eight month academic year of preparation and of the need for an extended school experience component in teacher education." The Council's website page on teacher mobility says nothing about teacher education beyond the ambiguous statement, "Through communication between governments and universities, teacher education programs reflect government regulations and policies" (p. 2).

A search of the CMEC website reveals one study related to teacher education: *Teacher Education and Development Study in Mathematics 2008: Canadian Report* (CMEC 2010, p. 30). This document reports on the Canadian portion of an international study of mathematics teachers and teacher education. Only four provinces participated and the institutional response from those provinces was so "disappointing" that the data could not be included in the international sample. There is no evidence that the CMEC plays any significant role in shaping discussion about or policies for teacher education in Canada.

Some may argue this lack of any national focus and discussion in teacher education is not a problem in a country where education is constitutionally a provincial responsibility, but we do not agree. Neither do the Canadian Deans of Education who, in their General Accord (ACDE 2005a), identify establishing a national conversation around public education generally and initial teacher education in particular as central to their mandate. They go on in their Accord on Initial Teacher Education (ACDE) to outline nationally "normative" (p.1) principles for teacher education programs and to call for member institutions to establish "shared goals and principles" and undertake "cooperative research and data sharing" (p. 2). CATE is well placed to be a key vehicle for fostering these enterprises, and efforts over the last five years indicate that increasing the level of national awareness and collaboration has become a priority for CATE as an organization.

A number of scholars, policy makers, and commentators have argued that Canadian education suffers from this lack of national conversation and shared scholarship (Ungerleider 2003; Robertson, 2006). In a range of work Hughes, Sears and colleagues (Hughes & Sears 2006; Hughes & Sears, 2008; Hughes, Print & Sears, 2010) demonstrate that sustained professional and public conversation is an essential element in laying the foundation for successful educational innovation and reform. It educates and informs interested parties and allows for the kind of invested interest necessary to move reform forward. They argue that Canada has lagged significantly behind other jurisdictions in this area of capacity building and, drawing on a sports metaphor, contend that in terms of making substantial progress in the field "Canada dabbles while the world plays on" (Hughes & Sears, 2006, p. 6).

Like the Deans of Education (ACDE, 2005a) these commentators have "no wish to impose a system of national standards that would erode the important local and regional characteristics" (p. 3) of education in Canada. With the Deans, they do believe, however, that "there is clearly room for joint action" (pp. 3-4) and that educational scholarship, policy and practice could be greatly strengthened through such collaboration. We concur.

In addition to the lack of any sense of national or pan-national issues in Canadian teacher education, we were also struck by the lack of attention in the presentations to the ongoing and often heated international debates about the very existence of teacher education. In a number of countries around the world teacher education has been under attack, cast as not only ineffective but as a substantial detriment to good teaching and positive educational reform. Almost 20 years ago Tisher (1995) described this in Australia writing that, "The public criticism of preservice teacher education has intensified in recent years with calls at both state and national levels, from business, academic and political groups, for a review and recasting of pre-service preparation programs" (p. 34). More recently teacher education in the United States has come under sustained critique from conservative commentators who characterize it as essentially a narrow anti-educational gatekeeper designed to preserve a status quo that serves teachers and bureaucrats rather than children. Hess (2010), for example, argues that schools of education seek to "enforce ideological orthodoxy [that] excludes teachers who are phenomenal educators but, for myriad personal reasons, don't embrace the prevailing teacher education dogmas" (p. 149). Similarly, in his bestselling book *Class Warfare: Inside the Fight to Fix America's Schools*, Steven

Brill (2011) launches a sustained attack on Linda Darling-Hammond's critique of Teach for America because of its lack of substantial teacher preparation characterizing her as leading "a backlash against education reform" (p. 70).

Teach for America in the US (Ripley, 2010) and Teach First in the UK are national programs that flow partly from this conservative critique of teacher education. In both cases top graduates are recruited from highly ranked universities for teaching assignments in difficult schools and classrooms. Recruits are given a short, intensive summer preparation program and are placed in teaching assignments the fall after graduating. These programs largely assume teaching is something best learned on the job and that smart, well-educated people need little in the way of teacher education in order to begin teaching.

Thus far Canada has largely avoided these kinds of existential debates about teacher education and, while there is some acknowledgement they exist (Gambhir et al., 2008), there is little evidence from CATE presentations that they have impacted scholarship in the field. Chan, Fisher and Rubenson (2007) make it clear, however, that teacher professionalism in Canada is increasingly the subject of conservative critique and that there has been a substantial policy shift across the country from "a professional-contextualist conception of teachers toward a technocratic-reductionist conception of teachers" (p. 236). This is consistent with the shift described in Australia, the US, and the UK and it seems to us naive to believe we can avoid the kinds of questions teacher educators have faced in those contexts.

Indeed, the impending debate might have been foreshadowed in the fall of 2011 when the Ontario Liberal Government promised to extend teacher education in that province from one year (following a first degree) to two if re-elected. Writing in *The Globe and Mail,* Ontario middle school teacher Rory Gilfillan (2011) made arguments eerily similar to those reflected in the international debates described above. He characterized teacher education as generally irrelevant (even harmful) and narrow and wrote, "the truth is that teachers don't become better teachers by going to school longer; in fact, less formal education may lead to more compelling and grounded educators."

The Globe and Mail (2011) itself was quick to weigh in with an editorial calling the Liberal promise an example of "creeping credentialism" and arguing there is no evidence that two years of teacher education is any better than one. The editorial went on to say that Ontario's one year (really eight months) of post-degree teacher education was similar to

requirements in other provinces. The editors were wrong about that as teacher education in Canada takes a myriad of forms ranging from four year right from high school undergraduate degrees, to post degree programs of from eight months to two years. The editorial was right, however, in claiming there is no substantial evidence to favor one of these structures over the others. If and when questions arise about the necessity of teacher education at all, as international experience suggest they might, teacher educators would be in a much stronger position if they had evidence demonstrating the value added benefits of teacher education generally and various forms of the enterprise in particular. Some attention to these questions would benefit the field greatly.

Conclusion

This examination of papers presented at CATE annual conferences over five years provides an early map of the work of teacher education scholars in Canada. That map shows a diverse body of scholarship touching on many key areas related to the development of teachers. It reveals particular areas of focus in diverse regions and highlights a lack of any overarching national themes or issues driving scholarship across the regions. We suspect that, like the early maps of the coast of Eastern North America drawn by Samuel de Champlain and others, over time it will appear primitive, rough and inaccurate in important ways (Peck & Sears, 2005). We do hope, however, that like Champlain's maps, it will prove accurate enough to allow others to follow and better chart the terrain. In order to help with that we will conclude by outlining some of the limitations of this work that might be addressed by future research.

First, we recognize the tenuous nature of generalizing about a whole field of scholarship based on the titles of conference presentations in a single academic association. We were surprised, for example, by the lack of attention to some issues in particular regions. The lack of focus on social justice in presentations from BC and the lack of focus on inclusionary practices in presentations from Atlantic Canada are two examples. Social justice issues have been prominent in academic and public discourse in BC for years. From court cases around the banning of books about same-sex couples in schools to the creation of a controversial grade 12 course examining social justice, debate around this theme has been ubiquitous in the province. On the other side of the country, New Brunswick in particular prides itself in being one of the most inclusionary jurisdictions in the world yet that topic

does not appear important in papers presented by scholars from that province or the wider region. However, it would be a mistake, we believe, to make too much about the lack of submissions in these and other areas. It is quite possible that scholars from these regions working on these themes simply chose to present their work in other venues at CSSE or elsewhere or perhaps because of the provincial focus they begin to take these topics for granted. So, while this survey provides an important representation of the range of scholarship in the field, it does not provide the whole picture.

Second, while the primary concern we raise about scholarship in teacher education in Canada is the lack of any sense of trans-regional or national bodies of work in the field, we are aware that part of the problem may be the way we have developed our themes. As pointed out in the results section above, there were definitely many presentations focused on initial teacher preparation. Despite the fact that this may not be a joint effort, many jurisdictions across the country are focused on the area, albeit from their own perspective. It is possible there is more coherence across the field than recognized here.

Third, and finally, we are very critical of the lack of national conversation about teacher education and believe this significantly weakens the field. We are cognizant, though, that CATE's publication series on teacher education in Canada, including this collection, is a direct attempt to address that concern. Going forward, we believe that comparisons like we have done in this chapter can serve to remind teacher educators in Canada that there are many others in Canada who share our passions and interests. The Deans of Education are not alone in their bid to find common ground and to establish norms for the teacher education community in Canada.

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Chapter 4

A Conceptual Framework for After-Degree Bachelor of Education Programs in Canada

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Canadian after-degree Bachelor of Education programs are often different from those in other countries due to a combination of factors such as the dominance of university-based component, the two-subject secondary teacher certification, competition for enrolment among applicants. Teacher candidates enter after-degree Bachelor of Education programs in Canada as professionals with specific disciplinary knowledge. They often have some knowledge of disciplinary research as well. These teacher candidates often come to the after-degree programs with a range of teaching experiences. A different conceptual framework for after-degree initial teacher education programs is needed to capitalize on these teacher candidates' prior teaching experiences and disciplinary research knowledge. This paper introduces the Research Pedagogical and Content Knowledge (RPACK) conceptual framework for after-degree programs that focuses on interaction between teacher candidates' content, pedagogical and research knowledge including their prior knowledge in these areas. The RPACK framework is based on activity theory that views contradictions, arising within an activity system such as the after-degree Bachelor of Education program, as an opportunity to transform the activity system. This approach to contradictions and tensions makes activity theory suitable for re-conceptualizing the theory-practice divide from a problem to an opportunity for transformation and change.

Introduction

A combination of factors often makes Canadian after-degree initial teacher education unique. First, while many countries experiment with alternative pathways to teacher certification (Zeichner, 2010), all these programs in Canada are university-based (Falkenberg,

2010). It makes teacher candidates' perspectives on their knowledge of content, pedagogy and educational research especially important in understanding the process of their learning to teach. Emphasis on these three types of knowledge calls for a different conceptual framework for after-degree initial teacher education in Canada with a focus on interrelation and interaction between teacher candidates' content, pedagogical and educational research knowledge during their practice teaching. I name it the Research Pedagogical and Content Knowledge (RPACK) conceptual framework.

Second, while student population in modern urban high schools became large enough to provide each teacher with a full teaching load just in one subject, teacher candidates in Ontario still must to earn certification in two subject areas to be eligible to teach at secondary school level. It brings the diversity of teacher candidates' educational backgrounds to university classroom. For example, many secondary school mathematics teacher candidates have majors such as physical education, music, art and English and bring multiple perspectives on learning to teach mathematics, the perspectives that are often very different from those held by majors in mathematics and natural sciences (Antropov, 2013).

Third, often applicants are to compete with others for each spot in Canadian after-degree initial teacher education programs. As a result, many teacher candidates in these programs have strong educational backgrounds. In a previous study it has been found that the majority of secondary school mathematics teacher candidates who entered the after-degree initial teacher education program at the large research-intensive Canadian university in 2009-2011 had a specific disciplinary culture in general and a distinct disciplinary research culture in particular (Antropov, 2013). Many of these teacher candidates both studied research methods in their disciplines and took part in conducting disciplinary research while some of them published scholarly papers in academic journals (Antropov, 2013).

Furthermore, these teacher candidates often also come to this after-degree program with a range of teaching experiences that they must report on a pre-structured online survey as a pre-requisite for enrolment (Antropov, 2013). Teaching experiences reported by these teacher candidates included working as paid teaching assistants in their master's and doctoral programs, teaching English as a second language abroad, volunteering at schools, tutoring school students, working with youth in community centers and summer camps as well as

helping their own children with homework (Antropov, 2013). These findings suggest that it would be highly beneficial for teacher candidates if teacher educators would pay attention to building on teacher candidates' prior disciplinary and research knowledge as well as their prior teaching experiences.

In the literature on teacher education, we can see a move from the view of teacher candidates as passive recipients of teaching skills (Ewing & Smith, 2003; LeCornu & Ewing, 2008) and as "blank slates to be filled with the wisdom of both university faculty and supervisory" toward the view of a teacher candidate as an "active collaborator in the co-construction of knowledge" (Bullock & Russell, 2010, p. 92-93). From this viewpoint, teacher candidates are seen as "active participants in the learning process constructing through personal and social experiences" (LeCornu & Ewing, 2008, p. 1802).

The tendency to see teacher candidates as active collaborators with social others such as teacher educators in the co-construction of knowledge is compatible with activity theory originated from the work of Vygotsky (1978) and further developed by his followers such as Leontiev (1978), Cole (1996) and Engeström (1987). This different perception of teacher candidates as active collaborators bringing to after-degree initial teacher education programs a range of prior teaching experiences as well as a specific disciplinary culture in general and a distinct disciplinary research culture in particular, calls for a different conceptual framework for initial teacher education, the framework based on activity theory as its theoretical foundation.

Activity theory is suitable for studying complex learning environments (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010) such as an after-degree initial teacher education program. From activity theory's perspective, teacher candidates in after-degree initial teacher education programs are involved in the human activity of learning to teach. In the process of learning to teach, they actively interact with university teacher educators/researchers, other teacher candidates, associate teachers and students at practicum schools. As a collective within the community of university-school partnership members, teacher candidates utilize their research pedagogical and content knowledge (RPACK) as the mediating artefacts/tools in the interactive object-oriented activity of learning to teach. The object of this activity is the enactment of RPACK in teaching during practicum. The desired outcome of the activity is

to achieve the highest possible level of the synergy and synthesis of teacher candidates' content, pedagogical and educational research knowledge in practice teaching. In the process of learning to teach, teacher candidates face both constraints and affordances established by the rules and regulations of the program, university and practicum schools. These rules and regulations define the division of labor between teacher candidates, university teacher educators/researchers, associate teachers and students at practicum schools.

RPACK Conceptual Framework and Its Theoretical Foundations

There are a number of theories and theoretical perspectives that can provide a lens for studying the human activity of learning to teach in a complex learning environment such as the after-degree initial teacher education program where the process of learning is viewed as an interaction-based holistic/no-dualistic engagement between individuals and their environmental/social context. Among them are theories and theoretical perspectives such as activity theory (Vygotsky, 1978; Leontiev, 1978; Engeström, 1987, 1999, 2001, 2011), organizational knowledge creation theory (Nonaka & Takeuchi,1995; Nonaka, Toyama & Hirata, 2008; Tsoukas, 2009), situated leadership theory (e.g., Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2004; Spillane, 2005; Timperley, 2005; von Krogh, Nonaka & Rechsteiner, 2012), complexity theory (Davis & Simmt, 2003; Davis & Sumara, 2006; Davis, Sumara & Luce-Kapler, 2008;), the theoretical perspectives of values (Dewey, 1975; Johnson, 1993; Falkenberg & Noyes, 2010; Jurdak, 2009) as well as knowledge mobilization perspective (e.g., Cooper & Levin, 2009).

Combined with the RPACK conceptual framework, all these theories and theoretical perspectives (Figure 1) can be collectively used by teacher candidates as the mediating artefacts/tools in the interactive object-oriented activity of learning to teach aiming at the enactment of RPACK in practice teaching.

Figure 1. The RPACK conceptual framework and its theoretical foundations.

Research Pedagogical and Content Knowledge (RPACK) Conceptual Framework

The Research Pedagogical and Content Knowledge (RPACK) conceptual framework (Figure 2) is designed to describe and provide understanding how teacher candidates integrate and synthesize content, pedagogical and educational research knowledge in the process of learning to teach in the context of an after-degree initial teacher education program at a large research-intensive Canadian university (Antropov, 2013). In the process of learning, teacher candidates interact with social others (e.g., university teacher educators/researchers, associate school teachers, other teacher candidates and school students) and the environment. As a result of this interaction, all participants and the environment affect one another. During the process of this interaction, teacher candidates gradually build their research pedagogical and content knowledge as a social tool for teaching by integrating content, pedagogy and educational research knowledge and synthesizing them.
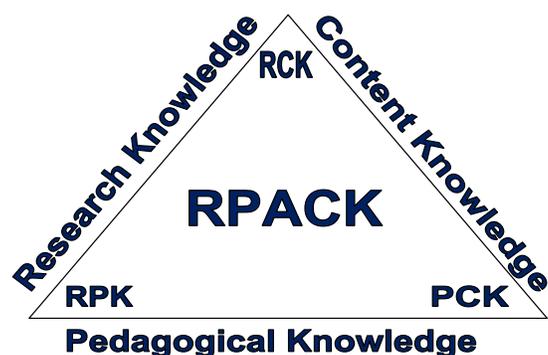
Figure 2. The RPACK conceptual framework and its knowledge components.

In Figure 2, Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) is the knowledge of a content specific pedagogy (Shulman, 1986, 1987). Research Pedagogical Knowledge (RPK) is the knowledge of how educational research can support pedagogical goals. Research Content Knowledge (RCK) is the knowledge of content specific educational research. Finally, the synergy and synthesis of all three types of knowledge produces teacher candidates' RPACK as a social tool for teaching.

The three-component RPACK's frame structure was adapted from Koehler and Mishra's (2009) Technological Pedagogical and Content Knowledge (TPACK) conceptual framework visualized as a Venn diagram instead of a triangle (Figure 3). The presentation of RPACK in the shape of triangle was inspired by Özgün-Koca, Meagher and Edwards (2011). Both RPACK and TPACK draw on Shulman's construct of Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) that is often used in research on teacher knowledge.

Koehler and Mishra (2005, 2006) and Niess (2005, 2006, 2007) used Shulman's PCK construct in developing TPACK. The essence of TPACK is in integrating the three type of knowledge (technology, pedagogy, and content) in teaching. In Figure 3, Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) is the knowledge of a content specific pedagogy (Shulman, 1986, 1987). Technological Pedagogical Knowledge (TPK) is the knowledge of how technology can support pedagogical goals. Technological Content Knowledge (TCK) is the knowledge of how a subject matter is transformed by the application of technology. Finally, the

integration of all three types of knowledge in teaching produces Technological Pedagogical and Content Knowledge (TPACK).
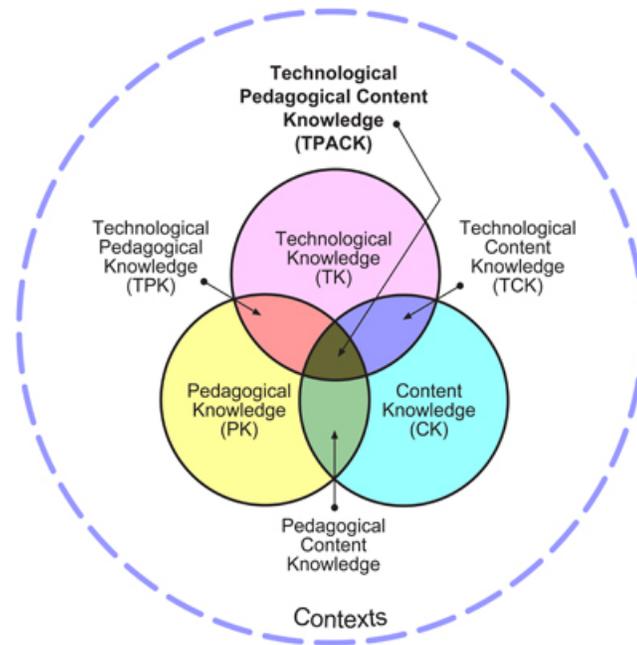
Figure 3. The TPACK framework and its knowledge components. Adapted from

Koehler and Mishra (2009, p. 63).

Activity Theory

Activity theory originated from the work of Vygotsky (1978). It was further developed by his followers such as Leontiev (1978), Cole (1996) and Engeström (1987). In some research papers, activity theory is referred to as Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT), sociocultural theory, or social constructivism (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). Engeström (1996, 1999, 2001) described three generations of activity theory research. The first generation of activity theory is associated with Vygotsky's (1978) mediated action triangle that can be depicted as the uppermost sub-triangle in Figure 4. The second generation of activity is started with Leontiev's (1978) emphasis on the collective nature of human activity

and with Engeström's (1987) introduction of the activity systems model (Figure 4). Finally, the third generation of activity theory deals with two or more interacting activity systems as well as with the network of interacting activity systems (Engeström, 1999).

Engeström (2001) points out that the third generation of activity theory provides conceptual tools for understanding dialog, multiple perspectives, and the networks of interacting activity systems. He emphasizes the multi-voicedness of activity systems as the communities of multiple points of views, traditions and interests. According to Engeström, contradictions within and between activity systems play the central role as sources of change and development because these contradictions can create tensions leading to the transformation of activity systems.

Tool

Subject   Object $\longrightarrow$ Outcome

Rules   Community   Division of Labor
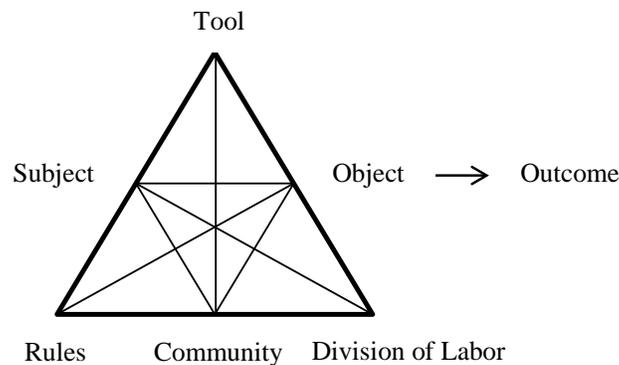
Figure 4. Activity system model. Adapted from Engeström (1987).

Activity theory provides a different perspective on the theory-practice divide by re-conceptualizing it from a problem to an opportunity for transformation and change. The disconnectedness between teacher candidates' university-based course work experiences and their school-based field experiences is generally conceptualized as the theory-practice divide (Falkenberg, 2010). The theory-practice divide and efforts to overcome it are ubiquitous and not new to teacher education (Bullock and Russell, 2010).

The theory-practice divide can be interpreted in the terms of 'acquisition' and 'participation', the two basic dichotomous metaphors of learning that compete for dominance today (Sfard, 1998). In acquisition-based approaches, teacher candidates learn to teach by applying theoretical concepts learned from university coursework. In participation-based approaches, they learn to teach in the community of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) at practicum schools. To overcome this dichotomy/divide, Engestrom (2011) introduced his own metaphor of learning: 'expansion'. In expansive learning, "learners construct a new object and concept for their collective activity, and implement this new object and concept in practice" (Engestrom, 2011, p. 87).

Furthermore, utilizing expansive learning's principles of dialog, multiple perspectives, networks of interacting activity systems, multi-voicedness and practical engagement with inner contradictions of the learners' activity systems as transformative forces (Engestrom, 2011), the

group of teacher candidates (TCs), university teacher educators/researchers and associate school teachers in the after-degree initial teacher education program works collaboratively on TCs' RPACK toward transforming their research pedagogical and content knowledge into cultural tool for teaching while gradually reducing the theory-practice divide.

The theory-practice divide is commonly viewed by teacher educators as problematic (Falkenberg, 2010). In particular, teacher candidates can face contradictions between what they learn at university and what they encounter at school. In activity theory, these contradictions play the central role as sources of change, development and innovative attempts to change the activity (Engestrom, 2011). For example, dissatisfaction with routinized university methods courses taught by experienced school teachers often encouraged teacher candidates to look for alternatives such as elective courses taught by university researchers (Antropov, 2013). Also, prior successful experiences with authentic disciplinary research often gave teacher candidates courage to implement in their practice teaching research-based strategies disapproved by their associate teachers (Antropov, 2013).

In the previous study of secondary school mathematics teacher candidates' experiences in the after-degree initial teacher education program at the large research-intensive Canadian university in 2009-2011, it has been found that all interview participants

formally acknowledge the equal importance of content, pedagogical and educational research knowledge in practice teaching (Antropov, 2013). However, the participants split into three different groups prioritizing only one type of knowledge when the RPACK conceptual framework was offered to them as a lens to view interaction between content, pedagogy and research in their practice teaching (Antropov, 2013). Furthermore, the RPACK language helped them to describe the theory-practice divide that they experienced in their relations with associate teachers during practicum at school (Antropov, 2013).

RPACK

Enactment of   Synthesis of three knowledge

Teacher Candidates   RPACK   →   types in teaching

Priority to one knowledge

After-Degree   University/school   Designated Responsibilities

Initial Teacher Education   Teacher Educators &   within After-Degree
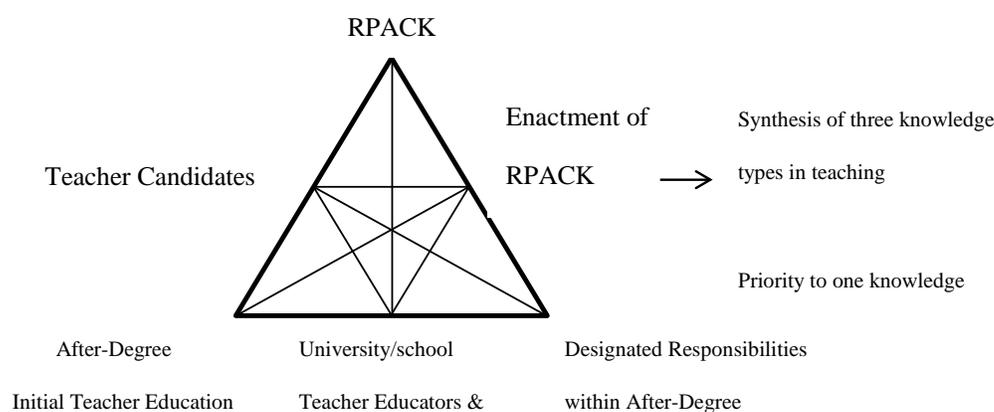
Figure 5. Engeström's (1987) activity system model in application to teacher candidates' learning to teach in the after-degree initial teacher education program.

Figure 5 illustrates how activity system model can be used for describing and understanding teacher candidates' learning to teach in the after-degree initial teacher education program. The teacher candidates are the subject in this activity system. RPACK is the mediating tool. The object is the enactment of RPACK in teaching. In this case, the outcome may vary. While some teacher candidates (TCs) synthesize three knowledge types in teaching, other TCs prioritize one knowledge type (Antropov, 2013).

Organizational Knowledge Creation Theory

Antropov (2013) pointed out that the concepts of organizational knowledge creation theory as mediating artefacts/tools could be useful in describing and understanding teacher candidates' perspectives on the role of their content, pedagogical and educational research knowledge in practice teaching. In particular, he showed that this 3-stage learning-breaking-

creating model, described at the end of this section, was helpful for better understanding why different teacher candidates, while formally acknowledging the equal importance of content, pedagogical and educational research knowledge, prioritized one type of knowledge over two others during their practice teaching.

Similar to activity theory, organizational knowledge creation theory (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995) emphasizes the importance of dialogue between participants in knowledge creating activities, values multiple perspectives brought by the multi-voiced participants of different traditions and interests , and encourages interactive networking. Contradictions within the knowledge creating collectives are perceived as necessary conditions for creating new knowledge. Triggered by contradictions, tensions in these collectives are viewed as transformative forces as well.

Adopting a social constructivist view of knowledge, Tsoukas (2009) offers a dialogical approach to the creation of new knowledge in organizations. Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) argue that knowledge creation involves the creation of new concepts through dialogue and the management of conversations. Organizational knowledge creation theory can provide both an integrative and a balanced view of an initial teacher education program within faculties of education as a knowledge-creating organization with its network of relations among university- and school-based teacher educators and teacher candidates as well as other stakeholders.

Any organization theory is based on some tacitly accepted ontological, epistemological and praxeological assumptions that can become questionable and come under scrutiny when "scientific practices stumble in their efforts to make sense of the empirical world and to 'enlighten practitioners'" (Tsoukas & Chia, 2011, p. 13). While "ontology is concerned with the general structure of reality and epistemology is concerned with how scholars formulate and justify their knowledge claims, praxeology deals with how theory is related to action and, more specifically, how theory is related to practice" (Tsoukas & Chia, 2011, p. 12). Ontological, epistemological and praxeological assumptions can be questioned when tensions arise between theory and practice (Tsoukas and Chia, 2011).

 Tsoukas and Chia (2011) distinguish externally and internally oriented praxeologies. Following the model of natural sciences, externally oriented praxeology emphasizes value-

free theory-to-practice or instrumental relations between theory and practice. In contrast, always influenced by the conceptions of ethics and the common good, internally oriented praxeology emphasizes that practitioners are inevitably shaped by their practice when they often unreflectively acquired and unconsciously internalized the vocabularies and traditions of it. Tsoukas and Chia (2011) state that, while often acting in a relatively unreflective manner, practitioners still have the innate ability for self-observation and reflexivity that enable them to change their practice to match particular contexts. The authors conclude that theories provide further vocabularies to practitioners to articulate in different ways what is only tacitly understood in their practices.

Recent developments in Nonaka's (1995) theory of knowledge-creating organization are based on the balance between externally and internally oriented praxeologies and on the view of knowledge as the synthesis of contradictions accomplished by people with different subjective viewpoints in their interactions with one another and the environment (Nonaka, Toyama & Hirata, 2008). From the perspective of this theory, the differences in viewpoints and capabilities of university teacher educators, school associate teachers and teacher candidates are necessary for the process of knowledge creating. In particular, from this perspective, the theory-practice divide can be viewed not as a problem but as an opportunity and necessary condition for creating a knowledge base for initial teacher education.

Von Krogh, Nonaka & Rechsteiner (2012) point out that organizational knowledge creation integrates context, knowledge assets, and knowledge creation processes throughout the organization. They emphasize that all knowledge is situated within its social, historical, and cultural context. The authors define organizational context for knowledge creation as a shared space where participants interact with one another and the environment for meaning-making. The authors clarify that this space can be physical (e.g., classrooms), virtual (e.g., electronic mailing lists) or mental (ideals or visionary ideas). Von Krogh et al. explain that the shared space contains both boundaries and possibilities (that can change over time) for knowledge creation through interactions between individuals. They state that knowledge assets include explicit knowledge articulated as documents and routines through images, symbols, and language as well as tacit knowledge such as individuals' skills, experiences, values, and norms.

According to von Krogh, Nonaka and Rechsteiner (2012), new knowledge is created through the four phases of the SECI (socialization, externalization, combination, internalization) process of dialog and practice:

> *Socialization* represents the sharing and conversion of tacit knowledge through the shared experiences of individuals. *Externalization* represents the articulation of tacit into explicit knowledge. *Combination* represents the process of combining different strands of explicit knowledge to create more complex or systematic sets of knowledge. *Internalization* represents the process of embodying explicit into tacit knowledge. (pp. 242-243)

The SECI process emerges in the shared space (the platform for the knowledge creation process) and is moderated by available knowledge assets creating value for the organization (von Krogh et. al, 2012). From the perspective of SECI process (Nonaka, Toyama & Hirata, 2008), in their professional self-development and learning, teacher candidates go through the three stages:

(1) learning, (2) breaking and (3) creating. In the stage of learning, they follow university- and school-based teacher educators, imitating their practices, embracing their values and techniques and mastering them as their own. In the stage of breaking, teacher candidates attempt to break from imitation and to creatively revise what they have learned. In the stage of creating, teacher candidates work on their own unique teaching approaches.

In particular, Antropov (2013) described how this 3-stage model can explain teacher candidates' tendency to prioritize one type of knowledge over two others during their practice teaching. He found that they prioritized the type of knowledge with what they were the most comfortable at the moment. For example, those, who were at the stage of 'learning', prioritized content knowledge because they felt confidence only in their prior knowledge of content. As a result, they mechanically reproduced teaching techniques learned from their university methods course instructors and associate teachers. Furthermore, those, who were at the stage of 'breaking', prioritized pedagogy because they observed that their classroom students reacted differently to the same teaching techniques in different contexts.

This observation encouraged them to modify teaching strategies depending on the situation and students' needs. Finally, those, who were at the stage of 'creating', prioritized educational research knowledge because they found inspiration in innovative research-based teaching methods and had courage to implement these methods during practicum.

Situated Leadership Theory

Antropov (2013) showed that the concepts of situated leadership theory as mediating artefacts/tools could be useful in describing and understanding relations between teacher candidates and their associate teachers during practicum. For example, he found that, while associate teachers could disagree with some innovative research-based teaching strategies, they occasionally accepted the role of a follower and allowed their teacher candidates to lead in implementing these strategies.

Von Krogh, Nonaka and Rechsteiner (2012) emphasize close relations between situated leadership theory and organizational knowledge creation theory that they use as an organizing framework to review the literature on leadership studies. Organizational knowledge creation theory can be helpful in supporting the view of a teacher candidate as an "active collaborator in the co-construction of knowledge" (Bullock & Russell, 2010, p. 92-93). The view of leadership in organizational knowledge creation as situational leadership on a continuum from centralized to distributed leadership allows for re-conceptualizing relations between teacher educators and teacher candidates as well. From the situational leadership viewpoint any teacher educator or teacher candidate can become both a leader and a follower depending on specific task or problem situation.

In the literature, leadership is often associated with some central authority and is referred to the style or behavior of top managers of organizations (Chen et al., 2008). Distributed leadership is another perspective (Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2004; Spillane, 2005; Timperley, 2005). Emphasizing the fact that different situations can require different types of leadership, von Krogh, Nonaka and Rechsteiner (2012) view leadership in organizational knowledge creation as situational leadership on a continuum from centralized to distributed leadership at three layers of activity:

a core layer of local knowledge creation; a conditional layer that provides the resources and context for knowledge creation; and a structural layer that forms the overall frame and direction for knowledge creation in the organization. (p. 241)

Following Timperley (2005), the authors argue that, for better understanding the complex interplay between participants, processes, artifacts, and contexts in shaping leadership, it is more important to focus on human activity itself rather than on the roles or leadership traits of the participants involved. By representing the composition of activities, conditions, and structures within different contexts, these three layers (core, conditional, and structural) in their interaction produce a holistic view of the organization, combining micro-level activities with macro-level structures (von Krogh, Nonaka and Rechsteiner, 2012).

While centralized and distributed leadership activities usually associated with formal and informal organizations, respectively, understanding leadership in organizational knowledge creation requires more attention to the intersections between these two types of leadership (von Krogh, Nonaka and Rechsteiner, 2012). In the 'core activity' (informal layer) knowledge is created through direct participants' collaboration in small groups or project teams (Nonaka,1994; Tsoukas, 1996). The 'structural' layer include leadership activities at the level of entire organization such as formal and structured processes for overseeing, coordinating, controlling, building, and formulating procedures, goals, and visions (von Krogh, Nonaka and Rechsteiner, 2012). The 'conditional' layer connects activities in the core activity and the structural layers.

Situated leadership theory is closely related to complexity leadership theory (Uhl-Bien, Marion, & McKelvey, 2007) that comes from complexity theory (Mitchell, 2009). Similarly to activity theory, complexity leadership theory focuses on interactions between the members of collectives and their social context as well as on interactive networking.

Complexity Theory

Antropov (2013) showed that the concepts of complexity theory as mediating artefacts/tools could be useful in describing and understanding interactions between teacher educators' and teacher candidates' perspectives on the role of content, pedagogical and educational research knowledge in practice teaching. In particular, the concept of 'collective

learner' can be helpful in describing and understanding relations between teacher educators and teacher candidates when they arrive at consensus on some issue. For example, in Antropov's (2013) study the research professor who taught an elective course on equity and social justice in mathematics education, the teacher candidate who took this course and the associate teacher who supervised teaching practicum of this teacher candidate formed together a collective learner by sharing interest in educational research in the area of equity and social justice in mathematics education. The theory-practice divide disappeared for this collective learner.

Complexity Leadership Theory (CLT) addresses the shortcoming of current leadership models by developing a new leadership model that influences organizational behavior rather than controlling it, and fosters conditions that enable future states rather than dictating them (Marion, & Uhl-Bien, 2001). CLT comes from Complex Theory, which views complex systems as a "system in which large networks of components with no central control and simple rules of operation give rise to complex collective behavior, sophisticated information processing, and adaptation via learning or evolution" (Mitchell, 2009, p. 13). Mitchell (2009) indicated that some systems are self-organizing, with organization occurring without a leader.

Complexity theory is employed across disciplines in natural sciences, the humanities, social sciences and philosophy (McMurty, 2008). In education, it was used to articulate and develop complexity-based ideas in the context of classrooms (Davis & Simmt, 2003; Davis & Sumara, 2006; Davis, Sumara & Luce-Kapler, 2008) and teacher candidates' field experiences (Clarke & Collins, 2007; Lemisko & Ward, 2010). Traditional natural sciences are concerned with simple (a sum of parts in direct cause-effect relationships) and complicated (sum of parts in probabilistic or statistical relationships) systems (McMurty, 2008). Social sciences often deal with complex systems where outcomes are unpredictable but emerging and displaying a unique pattern (Clarke & Collins, 2007).

McMurty (2008) reminds us that complex systems are self-organizing (emerge through non-linear interaction of their parts), adaptive (change their own structure in response to internal or external pressures) and "embody emergent possibilities that exceed the sum of their parts" (p. 272). Complexivists describe as 'nestedness' the mutual connectedness between individuals and social collectives where "people are embedded or

enfolded within social collectives, and that social collectives embody and unfold from those very persons and their interactions" (McMurty, 2008, p. 272). A similar view of relationship between individuals and social collectives can be found in activity theory (Engström & Miettinen, 1999) and 'communities of practice' (Lave and Wenger, 1991). In particular, the concept of 'nestedness' can be helpful in describing and understanding relations between teacher educators and teacher candidates inside various cohorts within the cohort learning community structure of the same after-degree Bachelor of Education program (Antropov, 2013).

From a complexity theory perspective, a company or academic discipline can be understood as a "collective learner that emerges from the interactions of the people who compose it – and that is itself embedded in larger social organisms such as the education system or the economy" (McMurty, 2008, p. 269). I argue that, similarly, any collective that is composed of university- and school-based teacher educators and teacher candidates can be viewed as a self-organizing, adaptive and nested collective learner. However, without some shared values teacher educators and teacher candidates would not be able to act as the self-organizing, adaptive and nested collective learner.

Values

The human activities themselves embed values, norms and perspectives of those humans (Nazir & Hand, 2006). In particular, teacher candidates' values as mediating artifacts/tools cannot be separated from their activity of learning to teach. Antropov (2013) showed that discussing values with teacher candidates can trigger a dialog about the role of content, pedagogical and educational research knowledge in practice teaching. In particular, he found those teacher candidates are usually sensitive to the issues of equity and social justice in mathematics education. He pointed out that some teacher candidates were able to reconsider their perspective on the role of educational research and pay more attention to it when confronted with the idea that the lack of research-based pedagogy in teaching could adversely affect student learning.

Jurdak (2009) demonstrated how activity theory can be used for describing and understanding inequities in mathematics education in the school context. First, in

Engeström's (1987) activity system model (Figure 4), he identified factors with their attributes that may contribute to inequities in mathematics education at school level. The subject in this activity system was the school student with attributes such as personal traits (e.g., gender, ethnicity, native language), socio-economic background and cultural background. The object was mathematics learning. Second, Jurdak (2009) reviewed and synthesized "the equity-related mathematics education research from journals, conference proceedings, and books, in an attempt to draw a profile of the research findings regarding the inequities that result from the interactions of the attributes of the activity system factors" (p. 51). In particular, based on Stevenson, Lee and Stigler's (1986) finding of correlation between student cultural background and mathematics achievement, he concluded that the interaction between these two attributes in the activity system can contribute to inequity in mathematics education.

Values are important in activity theory. Engeström and Kerosuo (2007) point out that the interacting individuals within the activity system must be "flesh-and-blood dialogue partners who have their own emotions, moral concerns, wills and agendas" (p. 340). Similarly, according to the organisational knowledge creation theory, the purpose of the organisation is to create value (Nonaka, 2007). The values of the organisation's members and their value-based decisions determine the way of life in the organization and the value the organization creates (Nonaka, Toyama & Hirata, 2008). The knowledge-creating organization "creates value by constantly asking and answering on a daily operational basis the human ontological question 'why do we exist?' and the aesthetics question 'what is good?'"(Nonaka, Toyama & Hirata, 2008, p. 3). Values, aesthetics, and ethics are always part of organisational knowledge creation because the essence of the organization is in pursuit of excellence that emerges with commitment and practice to serve the common good of the organization, its members, stakeholders, and the larger society (Nonaka, Toyama & Hirata, 2008).

The growing body of educational research addresses the role of values in teaching various school subjects. For example, Falkenberg and Noyes (2010) point out that "in recent years the mathematics education research community has undergone a social turn towards a greater interest in the values and broader educational purposes of mathematics education, including issues of social justice and citizenship education" (p. 949). In developing a

conceptual framework that links the teaching of school mathematics with moral education, they draw on Johnson's (1993) notion of 'moral understanding' and Dewey's (1975) 'moving ideas'.

Johnson (1993) views moral understanding as moral insightfulness and sensitivity. For him insightfulness is the ability to see the implications of our particular biases, judgments, and convictions. Citing Johnson, Falkenberg and Noyes (2010) define moral sensitivity as ability to

> put ourselves in the place of another, [to] enlarge our own perspective through an imaginative encounter with the experience of others, [to] let our own values and ideals be called into question from various points of view. (Johnson, 1993, p. 199)

Falkenberg and Noyes (2010) state that "moral education, then, has the task of developing moral understanding in learners, thus, helping them to become morally insightful and sensitive"

(p. 950). Based on Dewey's (1975) reasoning for appropriating intellectual ideas "in such a vital way that they become moving ideas, motive-forces in the guidance of conduct" (p. 2), Falkenberg and Noyes (2010) view "the development of intellectual ideas as centrally a *moral* endeavour" (p. 950).

Knowledge Mobilization

Antropov (2013) pointed out that teacher candidates could use the concept of knowledge mobilization as the mediating artefact/tool in their learning to teach. He found that teacher candidates' notion of knowledge mobilization could positively influence their perspective on the role of educational research in practice teaching. For example, one teacher candidate in Antropov's study knew from his spouse about knowledge mobilization/translation in health care research, and other participant expressed her own ideas similar to this concept. Antropov found that, while both of them prioritized content knowledge, they showed interest in educational research findings as well but expected to

learn about them from third parties such as policy makers, designated experts at schools or school boards.

There is a group of stakeholders that considers the theory-practice divide not as a problem but an opportunity: intermediaries involving in knowledge mobilization. Cooper, Levin and Campbell (2009) describe a new field of inquiry, termed knowledge mobilization (KM), emerging to address the theory-practice divide and to strengthen connections between research, practice and policy across sectors, disciplines and countries. Davies, Nutley and Walter (2008) offered to label knowledge mobilization as 'knowledge interaction' to recognize interactive, iterative and contextual view of using research as well as to emphasize social, dialogical and interpretative ways of knowing. Cooper, Levin and Campbell (2009) point out that the last decade can be characterized by a growing interest in incorporating research evidence into practice and policy. The authors state that increasing efforts to guide practice and public policy by evidence derived from research can be observed not only in education but in other services as well such as health care and criminal justice where evidence-based decision making became a primary concern.

Cooper et al. (2009) emphasize that third parties of various kinds play powerful roles in knowledge mobilization. The authors point out that most people, including most professionals, get their knowledge of research not from reading the original studies, but through various mediating processes including professional development events, publications of professional associations, materials provided by lobby groups of various kinds, the transmission of research through places of employment as well as the mass and trade media. Cooper et al. (2009), state that the role of intermediary organizations is changing and new ones are coming onto the scene.

To address the issue of the gap between evidence, policy and practice in education, several third party organizations have been created in Canada such as the Canadian Education Association, a few think tanks with explicit political positions, and Education Research Networks in Ontario and Manitoba (Cooper et al., 2009). The Ontario Education Research Panel (OERP) fosters collaboration among education stakeholders on research issues, advises various parties on education research priorities for Ontario, recommends opportunities for increasing the value and use of research, and organizes an Annual Ontario

Research Symposium (Cooper et al., 2009). Several international organizations, such as the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and the World Bank, support knowledge mobilization and produce analyses and reports on the importance of linking research to policy and practice (OECD, 2007).

Conclusion

A combination of factors can contribute to Canadian after-degree Bachelor of Education programs' difference from those in other countries. Among these contributing factors can be named factors such as the dominance of university-based component, the two-subject secondary teacher certification, and competition for enrolment among applicants. The facts, that all initial teacher education in Canada is university-based and that teacher candidates come to after-degree initial teacher education programs with the prior knowledge of disciplinary research and a range of teaching experiences, make teacher candidates' perspectives on their knowledge of content, pedagogy and educational research especially important in understanding the process of their learning to teach. The competitiveness of Canadian after-degree Bachelor of Education programs and the requirement for two-subject secondary teacher certifications brings the strength and diversity of teacher candidates' educational backgrounds to each university classroom in the program.

The complexity of learning environment such as an after-degree initial teacher education program in general and the above-mentioned specificity of this environment in Canadian context in particular, call for a different conceptual framework for this type of program: the Research Pedagogical and Content Knowledge (RPACK) conceptual framework based on the theoretical foundation of activity theory strengthened by a number of compatible with this framework theories and theoretical perspectives such as organizational knowledge creation theory, situated leadership theory, complexity theory, values and knowledge mobilization.

I viewed the RPACK conceptual framework as an activity system where the subject was the collective of teacher candidates (TCs) utilizing their research pedagogical and content knowledge (RPACK) as the mediating tool in the interactive object-oriented activity

of learning to teach. The object was the enactment of RPACK in teaching during practicum. The outcome was the achievement of the highest possible level of the synergy and synthesis of TCs content, pedagogical and educational research knowledge in teaching. The rules in the activity system were the after-degree initial teacher education program regulations. The community was comprised of teacher candidates, university teacher educators/researchers, associate teachers and students at schools. The division of labour was controlled by university teacher educators/researchers and associate school teachers.

Combined with other mediating artifacts/tools such as organizational knowledge creation theory, situated leadership theory, complexity theory, values and knowledge mobilization, RPACK can provide both teacher educators and teacher candidates with the set of theoretical lenses for describing and understanding the human activity of learning to teach. RPACK help to see the interaction, synergy and synthesis of the three types of teacher candidates' knowledge in practice teaching. Organizational knowledge creation theory explains teacher candidates' tendency to prioritize one type of knowledge over two others during school practicum. Situated leadership theory clarifies relations between teacher candidates and their associate teachers who occasionally accept the role of followers and allow teacher candidates (TCs) to implement the innovative research-based teaching strategies of TCs' choice. Complexity theory provides language for interpreting situations where the theory-practice divide disappears when teacher educators and teacher candidates become one collective learner by arriving at consensus on some issue. Embedded in the human activity of learning, the values of teacher candidates can become a starting point for discussion about educational research on equity and social justice in particular and educational research in general. The notion of knowledge mobilization can spark and support teacher candidates' interest in educational research reports.

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Part II: *Other than geography, what is Canadian about teacher education programmes?*

Chapter 5

"Canada Has No History of Colonialism":
Treaty 4 and Teacher Education at the
University of Regina

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This chapter discusses the role education in Canada has played and continues to play in fostering (or undermining) reconciliation with First Nations people. Through the lens of both critical race and anti-colonial theory, the chapter examines the work Faculties of Education across the country must do to counter the denial, dismissal and ignorance of pre-service teachers with respect to Canada's colonial history and contemporary colonial realities. Situated in Saskatchewan, a province entirely ceded through treaties with First Nations people, the chapter highlights the integral role that mandatory treaty education in the province should play in helping Canadians to think differently about relationships with First Nations people. The chapter articulates research findings that highlight the perspectives of colleagues and students in the Faculty of Education at the University of Regina regarding the actualization of treaty education in teacher education and in schools throughout Saskatchewan. The research is illustrative of the Candian-ness of teacher education as it considers the ways in which teacher education is and might be situated in this country in more intentionally anti-colonial ways, particularly with respect to working toward reconciliation with Aboriginal peoples.

Introduction

I begin this discussion by situating the teacher education program at the University of Regina on Treaty 4 land. As I look out my office window at the vast expanse of sky and prairie that surrounds the University, I am reminded that this geographical location is

significant for a number of reasons. First, it is a reminder, everyday, of the historical relationship between First Nations[5] people and Canadians that resulted in agreements to share the land through the signing of the numbered treaties. Second, it highlights the ongoing importance of treaties to First Nations people and settler Canadians, particularly as efforts are made to engage in reconciliation and imagine Canada differently. Third, situating the Faculty of Education in which I work on Treaty 4 land serves as a cogent reminder of the role that treaties and the treaty relationship must play in preparing pre-service and in-service teachers to work alongside students in schools across the country. Most importantly, however, situating this discussion in a socio-geographical space where the ongoing legacies of colonialism play out every day in multiple ways challenges Prime Minister Stephen Harper's statement that Canada "has no history of colonialism" (O'Keefe, 2009, p.1). This is a necessary and urgent challenge as the Prime Minister's statement has something to say about the dominant narrative of Canada, past and present, subscribed to by many citizens from coast to coast. This narrative fails to account for the complex lives of First Nations people prior to colonization as it re-inscribes a belief in terra nullis, the existence of an empty or almost empty land (Miller 2009). Furniss (1999) describes this as the 'frontier myth' and Wright (2008) reiterates this in his claim that 'the mythic history we have all soaked up describes the land as a "virgin wilderness" or a "primaeval forest" inhabited by only a handful of "wild men" or "savages"' (p. 48). The vast expanse of 'empty' prairie (treaty land) in the southern part of Saskatchewan lends itself to the perpetuation of this narrative for white settler Canadians.

Shawn Atleo (2009), the head of the Assembly of First Nations in Canada responded to the Prime Minister's claim that Canada has no history of colonialism by stating, "the future cannot be built without regard to the past (http://digitaljournal.com/article/280003)", yet the Prime Minister's comments reflect a complete dismissal of the colonial history of Canada, one I suspect, many Canadians are also happy to dismiss or remain ignorant about.

Ralston Saul (2008) writes,

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[5] I am mindful of the importance of naming and so use the term First Nations when I am discussing the signatories of the numbered treaties. In other instances, I use the term Aboriginal to include First Nations, Métis and Inuit peoples of Canada, all of whom have played a pivotal role in the history of Canada and continue to experience the ongoing legacies of colonialism.

Why do we continue to stumble and resist and deny when it comes to this Aboriginal role in Canada? The most obvious answer is that we don't know what to do with the least palatable part of the settler story. We wanted the land. It belonged to someone else. We took it. We then dressed up our right to this land, along with our shoddy disrespect for the treaties, in a heartfelt conviction that the original owners were dying off (p. 27).

This statement is suggestive of the ways in which dominant Canadians today are implicated in colonialism, through denial, dismissal, and ignorance. While there are broader socio-political considerations at play in this colonial project, my discussion will focus on the role that education has played and continues to play in fostering (or undermining) reconciliation with First Nations people. More specifically, I will explore the important role that Faculties of Education must play in countering the denial, dismissal and ignorance Ralston Saul refers to. Living and working in a province entirely ceded through treaties with First Nations people, I will highlight the integral role that treaty education plays in helping Canadians to think differently about relationships with First Nations people. Finally, I will share the perspectives of colleagues and students in the Faculty of Education at the University of Regina regarding the actualization of treaty education in teacher education and in schools throughout Saskatchewan.

Situating Myself in the 'Landscape' of Canada

The partnership between First Nations people and non-First Nations people in Canada has been an integral part of the history of this country and the numbered treaties exemplify these partnerships. However, as historian J.R. Miller (2009) asserts, treaties are one of the 'paradoxes of Canadian history. Although they have been an important feature of the country since the earliest days…relatively few Canadians understand what they are or the role they have played in the country's past" (p. 3). This statement is borne out in many ways at the University of Regina by students, staff and faculty and I will return to this later in my discussion. When I arrived in Regina in 2004, having taught high school social studies in Edmonton and after completing graduate work at the University of Alberta, the importance of treaties and the treaty relationship was relatively unknown to me despite the fact that I

had grown up on Treaty 6 land. My experiences as a student and as a teacher in Edmonton failed to include consideration of the historical and contemporary importance of treaties and hardly included considerations of Canada as a colonial state.

As a former classroom teacher, I am implicated in perpetuating ignorance about the foundational importance of treaties amongst my students through my pedagogical and curricular choices in the classroom. For example, in teaching my social studies students about the history of Canada, I largely ignored the important role played by First Nations people in shaping the nation. Rather, I focussed on the role of the British and French in 'building' the country, reproduced the narrative of Canada as an empty land settled by hard working men and women of European descent, filled with strength and fortitude, barely touching on the reasons why the Métis people of Saskatchewan rose up against the government in the 'Riel Rebellion'. Dion (2009) notes, "Stories that dominate Canadian history reflect an unwillingness and inability to come to terms with the reality of Canada's relationship with Aboriginal people" (p. 5). Certainly, the stories included in the social studies curriculum I was teaching to my students, and my choice to re-tell these stories, did not create opportunities for engagement with the importance of historical and contemporary relationships with Aboriginal peoples.

If we agree, as Alcoff (2007) argues, that all knowers are situated and that this is correlated to social identity, then my social identity as a student and as a teacher cannot be considered separate from the socially sanctioned history of Canada I learned in school and reproduced as a teacher.   This identity is very much a white settler identity produced through a white settler society "established by Europeans on no-European soil. Its origins lie in the dispossession and near extermination of Indigenous populations" (Razack, 2002, p. 2). White settler identities, Sterzuk (2011) reminds, depend on colonial discourses that reproduce "forgetfulness about the past". Certainly my experiences as a white settler classroom teacher allowed (even required) such 'forgetfulness' in my own students. But it also required 'dysconsciousness', described by King (1991) as 'an uncritical habit of mind'. I was not critical of the knowledge I was reproducing, did not ask critical questions about the story being told through the socially sanctioned foundational narrative of Canada, and did not really require my students to engage in a process of critique, a much different skill than the curricular outcome of 'critical thinking'. My white settler identity prevented me from

meaningful teaching, reinforced by the white settler teacher education program I attended as an undergraduate student – the place on Treaty 6 land where I 'learned' to teach.

Anti-Colonial and Critical Race Theory

It was not until graduate school that I began to engage with anti-colonial and critical race theory (CRT) and not until I moved to Regina that I considered this theory in light of the significance of the numbered treaties to the political, social and geographical landscape of Canada (Tupper & Cappello, 2008). In many ways, this socio-political landscape I found myself working in, where First Nations voices in education were more evident and abundant, and my close proximity to First Nations University of Canada, became a catalyst for my commitment to thinking and teaching differently along with the theories I had encountered in my PhD work. Simply, anti-colonialism requires reading the history of Canada differently, disrupting notions of progress embedded in narratives of European expansion/diffusion, narratives that require an expulsion of Indigenous peoples from consideration (Pratt, 2004). Wane (2008) notes,

> 'Doing something' about Indigenous people ranges from genocide and rewriting history to denying their existence, devaluing their knowledges, and debasing their cultural beliefs and practices. This has been done through, among other mechanisms, western systems of education, texts, and literature, thereby making the business of education and knowledge production contested terrains (pp. 183-184).

Anti-colonial theory thus makes apparent not only dominant narratives of the past, but how these narratives came to be dominant in the first place, especially through the structures of schooling and the discursive production of social identities that sustain them.

Critical race theory works, I believe, in tandem with anti-colonial thought as it endeavours to reveal omissions, distortions and stereotypes in socially sanctioned dominant and racialized narratives of the past and present (Ladson-Billings, 1998). Through naming race and racism as two vital features ingrained within North American society, CRT works to reveal the ways in which dominant discourses of our society appear normal and natural (Ladson-Billings, 1998). In her consideration of curriculum in light of CRT, Yosso (2002) argues for exposing white privilege "supported by traditional curriculum structures" (p. 93).

She maintains that challenging racialized curriculum has the potential to create more equitable schools and society. Thus, CRT offers a lens through which to critique school curriculum (including the curriculum of teacher education) as reinforcing and reproducing white privilege. White settler identities are dependent upon such reproductions of white privilege. To counteract the role of curriculum in sustaining dominance and privilege, CRT advocates the use of counter stories to reveal types of discrimination that are implicit in dominant curricular discourses when only certain content and perspectives are included. By telling counter stories, it is hoped that a process of adjustment in dominant belief systems and categories will begin (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). Ladson-Billings (1998) writes,

> It is because of the meaning and value imputed to whiteness that CRT becomes an important intellectual and social tool for deconstruction, reconstruction, and construction: deconstruction of oppressive structures and discourses, reconstruction of human agency, and construction of equitable and socially just relations of power (p. 9).

CRT thus allows a more nuanced consideration of the place I inhabit – land ceded through the signing of treaty 4 and its significance to white settlers, past and present, along with the (white settler) landscape of the teacher education programme in which I work.

Treaties and the Landscape of Saskatchewan

Because of the historical and contemporary importance of treaties and the treaty relationship to the people of Saskatchewan (whether they are aware of this importance or not), in the fall of 2008, the Provincial Government announced mandatory treaty education for all students in the province. To be clear, this mandate came after a decade of hard work on the part of the Office of the Treaty Commissioner in Saskatchewan, alongside teachers, educating them about the importance of treaties and the treaty relationship, and helping them to think through how this knowledge might be integrated into classrooms throughout the province. Thus, the work of treaty education had begun long before the mandate, but the mandate helped to strengthen the importance and urgency of this work in much broader and sustained ways. The Office of the Treaty Commissioner (OTC) responded to this mandate by creating Treaty Essential Learnings (TELS) and corresponding resources for each grade level, K-12. This is the first initiative of its kind in Canada, with significant implications for

education in all provinces, especially as Canadians think about past, current, and future relationships with First Nations, Métis and Inuit peoples.

Treaty Essential Learnings make explicit what students should know and understand about treaties, the treaty relationship, the historical context of treaties, First Nations' worldviews, symbolism in treaty making and contemporary treaty issues (Office of the Treaty Commissioner, 2008). They include in-depth teachings about the historical relationship with First Nations people, including the Indian Act and the many other failures to uphold the spirit and intent of the treaties. These Learnings are anti-colonial as they invite students and teachers to (re)consider their understanding of the history of the province in light of treaties and the treaty relationship. For example, in learning about the Treaty right to education and the ways in which the Indian Act undermined this right, especially through a system of residential schools intended to destroy Aboriginal culture and language, students may come to appreciate the urgent need for reconciliation and think differently about their own role as citizens of Canada (Tupper, 2012). Denial, dismissal, and ignorance are actively challenged through the corresponding resources which include the voices and experiences of First Nations people in Saskatchewan, primary source documents, and pedagogical approaches that incorporate First Nations' knowledge and perspectives. The Treaty Essential Learnings support the goals of Critical Race Theory through the counter stories they offer students. The historical and contemporary perspectives of Aboriginal people and ways of knowing challenge dominant narratives of the past and currently held stereotypes of Aboriginal people. They illustrate that Canada not only has a history of colonialism, the legacies of colonialism continue to play out every day for Aboriginal peoples in Canada.

Prior to the announcement of mandatory treaty education, and despite the efforts of the OTC to support teachers, there was not widespread attention to treaty education in schools (Cappello & Tupper, 2006). Anecdotally, preceding the mandate, many pre-service and in-service teachers shared with me their beliefs that Treaty Education was best implemented in 'Aboriginal Schools' by Aboriginal teachers, an example of the act of dismissal anti-colonialism critiques. More broadly, the Office of the Treaty Commissioner frames treaty education as a means of combating racism experienced by Aboriginal people and notes the importance for ALL schools and students in Saskatchewan. Treaty education is anti-racist and anti-colonial education. While the legislation of treaty education in

Saskatchewan is to be celebrated, especially because this is a province entirely ceded through treaties, a central concern exists regarding implementation and the ways in which pre-service teachers are being supported by the two faculties of education in the province to take up this mandate in meaningful ways in their own classrooms.

The Prime Minister's very public dismissal of the historical and contemporary colonial legacies experienced by Aboriginal peoples, despite all the evidence to the contrary, and his failure to acknowledge the ongoing benefits to non-Aboriginal Canadians of living within a colonial nation, speaks of an urgent project for teacher education in this country. Working within a teacher education programme in Ontario, Dion (2009) discusses the need for remembrance as a source of radical renewal. She writes,

> In the class and in the assignment, I use the act of remembrance to raise awareness of the ways in which the identities of both Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people in Canada have been shaped by the colonial encounter and its aftermath. The construction of this ethical awareness among teachers is a promising way to progressively transform relationships between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people in the Canadian educational system (p. 190).

This project of remembrance, and being situated on land once occupied by Aboriginal peoples, marks the uniqueness of teacher education in Canada. Having said that, the abilities of teacher education programmes in Canada to counter (mis)understandings, such as those articulated by Prime Minister Harper, given the pervasiveness of these (mis)understandings in teacher education candidates (Tupper, 2011), and resistance from teacher educators, are still in question.

Treaty 4 and Teacher Education at the University of Regina

Certainly, many teacher education programmes across the country articulate social justice as a goal / mission The OISE website, for example, states "Guided by our commitment to equity and social justice, and mindful of our special responsibility to lead, we will enhance our impact as we continue to shape how the world thinks and goes about education" (http://www.oise.utoronto.ca/oise). Similarly, the mission statement of the Faculty of Education at Lakehead University makes explicit a commitment "to social and

environmental responsibilities, and to Aboriginal peoples" (www. http://education.lakeheadu.ca). However, it is the recent Accord on Indigenous Education (2010) supported by the Association of Canadian Deans of Education, that envisions a more specific social justice agenda, that of pan-Canadian commitments to indigenizing teacher education spaces. The Accord states "...Indigenous knowledge systems have a central position in educational policy, curriculum, and pedagogy in order to make significant improvements in Indigenous education" (p.2). Culturally responsive approaches to schooling for Aboriginal youth are integral (Battiste, 2000; Castagano & Brayboy, 2008), but so too is work with settler students to interrogate their own privileges in light of treaties and colonial practices (Tupper, 2011). To realize the Accord, individuals (faculty members and sessional instructors) working in Faculties of Education must be open to anti-colonial practices, and be willing to critically examine the ways that dominant and dominated racial positions in teacher education classes and K-12 classrooms are discursively and pedagogically produced (Sterzuk & Mulholland, 2011).

Den Heyer's (2009) exploration of social studies teacher educators' encounters with a new curriculum in which Aboriginal perspectives feature more prominently, points to the challenges of thinking differently about what and how we teach. He describes the resistance of the social studies education instructors in his Faculty to the inclusion of First Nations, Métis and Inuit content in the new Alberta Program of Studies, and their reluctance to engage differently in their teaching in consideration of these changes. St. Denis (2011) and Dion (2009) each draw attention to the need for non-Aboriginal teachers to acknowledge and grapple with the way curricular content and pedagogical practices may further dehumanize Aboriginal peoples. Donald (2009) advocates for decolonization through deconstruction of the shared past between Aboriginal peoples and Canadians and a recognition that our 'present and future are similarly tied together" (p. 5). In our Faculty, treaty education offers a place from which to begin this difficult work and as such, our teacher education programme at the University of Regina is committed to supporting the mandate for treaty education.

Treaty education is, as I have already noted, much more than teaching the facts of the signing of the numbered treaties. It creates the opportunities for deconstructing our shared past that Donald (2009) advocates and disrupting dominant white narratives that

Ladson-Billings (1998) calls for. Recently, and as part of a Social Sciences and Humanities Research funded project focussing on treaty education, I worked with a group of grade 6 students in a predominantly white urban school in Saskatchewan. My involvement with the students in this class and the stipulations of the research project required that I spend time working with the young people to acquire some foundational knowledge of treaties and the treaty relationship. This meant ascertaining what they knew and understood about the historical and contemporary significance of treaties, including the failure of the Federal Government to honour its treaty promises and of course, the passage of the Indian Act in 1876 which completely undermined the treaty relationship. The Grade 6's were shocked to learn that the Indian Act allowed for the establishment of a Pass System, preventing First Nations peoples' freedom of movement among reserves. They were shocked to learn that the purpose of Residential Schools was to destroy Aboriginal language, culture and identity, and that children were forcibly removed from their communities. One young boy commented "I can't believe this happened in Canada!" Another student shared that "this was so sad" and yet another wondered how this could have been allowed to go on. They were dismayed to hear that the amount of land promised to First Nations peoples in the treaties was often not fulfilled, and that in some cases, First Nations people were relocated from their reserve land if it was deemed of great agricultural value to settlers. Comments such as "that's not fair" were common amongst the students during this part of the lesson (Miller, 2009). There were many other treaty failures I discussed with the students along with how these failures translated into privileges for white settler Canadians. These anti-colonial teachings disrupted students' understandings of Canadian history, creating the conditions for thinking differently about our relationships with First Nations people today.

Resistance to Treaty Education

In Winter, 2010, 46 faculty and 370 students in the teacher education programme at the University of Regina were invited to participate in in-depth interviews focussed on treaty education as part of a larger research project I was conducting supported by an internal grant from the President's SSHRC fund. My purpose for this research was to explore, in-depth, both the extent to which and the ways in which the Faculty of Education at the University of Regina prepares pre-service teachers to implement mandatory treaty education. Emails were

sent to all Faculty members with a description of the research project and a request for participation. We invited student participation by visiting several large Core Studies courses as well as smaller subject area methods classes and explaining the purpose of the research to students. In total 8 faculty members and 17 students consented to speak about their perceptions of treaty education. In the discussion that follows, I highlight three themes that emerged from this research: This is a multicultural province; Disrupting ignorance, and: Their templates are too full. These themes are explored particularly as they reflect the challenges faced in supporting the treaty education mandate in our education courses and alongside our students.

This is a Multicultural Province

Several faculty members who participated in the research described, in one way or another, their experiences of resistance from pre-service teachers to the inclusion of Aboriginal content in education classes. One participant described the resistance from students as resentment that 'those people' [First Nations] get so much attention (Interview 5, March 8/10). Similarly, another participant commented,

> There has been resistance on the part of some students to say, "well, why are we focussing so much on First Nations education? This is a multicultural province. How come we're not doing the history of everybody?", and so on. So I think that's part of it (Interview 1, Feb. 11/10).

Many of the teacher education students who agreed to be interviewed also spoke about the resistance they observed from their peers to treaty education, particularly as it was couched in multicultural discourse. One student noted,

> Every time I said, 'you guys need to teach – you need to start trying to teach treaty education." Every time I was doing this, somebody would put their hand up and say "well why do I have to teach that, but I don't have to teach Chinese culture?" (ID 29, March 26/10).

These comments mirror the concerns expressed by St. Denis (2011) that Canada's official policy of Multiculturalism is used as "a pretext to justify refusal for an authentic engagement with Aboriginal people, culture, and history" (p. 313). She argues that

Multiculturalism undermines the importance of including Aboriginal content and perspectives in school curriculum and the descriptions of student resistance to treaty education raised by Faculty support this argument. Similarly, Dion (2009) worries that multicultural discourses make it difficult for teachers to recognize and respond to the uniqueness of Aboriginal history and experiences in Canada. This statement is borne out by the experiences of faculty members in this research study. Their perceptions suggest that in order to help students meaningfully engage in treaty education, foundational work must be done to re-educate them about the history of Canada.

Another faculty participant described some of the resistance to treaty education she had experienced from students in her classes, noting "if you learn anything that makes you uncomfortable and shifts your worldview, that's not easy" (Interview 6, March 9/10). Because treaty education is disruptive to dominant understandings of the place in which we live and the privileges we enjoy, resistance from students is not surprising. Resistance may be precipitated when our knowledge of the history of Canada and our understandings of relationships with First Nations peoples is disrupted. This disruption has the potential to be unsettling (Farley, 2009), especially when white settler knowledge and identities have largely gone untroubled. Rethinking the foundational story of Canada, and understanding the implications of this story for reconciliation with First Nations people enters the domain of 'difficult knowledge' (Britzman, 1998). Difficult knowledge speaks to both the traumatic content of knowledge (the harrowing experiences of First Nations people as a result of settler invasion and treaty failures, for example) and the intra-psychic conflict it may evoke as a result of coming to know the past differently (Farley, 2009). Much of what students thought they understood about the past, the present and their own identities as Canadians, no longer holds true (Tupper, 2012).

What is also worth noting in this discussion are some of the more subtle resistances from faculty to the work of treaty education even when they overtly express support for it. For example, there were participants who spoke about their worry they would encounter student resistance if they engaged in treaty education, but they had yet to do this work in their own teaching. One faculty member spoke about what she perceived as potential student resistance if she were to take up treaty education, acknowledging that she hadn't

actually done so and tended to frame things in the context of 'differing world views' instead (Interview 8, March 17/10, p. 7). It is possible that fears of resistance are used to justify a lack of engagement with treaty education amongst these individuals, thus protecting their white settler identities from further disruption. It is also possible that these fears are reflective of what Sterzuk (2011) describes as the "resiliency of colonial and settler ideologies and discourses that make decolonization difficult" (p. 48). Further, the suggestion by two of the participants that treaty education happens in Indigenous Studies 100, or in the Education Social Studies methods classes, and as such, is not a priority in other subject area or education courses is problematic.

The mandate for treaty education in Saskatchewan is not subject-area specific, it requires a K-12 interdisciplinary approach. As such, the Faculty of Education should support the mandate in an integrative, interdisciplinary way as well. Sometimes it is easier to believe that treaty education should happen in Social Studies or Indigenous Studies spaces, thus divesting us of our responsibilities to carry this work into our own teaching, especially if it requires engaging with content and epistemologies that may be unfamiliar and / or unsettling. It mirrors to some extent the response of schools to the mandate. While I do not have empirical research data to support this statement, I have spoken to enough teachers and spent enough time in schools to understand anecdotally that teachers are struggling to integrate treaty education across subject areas if they are even teaching treaties and the treaty relationship at all.

Disrupting Ignorance

The student participants in this study were able to discuss their perceptions of the importance of treaty education and the benefits to Saskatchewan students of this curricular mandate. Five of these students reinforced a larger social perception that Aboriginal education is mostly for Aboriginal students but others were able to speak about the ways in which treaty education is corrective to negative perceptions of First Nations people. One student noted that, "if schools aren't providing [treaty education], there's going to be ignorance and continuation of discrimination" (ID 32, April 7, 2010). Another stated, "we don't understand each other as it is...if you have a better understanding of each other, you're going to help each other out. There's not such a barrier" (ID 54, April 15, 2010). Yet another offered, "If the schools aren't providing treaty education, there's going to be

ignorance and continuation of discrimination or racism" (ID 32, April 7, 2010). Comments such as these reinforce Dion's (2009) claim that fostering awareness amongst Canadians of the stories of Aboriginal people is an important place from which to begin cultivating more equitable and ethical relationships. These students had enough of a sense of the story of Canada through the lens of treaties and the treaty relationship that they were able to see the possibilities for disrupting ignorance. This is the anti-colonial and anti-racist power of treaty education.

Despite this recognition that treaty education is an important counter story, those pre-service teachers interviewed expressed concern about implementation, noting their own lack of knowledge, a worry that sufficient supports in schools do not exist for teachers to do this important work, and a concern that their own teacher education programme has not sufficiently prepared them to meaningfully engage in treaty education. When asked if education classes had provided adequate preparation for implementing the mandate, one student responded, "not as much as I would have liked. I've only made one lesson, one single lesson. And I feel like I'm missing a lot with that" (ID 91, April 15, 2010). Another noted,

> As far as within the Faculty of Education, I'd say not at all. But being a social studies major it's mandatory that we take three Indigenous Studies classes, that has definitely helped. And then my own curiosity and my own motivation (ID 32, April 7, 2010).

One student in third year of the teacher education programme offered the following,

> Can I say I've been pissed off? Well I've been pissed off because it's one of those things that we get to the last week and they're "oh we'll cover some treaty stuff". Like we asked [Education Professional Studies] instructors, "can you bring in an elder? Can we meet an elder and see what kind of resource we have when we get out there?" and the response is "I'll see what I can do." I'm going into my fourth year and it hasn't happened yet (ID 190, April 23, 2010).

And yet another student said, "I wish that I had more. I understand there's only so much time...I still feel relatively unprepared" (ID 197, May 5, 2010). The perceptions of these students are suggestive of the culpability of faculty members, and the Faculty of Education

as a whole, in not doing enough to support the treaty education mandate through the preparation of pre-service teachers. They may exemplify the ways in which the "curricular understandings and pedagogical styles" that faculty actualize are "intrinsically tied to who they are: how they are socially, economically and politically positioned as well as how they personally identify as educational professionals and members of an academic community" (Malewski, 2008, p. 138).

Their Templates Are Too Full

Not part of the research project I have been discussing, but important to comment on nonetheless, were conversations with colleagues that occurred at our Fall Faculty Seminar in August, 2011. Working in small groups, we engaged in conversations about Indigenizing our teacher education programme. The importance of foundational knowledge for students was raised, specifically the role of Indigenous Studies 100, and the ways in which we might built on the knowledge students gained from taking that class in the context of becoming teachers. Many of our students are already required to take Indigenous Studies 100 but some are not. Specifically, secondary Business Education Majors, secondary Physical Education Majors, and students in the five-year Arts Education Programme, do not take this class. To be clear, I am not suggesting that Indigenous Studies alone is sufficient in disrupting dominant belief systems or providing the necessary supports for students to implement treaty education. However, it is a beginning place. In the small group I participated in, this issue was raised, and my colleague in Business Education was challenged to provide a rationale for why his students were not required to take this class. What was his response? "Their templates are too full."

What sense can be made of this statement given the importance of treaties and the treaty relationship? How does such a statement work to undermine processes of reconciliation that embody anti-colonial thinking? How might this be read in light of the comments offered by the pre-service teacher participants in the research study? My colleague is a good person who cares deeply about teacher education, but his statement, "their templates are too full," suggests that everything else these students take – classes within and outside the Faculty of Education – are more important and useful than anything Indigenous Studies might offer. It is colonialism writ large, a re-inscription of white settler identities, an active production of ignorance (Bailey, 2007). Since that conversation, and in

my role as Associate Dean, I have asked that all areas not requiring Indigenous Studies look carefully at their templates to find space for its inclusion. The silence has been deafening. On the one hand then, we are a Faculty that expresses a commitment to treaty education, but on the other hand, our actualization of this commitment is questionable.

Where Do We Go From Here?

As I contemplate the question "where do we do we go from here?" I find myself once again looking out my window at the vast expanse of sky and prairie. This is Treaty 4 land. The geographical landscape means something for teacher education at the University of Regina and across the country. I am reminded of Epp's (2008) concern that Canadians tend to think about reconciliation with Aboriginal people in terms of what *they* want, rather than how we, as settlers, are implicated in colonialism and racism. Conversations with faculty and students about the importance of treaty education and the ways in which this mandate is being supported in our teacher education programme are illustrative of the complexities, challenges, and urgencies of our work. We need to be much more intentional and deliberate in actualizing the mandate in our education classes. We need to be prepared for resistance from students and colleagues by understanding its origins as well as how to respond to it in ways that invite individuals to think differently about the history of this Country, rather than alienating them from such conversations. These conversations are illustrative of the Candian-ness of teacher education as we consider the ways in which teacher education is and might be situated in this country in more intentionally anti-colonial ways, particularly with respect to working toward reconciliation with Aboriginal peoples. We are beginning these discussions in our Faculty, creating anti-colonial spaces and pedagogical opportunities, considering social identities and how they situate us. All of our secondary pre-internship students for the first time ever are participating in a two-day Treaty Education Workshop facilitated by the OTC. When these students are in their internship semester in the fall, they will be required to actualize the mandate for treaty education in their classrooms, regardless of their subject areas. Treaty Education is named as a competency on the internship evaluation forms for all of our students. And we will continue to advocate for all education students to take Indigenous Studies 100 as a minimum requirement. These are good beginnings.

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Chapter 6

Incorporating the notion of northern "place" into Teacher Education for Northern Alberta

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Grande Prairie Regional College

Foreknowledge of "place" is desirable for teacher service in northern Canada. One teacher education program in northern Alberta tries to do this through a multifaceted course on conditions of teaching in that province's provincial north. Focus is on the natural, historical and contemporary circumstances that affect the experience of schooling in this part of Canada's north. Emphasis is given to natural factors of boreal climate and ecology that continue to context the northern school, along with the impact on schooling of having been Canada's last and most northerly homesteading frontier, and the impact of now being at the heart of Alberta's oil and gas activities today. Special attention is given to the residential school experience of the Aboriginal population of northern Alberta, along with consideration of the possible effects on the classroom in remote Native communities today. Attention to improvement of schooling success in that last area of northern education is perhaps the greatest challenge facing Canadian teacher education today.

Introduction

Northern Alberta is one part of Canada's huge boreal north, the largest physiographic region in the country, stretching from British Columbia to Quebec. In fact, it is part of the largest physiographic region in the world, stretching in a continuous belt through all northern countries. It broadly occupies the latitudes between 55 and 60 degrees north. In many ways our boreal north is Canada's forgotten north, lying between the cosmopolitanism of the southern cities and the dramatic tales of Arctic adventure. Yet were one to ask most Canadians - and non-Canadians even more likely – for iconic images of Canada, then

toques, checked shirts, loons on northern lakes, moose wading in a reed rimmed ponds, tangled black spruce against setting sun, snow lying in dark northern woods would figure largely. These are actually all images of one region – the boreal north. The challenge is that knowledge of the region often stops at these images, importantly short of an informed introduction to the conditions of school-teaching there.

As part of that boreal north, Northern Alberta is essentially everything north of Edmonton up to the border with the Northwest Territories. It constitutes more than one third of the province, while making up only one-twentieth of the population, fifteen percent of whom are Aboriginal, one hundred times the 0.15% weighting for the province as a whole. There may not be such a thing as an entirely unique character to that schooling, but there has been its own experience. That experience still affects teaching conditions today, especially among the Aboriginal population.

Teacher education in Canada is served by different programs that reflect their provincial location. Out of necessity these programs include mirror images of the curricula and school governance legislation of their respective political jurisdictions. It is rarely thought necessary to incorporate in these programs descriptions of physiographic features and historical schooling memories as elements that importantly affect the conditions of being a teacher in that region. This creates a situation of "necessary but not sufficient" the further north one goes in anticipation of teacher service. Awareness of location is essential to informed teaching in northern regions outside the larger conurbations of southern Canada. What follows is an overview of the rationale and content of the place based element within a program designed for teachers-in-training for Northern Alberta.

The teacher-education program at Grande Prairie Regional College was developed collaboratively with the University of Alberta in order to enhance hiring and retention of teachers in Northern Alberta, especially in the more isolated communities. All components of the program are delivered with the northern context in mind. One program element in particular, the one focussed upon here, aims to explore how conditions of schooling here may be affected by the natural, human, and education history of the region. Because no published materials existed in the form of commercial texts, the material was collected over many years, beginning with personal experience by this teacher-author, including times of

frustration and failure, in the classrooms of the region. That experience was gained most extensively in the Peace River Country of the northwest and most hauntingly in Fort Chipewyan in the extreme northeast, where you can still place your hand in the iron rings drilled into the Shield rock to anchor the canoes of Alexander Mackenzie. It is also based on wide-ranging research and interviews conducted with graduates and active educators in schools and communities of northern Alberta, work carried out over the last decade. That material is now incorporated in the draft of a more permanent publication. The aim throughout has been to provide an awareness of this "place"; of what it means to teach "here".

Course material appropriate to that aim entails dealing with the physical nature of the region, its broad human history, the mental heritage from early stages of schooling, and the present socio-economic and ethnic character of its northern towns, villages, and remote communities with the implications for school-community relations today. It must include the impact of residential schooling on the Native communities of the region, the transition from residential schools to 'integration' in provincial public schools, along with the evolution of Métis Settlement schooling, a unique feature of northern Alberta. Also unique in size, governance, and mission is Northland school division #61, whose uneven success in raising academic achievement levels to approximation with general provincial results led to a government inquiry in 2011. Related to these factors are some modest suggestions on the implications for the classroom of some possible differences in cultural imperatives between non-Native teachers, and Native students and parents.

What follows here is an introduction to those dimensions of northern Alberta as a teaching place.

Schools in a landscape

The further north one goes, the relevance of place to the nature of schooling rests increasingly on the physical nature of that higher latitude. We are accustomed to the term 'natural history' as a field of study, yet the concept contains an odd dissonance. History is traditionally regarded as the study of changing human situations, yet we usually conceive of 'nature' as representing unchanging physical situations. This incongruence was reflected in W. L. Morton's 1970 farewell address to the Canadian Historical Society, when he

prophesied that the meaning of Canadian history would be found " *where there is no history; in the Canadian North"*. Leaving aside Morton's failure to recognize the pre-European contact experience of Aboriginal peoples in our North, we are aware of the existential difference between the two anytime we step off the highway into the northern woods.

> There is an almost invisible line that a person of the invading culture could walk across: out of history and into a perpetual present, a way of life attuned to the slower and steadier processes of nature. (Snyder, 2003, p.14)

It is this difference in rhythm that is so evident the further north one moves, as the proportions alter between human and natural presence. No institution represents this difference more than the northern schoolroom. Within its walls the emphasis was and still is on the study of the record of changing human actions and accumulation of knowledge aimed at control of nature. Outside the walls the northern woods persist in their perpetual present.

Northern nature in winter and the nature of northern winter are key aspects of the provincial north for schoolteachers, because schooling is a winter activity. Aboriginal schooling before European contact did indeed occur year round, modelling its pedagogy in step with the seasonal hunting and gathering rounds of that system of production. On the other hand, because Europe had experienced two millennia of settled agriculture supporting small urban populations, its schooling followed a different rhythm. The immigrants from Europe were accustomed to school attendance in the months when the children would not be required for field work. So European schooling was, and remains, an institutional activity associated most with winter and the further north the truer this becomes, because, as arrestingly stated by Canadian historians, W. Coates and W. Morrison, "Without winter, North is only a direction, not a place"(Coates and Morrison, 2001, p.23).

There are many aspects of the physical world of boreal north to highlight in an orientation to northern Alberta: the winter evening constellations like diamonds overhead, the clear blue skies of morning and those cloudless nights when such energy as has been gained by day flows back into the heat sink of the universe; the iconic moose stepping with its piston like

legs through forest snow, exchanging the freezing air with its inner blood warmth through its extraordinary nose; the *chick-a-dee-dee-dee* of the bravest little bird that abides all through winter, along with the guttural, glottal *quork-quork* of the huge northern raven from high in the tall conifers; the profile of the spires of spruce, pine and fir silhouetted against the red dying sky of a winter afternoon. Such images as these from northern Alberta were used to represent Canada's north in the first Hollywood movie ever filmed in Canada, Nell Shipman's *Back to God's Country* (1919), which set the climactic dog-sled race against a backdrop of Lesser Slave Lake, and most recently in *Hank Williams; First Nation* (2005), starring Gordon Tootoosis, with its opening shot from a plane of a moose loping its way through the snow-covered forest of the north Peace Country. Richard Wagamese, Aboriginal author from northern Ontario, described the transformative experience of embracing the northern bush.

> There's a moment in this life that I love every time it happens. It's that moment when you step into the bush and feel it close behind you. Kinda like the door to a favourite room. Only this room is the biggest one in the world and it's full of everything you want around you. You look straight ahead of you at that moment and all you can see is the power of the rough and tangle. Something as important as direction gets all erased by the power of nature, the land expressing itself. The rough and tangle. You take a hundred steps and stop. In every direction there is only the law of the land. Those areas where there are no paths, no blazes on trees, no sound of roads or motors to comfort your city senses and no end to it all, are those places where the magic happens. The door to nature's room closing behind you.
> (Wagamese, 1994, p.168)

Such sensitivities are the potential heritage of all Canadians, not only Aboriginal Canadians. W.L. Morton believed that "this alternate penetration of the wilderness and return to civilization…is the basic rhythm of Canadian life, the violence of the one and the restraint required by the other" to be like the deep rhythm of our blood beat, felt silently by us all

(Morton, 1961, p.5).The further north the more this is sensed and experienced, perhaps in the schoolroom most of all.

Indigenes and Immigrants

The impact on the classroom of Native/non-Native contact in the boreal north differs from that of the parkland of central Alberta and the short grass prairies of the south. The economic basis of traditional Native culture on the plains ended with the collapse of the buffalo herds there in the 1870s. The bands of central Alberta were displaced by the colonization efforts of the federal government at the end of the 19th century. The provincial north, on the other hand, which had been the site of the first Aboriginal-European contact, remained the location of longest lasting commercial collaboration in the fur-trade, from the late 18th to the early 20th century. That trade did indeed alter the balance of the traditional system; alter but not destroy, by incorporating the cash income element within the continuing hunting and gathering of a subsistence economy. This modified system of production enabled the core life values of the Cree, Chipewyan, and Beaver nations of the provincial north to survive long into the 20th century, even resisting the pressures of the residential schools toward assimilation.

The impact on the Aboriginals of a Euro-Canadian presence in Alberta's north began, of course, with the fur-trade, but the numbers were small. Nonetheless the effect was significant, and not only in its alteration of the Native system of production from a three-legged (hunting, fishing, gathering) to a four-legged arrangement to include commercial trapping. The hunting returns became increasingly strained as animal resources were depleted to supply food for the fur posts, leading to periodic starvation, and finally urgent requests for the subsistence benefits of treaty. This led to the signing of Treaty #8 in 1899-1900, the largest of all treaty land transfers in Canadian history. Coincident with the treaty signing was the emergence of the Métis of northern Alberta, a co-mingling of Métis from the earliest fur-trade of the Athabasca Country with Métis increasingly displaced from Red River and central Saskatchewan.

There was also a significant difference in the timing and character of Euro-Canadian settlement in northern Alberta compared to the provincial norths elsewhere in Canada. Although it might be assumed that the great northern forest must make the boreal regions all the same, this region lies outside the great saucer-like ring of the Canadian Shield. In Alberta it is only in the extreme northeast, at Fort Chipewyan, that the great rocks of the Shield heave themselves to the surface. Thereafter westwards the base rock slopes downwards until at Alberta's western border, the Rockies, it is kilometres below the ground. So there are no embedded industrial minerals to attract European prospectors. But the prehistoric seas and rivers that sluiced through northern Alberta brought plants that first laid down oil and gas, then formed topsoil left open in the natural prairies supported by grazing bison. And so the farmland, the forests, and the oil and gas did bring the Europeans in successive waves after the passing of the great days of the fur-trade.

Yet all this economic potential was separated from the rest of the province by a belt of three hundred kilometres of muskeg that was not successfully bridged until the first railroad from Edmonton in 1916. So the Peace River Country became a 'delayed frontier' and thus 'the Last Best West', a full generation after the end of pioneering on the plains and parkland. The tone of this last great land rush for homestead land in North America was captured in an amateur poem carried in a Peace River newspaper in 1932.

When you arise in the morning before the lark

And your bedtime comes before it gets dark

But the man who will work can get a good start

Out where the north begins. (Quoted, Wetherell and Kmet, 2000, p.301)

And still, even now, a freshness and optimistic sense of new beginnings that characterizes the people of the Peace.

The North is Another's Country

The sub-heading above is intended as a deliberate play on the maxim: " The north is another country". It is intended to acknowledge the kind of truth to which Thomas Berger drew attention in the title he gave to his 1977 report on the Mackenzie Valley Pipeline Inquiry: *Northern Frontier, Northern Homeland.*

> We look upon the North as our last frontier. It is natural for us to think of developing it, of subduing the land and extracting its resources to fuel Canada's industry and heat our homes …. But the native people say the North is their homeland. They have lived there for thousands of years. They claim it is their land and they have a right to say what its future ought to be (Berger, 1988, p.1).

Schools in the more isolated Aboriginal communities of northern Alberta represent a key shear zone of stresses between these outlooks, a place of discontinuities between different human geologies.

Because the first sustained Euro-Canadian contact within the future Alberta was through the fur trade which was focussed in the Athabasca Country, the earliest crude schools were all in Alberta's north. The schooling experience of the three peoples of Alberta's provincial north – First Nation, Métis, and Euro-Canadian – came closest to a common experience in the period before 1900. The rough furniture of a trading post or mission provided seating for Native and non-Native children alike in basic literacy and numeracy. Even then, however, it was the custom for most fur trade bourgeois to send their children east, at least as far as Winnipeg, for education.

Voluntarism on all sides was the strongest characteristic of these arrangements in the Territorial period, along with a broad Euro-Canadian consensus that schooling should contain a strong element of evangelical Christian sentiment, regardless of Catholic/Protestant differences. For Aboriginals of northern Alberta, voluntarism began its decline with the signing of Treaty #8, through which Native signatories came under the

authority of the Indian Act. Their children were consigned to church schools that continued for the next half century to regard Christianization as their major objective. This may have been in step with continuing church dominance of schooling in Quebec until past mid-century, but increasingly diverged from the trend toward secularization in schools in the rest of Canadian society. Along with the Treaty Commission of 1899-1900 there travelled the Half-Breed Commission with authority to make arrangements to extinguish the aboriginal land rights of the Métis of northern Alberta. The schooling arrangements that flowed from both these settlements would be immense in creating two, perhaps even three solitudes, almost indeed 'apartheids'.

This matter of separate experiences raises and requires acknowledgement of issues of 'voice'. This is especially the case if the writer is non-Native and must weigh such charged issues as the nature and consequences of the residential school experience for the conditions of Native schooling today. What authority does this non-Native author have to write about these matters? Insofar as the materials being highlighted here were designed to serve principally in the preparation of non-Native student teachers for northern service that would include Native communities, the issue of authority is perhaps less pointed. That said, it is essential that the description and commentary suggested in this summary article be regarded by Native educators and parents as fair and balanced. This is going to be particularly the standard required for any statements that appear to qualify the deserved opprobrium toward residential schools on the basis of differences in time or place within our provincial north. Even more may be required of cautions raised about too exclusive a weight being placed on the residential school alone for any present weaknesses within northern Native communities and their schools.

Each Canadian region must have its own account of the residential school experience, each with its own pace and level of compulsion. It was generally the case that the further north one went then the less enforceable became the regulations due to distance and isolation. Nonetheless northern Alberta, with its extended involvement in the fur trade, was the site of perhaps the earliest 'residential' school in Alberta, with the founding of Holy Angels School in Fort Chipewyan in 1874. Small boarding school might be a better term than residential school for schooling arrangements in the provincial north, at least for the first quarter, perhaps even half-century, before Duncan Campbell Scott enforced greater institutional

strictness in the interwar period. Interviews with and memoirs by those who were pupils in the later post World War II period in the 'mature' residential schools of Holy Angels in Fort Chipewyan, St. Henri in Fort Vermilion, St. Martin in Wabasca, St. Bernard in Grouard, St. Augustine in Peace River, and St. Xavier in Sturgeon Lake provide strong evidence of emotional deprivation and cultural disparagement, as well as some explicit cases of abuse. Many testify to residual anger at the inculcation of institutional dependence, the loss of childhood, and denial of parenting experience that have strongly affected the attitudes to schooling of later generations. A few testimonies do speak more positively of their experience.

Though designed for the children and descendants of those who had signed Treaty #8, the residential schools also accommodated Métis children to some degree. At first this was out of charity, but following the assurance of matching funding, compulsion became increasingly evident, as in the case of this interviewee now residing in Grande Prairie.

We grew up in a loving family on the trapline. On January, 1947, after our mother died of TB, we were taken by the RCMP to the residential school in Fort Providence. It was a BIG building. We were taken into a room into which came a BIG nun in a black habit. My little sister was scared and screamed. I asked, "Why are we here?" She said, "You are here because you have no other place to go." She took us out into the corridor, filled with grey sheets hanging to dry, upstairs to the dormitory filled with other girls – 120 it turned out later. All dressed the same, short haircuts, nobody smiling. We were separated from each other. Then came the clap with the wooden clapper. The clap and the bell I heard for ten years. When it went you better move it. She gave us each a set of clothes and told me, "You are number 6." That was the only name I had for ten years. (Crerar, Interview)

Most Métis received little or no day schooling in the more isolated areas of northern Alberta or were discouraged from regular attendance at the public schools set up by the Euro-Canadian settler communities. The situation had become so dire by the 1930s that the provincial government established the Ewing Half-Breed Commission, which recommended

northern farm colonies containing schools restricted to Métis children from the colony. Based on the Métis Population Betterment Act of 1938 the Métis Settlements were and remain Goodfish Lake, Keg River, Elizabeth, Fishing Lake, East Prairie, Big Prairie, and Utikima. Most Métis, however, continued to live and try to access schooling outside the Métis Settlements with a wide range of family and child success and failure.

Any effort to orient incoming teachers to Alberta's north, such as is sketched here, must try to assess the effects of this multi-layered schooling history on contemporary Native children. This is perhaps the most fraught aspect of the whole project and yet it must be tackled, for the sake of both the children and the incoming teachers, most of whom are overwhelmingly non-Native with no direct experience and little knowledge of this dark heritage. Such an assessment will recognize the anger of parents who suffered from the widespread multi-generational effect of the residential school, with its transfer to many Native homes of emotional deprivation, cultural disparagement, and, most horribly, of resort to alcohol and normalization of abuse in an effort to dull the self-disregard that resulted. There were widespread but not universal effects; many Native families were affected, but not all.

Recreating their schooling acumen

The schooling experience of Aboriginals in northern Alberta represented the erosion and derision of a traditional way of life. That of the Euro-Canadian homesteaders, beginning with the land rush in the second decade of the 20th century, was an affirmation of the cultural and behavioural values to which they were accustomed. They regarded the school as "theirs", wherein both teachers and students share a homogeneous set of cultural values.

John Charyk probably has written the definitive generic account of the rural one-room school phase on the Canadian prairies. He admired what he believed he saw, although unthinkingly he expressed his admiration in terms that reinforced the tradition which reserved worth for the Euro-Canadian concept of education.

The Little White Schoolhouse was the bulwark of civilization in a new and primitive land. Under its roof devoted and knowledgeable men and women, steeped in the traditions and cultures of the old world, passed on to children the fundamentals of an education that has taken mankind centuries to garner and learn. (Charyk, 1968, p.1)

That statement represents the exaggerated glow that, even now, hangs over that period of schooling, especially in the north where the one-room school began and ended later compared to the southern regions. It was a compressed evolution; energetic building in the ten years after World War I, overcrowding due to rising birth rates in the 1930s, falling standards in World War II and immediate post-war years because of an acute teacher shortage, the whole resulting in accelerated consolidation, marked by Grande Prairie County bearing the title #1, as the first to take advantage of the new municipal legislation of the 1960s, including new models of rural school governance.

How well does this backward look at early rural schooling in northern Alberta compare with perceptions by today's rural teachers on the conditions of their professional life? This region is fortunate in having access to two surveys completed in 1997 and 2009 for the Alberta Teachers Association: the first, by the ATA staff, surveyed rural teaching and working conditions throughout the province; the second, in 2009, used the same design and was conducted by this author with permission of the ATA, but restricted to selected school districts in northern Alberta. The questions covered:

1. Professional Issues (opportunities for professional interaction with colleagues, professional development opportunities, opportunities for promotion and transfer, job security, and perceived ability to affect decisions at the school and jurisdictional level)

2. Instructional Issues (number of specific courses or grades taught, access to pupil support services, physical state of school building, impact of bussing on instruction, and access to technology)

3. Community Issues (community expectations of teachers in extracurricular activities and supervision, how teachers are viewed by the community, and whether teachers are under community scrutiny in their personal lives)

4. Personal Issues (isolation from friends and family, distance from urban amenities, differences in perception of prestige attached to rural vs. urban teaching)

A comparison of the more recent with earlier returns (culled for northern jurisdictions) demonstrated a markedly higher level of positivity on Professional and Instructional Issues compared to twelve years earlier. This suggests a strong investment in resources by northern school districts. On the other hand, the responses indicated a decline in teacher satisfaction with regard to Community Issues and Personal Issues. There is no question that, wherever the location, a sense of believing in the value of one's work is critical to finding teaching the personally enriching experience.

Woking School grade 3/4 teacher Kathy Anderson can't imagine teaching anywhere else but a small school:

> I think knowing their background is critical to giving them a good education…. I think it's the most important thing in education today, because we provide all the services now. We have to be front-line for them, so we need to know where they're coming from. (Lawrence, 2006, p.4)

Equally it seems obvious that there might be a link between a young teacher's sense of loneliness in a northern rural situation and the absence of any course preparation for a different set of rewards in school-community relations and personal life from being in that kind of "place". The course described in this article has as one of its aims to provide the opportunity to forethink and imagine the implications for teaching the urban/rural differences in cultural values such as those that have been identified by rural sociologists such as Don Dillman of Washington State University.

Teaching in a northern town

The presence of small rural schools would not be a surprise to teachers new to northern Alberta, but the existence of substantial urban centres might be. Yet even here there is a tripwire, since there is an image of northern towns as one-industry resource towns, a kind of boreal version of dark satanic mills that does not fit northern Alberta. Grande Prairie and Peace River are long established and settled communities in the Peace Country, while Fort McMurray is a one-industry town on a scale that beggars description anywhere else in the country. Of course, the sense of 'anywhere but here' that is part of growing up in any community outside the metropolitan areas is an unavoidable part of adolescent life for many students in northern communities. This awareness can become something aching, observable in the mimesis of Afro-American inner city dress and rap music by youth on isolated northern reserves as well as on the streets and in school hallways of Grande Prairie and Fort McMurray.

Each provincial north will have its own distinctive urbanities. Each will have will have some older, even much older communities like Fort Chipewyan, once bustling with the activities of an earlier fur-trade economy and now reduced in pace to the day-long presence of old men sitting on the bench outside the Northern Store. Fort Chipewyan combines two northern settlement types: the reserve community and the village/rural community that is a descendant of the traditional Native/fur-trade community – Fort Vermilion and Wabasca-Desmarais would be other examples. Each provincial north will have its own examples of the self-confident, even aggressive growth of certain communities in northern Alberta that have become service centres for energy exploration, as well as the forest industry – Slave Lake, High Prairie, High Level. They may not have examples of the farmer/cowboy character of life also to be found in now century-old communities born out of the homesteading movement to this last 'delayed frontier' – Beaverlodge, Spirit River, Manning. Northern Alberta towns – and small cities like Grande Prairie – can combine all the elements of aboriginal, roughneck, and country-boy, along with the permanent presence of metropolitan bureaucratic, legal, law-enforcement, cultural, educational and service institutions. This can make for distinct and separate strands to the student body, especially at the senior secondary level. Not unusual perhaps, except that these strands are all collected together, since there is at present never more than one composite high school each in the

public and separate systems, even in the largest towns. This can create a difference from the range of high schools in Edmonton, where each tends to have a particular focus – academics, the arts, foreign language immersion, for example. More important, however is an analysis of the impact of the sociology of this northern city on its secondary students, of which an outline only is provided here.

Grande Prairie city has grown more than four-fold in population since 1979, from 12,000 to over 50,000. By 1979 the public high school was at the end of a transition from its focus as an academic school, with a school culture of 'betterment' and 'propriety'. In 1969 it had accessed federal funding to build a new trades wing and changed to a Composite High School. Many children from independent and long established farm families have now moved to the separate high school created by the County within the city boundaries. As a type of student from homes where high school graduation was valued, they have generally been replaced by the children of professionals and managers of large companies and public service agencies located within Grande Prairie, as the city has expanded its role in the region. As of 2010, the public high school had over 1500 students.

Who are these northern adolescents? Do they think any differently from their southern counterparts? Given the power of internet and social media today, should 'global' generational characteristics should be used instead of local sociologies to profile northern youth today? The question is whether the generic profile of 'millenial' youth fits the population of Grande Prairie in light of regional census data that shows some marked differences with the national population: lower median age, higher median income, gender ratio skewed to male, higher levels of employment in resource industries, lower levels of completed schooling. It means that pupil readiness for formal learning and interest in the academic levels necessary for entry into professional careers may be lower.

Building a new Beringia

The range of Wisconsin Ice Age time in which the shallow seas of the northern oceans sank and the seabed rose to provide a land bridge from Asia to Alaska is uncertain, but the fact is not and the symbolism is useful. It is in the smaller, more remote and distant Aboriginal

communities of northern Alberta that the greatest schooling need exists. Non-Native pre-service teachers may need suggestions for building a 'new Beringia' to connect Euro-Canadian notions of school and classroom protocols with persistent cultural imperatives of Aboriginal life. Of course it remains the case that all pupils respond best when they feel they are liked and that care is being taken to make learning as clear and as relevant as possible. At the same time, many cultural tripwires remain which, unless consciously recalled by non-Native teachers, may cause them to cool their relationship with their students. A couple of examples may suffice in this sketch.

The most fundamental Aboriginal cultural value and key potential tripwire for matters of schooling and the classroom may be the Aboriginal ethic of non-interference, probably one of the oldest and most pervasive of all ethics by which Native people live. (Ross, 1995, p.12) It essentially means that a Native person will never interfere with the behaviour of another person. That is significantly at odds with key assumptions deeply embedded in the Euro-Canadian school, which still carries the birthmarks of the crowded, industrial, synchronous, hierarchical 19th century European societies from which they came. No institution in our society, aside from the justice system, so much embodies the ethic, "You will do as you as you are told."

At another level of tangled classroom interactions may be a situation where the Native child states they have no pencil, whereupon the non-Native teacher provides one and automatically waits for the 'Thank you" only to receive no response at all, creating in the latter a reluctance to be so obliging in the future. On the other hand, the Native child is reflecting a traditional group survival ethic, which says that those who lack necessities may expect those with an excess to share, without imposing any sense of required gratitude.

It would be wrong to allow respect for cultural differences to gloss over the agonizing within Native communities in northern Alberta over the widespread low achievement standards in their schools. In January, 2010, the Alberta Minister of Education dismissed the existing trustees of Northland School Division #61, founded to serve these students, out of frustration over the slow pace of academic improvement. High school completion rates were much lower than the rest of the province and the Diploma Exam performance of the small group of students reaching grade 12 was very weak. While waiting for large federal and

provincial initiatives to take effect, perhaps all teachers aiming to serve in the schools of greatest need should identify and identify with those students and families who wish to take advantage of schooling to access whatever productive career they may hope for, as in the following plea from one Native northerner.

> … we have gone … to the extreme of a system that challenges our youth so little that it undermines their intelligence …. The watering down of programs, the lowering of standards and expectations is a form of structural racism that we must make every effort to stop. There is a balance of respect and challenge that can be met, and we must make it a priority to find it. (Watt-Cloutier, 2000, pp. 114-128)

This may be the true nature of the new Beringia, for non-Native teachers as well as Native students.

For the sake of us all

All of the above remarks are intended to only sketch the range and limitation of one example of adding knowledge of "place" to our teacher training programmes for Canada's boreal north. The issue is more than one of natural fairness to regions that are marginalized in the decision centres of our provinces, let alone the nation. More than fifty years ago the Report of the Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism warned that Canada was sleepwalking through the most serious crisis in its history, in terms of French-English relations. It may not be too much to say that the crisis in Native education in our northern region is the greatest challenge facing Canadian schooling today. Unless tackled from a variety of directions, by multiple constituencies, not only northern children, but our whole country will pay a very heavy price in the future that is demographically rushing toward us in this "place".

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Chapter 7

Hybridity, Multiplicity and Identification: An Australian University offers 'Canadian' Teacher Education

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"What is Canadian about Canadian teacher education?" is a question that might be examined in one way by established Canadian faculties of education pondering collective past, present and future practices. It may be examined differently by a relatively new faculty with roots in another country as it begins to find its place within a Canadian, or at least an Ontario, context. This paper examines the unique perspective of Charles Sturt University, an established Australian university, in the establishment phase of a faculty of education in Burlington, Ontario made possible by the Ontario Government and in partnership with local school boards. This journey illuminates unique aspects of what it means to exist in both Canada and Australia as a 'Canadian' teacher education programme, and also how a multiplicity of hybrid cultural identities emerges. The sense of being Canadian may not be about shared or typical characteristics, but rather about an emergent sense of relationships and responsibilities within Canadian communities.

Introduction

Wanderer, the road is your footsteps, nothing else; wanderer, there is no path; you lay down a path in walking. In walking, you lay down a path and when turning around you see the road you'll never step on again. Wanderer, path there is none, only tracks on the ocean foam.

Antonio Machado (1912)

"What is Canadian about Canadian teacher education?" might be reposed as a question about the differences that constitute Canadian teacher education – that is, what may (or may not) be considered quintessentially Canadian about the form and/or substance of Canadian

teacher education? Put slightly differently, we see in the question a consideration of the extent to which there is *an identity* to Canadian teacher education rather than a multiplicity of relational identities.

We are reminded of Deleuze and Parnet's (1987, p. viii) statement that "in a multiplicity what counts are not... the elements, but what there is between, the between, a site of relations which are not separable from each other." In that vein, we are provoked to investigate relations among the elements of teacher education – structural, conceptual, curricular and pedagogical – and in the process to imagine what multiplicity may lie between. We appreciate that this "multiplicity grows in the middle" (Deleuze and Parnet, 1987, p. viii) in relations among elements that are not separable from one another, but are also manifest in relations among different sites such as regulatory bodies, other faculties, educational institutions, school boards, politicians and the general public.

We appreciate also that this multiplicity may be reduced to statements of identity about what is "Canadian" in teacher education. Homi Bhabha (1990) critiques universalizing concepts such as identity, which reduce the multiplicities of cultural differences to univocal evocations. "The very concepts of homogeneous national identities, the consensual or contiguous transmission of historical transitions, or 'organic' ethnic communities – as the grounds of cultural comparativism – are in a profound process of redefinition" (Bhabha, 1994a, p. 1). The practice of positioning identity in terms of a particular universalistic concept such as "Canadian" may also be set up as a dichotomy between what is included as "Canadian" and what must lie beyond as "other." We do not find this dichotomization productive for a generative conversation about Canadian teacher education.

In his seminal work on the concept of "new ethnicities," Stuart Hall (1989) speaks of a different positioning as "the end of innocence" – as an end to an essentialized subject. What this positioning brings into play is an orientation from which to understand otherness within, and in terms of shifting relations and identifications with ideas and history. Hall (2001) also notes that "identification is not a more polite name for identity: it is, in some ways, its opposite" (p. 36).

The overlapping tensions between identity, identification and multiplicity play out continuously in the enunciation and enactment of what is Canadian about Canadian teacher education. Refusing essentialized discourses of identity by prioritizing difference might open an opportunity to grapple with differences within and among identities—elements of teacher

education and sites of discourse—when as Hall (1989) states, identity is redefined as "positional, conditional and conjectural" (p. 226). To illustrate, one of us, when pondering our own national identities noted,

> I am Canadian by birth and feel pride in the accomplishments of Canadians even though I have met a very small percentage of them. I have never lived in the far north, rural Canada, or in anything but urban environments such as the Greater Toronto area, Richmond B.C. and Winnipeg (except a brief couple of months in Banff as a teen), so I can't claim to be Canadian by living in a variety of Canadian environments. I do love the snow and the four seasons, but I know many Canadians who don't. I don't think they are any less Canadian because of it. I have never made love in a canoe, as either Pierre Burton or British Columbia newspaper woman Ma Murray stated as a defining quality of a Canadian (McKillop, 2008), but I am still Canadian. I hold a Canadian passport and am registered as a Canadian citizen. That legitimizes my status, but is insufficient. I love the geography of the country, even though I have only marginally experienced it firsthand. It is the history, geography and people I know best, and for that reason I feel part of the history and geography and part of the people. I may differ in opinion from fellow Canadians in different geographical regions, but I still feel united with them and see the value in working together to foster a semblance of unified laws, values and ways of being in the world. I may differ in lifestyle, language, cultural background, religion, personal ideology, or any number of elements that construct humanity, but I feel a sense of connection to country as I perceive it from personal experience and media portrayals. It is a sense. It is not clearly defined. What it means to be Canadian has been, is, and will likely continue to be a matter of debate. What appears to be important is that sense of belonging. That sense of belonging in both physical and personal place; a sense of meaningful role in contribution to country and a sense of care and respect given back. It may be a false sense, but a sense nevertheless. That sense is reinforced regularly by acceptance, or rather the absence of challenge by other Canadians to prove myself as a credible Canadian...by whatever

definition. This may not be what everyone thinks, but to me it makes for a workable definition about what it is to be a citizen.

The complexities within what might have been thought to be a seamless or more coherent identity abound and proliferate. Identity may not be as much about common qualities, historic roots, or other shared attributes, but rather in what we do, think, say and feel and how we relate to one another. In this paper we will not try to articulate what are common or distinct identities of teacher education in Canada, but instead relate the story of how an Australian teacher education programme begins to explore tensions, relations and sensibilities as it is established within a Canadian community.

To this tension, we deploy Bhabha's (1994a, 1994b, 1996) notions of third space and hybridized identities, concepts we think generative in imagining Canadian teacher education in positional, conditional and conjectural ways. We understand the third space not in terms of a dialectical movement between different historical moments of origin from which a third can be traced, but rather in terms of a space of hybridized identity that "displaces the histories that constitute it, and sets up new structures of authority, new political initiatives, which are inadequately understood through received wisdom" (Bhabha, 1990, p. 211). It is hybridized space whose genealogical roots become rewritten in the paths it takes, leaving new routes, and new roots (Yon, 2001). In essence, these are histories that can be called upon to help identify third hybridized spaces within which "Canadian" identifications (re)emerge.

It is in this intentionality of a third space that we see the possibilities of hybridized Canadian teacher education identifications that are continuously making, as the Spanish poet Antonio Machado writes in the epigraph, paths laid down in walking them. We see the articulation of these hybridized spaces already taking place, and are reminded of them in this conference's calling into question—by evoking (and provoking) the question—of a Canadian identity in Canadian teacher education. In this chapter, we hope to contribute to this problematizing of an unencumbered notion of *Canadian teacher education* by offering up a telling of our engagement in Ontario for the past 8 years, a public Australian University, whose presence has been characterized by the contradictions of identity and the desire to be constituted within Canadian teacher education that honours the uniqueness of our tenuous and persistent presence within that diverse and hybridized landscape. We focus particularly

on outlining our story under four related threads: conceptual, structural, curricular, and pedagogical. By pushing the boundaries of what these tentative threads might mean, we hope to participate in a third space wherein we can articulate both a non-essentialized and uncontained (in so far as it is possible) notion of identification. We draw upon one of the programmes that the Ontario campus offers – the Bachelor of Primary Education Studies (BPES), a primary/junior teacher education degree – as indicative of the approaches we have been engaged in. First, we want to contextualize Charles Sturt University's presence in Ontario, Canada.

Situating ourselves: Our journey from Australia to Canada

In 2000, the Legislative Assembly of Ontario passed the Post-Secondary Education Choice and Excellence Act to broaden Ontario's approach to providing post-secondary students a greater range of educational choices. This provided an invitation to offer degree programmes to Ontarians through both public universities and other institutions, both established and new. All applications for Ministerial consent are referred to the Postsecondary Education Quality Assessment Board (PEQAB). PEQAB reviews applications for consent and makes recommendations to the Minister on programme quality and organizational soundness, according to Ontario standards.

For the past two decades Charles Sturt University (CSU) in Australia has been granting a range of degrees to Ontarians through distance education and in face-to-face classes by students who chose to venture to the different campuses in New South Wales, Australia. It seemed a natural extension to consider the possibility of meeting the established demand for degrees from Charles Sturt University at an Ontario campus. Many of the students came to the Faculty of Education for teacher qualification degrees. At the same time, there were a number of Ontarians who were paying large sums of money to attend faculties of education at universities just south of the border in the United States. The Post-Secondary Education Choice and Excellence Act (2000) allowed Charles Sturt to fill a niche in Ontario for some of those students. The Act did not provide provincial funding to out-of-province providers, so this meant that launching a campus in Ontario would require students to pay full fees for tuition, though at no cost to Ontario tax-payers. As a public university, with a not-for-profit status, tuition fees would be less than those at faculties just south of

Ontario in the US, and at private institutions that would eventually enter the Ontario landscape. An Australian university became physically situated in Canada facilitated by legislative affordances to suit the needs of Ontarians who would otherwise seek a degree in Australia, the United States, or elsewhere while offering "post-secondary education choice and excellence" controlled by Ontario regulations and at no cost to the taxpayer - a rather hybrid identity, not purely Australian, nor Ontarian and, to the extent that Ontario represents Canada, not entirely Canadian, but in a space somewhere between. Jurisdiction of education in Canada is regional/provincial, and what is Ontario practice may or may not represent Canadian practices. This regionalism is one of the challenges to the framing question - to serve the needs of a particular region of Canada may be part of the answer. Our Ontario location was intended to serve Ontarians.

Burlington, Ontario was an attractive site because it was geographically situated between other faculties offering Bachelor of Education degrees, while the two closest universities didn't have faculties of education. It was close to a highway that is the major corridor to faculties in New York State. The location would turn out to be attractive to students with families or other commitments who were unable or unwilling to move from their home locations. Burlington is   situated in the Halton Region, home of the Halton and Halton Catholic District School Boards. It was these boards that became the first community partners to the Ontario campus. Intake of students occurred after the other faculties of education, so as not to compete for the same students. This delicate approach to non-competitive intake suggests sensitivity in finding a non-encroaching niche, place or space within Ontario, and in a broader sense within current Canadian practices in teacher education…the invited guest trying not to intrude. It represents a sense of being an outsider rather than a fully accepted Canadian.

The then Associate Director of the Halton District School Board, along with some colleagues who were working in the school programs department at the Board, saw the many opportunities and partnerships that might be established with a local faculty of education working closely with the Board. Talks between Halton and CSU staff were energetic and visionary. The conditions and the aspiration to move ahead with an Ontario campus became a sensible reality. The collaboration between practicing educators from Ontario and academic staff from Australia was foundational in the structuring of the programme of study

and the ongoing entwining of conceptual/theoretical and practical approaches to initial teacher education that continue to this day. The vision and design of the programme was co-constructed from these perspectives lending a collaborative and international flavour to the endeavour. Tensions and opportunities brought to bear in solving the very concrete problems required to make the programme work were both challenging and enriching to everyone involved. The Ontario legislative, policy, curricular, philosophical and general educational contexts that the programme was designed to serve were often challenged by Australian perspectives, mostly in terms of questioning why things are done this way in Ontario. In turn, Australian perspectives, emanating from different cultural, social, and historical roots, surfaced and, too, were challenged. "We will do it this way here" was a comment that needed continual elaboration and justification. The on-going circumspection of each other's rooted perspectives helped us all to examine what may be distinctively Canadian or Australian, or even global, about approaches to teacher education, but also to weave a fresh approach rooted in a multi-cultural identity reflective of the current Ontario context. On-going engagement with local boards also helped to provide a very distinct local Canadian flavour to the programme that arose from a shared vision of both Canadian and Australian educators. It was this air of critical questioning, robust debate, and resolution without compromising standards that finally saw this hybrid programme launch in August 2005.

After numerous discussions with the Ontario College of Teachers, the Ontario Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities, local universities, school districts, and other key stakeholders, the doors to CSU Ontario opened for the first time to approximately 100 students in the Bachelor of Primary Education Studies, staffed by academic staff from Australia and seconded Canadian staff from local Boards. Since then the BPES programme has expanded, CSU's Ontario School of Education has formed, and other programmes – Bachelor of Early Childhood Studies, a Master of International Education [School Leadership], and an Additional Qualifications [AQ] programme of in-service professional learning for teachers - have been added. Each of these additions rightfully required rigorous scrutiny to justify a place within Ontario to an extent not required by existent Ontario faculties. Each programme had to be defended as legitimate for the Ontario/Canadian context, in essence providing a heightened 'Canadianization' of the programme.

It was Ontario legislation, the Ministerial consent processes of the Ontario Ministry of Training, Colleges and Universities, and the accreditation process defined by the Ontario College of Teachers that may be the most revealing of a Canadian identity by way of compliance for preparing teachers for the Ontario workplace, and beyond. The conception and enactment of a new programme facilitated both Canadian and Australian colleagues in determining what is vital in global education practices and conceptual/theoretical constructs, and what is crucial in the current, local context as new "citizens" of Canada, but not necessarily with all the rights and privileges of established faculties. It has been mentioned that CSU receives no Ontario government funding, nor is it invited to the table in many official capacities in discussions with other faculties and other professional groups within the province. Complete status is not fully recognized, and is marginalized in many of these respects – intentionally and unintentionally. Again, this suggests a hybrid identity – here, yet not fully present even in terms of legislative consent.

In contrast, we feel welcomed by having a physical and professional presence; by making a meaningful contribution to the province and wider country, by our deep connection to our local communities and local partners, and by how well our alumni are embraced by the workplace. These feelings of being welcome are amplified by feedback from graduates, personnel from local boards of education, the local community, the Postsecondary Education Quality Assessment Board panels, our Teacher Education Advisory Committee, connections with provincial organizations, publishers, the Ministry of Education, and a number of academic staff from other faculties in the province. We are also encouraged that our contribution is valued in Ontario by continued recognition of the quality of graduates from the programme expressed through a high rate of hiring of graduates and teaching awards they have been granted as practitioners. These all constitute the CSU Ontario hybridized experience. In part, it may be that what is Canadian is simply being fully accepted by the Canadian community as a teacher education programme within Canada.

A hybrid identity is partially attributed to external perceptions and relationships, but it also has expression through the university's internal workings. We will explore this more as we consider aspects of four intertwined threads - conceptual, structural, curricular, and

pedagogical- that comprise the internal workings of our BPES programme, as we trace both roots and routes.

Conceptual considerations

The central question and programme framework

The Bachelor of Primary Education Studies (BPES) programme, a primary/junior teacher education programme, is conceptually framed around a central guiding question: *How do we create and sustain an inclusive classroom as a learning community?* This central framing question serves to not only help to structure the programme, as detailed in Figure 1, but also as a touchstone for candidates and staff as they progress through the programme, whether in university coursework or on professional experience in the field. It also serves to focus and guide our work with one another and with our community partners. The question presupposes the importance of building a learning community, and acknowledges that it will entail work to sustain it – it doesn't proliferate on its own, untended. This central question forms the centre of a larger programme framework that spatially portrays the interrelationships not only between the tangible aspects of the programme – its courses – but also the conceptual, ethical and value commitments (as denoted in the Values, Standards and Capabilities of Graduates rings in the diagram) and their interrelationships with the other parts of the programme.
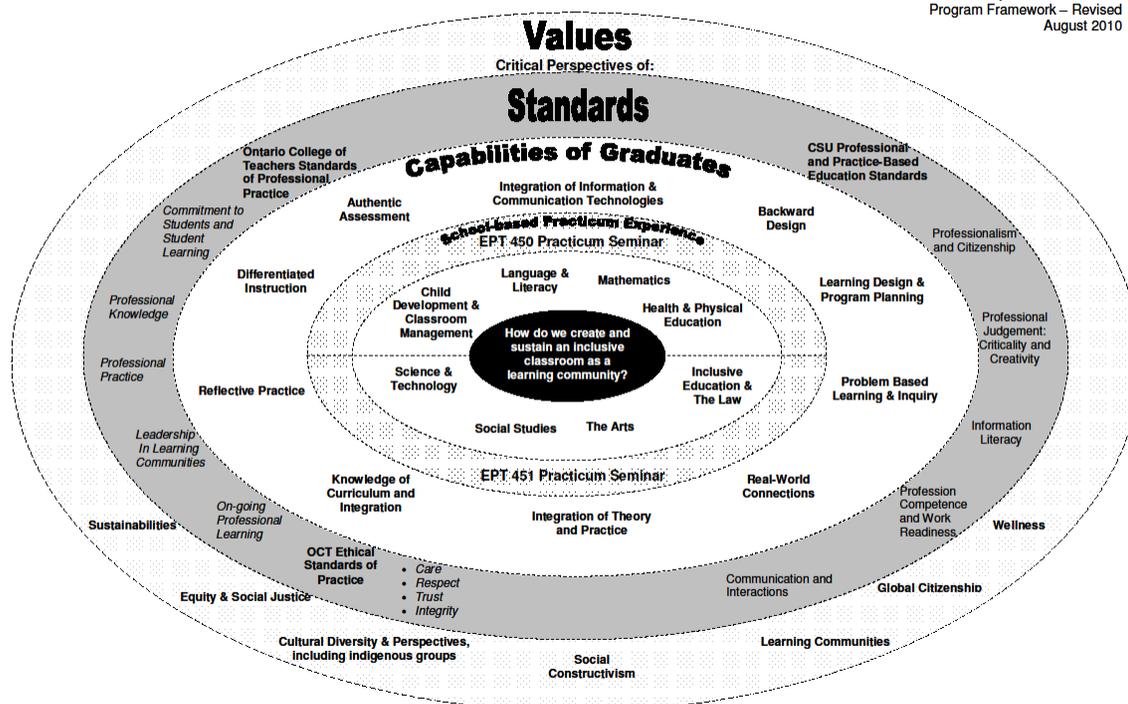
Figure 1: CSU Ontario School of Education. Bachelor of Primary Education Studies Programme Framework

The inner-most rings surrounding the central question detail the inter-dependent nature of the ten courses that comprise the degree. Moving outward, we then articulate the capabilities we strive for our graduates to possess, and the different standards frameworks (both internal and external) that we benchmark our work against, both of which serve to make explicit our principles of practice (Crowe & Berry, 2007). The outer-most 'ring' in this framework is a values ring that serves as an interface between the conceptual and curricular components of the programme, and the instructors and teacher candidates. These values are embodied in critical perspectives of sustainability (social, cultural, environmental, economic and political), equity and social justice, cultural diversity, learning communities, global citizenship and wellness that serve as lenses through which our learning and work take place (see Figure 1) – as a third space evoking a notion of Canadian as multiplicity in Deleuze and Parnet's (1987) sense.

Community consultation fosters partnership

The BPES programme continues to employ consultation via both community outreach and community 'in-reach'. Consultation happens in spontaneous, anecdotal and informal ways, but also through structures such as our Teacher Education Advisory Committee, composed of local stakeholders who review the program and its contents, offer input about policy developments and trends that impact upon our work, and keep us connected to the broader field of educational practice. Such advisory bodies ensure that our program is "Canadian enough" while appreciating our Australian roots and the different perspectives borne of these origins that we bring to bear on our work. For instance, our program teaches about the Ontario school curriculum, but uses the Australian school curriculum as a counterpoint to ask questions about what's of most worth in the curriculum and how is it most effectively and engagingly taught. Consultation also occurs with our own teacher candidates, again formally and informally at several points across the year, and through our network of Site Coordinators at each of the schools where we place candidates on professional experience. Outreach occurs as seconded staff members maintain the links they have with their own local school boards and professional organizations. It is also fostered when our staff members serve on boards, committees and working groups of community and professional organizations, when we conduct research and evaluation activities with local partners, and of course via our candidates' professional experience placements and their work. It also occurs when our teacher candidates go on short-term overseas trips to engage in a block practicum. Community 'in-reach' occurs via the two conferences we hold each year for our candidates – an Equity and Social Justice conference in the fall and an Integrated Curriculum conference in the spring – where local education professionals present sessions to our teacher candidates. It also occurs when we have community partners serve on panels to interview applicants seeking admission to our programme, and when external partners come into to guest-teach in classes or offer extra-curricular sessions on topics of importance and interest to our teacher candidates. All of these examples illustrate our close ties to our local communities and the importance we place on building sustained relationships with local partners for they share in the important work of teacher education and they have much to offer our programme and our teacher candidates. Being a "Canadian" teacher education program is not something taken for

granted because of our location in the province of Ontario. Instead, it is a constant work in progress as we liaise with, take up, challenge and refuse perspectives – a work always in the making as opposed to something pre-formed or ever achieved.

Structural features

Our staffing model - Serving locally and globally

The staffing and professional experience model requires continual recharge and challenge to what it means to be a Canadian faculty of education. Those identities are further challenged through distance education, blended and flexible learning experiences that are the cornerstone of CSU Australia. Where every year, more than 20,000 students around the world study undergraduate and postgraduate courses or single subjects through the distance education programmes at CSU, the question of what is Canadian may be expanded to what is Australian, what has national bounds, or what is or should be international about teacher education? Kingwell (2000) suggests the notion that citizenship can be defined by "the act of participation itself" (p. 12) rather than by qualities such as culture, political persuasion, class or other characteristics. If a person or institution is an active participant, they adopt the sense of citizenship for the political notion of country.

We consider it imperative to keep a close participatory relationship with the neighbouring boards and the Ministry of Education while having instructional staff who are up- to-date with current practices and policy initiatives in public schools. They would be paired with Australian academics to share teaching responsibilities and points-of-view in the delivery of the programme. Typically Australian colleagues would have established academic records and knowledge of the Australian context and the Ontario colleagues would offer the experienced practitioner perspective from the Ontario context. This dialogue is congruent with Loewenberg Ball and Forzani's (2009, 2010) belief that practice be at the core of teachers' professional preparation. Australian staff members stay for a half year or full year, guaranteeing a continuous refreshing and renewal of ideas as well as a continual re-examination of current practices as new staff move into place. Seconded staff members return to their board after two to three years to keep knowledge about the Ontario education

arena current as well. This staffing model reinforces a hybrid identity as continued practical and conceptual dialogue between Canadians and Australians is expressed in a programme that honours the reflexive nature of these perspectives. Beyond the staffing model a continual dialogue with local boards and schools develops even deeper roots to Canadian identity.

Affordances of programme structure: The professional experience

As depicted in Figure 1, we conceptualize the practicum course and field-based professional experience placement as super-ordinate to the other four courses offered alongside them each term. This manifests itself practically with teacher candidates spending 2-3 days each week on our campus in university classes, and two days each week of the term in their professional experience schools. Both terms end with a block professional experience, 3 and 4 weeks respectively for terms 1 and 2. Professional experience is the site where the learning from the other four courses coheres and creates synergies, where they play themselves out in the field of practice (Martin, 2007). In these two courses, which are highly integrated with the school-based experience, teacher candidates are introduced to topics that cross all subject areas such as lesson design and curriculum planning, formal and informal assessment, and reporting to and liaising with parents. Candidates are supported to critically reflect upon their practicum experiences and to develop knowledge and skills regarding their rights and responsibilities as primary/junior teachers in Ontario according to Canadian legislation and the Ontario College of Teachers' "Standards of Practice for the Teaching Profession" and "Ethical Standards of Practice." Keeping it Canadian means explicitly embedding Ontario standards, school-based experiences, curriculum expectations, and other aspects of teaching practices in Ontario.

The blending of theory and practice in both international and local contexts is also part of the programme design for teacher candidates. A continual balancing of the needs of local educators as practitioners, and academic rigor of a university, is a constant challenge. Although not unique to CSU Ontario, candidates spending two days per week in schools in a practicum placement and two to three days per week on campus in pursuit of theoretical and legislative views on education has been a successful model to help interweave these

perspectives. Candidates are able to try ideas in the classroom and reflect on, and critically examine, them in classes on campus with instructors and peers. They return immediately to classrooms to continually refine practices. The ongoing testing and retesting, examination and re-examination of theory and practice has proven to be of great benefit to candidates, to instructors at CSU, and to the schools where the practicum takes place. Classroom teachers are presented with current knowledge about approaches to their teaching and learning practices. CSU faculty are presented with fresh problems and scenarios to work through that come directly from the field of practice. Candidates are the vehicle and the beneficiary of both. There is a deep reciprocal relationship among educators connected to the programme providing input and issues from the field in Ontario schools, communities and contexts, in dialogue with experienced Canadian and Australian perspectives on related topics. Similar to other faculties, it is the deep commitment to educators and the children of Ontario, or the particular region of Canada where they are located, that *may* typify what is Canadian about Canadian teacher education.

Curricular affordances

Emergent framing: The programme as the unit of analysis, not each course

The intimate size of the BPES faculty team is an important factor in having cohesiveness towards planning and implementing course material. Given the relatively small numbers of students and staff members, and the close proximity of how we work, it is easy for the teaching team to treat the programme as the unit of analysis for reflecting upon improvements or changes. This affords a whole-of-degree view about possible synergies and interconnections that could be articulated, foregrounded, or developed within and across individual courses. One example of this holistic process is through a process of course mapping, using large charts covering one wall of the staff room, where staff indicate not only the curriculum content for each week of the semester, but also the teaching strategies employed in each class, and the connections of each week to capabilities of graduates items from our BPES programme framework. This serves to not only assure us that the learning opportunities we were creating from week to week are working towards our graduate attributes and programme learning outcomes, but also allow for emergent interconnections

to be highlighted and links between courses to be made explicit. Staff report feeling that the programme was more coherent and courses really 'talk to' one another as a result of this mapping exercise. Mapping allows subjects to meaningfully embed values of the programme such as critical perspectives on cultural diversity, with particular attention to indigenous groups and perspectives – who, though distinctly Canadian, also share a history of colonization with strong parallels to indigenous groups in Australia. Common threads of indigenous perspectives find a place in CSU campuses in Ontario and Australia.

Indigenous perspectives

The Canadian identity is also complex in its interactions and histories with First Nations and Aboriginal Peoples. There are policy and implementation efforts to understand the legacy and relationships with First Nations. Massive open online courses (MOOCs) on Aboriginal Worldviews such as those offered at the University of Toronto in 2013, the Ontario College of Teachers engaging their membership to understand Aboriginal students, the Ontario Ministry of Education's Aboriginal initiatives, Canadian Federal cases to examine the effects of residential schooling, a Royal Commission on Aboriginal Peoples and Aboriginal Peoples Survey are all examples of opportunities for Canadians to engage and learn. However, decolonization is part of the Canadian identity and the conversation that must move beyond critique and nationalism. For the Canadian educator, can a non-Aboriginal person be reflective of themselves and problematize their own historicized bodies as part of the Indigenous experience? In the spirit of Bhabha's understandings of third space (1994a, 1994b, 1996) and foundational decolonizing methodologies (Alfred, 2009; Smith, 1999), the educators working in a Canadian context may have an identity shaped, transformed and provoked by its engagement with First Nations' values, epistemologies, histories and perspectives, as indicated in the values ring of our programme framework. That is, the posing of 'the Indigenous question' in a settler society is part of being Canadian, and the focus question of creating an inclusive environment is part of being an educator working in a Canadian context. This programming stance would value the conversation of Indigenous peoples and histories. One pragmatic example is our use of Aboriginal ways of being and knowledges in our practice and in our curricula.

Canadian Aboriginal epistemologies

Canadian Aboriginal groups and their epistemologies have been reflected within mainstream programs and they are being developed with a coherent support of knowledge and curriculum. Ours is not a unique venture, as many pre-service teacher programs have acknowledged the histories and perspectives of First Nations peoples. But there remains a gap and a disconnection between practice and policy of Canadian teachers identifying themselves with the local socio-political histories of Aboriginal Peoples. Often our identity is juxtaposed as assets to the Indigenous existence and we see the romanticized Aboriginal with holistic and spiritual knowledge, and pity the existence of poor housing, low employment, and being colonized. It is this identity that challenges our notion of knowledge and constructing education. The BPES programme framework (figure 1) was the formalized and policy-based provocation to staff and teacher candidates to imbed First Nations and Indigenous perspectives into our curricula and pedagogies. This was evidenced in formal instructions using First Nations data, and in the use of Indigenous knowledge such as the wampum belt, the medicine wheel, and the 7 Grandfathers' teachings. Our program has invited First Nations scholars as speakers and workshop facilitators. The Indigenous-based formal lessons and materials that were informally integrated into courses such as Maths, Social Studies, Science & Technology and Child Development provided a tangible construct for our teacher candidates to experience the interdependent process of using elements of Aboriginal identity to help form their own curricular constructs. The professional development of our instructors occurred through an organized and focussed dialogue that culminated in our summer faculty retreat of 2011 (Clancy, umangay & Letts, 2013). Staff acted as critical friends to one another and created trusting partnerships, and the recorded notes reflected a genuine movement to understand social diversity in schooling. An emergent thought is that identity and the notion of Canadian identity recognized the privileging of certain identities in teaching teachers about teaching. At this point for the BPES program, Aboriginal epistemologies remain an on-going point of professional practice. Our challenge, like many Canadian educators is one meaning-making of our identity and how we are profoundly shaped by our relations and histories with Aboriginal Peoples.

Moving from the comfortable space employing cultural contrasts towards authentically developing our understandings that embraced diversity entailed much

intentional effort. This was a crucial point of our process: as instructors and educators in an Ontario context, we were not keepers and disseminators of static knowledge. The BPES programme design of the values ring corresponds and parallels the distinctiveness of the circle teachings of the First Nations of the Americas, and the talk stories of Indigenous Australians. It was this structural connection and its rooted foundation from the Ministry of Education's policy documents (Aboriginal Education Office, 2007, 2009) that provided the implementation guidance to integrate Aboriginal histories, societies, concepts and teachings into our teacher education programs. It has advanced and reaffirmed Aboriginal learning styles and has opened the interface with Western knowledge constructions and ways of knowing. The critical values ring/circle design promotes inclusion and encourages a critical discourse amongst participants that insists that one expression is no longer superior to another (Johnson, 2000, pp. 128-129).

One may envision our Canadian identity as a process of contrasts, a process of emergence, and a process of introspection; these are all complex movements of our knowledge. We may be comfortable to state that our initial steps of hybridized practices are to develop a nexus of being rather than a contrasting alignment of Indigenous and non-Indigenous practices in pre-service teacher education. The identity of the Canadian teacher may move beyond static and nationalistic definitions, and the critique of education reproducing our identity may have emerged with our understanding of our identities in flux and in complexity. Thus, with the lens of Aboriginal histories and socio-political dynamics as part of our hybridity, the Canadian identity of the teacher becomes self-directed, personal and autonomous.

Pedagogical affordances

Cross-curricular teaching and assessment practices

Arguably, part of Canadian identity in a population that is becoming more diverse is breaking down barriers between people and structures that separate them; embracing and integrating rich and diverse views. Whether that is part of being Canadian, or that CSU Ontario has a significant number of staff seconded from school boards where primary and junior class teachers are generalists who have to make sense of all curricular areas, CSU Ontario has ventured into developing instructional and assessment approaches that cross

traditional subject boundaries. This also helps to illustrate how we strive to represent current theories, practices and aspirations supported by the Ontario Ministry of Education, reflecting our role as Canadian educators.

This intentional cross-curricular integration is a form of breaking down conceptual barriers while making sense of the whole education experience. It is done with the deliberate, yet critical intent (Youngs, 2009) to support the concept of distributed (shared) leadership that has re-emerged as one highly promising response to the complex challenges currently faced by schools. As argued by Leithwood, Mascall, Strauss, Sacks, Memon & Yashkina (2009) and others in their book, if schools are to flourish in the future, they will need to enlist the collective expertise of many more of their members working together on the enterprise of learning as a whole, rather than individually on separate issues and subjects.

This is also possible, in part, because of manageable staffing numbers that allow frequent conversation and the relationships between teaching staff noted earlier. The Bachelor of Primary Education Studies organizes learning, assessment and practicum around the central theme of an inclusive classroom as a learning community, but individual subject learning remains separately organised, implemented and evaluated in the initial structure of the programme. The significance of this as a cross-curricular assessment innovation was that it aimed to progress current university assessment practices, where individual subject learning remained separate entities in assessment and instruction. Central to the project is that constructive alignments of objectives, content and assessment (Biggs, 1999; Carless, 2007) through the interdisciplinary assessment task will promote the kind of dispositions required of graduates to develop as praxis-oriented professionals; that is, transforming assessment practices to overtly and constructively align capabilities of graduates with subject knowledge.

Additionally, the BPES programme is a very intensive blend of coursework and practicum each week. With the intensity of multiple assignments along with lesson plans, the workload can be overwhelming. Staff felt the need to collaborate on assessments to help students with workload and assure that the core programme components were meaningfully addressed. We have used three approaches to design assessment tasks that spanned and crossed over all subjects in one term: thematic (four subjects asked students to focus on a

similar assignment theme such as knowing the learner or responding to the learner in each subject area), interdisciplinary (a reflective response designed to compare material from all four subjects), and integrated (the design of an integrated, differentiated inquiry unit of study following the principles of backward design that integrates expectations from a number of subjects).

The key benefits of these approaches were in bringing staff together in the planning and implementation of the tasks, but also in fostering a deeper understanding of what was happening in each subject, uncovering organizational knowledge and intelligence to facilitate development and transformational practices (Harris, 2009). This provided once again, a meaningful interface between Australian and Canadian colleagues, a place to debate some of the differing approaches to course instruction and assessment – how we do things in Australia compared to how we do things in Ontario, resurfacing the question, "what is Canadian about Canadian teacher education?" Even issues such as approaches to teaching combined grades in Ontario classrooms needed to be addressed in each subject for such an assessment. This is a very different issue than in New South Wales, Australia where the curriculum for schools is arranged in stages which span several grades. In addition, regular and frequent scrutiny of what is happening in each course keeps the validation of our differing approaches at the forefront of our work. A weekly schedule was posted in the staff room to track some of the topics and approaches used in each subject from the programme's conceptual framework. This approach brought an added cohesiveness to the programme allowing a general coordination from 'knowing the learner' to 'responding to learner's needs' in the first term. In the second term this shifted to 'designing comprehensive, integrated and differentiated units of study' responsive to current theoretical perspectives and student needs. We receive feedback that this cohesion is echoed by our students and by practicing teachers in the field who work with our students. In year-end feedback sessions over the duration of our programme, these teachers have indicated increasing sensitivity to a clearer articulation of our conceptual framework over time and how current pedagogies coincide.

The significance of the integrated project is fourfold. Firstly, as a principled way of working, the proposed interdisciplinary assessment item is an overt response to feedback from students, schools and teaching staff, who perceived it necessary to consider ways to

make more explicit connections between subjects. Secondly, students are supported to reflect on and draw out key understandings and insights from the subjects offered in a given term to explicitly link concepts and connect principles related to creating an inclusive classroom community. Part of the significance of this second dimension is that students are supported in their movement towards 'educationally right practice' (praxis) in a global, diverse profession. Thirdly, a genuine collaboration between academic teaching staff (as a professional community of practice) around developing, refining and evaluating current assessment practices is promoted. Finally, this initiative can be rooted in practices currently encouraged by the Ontario Ministry of Education in terms of integrated learning (2010a & 2011) and collaborative teacher inquiry into instructional practices (2010b). This illustrates one more aspect of what is Canadian about Canadian teacher education; that we give timely attention to, and are critically responsive of, new initiatives and legislation generated within the Canadian context. Our students need to know and understand these contextual entities as practicing professionals within a Canadian setting.

What is Canadian about us?

We are a hybridized Canadian teacher education programme, offering unique perspectives that embrace, complement, and provoke more established Canadian programmes. We have come face-to-face with what it means to be and not be a Canadian teacher education programme. Without grappling with what is typical or stereotypical about being Canadian we offer a view from the outside as we assimilate into (and occasionally resist or refuse) Canadian cultures. There are many aspects in which we may be seen as Canadian, or at least Ontarian. We physically exist in Canada. We employ Canadian staff. We are compliant with laws and regulations governing the granting of degrees in Ontario. We prepare our graduates to teach in Canada. We centre our studies on Ontario curriculum and the Ontario Education Act. We adhere to and assess students based on Ontario College of Teachers standards of practice. We strive to maintain a close connection with local boards, broader educational and local communities, and the Ontario Ministry of Education in reflecting current and emerging Ontario education practices. We serve Ontarians, and are served by them. We aspire to engage Canadian Aboriginal epistemologies. With staffing models that blend Canadian, Australian, and multi-national academic staff, we represent more than a Canadian perspective. We are not alone in these attributes, as most other

education faculties could claim something similar. Perhaps this list of practices is the simple answer to what is Canadian about Canadian teacher education. Being Canadian is not simply holding citizenship or a passport. It is something expressed by what we do, where we work, who we work with, and where we feel at home, who we acknowledge and who acknowledges our contributions, and all of the relationships that occupy and emerge from the spaces in between all of these constructs, in Deleuze and Parnet's (1987) sense. In addition, our pedagogical, theoretical and practical interests, which allow us to look beyond what is local, are informed and challenged by our close relationship with our Australian roots.

Making sense with[in] hybridity, multiplicity and identification: Some final thoughts

> Creating a crisis in people's thinking may be creative, opening up new possibilities and expectations, alternative enquiries and solutions, opportunities for new understandings and new ways of seeing, visions of accessible futures which neither reflect a nostalgic longing for the past nor assume a pessimistic outlook. It holds out the prospect that we as human beings are not powerless. Through empowerment and democracy we recognize the agency, richness and power of each of us – child and adult alike – and question the legitimacy of authority. (Dahlberg, Moss & Pence, 1999, p. 17)

We return here to the provocation offered by the CATE conference hybridized (and hybridizing) question – *What is Canadian about Canadian teacher education*? We saw in it a generative invitation to look both inwardly and outwardly to ponder what may become of teacher education in these "global times" (Yon, 2000). We were reminded of Bhahba's third space as a moment of bifurcation that simultaneously embraces and refuses the label of 'Canadian' as a salient or meaningful category. We saw in it also an opportunity to examine the relation between our programme's central guiding question *How do we create and sustain an inclusive classroom as a learning community?* and the question of what implications emerge from asking "what is Canadian about Canadian teacher education?" In an effort to engage generatively with the question of "Canadian-ness" as a salient category of inclusivity, we found ourselves re-examining our own becoming (Alfred, 2009).

MacNaughton (2010) makes a distinction among conforming, reforming and transforming approaches to curriculum– a distinction we think productive to interrogating our own thinking about Canadian teacher education. Conformist approaches, which focus on developmental understandings of pedagogy, and reformist approaches which stress the construction of knowledge, may both be evoked to assume a possible referential stability in the category of "Canadian". While reformist approaches focus on the interactions that generate co-constructed meanings, and conformist approaches focus on stable attributes, both seek consensus. We see in both these approaches the normalising operations of power, which in preserving the "same", re-inscribe difference as a naturalized given, and in doing so, police it.

Transformative approaches problematize any normalizing, any universalizing. Such approaches consider the heterogeneous and partial processes that make and remake Canadian selves. Such approaches attempt to refuse essentialized claims to difference, and in doing so repudiate the legitimacy given to certain forms of knowledge (or ignorance) over others; such approaches also reject seeing (Canadian) representation as unencumbered, as a shared Canadian truth. We continue to question our own positionalities within MacNaughton's framework. We question the spaces where our practices have (under)taken for-granted, commonsensical understandings of Canadian-ness, and in so doing, normalize and exclude difference. Through such questioning we hope to participate with other Canadian faculties of education in what Dalhberg, Moss and Pence (1999, p. 17) call a crisis of thinking, which can also be a practice of creative thinking.   As our nascent programme(s) continues to grow and change, we see ourselves engaged in more intentional dialogue with community partners, among faculty and with students around questions that disrupt an essentialized understanding of Canadian education.

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Chapter 8

Who Can Be a Teacher?
How Ontario's Initial Teacher Education Programs
Consider Race in Admissions

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This study investigated how applicants' racial identity is considered when Ontario's initial teacher education programs select among applicants. In 2012, ten of the twelve publicly-funded Faculties of Education offering one-year post-Bachelor's degree programs considered racial identity in admission. Analysis of their application instructions and forms revealed five approaches: (1) designating places in the program for applicants who self-identify as members of racially minoritized groups or communities and meet all admission requirements (three programs); (2) waiving minimum requirements (one, possibly two, programs); (3) inviting descriptions of past educational disadvantage (two programs); (4) inviting descriptions of future benefit (two programs), and (5) monitoring the admission process (one program). The assumptions underlying each approach and their relationships to employment equity goals are discussed.

Introduction

Based on a 1988 survey for Ontario's Ministry of Education, Smith (1989) reported that the teacher candidates in Ontario's initial teacher education programs were "overwhelmingly white (upwards of 90 per cent) and Anglo-Saxon" with "relatively little ethnic diversity" (p. 31). She cautioned that this was a "source of concern, particularly in an increasingly multicultural society" (p. 31) and recommended that "the Ministry of Education, teacher education institutions, school boards and teacher federations develop proactive strategies in recruitment, financial support, admissions, and candidate academic support programs … to increase the proportion of visible minorities … in teacher education" (p. 46).

Current statistics for Ontario's initial teacher education programs are not available, but census data shows that the lack of representativeness in the teaching workforce persists. Based on their analyses of census data, Ryan, Pollock, and Antonelli (2009) showed that, in 2006 22.8% of Ontario's population, but only 9.5% of Ontario's teachers (including school counsellors) were "visible minorities" (a term used by Statistics Canada and which Ryan et al. critique). As they observed, Canadian schools have "proportionally many more students of colour than there are educators of colour [and that] more than this, the gap between the groups appears to be widening" (p. 599).

Many educators have argued that teachers need to reflect the racial diversity of the student population. For example, in their study of *Early School Leavers*, B. Ferguson and his colleagues (2005) interviewed students, parents, and educators across Ontario about why students were not completing high school. The educators interviewed for the study recommended that "a priority [be] given to hiring Native teachers and teachers from diverse cultures" (p. 42). Similarly, in their *Review of the Roots of Youth Violence* (2008), commissioned by Ontario's Premier in response to the shooting death of a student at a high school, McMurtry and Curling concluded that, "the most urgent priority is to bring more teachers who reflect and represent the diversity of the students into schools in priority neighbourhoods" (p. 244).

Why Does Representativeness Matter?

The advantages of representativeness are often taken for granted by educators, based, as Pitts (2005) observes, on "a normative view that any diversity leads to positive consequences" (p. 615). When specific advantages are described, the most common are: "(1) teachers of color serve as role models for all students; (2) the potential of teachers of color to improve the academic outcomes and school experiences of students of color; and (3) the workforce rationale" (Villegas & Irvine, 2010, p. 176). Although the role model argument is widely accepted, in an exhaustive review of the literature, Villegas and Irvine (2010) were "unable to locate any empirical studies that tested the claims inherent in the argument" (p. 178). For the second argument, however, they found considerable empirical support, including evidence that racialized teachers can improve students' learning by "holding high expectations, using culturally relevant teaching, developing caring and trusting relationships,

confronting issues of racism in teaching, and serving as advocates and cultural brokers for students" (p. 187). Finally, Villegas and Irvine found studies suggesting that "compared to White teachers, educators of color appear to be more committed to teaching students of color, more drawn to teaching in difficult-to-staff urban schools, and more apt to persist in those settings," and concluded that "recruiting and preparing more people of color for the teaching profession has the potential to not only expand the overall supply of teachers for the most demanding and difficult-to-staff schools, but also alleviate the high rate of attrition in those settings" (p. 186).

It is important to note that most of the studies about the effects of teachers' racial identity focus on Black and Hispanic teachers in the United States. The situation in Canada is considerably more complicated, with some schools in large urban areas having very large numbers of students who are East Asian or South Asian, for example. The label of "visible minority" favoured by Statistics Canada encompasses enormous diversity, complicating efforts to study the effects of racial identity. In addition, the teaching profession in Canada has higher status and better pay than in the United States, so that all Faculties of Education receive many more strong applications than they are able to accept (OUAC, 2012).

Who Can Be a Teacher in Ontario?

Teachers in Ontario are certified by the Ontario College of Teachers (OCT), which requires teachers to have completed an undergraduate degree and at least one year of initial teacher education. Most Ontario teachers receive their initial teacher education in a one-year post-Bachelor's degree program at one of Ontario's publicly-funded Faculties of Education (a smaller number attend an initial teacher education program that is concurrent with another Bachelor's degree program). Although teachers who have received similar training outside Ontario can apply for certification to teach in Ontario, this study focuses on consecutive initial teacher education programs delivered in English at publicly-supported Faculties of Education in Ontario.

Because the OCT grants certification to anyone who has successfully completed one of the accredited initial teacher education programs, and very few teacher candidates fail the programs, the admissions requirements and procedures of the programs, in effect, control entry to the profession.

All of Ontario's publicly-funded Faculties of Education require applicants to their consecutive initial teacher education programs to have an undergraduate degree, a minimum grade point average, and proficiency in the language of instruction. All but three (Lakehead, Laurentian, and Nipissing) of the twelve programs also require applicants to describe, in written essays (and, at York, in interviews), their teaching-related experiences and/or understanding of teaching and learning. Applicants wishing to teach secondary subjects also must have completed a minimum number of university courses in those subjects.

Method

To investigate how initial teacher education programs in Ontario consider applicants' racial and ethnic identities in admissions decisions, we conducted a critical discourse analysis (McGregor, 2003; Saarinen, 2008) of the programs' application instructions and forms for September 2012 admission (these materials were available throughout the Fall of 2011, with applications due December 1, 2011). Where insufficient information about a program was available in the Ontario Universities' Application Centre's instruction booklet (OUAC, 2011), we consulted the program's website for additional information and/or supplementary forms.

Results

In the Ontario Universities' Application Centre's instruction booklet (OUAC, 2011) for September 2012 admission to Ontario's Faculties of Education (Faculties), eight of the Faculties (Brock, Nipissing, Queen's, Toronto, Trent, University of Ontario Institute of Technology, Wilfred Laurier, and Windsor) included racial identity (expressed as "visible minorities," "racialized minorities," or "ethno-cultural diversity") as a consideration in admission decisions, typically in combination with Aboriginal heritage and disability. Two others (Ottawa and York) indicated on their websites that they consider racial identity. Lakehead University encourages applications from Aboriginal students, but not from other racialized groups. The University of Western Ontario does not mention racial identity in any of its application materials.

How programs consider applicants' racial identity in admission decisions, however, varies. In reviewing the application materials and statements from the Faculties, we found five principal approaches to considering applicants' racial identity: (1) designating places in

the program for applicants who self-identify as members of racially minoritized groups or communities and meet all admission requirements; (2) providing opportunities for admission to applicants who self-identify as members of racially minoritized groups or communities and do not meet the minimum academic requirements; (3) providing opportunities for applicants who self-identify as members of racially minoritized groups or communities and meet all admission requirements to describe educational disadvantages they have experienced; (4) providing opportunities for applicants who self-identify as members of racially minoritized groups or communities and meet all admission requirements to describe how their experiences or background will be a benefit as a teacher; and (5) collecting self-identification information for use in monitoring the equity of the admission process, but not for making admission decisions.

Designating Places

Nipissing University, Queen's University, and Wilfrid Laurier University designate places in their programs for members of racially minoritized groups or communities (whether the total number of places is in combination with Aboriginal and differently-abled applicants is unclear). For example, Nipissing states that, "For a designated number of places in the BEd program, preference will be given to members of Aboriginal/First Nations groups, racial minorities and differently-abled groups" (OUAC, 2011, p. 35). After Nipissing receives initial applications, it sends applicants information about how to self-identify.

Similarly, Queen's University specifies that, "For a designated number of places in the Education program, preference is given to members of Aboriginal/First Nations groups, visible racial minorities and differently-abled groups currently under-represented within the teaching profession" (OUAC, 2011, p. 39). An "Equity Admission Form" on the Queen's University website invites applicants to place a checkmark beside "Racial Minorities" and provides the following definition: "For the purposes of Canadian legislation, members of visible minorities are generally defined as persons, other than aboriginal persons, who because of race or colour are in a visible minority in Canada." Wilfrid Laurier provides on its website a similar "Equity Admission Application Form" that invites applicants to self-identify as a "Person of visible minority," defined as: "For the purposes of Canadian legislation, members of visible minorities are generally defined as persons, other than

persons of Aboriginal heritage, who because of race or colour are in a visible minority in Canada."

Waiving Minimum Requirements

According to Trent University's "Equity Admissions Application Form," "Equity applicants with an academic average below 70% will have their profile read if they meet all other requirements." The form invites applicants to self-identify as "Persons of visible racial minority," defined as: "For the purposes of Canadian legislation, members of visible minorities are generally defined as persons, other than persons of Aboriginal heritage, who because of race or colour are in a visible minority in Canada." Trent does not specify whether it also designates spaces for applicants that are members of racially minoritized groups or communities.

The University of Ontario Institute of Technology (UOIT) states that, "To address the need for teachers who reflect the multicultural, ethnic and social diversity of the Ontario student population, UOIT encourages applications from qualified applicants who are Aboriginal, members of visible minorities and/or individuals with disabilities" (OUAC, 2011, p. 55). For applicants with disabilities, UOIT will consider waiving the minimum academic requirements; it is unclear whether similar consideration is available for applicants who are members of racially minoritized groups or communities.

Inviting Descriptions of Past Educational Disadvantage

Brock University does not waive the minimum requirements for admission, but suggests that applicants may increase their chances of admission by explaining why they did not receive high marks because of academic disadvantage:

> Canadian citizens and permanent residents who are Aboriginal, members of visible minorities, or persons with a disability are encouraged to apply. Those applicants, who meet minimum admission requirements …, who feel that they have been academically disadvantaged may outline reasons in a personal statement and may be individually reviewed… (OUAC, 2011, p. 19)

On Brock's experience profile form, applicants are invited to complete the following optional statement: "I consider myself a person with the following racial identity, here are my details."

The University of Ottawa's program offers an "Access Program" for "Aboriginal peoples, members of ethno-cultural minority groups and persons with disabilities." Applicants through the Access Program must both self-identify and "indicate in the Statement of Experience how his/her membership in a particular group has influenced his/her educational experience" (University of Ottawa, 2011, p. 4).

Inviting Descriptions of Future Benefit to Schools

The University of Windsor offers an optional "Equity Consideration Form," but focuses less on applicants' prior disadvantages. It invites applicants to describe how their "backgrounds and perspectives … will diversify and enrich the teaching and learning community." No specific social identities are listed, but the form states that the program seeks applicants who "are qualified for the teaching profession and who reflect the ethno-cultural and social diversity of the population of students in Ontario's schools," and "applications are encouraged from individuals from groups that are traditionally under-represented in the teaching profession."

York University's program offers an "Access Initiative" for applicants who self-identify as Aboriginal, from a racialized group (defined as: "a group of people who may experience social inequities on the basis of their perceived common racial background, colour and/or ethnicity, faith and who may be subjected to differential treatment in the society and its institutions"), from another minoritized group (examples include: "people living in poverty; sexual orientation; English Language Learner, refugee or impacted by the refugee experience"), or having a disability. York's program invites applicants to describe both past educational disadvantage and future benefits because of their racial identity. Its supplementary application guide recommends that students applying through the "Access Initiative" should: "include in your personal statement reference to the individual and/or systemic barriers you have encountered" and "explain how your learning through these experiences might be valuable when building relationships and working with diverse groups of students" (York University, 2011, p. 4).

Monitoring the Admission Process

The University of Toronto has taken a different approach than the other programs. In the OUAC instruction booklet, the program encourages applications from "visible minority group members, persons with disabilities, women in non-traditional subject areas (e.g., [Intermediate/Senior] Physics), Aboriginal persons, and native speakers of French" (OUAC, 2011, p. 46). Applicants are invited to voluntarily provide demographic information, including their racial identity, but that information is not considered in making admission decisions; instead, as the University of Toronto tells applicants on the data collection form, "after the admission decisions are made, this information will help us (1) check that our admissions processes were fair to all groups of applicants, (2) develop services that are relevant for our future teacher candidates, and (3) plan our future outreach to potential applicants." Research has been conducted to investigate: who is applying to the initial teacher education program and their main motivators for doing so; who is considered inadmissible during the application process and whether any particular group is being disadvantaged by the current selection processes; and who is struggling once they are in the program and why. For example, Ferguson and Childs (2011) used a survival analysis hazard model to examine the predictive effects of the demographic information collected during the admissions process on an applicant's likelihood of failing at five of the admission stages.

Discussion

The Ontario Faculties of Education do not publish information about the racial identities of their applicants or those they admit, so it is not possible to determine whether all applicants – and those who are offered admission and who choose to attend – are representative of the racial and ethnic diversity of students in the schools. The best data available are those from Statistics Canada, which Ryan et al. (2009) analyzed. Ryan et al. found that, between 2001 and 2006, although the percentage of Ontario teachers who identified as visible minorities increased, the percentage of all Ontario residents who identified as visible minorities increased more, so that the gap widened. Unfortunately, the results of the current efforts by Ontario's Faculties of Education will not be reflected in the Statistics Canada data for several more years, as the newly-trained teachers must first find teaching positions.

According to Ryan et al. (2009), in 2006, 22.8% of Ontario's population, but only 9.5% of Ontario's teachers, fit Statistics Canada's definition of visible minority. Assume for a moment that 22.8% of applicants to Ontario's initial teacher education programs self-identified as members of racially minoritized groups or communities. If the admissions processes did not disadvantage any groups, we would expect the same percentage of those offered admission to be members of racially minoritized groups or communities (that is, the proportions of each group within the pool of those admitted would mirror the proportions of each group within the applicant pool); assuming no disadvantage in hiring, we would expect the same percentage of newly-hired teachers to be members of racially minoritized groups or communities. The overall percentage of teachers who are members of racially minoritized groups or communities would slowly increase as more new teachers were hired. The focus would be on making sure that the selection process did not disadvantage any groups of applicants.

However, those who apply to initial teacher education programs might not be representative of the students in the schools. Applicants to a consecutive initial teacher education program in Ontario must already have an undergraduate degree. The Educational Policy Institute, in a 2008 report sponsored by the Higher Education Quality Council of Ontario, entitled *Access, Persistence, and Barriers in Postsecondary Education: A Literature Review and Outline for Future Research*, identified Aboriginals and racial and ethnic minorities as under-represented in Ontario's post-secondary education system. Other factors, such as the status of teachers within different communities – or potential applicants' expectations of who can be a teacher based on the identities of their own teachers – might also affect who applies to initial teacher education programs. So, too, might the impressions that are created by the various Access Initiatives and Equity Strategies of the programs. An important direction for future research is how potential applicants view the approaches taken by the programs to increasing the representativeness of the teacher work force. Do these approaches encourage them to apply? Do potential applicants believe that the programs – and the teaching profession – will welcome them?

If fewer than 22.8% of those who applied were members of racially minoritized groups or communities, but a program still wanted 22.8% of offers to be to members of racially minoritized groups or communities, it would need to offer places to those who self-

identified as members of racially minoritized groups or communities with a higher probability than to other applicants. Similarly, if a program wanted to increase the representativeness of the teacher work force more quickly, it could try to ensure that a higher percentage of those offered admission than of those who applied were members of racially minoritized groups or communities. This would require creating an admission process that gave preference to members of racially minoritized groups or communities.

As described in the preceding section, Ontario Faculties of Education are using five approaches to increase the representativeness of the teacher work force: designating places, waiving minimum requirements, inviting descriptions of past educational disadvantage, inviting descriptions of future benefit, and monitoring the application process. Each appears to be based on different assumptions. The first (designating places), third (inviting descriptions of past educational disadvantage), and fourth approaches (inviting descriptions of future benefit to schools), assume that there are sufficient numbers (though not necessarily proportions) of applicants who self-identify as members of racially minoritized groups or communities and meet the minimum requirements. These approaches can address two quite different problems. If the proportions are lower than desired, both designating places and inviting descriptions of disadvantage can provide the opportunity to select applicants from some groups with a greater probability than applicants from other groups. If the proportions are adequate, but the admission process disadvantages some groups of students by, for example, weighting marks heavily, especially where marks may under-predict performance for some groups of applicants, these approaches can make up for the disadvantage.

The second approach, waiving minimum requirements, is sometimes based on the assumption that the academic records of applicants who self-identify as members of racially minoritized groups or communities may under-predict their academic abilities and preparation; alternatively, programs may have chosen to commit additional resources, such as tutoring or extra supervision, to supporting applicants who may not yet be fully prepared to succeed in the program.

The fifth approach, monitoring the application process, focuses on developing an admission process that does not disadvantage any group of applicants. Childs, Broad,

Gallagher-Mackay, Sher, Escayg, and McGrath (2011) described the features of such a system in detail. This approach, however, assumes that the proportion of applicants who self-identify as members of racially minoritized groups or communities is adequate; it does not provide the possibility to increase the probability of selecting some applicants.

Because successful completion of an initial teacher education program is a requirement for teacher certification in Ontario, admission to an initial teacher education program is closely linked to future employability as a teacher. It may be useful, therefore, to consider the programs' admissions processes in relation to Canada's Employment Equity Act, which specifies that:

> Every employer shall implement employment equity by (a) identifying and eliminating employment barriers against persons in designated groups [women, persons with disabilities, Aboriginal people, members of visible minorities] that result from the employer's employment systems, policies and practices that are not authorized by law; and (b) instituting such positive policies and practices and making such reasonable accommodations as will ensure that persons in designated groups achieve a degree of representation in each occupational group in the employer's workforce that reflects their representation in (i) the Canadian workforce, or (ii) those segments of the Canadian workforce that are identifiable by qualification, eligibility or geography and from which the employer may reasonably be expected to draw employees. (Section 5)

Racialized (visible) minorities are one of the four groups specified in the Act (note that persons with disabilities and Aboriginal people were also mentioned in several of the programs' admissions instructions; women were mentioned by UofT, but only "in non-traditional teaching subjects (e.g., [Intermediate/Senior] physics)" (OUAC, 2011, p. 46), as they are currently overrepresented in most areas of education). The basic requirements described by the Act are to eliminate barriers and to increase representation. Eliminating barriers includes both "remedy[ing] past discrimination in employment opportunities and prevent[ing] future barriers" (Human Resources and Skills Development Canada, no date).

Relating the five approaches used by the initial teacher education programs to the requirements of the Employment Equity Act, we can see that the first (designating places)

directly addresses increasing representation, while the second and third (waiving minimum requirements and inviting descriptions of past educational disadvantage) also seek to remedy past barriers to educational opportunities for racialized minority applicants, which may have caused them to earn lower marks than expected in their previous studies. The fourth approach (inviting descriptions of future benefit) goes beyond the Act's requirements, by providing an opportunity for applicants to explain why they should receive priority in admissions by describing how their background or experiences would benefit their work as teachers. The fifth approach (monitoring the admission process) emphasizes the need to prevent future barriers by checking whether any of the admission processes are disadvantaging groups of applicants.

Both in hiring and in admissions, there is a danger that approaches such as designating places, waiving minimum requirements, or providing opportunities for some applicants to provide additional information will lead decision makers to ignore barriers that still exist within their processes. After all, the negative effects of the barriers may be reduced by these approaches. However, the negative effects are reduced for applicants only if applicants feel comfortable identifying themselves as members of racially minoritized groups or communities when applying. If applicants do not self-identify when applying to initial teacher education programs, it is not possible to assign them to designated places in a program or to consider their academic records differently or, even, to give them the opportunity to describe the benefits they can offer to schools. For these applicants, it is especially important that the admission processes not include barriers to any group.

A Role for Teacher Educators

So far, we have focused on the formal processes by which Ontario's initial teacher education programs consider applicants' racial and ethnic identities in admissions decisions. Many of these processes included asking applicants to describe, in short essays, their past educational disadvantage or the future benefits they can offer teaching. In addition, most programs require all applicants to describe, in written essays (and, at York, in interviews), their teaching-related experiences and/or understandings.

It is typically teacher educators who evaluate applicants' essays. For example, in the University of Toronto's program, more than 100 teacher educators evaluate application

materials each year. Their professional (and personal) judgments about what are the characteristics that make a good teacher influence how they identify an applicant as a good potential teacher candidate and future teacher. For example, Childs, Ram, and Xu (2009) had 30 applications to Toronto's program each rated by nine raters and found "fundamental disagreements among raters about their roles and about whether and how they should apply the rubrics" (p. 6). While it is important to have confidence in raters' ability to evaluate an applicant with precision and objectivity, it is of equal importance to recognize and acknowledge the role of raters' varying perspectives and experiences.

A more recent study by Ferguson (2011) also suggested that raters' own beliefs and subjective judgements affect how they evaluate the written response portion of an application to an initial teacher education program, complicating efforts toward a transparent and equitable admissions process. Applying a Many-Facets Rasch measurement model to quantitative data, Ferguson shows that the raters for Toronto's program applications were not reliable in their application of the evaluation criteria for the written statement; half of the raters applied the evaluative rubric rigorously while the other half applied criteria of their own determination.

One of the most difficult challenges facing initial teacher education programs is ensuring that the criteria – whether the rubric or teacher educators' idiosyncratic criteria – used by teacher educators to evaluate applicants' essays do not introduce unintended barriers. This may be a particular concern when teacher educators' own backgrounds and experiences differ from those of the applicants, so that some teacher educators may have difficulty recognizing applicants' potential.

Conclusion

In the almost 25 years since Smith (1989) issued her warning that the teacher candidates in Ontario's initial teacher education programs were "overwhelmingly white" with "relatively little ethnic diversity" (p. 31), most of Ontario's programs have developed approaches to admit more applicants who are members of racially minoritized groups or communities. In this study, we analyzed the programs' application instructions and forms and identified five approaches to increasing the representativeness of the teaching workforce: designating places, waiving minimum requirements, inviting descriptions of past

educational disadvantage, inviting descriptions of future benefit, and monitoring the admission process. We then considered the assumptions underlying each approach and their relationships to employment equity goals. Finally, we considered the role of teacher educators in evaluating applicants' responses and the possible interactions among application questions asked by different programs.

Many of Ontario's Faculties of Education are attempting, through their application materials and processes, to increase the representativeness of the teacher candidates they admit. This is encouraging. However, much remains to be done. It is important for Faculties to consider the role of teacher educators and their personal and professional experiences and judgments. Applicants' feelings about disclosing any information that identifies them with a group or groups are also a significant consideration in refining and developing of admission materials and requirements. We conclude that more research is needed within and between Faculties of Education regarding who is applying to their initial teacher education programs, whether any particular groups are being dis/advantaged by the admission process, what their admission processes communicate about who can and should be a teacher, and the impact of teacher educators' evaluations of applicants.

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Chapter 9

Preparing Canadian teachers for diversity: the impact of an international practicum in rural Kenya

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This study documents how participating in an international practicum in rural Kenya enabled Canadian teacher candidates to develop a global perspective. Through analysis of data gathered through a post-practicum focus group, individual interviews, and written reflections, we demonstrate how they came to recognize the significant assets of those who live in this developing country, in lieu of perceiving their differences as deficits. Relating their insights to the literature reveals how their experiences have prepared these teacher candidates to provide global education and to differentiate instruction in response to the needs, interests, and background experiences of diverse student populations. The findings of this study provide support for international field experiences that include cultural immersion and collaborative reflection, and document how the provision of this practicum in association with the Canadian NGO Free the Children provided these opportunities. This investigation provides insights for teacher educators seeking to provide international field experiences in partnership with NGOs and enhances understandings of how these experiences have the potential to increase participants' teaching confidence and competence.

Introduction

Canada is a multicultural, multilingual country where we purport to celebrate diversity and embrace global citizenship. Accordingly, Canadian teachers must have a global perspective to be able to respond to their students' diverse needs and interests, and to provide global education (Mundy & Manion, 2008). Cushner (2007) defined a global perspective as an understanding that one's beliefs, values, and views about the world are not universally shared; others in the world have different and equally valid knowledge, beliefs, and ways of living.

Providing global education and meeting the needs of diverse student populations can

be challenging because many teacher candidates enter their profession without global understandings (Mahon, 2006; Walters, Garii, & Walters, 2009). Moreover, their prior experiences may reinforce notions of global education as fostering charity, rather than solidarity, tolerance, and diversity (Mundy, 2007). To promote positive change, we need to understand how we can prepare Canadian teacher candidates to adopt a global perspective, as a precursor to providing global education and teaching diverse student populations (Mundy & Manion, 2008).

The value of Study Abroad programs in promoting intercultural understandings and fostering a global perspective has been demonstrated (Trilokekar & Kukar, 2011; Walters et al., 2009). However, little if any research has explored Study Abroad programs for teacher candidates provided in association with non-governmental agencies (NGOs). Additionally, the impact of Study Abroad programs on teacher candidates' perceptions of instruction that is differentiated to be culturally responsive, appears to be unexplored. Given the increased emphasis on preparing teachers to differentiate instruction and teach students from diverse backgrounds (Mundy & Manion, 2008; Tomlinson, 2003; Trilokekar & Kukar, 2011), this is an important underexplored area. This study addresses this void in the literature by exploring the experiences of participants in a Kenyan teaching practicum organized and provided in association with the Canadian NGO *Free the Children*.

To contextualize this inquiry, we first provide an overview of the conceptual change theoretical framework, as well as the global education and study abroad literature. Next, we detail our methodology, including descriptions of the context and participants. In presenting our findings we illustrate how the practicum enabled participants to become aware of their naïve conceptions and transform these insights to develop a global perspective. We also illustrate how this experience enhanced candidates' understandings of teaching as a relational practice that requires differentiated instruction (Loughran, 2006: Tomlinson, 2003). In discussing our findings we identify the importance of the cultural experiences and supportive structure throughout the practicum. Relating participants' experiences to the literature demonstrates how the practicum enabled these teacher candidates to develop insights that have prepared them to celebrate diversity, differentiate instruction, and provide global education for Canadian students.

Theoretical Framework

Teacher education programs provide the foundation of teachers' initial pedagogical knowledge (Loughran, 2006), with this including understandings of global education (Mundy & Manion, 2008) and differentiated instruction (Tomlinson, 2003). Teacher candidates' knowledge is socially constructed through coursework and classroom experiences, with critical reflection that provokes examination of tacit assumptions, a key component of teacher education (Loughran, 2006; Risko, Roskos, & Vukelich, 2005). As questioning one's beliefs may be personally threatening, collaborative reflection can provide the support required to consider alternatives and work towards conceptual change (Risko et al., 2005). This is of particular importance during teacher education, as candidates may hold robust beliefs about education that are outmoded and resistant to change (Loughran, 2006; Pajares, 1992).

Conceptual change is defined as altering old beliefs to be consistent with new information through accommodation (Gregoire, 2003). This begins with dissonance created by recognizing that new information is anomalous, after which individuals must actively seek to eliminate the discrepancies between new and old information and perceive their efforts to assimilate the new information as unsuccessful (Gregoire, 2003). The creation of new structures within the schematic network through accommodation, rather than assimilation of information within existing cognitive structures, is an arduous process that requires thorough understanding of the discrepant information, belief in its credibility, as well as a perception of future use of the new information as beneficial (Posner, Strike, Hewson & Gertzog, 1982). While conceptual change is a cognitive process, it is affected significantly by the motivation of the learner, and the resultant dynamic interplay between cognition and attitude, with each affecting the other (Dole & Sinatra, 1998; Sinatra & Pintrich, 2003). Consequently, researchers have integrated cognitive conceptual change with dual process theories of attitude change (Dole & Sinatra, 1998; Gregoire, 2003).

Dual process theories present two possible routes for processing information –a central route that requires deliberate cognitive processing, and a peripheral route that relies on superficial processing (Dole & Sinatra, 1998). Whereas systematic processing requires effortful cognitive processing and has the potential to produce lasting change through accommodation; peripheral processing uses automatic, shallow cognitive processing, producing temporary, if any, change through assimilation (Gregoire, 2003). Systematic

processing is difficult and "there must be sufficient motivation and ability for an individual to overcome the compelling and quick response yielded by peripheral persuasion routes" (Gregoire, 2003, p. 161). Whereas ability necessitates time and knowledge; motivation requires dissatisfaction, personal relevance, and efficacy, together with a supportive context for change (Gregoire, 2003). In the absence of any of these attributes, individuals may feel threatened rather than challenged, and consequently assimilate rather than accommodate new information, with no resultant belief changes (Gregoire, 2003).

Significantly, if teacher candidates hold naïve conceptions of components of global education like diversity, they may need to change conceptions to be prepared to educate diverse student populations (Mundy & Manion, 2008). Providing the conditions to accommodate change during Canadian teacher education programs is therefore important.

Background Literature

We first provide an overview of the complexities of global education, followed by the challenges in preparing teacher candidates to meet the needs of diverse student populations. Next, previous research investigating Study Abroad programs is reviewed.

Global Education

With its origins in multicultural education, peace education, international development education, human rights education, and social justice education, global education is complex and multifaceted (Pike & Selby, 1999, 2000). Not surprisingly, in light of its complexity, global education is not easily defined, but rather represented by a set of axioms or self-evident truths (Mundy, 2007). Through analysis of the global education literature, Mundy and Manion (2008) identified six axioms: 1. view of the world as one interdependent system; 2. commitment to basic human rights; 3. valuing diversity and intercultural understanding; 4. belief in the power of individuals; 5. commitment to child-centered pedagogy; and, 6. commitment to planetary sustainability. As each of these axioms is not an absolute, global education has been represented by a continuum within which these axioms are represented. Binary opposites have been used to represent this continuum (reproduced below) which for example, presents global education as focusing on teaching diversity rather than uniformity as a positive value.

A Global Education Continuum

Global Education Teaches…	Global Education Does Not Teach…
Global Interdependence (linking local to global)	Them/us mentality
Global Social Justice	Global Competitiveness
Solidarity	Charity
Tolerance	Chauvinism
Diversity as a positive value	Uniformity as a positive value
Cosmopolitan or post-national citizenship (all humans share same rights and responsibilities)	National citizenship (emphasizing the nation as main or sole allegiance, and national competitiveness)
Active citizenship • transformative potential of individual and collective action • role of international organizations in fostering global citizenship	Elite forms of citizenship • sole focus on formal mechanisms of the national and international government: leadership, laws, electoral politics, etc.
Environmentalism	Androcentrism
Critical thinking • including deliberative and decision-making skills	Passive or uncritical thinking • "transmission approaches to learning"
Attention to sources of disagreement and conflict including forms of "structural violence" and structured social exclusion	Attention to issues and cultures in ways that ignore conflictual and contested issues.
Strong sense of moral purpose - often including a sense of outrage about injustice	A value-neutral view of world issues

(Mundy & Manion, 2008, p. 945)

As global education includes such a broad spectrum of topics, arriving at consensus about how to address it in Canadian classrooms is difficult (Mundy, 2007; Pike, 2000). Nonetheless, its importance has been recognized widely, with most provinces including expectations targeting key concepts (Evans, 2006; Mundy, 2007). Further complicating

effective implementation is the need for teaching resources and/or the intercultural understandings that teachers require to provide global education (Mundy, 2007; Mundy & Manion, 2008).

Challenges Facing Teachers

While NGOs have taken an active role in preparing global education resources, a significant barrier to integrating these materials within schools is the lack of support linking educators to NGOs (Mundy, 2007). Regrettably, teachers' federations, universities, and provincial Ministries of Education have devoted limited attention to creating partnerships with NGOs (Mundy, 2007). In order to effect change, it is important to enhance these partnerships and to support teachers in adopting a global perspective (Mundy, 2007; Walters et al., 2009). Unfortunately, many teachers have limited opportunities for global education professional development (Mundy, 2007). Moreover, professional development alone may be inadequate to provide teachers with the acumen to provide global education, as doing so requires intercultural skills. As Roose (2001) explained, teachers need, "to develop an interest and learn about other cultures, and to recognize the interdependence of our world" (p. 46).

Disconcertingly, many teacher candidates perceive themselves as unprepared to teach students of varying cultural backgrounds, and are admittedly unaware of the history, traditions, and values of non-Western nations (Walters et al., 2009). Canada's population is becoming increasingly diverse (Chui, Tran, & Maheux, 2007). Accordingly, Canadian teacher education should prepare candidates to confidently and competently meet the needs of a multicultural, multilingual student body. Indeed, without understanding and valuing students' diverse backgrounds, needs, interests, and abilities, teachers may be unprepared to differentiate the process, content, and expected outcomes of instruction (Tomlinson, 2003).

Global education encourages teachers to attend to and value their students' differences (Mahon, 2006). A teacher must first recognize the positive value of diversity in order to effectively prepare students for a diverse world (Mahon, 2006). "Among the essential skills required by future problem-solvers is that of improved intercultural interaction – the ability to communicate and collaborate effectively with people whose attitudes, values, knowledge and skills may be significantly different from their own" (Cushner, 2007, p. 27). Yet, research has documented that not all teacher candidates hold positive attitudes about diversity (Swartz, 2003). For instance, Hollins and Guzman (2005)

found teacher candidates expressed negative attitudes about different cultures and did not wish to teach in urban contexts where large groups of immigrant children study. Swartz (2003) identified that these attitudes of resistance, were influenced in part, by negative media images. In order to teach diverse student populations, teachers need to embrace diversity and understand cultural relevance, which "requires valuing a culture's way of being, as well as responding appropriately to it" (Mahon, 2006, p. 394). In order to value another culture's way of being, teachers must first try to view the world from their perspective, which includes a sense of their national, institutional, and individual culture (Pike 2000). Researchers have begun to explore the impact of Study Abroad programs on teacher candidates' intercultural understandings (Rodriguez, 2011; Roose, 2001; Trilokekar & Kuhar, 2011).

Study Abroad Programs

Trilokekar and Kukar (2011) found that Study Abroad (SA) programs could provide teacher candidates with the intercultural knowledge required to work in a wide range of learning environments. Rodriguez (2011) noted that these programs significantly enhanced participants' understanding of the world and their place in it as teachers. SA programs have provided teacher candidates with their first experience being viewed as the "other", which fostered understandings of the challenges of living in a foreign land and participating in an unfamiliar education system (Roose, 2001; Trilokekar & Kukar, 2011).

Importantly, SA programs have provoked teacher candidates to question and re-evaluate their worldviews (Cushner, 2007; Roose, 2001; Trilokekar & Kukar, 2011). Teacher candidates in Roose's (2001) study spoke of, "their armor being shaken and even shattered, their world being turned upside-down and their minds being opened to new ways of thinking of themselves, others, education and the world" (p. 47). As Cushner (2007) noted, this transformation takes place twice in experiences abroad, once upon entering the host culture, and again upon returning home. Through realignment of their worldviews, teacher candidates may shed their ethnocentric views and develop appreciation for diverse perspectives, which may enhance their abilities to provide global education (Walters et al., 2009). Appreciation of diverse perspectives is requisite to being able to differentiate instruction in response to students' needs (Tomlinson, 2003).

An important element in SA programs is the learning that can occur if the experience is critically reflected upon (Trilokekar & Kukar, 2011). As Jordi (2011) stated, "Human beings are forever reconstructing themselves through their experiences and the movement of

their consciousness. Within this process of experiential learning we naturally seek to make meaning" (p. 194). Critical reflection can provide in-depth understandings that will foster teacher candidates' abilities to put insights from experience into practice (Alfaro, 2008). Importantly, with critical reflection, teacher candidates who studied abroad became more interested in cross-cultural events and developed more critical awareness of their own culture (Cushner, 2007). For instance, they questioned domestic attitudes and actions related to diversity and demonstrated greater levels of racial consciousness (Cushner, 2007). Roose (2001) similarly noted that candidates returned more curious about, interested in, and respectful of, the differences across cultures. Significantly, teacher candidates with international experiences held positive perceptions of their abilities to teach students of varying cultural backgrounds and adopted a global perspective (Cushner, 2007; Roose, 2001).

The value of international field experiences had been documented (Cushner, 2007; Roose, 2001; Trilokekar & Kukar, 2011), and it was acknowledged that NGOs have the potential to play a significant role in realizing the vision of a society that embraces the precepts of global education (Witteborn, 2010). However, little if any research had explored the effects of international teaching experiences provided in association with NGOs.

Methodology

As we were interested in exploring participants' change processes during and following a teaching practicum, we adopted qualitative case study methods (Creswell, 2002; Merriam, 2001). Creswell (2002) outlined that case study is an appropriate methodology for exploring and documenting how the activities of a group affect participants. Additionally, Merriam (2001) described the impetus for case studies as the lack of in-depth understandings about an experience that is unique or unusual, combined with the desire to analyze unexplored details in order to inform practice. This study sought to provide such understandings. Descriptions of the international practicum context and participants are presented next, followed by our data sources and analysis methods.

Context and Participants

The practicum was provided in cooperation with *Free The Children* (*FTC*), a Canadian NGO that is actively involved in promoting global education (Mundy, 2007). As an NGO whose motto is "children helping children through education", *FTC* is committed to

enhancing global awareness, facilitating sustainable change in developing countries, and fostering the understandings required to enhance the commitment of youth to becoming global citizens (Kielburger, 2009). Founded in 1995, *FTC* has become the largest network of children helping children through education in the world (Kielburger, 2009). Their mission statement explains:

> The primary goals of the organization are to free children from poverty and exploitation and free young people from the notion that they are powerless to affect positive change in the world. Through domestic empowerment programs and leadership training, *Free The Children* inspires young people to develop as socially conscious global citizens and become agents of change for their peers around the world. (see *http://www.freethechildren.com/aboutus/corevalues/*)

In partnership with school boards, *FTC* provides materials to support teaching children about poverty, sustainable development, social and global justice, and global citizenry (Mundy, 2007). Additionally, they endeavour to empower Canadian youth to affect positive change locally and provide service learning trips for youth to developing countries. The international teaching practicum described here was in part, modelled after the *FTC* youth service learning trip to Kenya.

The international practicum was governed by a memorandum of understanding between the university and *FTC*, which detailed the responsibilities of each organization. It took place at a school built and operated by *FTC* in Kenya's Narok South District, near the Maasai Mara game reserve. To enhance participants' understandings of the context and culture, infused throughout the practicum were supported opportunities to interact with local community members. These activities provided participating teacher candidates with first-hand experiences with the cultural traditions, living conditions, and daily routines of the rural Kipsigis and Maasai people, whose children they taught. These cultural opportunities were planned by the NGO and undertaken in the community where the NGO had developed strong relationships. Two supervising university faculty members accompanied participants on these cultural activities which were facilitated under the guidance of two NGO youth facilitators and two Kenyan Maasai warriors. The youth facilitators and Maasai warriors were trained by the NGO to be cultural ambassadors, and enhance participants'

understandings of the context, culture, and "adopt a village" model used to foster sustainable change (Kielburger, 2009).

The 25 teacher candidate practicum participants (referred to by pseudonyms in this paper) were in their fifth and final year of a concurrent educational studies program at a small Canadian university. Prior to this practicum, they had completed four field experiences in Ontario elementary schools, with each a total of four weeks duration. Additionally, they had completed all coursework in both the Bachelor of Education and the concurrent Bachelor of Arts programs. All were Caucasian students between 21 and 24 years of age, and only one was male. Participants applied to take part in the international placement, with their successful coursework and practicum experiences rendering them eligible.

For three months prior to the practicum participants met weekly for one hour to prepare for this experience during which they were introduced to the context and culture of rural Kenya and *FTCs* "adopt a village" model for sustainable change. Throughout the 3-week practicum, candidates spent 4 ½ hours each morning teaching, with afternoons devoted to lesson planning, school building, and/or cultural activities. Triads of candidates taught in grades two through seven, with the number of Kenyan students in each classroom ranging from 30 to 60. Although the language of instruction was primarily English, all students were English language learners, whose first language was the mother tongue spoken by their tribe, and second language was Swahili. The school had no running water or electricity, and teaching resources were very limited. Education was perceived by the Kenyan community to be a privilege and the students were well behaved and respectful. Candidates were responsible for teaching all subject areas. Their lessons were planned collaboratively, with the support of the two supervising university faculty members.

At the end of each day, the NGO youth facilitators guided a large group collaborative reflective discussion during which each participant shared their successes and challenges of the day, including their teaching experiences, as well as their reactions and responses to the cultural experiences. Teacher candidates maintained daily reflective journals within which they documented their experiences and evolving perceptions.

Data Sources and Analysis

To achieve triangulation of evidence and promote the credibility of the findings of this study, multiple data sources were collected (Creswell, 2002). These included written

reflections, transcriptions of a post-practicum focus group session, and fourteen individual interviews.

The supervising faculty members recognized that critical reflection was vital to candidates' abilities to make sense of their experiences (Alfaro, 2008; Risko et al., 2005). Accordingly, all participants were encouraged to write personal journals documenting their evolving perceptions after each collaborative reflection session. Upon completion of the practicum, candidates were asked to reread their daily journals, and synthesize their perceptions of what, if any, affect their experiences had on their worldview and teaching perspectives. These summative reflections ranged from two to five pages in length, and were discussed during the full-day post-practicum debriefing session, held five days after the group returned from Kenya. All participants were required to complete a summative written reflection about their experiences and attend the debriefing session which was audio recorded for later analysis. Candidates were invited to submit their summative reflections for analysis, with all 25 electing to do so.

Additionally, participants were invited to take part in a one hour semi-structured individual interview, and fourteen elected to do so. To mitigate the potential for bias (e.g., providing responses participants believed we desired) the interviews were conducted by a trained research assistant, rather than by the researchers/faculty supervisors (Gay & Airasian, 2003). Questions probed participants' perceptions of changes in their worldviews and teaching perspectives, as well as the factors and/or experiences that they perceived to have affected any changes they identified. The transcriptions of the group session and individual interviews were member-checked for verification of accuracy (Creswell, 2002).

Data were analyzed through coding and categorizing of key idea units, as described by Creswell (2002) and Merriam (2001). To enhance the credibility of the findings, two research assistants independently coded the data, meeting next with the researchers to discuss their interpretations, and negotiate a shared understanding with any disagreements resolved through consensus (Creswell, 2002). The coded idea units were next collapsed into two broad categorical clusters - changes in global understandings and changes in teaching beliefs. Changes in participants' global understandings were next related to the continuum of global education described by Mundy and Manion (2008). Responses coded in each item of each of the two categorical clusters were entered into a matrix, providing the opportunity to compare and contrast participants' experiences.

Findings

In presenting our findings we first illustrate how the practicum enabled participants to develop a global perspective. Next, we illustrate how this experience affected participants' teaching beliefs, with attention to their enhanced understandings of teaching as relational practice that requires differentiated instruction (Loughran, 2006; Tomlinson, 2003).

Global Understandings

The most common theme was teacher candidates' adoption of a global perspective as described by Mundy and Manion (2008). Particularly salient were the changes in their understandings of global interdependence, diversity, solidarity, and tolerance as positive values. Supportive quotes follow that illustrate these changes and how participants perceived they became aware of their naïve conceptions of these elements of a global perspective.

All participants shared insights illustrative of their development of an understanding of the solidarity amongst all people, particularly with respect to the universality of the role of education and adults' commitment to meeting the needs of their families and communities.

> *Maybe our students in Canada don't have quite the same challenges as Kenyan students but I mean education is doing the same for them as it's doing for the kids in Kenya. It's giving them an opportunity and it's socializing them.* (Alicia, Interview, April 1, 2010)

> *There's certain universalities that there are across cultures like smiles and cries and laughter.* (Jillian, Interview, March 17, 2010)

> *They're all basically looking for the same things but they have different resources, different societal norms, but everyone's looking to provide for their families and themselves and their community.* (Britta, Interview, April 2, 2010)

Many candidates shared that they entered this practicum believing that they would "feel sorry" for the Kenyan people. Moreover, many recognized their inaccurate perceptions of Kenyan lifestyles were fostered by media images that were intended to promote charity, rather than foster understandings of the lifestyles of the people they purported to represent.

> *On TV, you see the flies [on children] and you feel awful. But like, how they say these people live off just a dollar a day, that's sustainable for them. They don't have the same lifestyle as us…we'd never survive on a dollar a day, but in other parts of the world, a dollar a day is all they need. You know*

it's not as bad as they make it seem to make us feel sorry. (Kris, Debriefing Session, March 8, 2010)

I felt the same way with some of the commercials how they kept saying like two or three to a desk…I imagined sharing my little desk made for one person and you get there and you realize that those desks are made for two or three people and everyone is really used to being so close together because they all sleep together…so they're really happy that way. (Susan, Debriefing Session, March 8, 2010)

As they came to know and understand the Kenyan people, these teacher candidates developed an acute appreciation for their assets. While recognizing the constraints created by poor access to clean water, health care, and food, all candidates acknowledged that the emphasis on community collaboration and relationships, and the resultant warm welcome they received from the Kenyan community, were positive values of which they were previously unaware. As a function of these insights, perceptions of the need to alter the lifestyles of the Kenyans to mirror Western lifestyles were replaced by perceptions of the benefits of learning from and with one another, valuing diversity rather than uniformity. Indeed, all participants highlighted the Kenyan's sense of community and emphasis on caring relationships, as exemplary and worthy of emulating.

I think that when I went into it I expected the people maybe to realize more of like what they were missing and that we had so much more and I expected to feel bad about it, but when I was there, I almost… like it was almost reverse and I felt bad for people back home that didn't realize how much that we were missing. You see how happy the people can be with what they have. (Chris, Interview, March 24, 2010)

We don't have the greatness of wealth that Kenya has when it comes to the value of humanity. Kenyans have the close communities, they have more personal relationships, and they have the attachments to nature. I feel like the way that they live, they have a non-material wealth, which to me is greater than all the materials that we have in Canada. I think they're a people to look up to. (Justine, Interview, March 25, 2010)

*So communication isn't always talking, it's just showing that you respect and care for other people in some way and even those little three, four, five year olds were able to do that through their clapping for us. (*Carole, Debriefing Session, March 8, 2010)

I thought I knew what it meant to be a community, but to be a community in Canada is not even comparable to what it means to be part of a community in Kenya. They work together to survive. (Jillian, Debriefing Session, March 8, 2010)

Importantly, participants' changes were affected significantly by the cultural experiences they engaged in during this practicum. Indeed, when asked to reflect on the experiences they perceived to be those that most affected their worldviews, all participants cited their interactions with the Kipsigi and Maasai communities, which provided in-depth cultural understandings.

I would say on the "Mama walk" where we went to get water with the mamas in the community. We carried the jugs of water for them and we each only did it for a couple of minutes but it was about forty-five pounds of water that was put our backs and just thinking about how this poor woman has to do this six times a day by herself…realizing the work that these people have to do to…and they still need to do things to that water, they still need to boil it because it is dirty water. (Jess, Interview, March 24, 2010)

I mean driving by the Manyattas was one thing but actually being able to step into one, and actually doing the water walk… the Mamas were telling us they do it six times a day and I couldn't even do it once by myself… it was very humbling." (Alex, Interview, March 29, 2010)

I think it was really great to have the Maasai warrior talk to us about the Maasai culture….I think it was really important because it got me to think about you know why having multiple wives for them is a big thing and having lots of children as well. Before polygamy to me was, oh my it's so, so wrong, but now I understand why it is important to them. (Paula, Debriefing Session, March 8, 2010).

Of particular importance to many participants was their experience in the Maasai market, which was their first experience with being viewed as a minority "other".

One thing that was really good for me was going to the Maasai market and for the first time in my life dealing with being in the minority group. I mean everyone was staring at me and not knowing

what to do and I think it is really important for us to feel, to relate with, so one day when we have a

classroom of our own we know how to relate. (Kathy, Debriefing Session, March 8, 2010)

I think the Maasai Market was really important too and I know it was kind of strange being

treated like so out of place, but not necessarily in a bad way. But we were like this spectacle…a lot

of people found it overwhelming, but I think it was a neat experience to be put in that position.

(Jess, Debriefing Session, March 8, 2010).

When they returned home, all participants experienced reverse culture shock. That is, their new insights critically challenged their prior conceptions of Canadian lifestyles, values, and attitudes, thereby promoting cognitive dissonance (Gregoire, 2003). For example, they began to question the individualistic orientation and/or reliance on digital communication in Canada, which stood in sharp contrast to the emphasis on community and personal communication that they experienced in Kenya. Some participants became discontent with what they now perceived as the value placed on expediency at the expense of face-to-face social interaction in Canada, while others expressed newfound dissatisfaction that not all Canadians appeared to be appreciative of their assets and resources.

I was out for brunch on Saturday morning and there were people beside us…the Mom wasn't

talking, the Dad wasn't talking, and the kid was sitting there with his headphones and not even

talking. They did not talk for the whole meal…it just blew my mind that the something as simple

as communicating with people has been forgotten here….they were individual people in a situation

where they were in a shared space. (Paula, Debriefing Session, March 8, 2010).

I just noticed that's a huge difference with Canadians in general, it is like we have self-serve so we

don't have to deal with the real person and self check ins at the airport and all this stuff that we can

avoid making the connections but they [Kenyans] want to make those connections and those

friendships all the time. (Alicia, Interview, April 1, 2010)

And then you come back here and people take everything for granted. It takes a lot to get back into

the swing of things over here because you're just looking at everyone kind of in disgust. (Nicole,

Interview, March 24, 2010)

As they reflected on their experiences, most candidates shared how they came to

realize the importance of valuing diverse perspectives and lifestyles, and appreciating each and every one within a particular context, rather than imposing Western values or lifestyles on others.

> *I now know each culture is different and we're going to, we're going to live our way and they're going to live theirs but I think it's so important for us to realize how other cultures live their lives as well, so we can either, we can appreciate ours, appreciate theirs and just appreciate all the differences in the world.* (Jess, Interview, March 24, 2010)

> *I think that was the biggest thing I learned is that if you're going to other countries you can't compare them. You just need to see how they live and understand that that's life for them and it's not our job to impose our ways upon them.* (Jillian, Interview, March 17, 2010)

Collectively, through participating in this practicum all participants appeared to develop the global understandings required to provide global education. For instance, they appeared to perceive diversity rather than uniformity as a positive value, and demonstrate an understanding that beliefs and views about the world are not universally shared (Cushner, 2007: Mundy & Manion, 2008). Moreover, their perceptions are representative of acceptance that others in the world have different and equally valid knowledge, beliefs, and ways of living (Cushner, 2007).

Teaching Beliefs

Importantly, analysis of participants' experiences also illustrated how this experience enhanced their understandings of teaching as a relational practice that requires differentiated instruction (Loughran, 2006; Tomlinson, 2003). All teacher candidates perceived that this experience enabled them to develop enhanced understandings of how to differentiate instruction to meet their students' needs. Importantly, they recognized the importance of modifying the content of their lessons to build on their students' prior knowledge, and how to differentiate the learning process through using multisensory approaches including visual aids and movement.

> *You learn how to communicate in so many different ways other than verbally and or even just different ways verbally, and there's so many ways you can do it and go about doing it so that they*

can actually understand which I think is so beneficial when you're in a classroom no matter where you are. (Jess, Interview, March 24, 2010)

I think that now I will be better at explaining how to go about doing certain tasks or concepts…because I've had to rephrase things and you just get to the bare bones and even when you think you can't simplify the concept anymore you look at it again and you figure out how you can get your point across… and realizing that if verbal communication is not working there are so many other ways to get your point across and I think that will really help us to be able to reach more students. Not every student learns the same way. (Jillian, Interview, March 17, 2010)

I got the students to come up and help me and be more involved in the lesson and I found that because you know they were active and participated actively in the lesson they were a lot more able to understand what I was talking about. (Paula, Interview, April 7, 2010)

Most participants identified that they perceived that these skills enhanced their understandings of how to meet the needs of English language learners and provide instruction that is differentiated to be culturally responsive.

I think a lot of the examples [in the textbooks] weren't relevant to the students so we would change words like cars to goats or things like that and giving the examples and trying to just pull ideas from their culture and their lifestyles, such as Manyattas or like their huts or the kind of trees they had, [we] pulled those into the lesson so it was more relevant to them. (Laura, Interview, March 17, 2010)

Kids loved it when I tried to speak their language so that was definitely something I felt I did well at just trying to fit in more with them and showing them that I actually cared about their culture …I also had to think of different strategies like using more visuals and it definitely made me realize that I am capable of teaching students that have really poor English. (Mickey, Interview, March 18, 2010)

Also salient was participants' increased appreciation of the importance of relationships. Many noted that they were previously unaware of the significance of student-teacher relationships in fostering the trust required to take risks with new learning opportunities.

The importance of getting to know them regardless of the language barrier, ask about their family and make jokes with or at least attempt to, just anything to let them know that each kid matters. I think was something that I didn't do before, but I will definitely do from now on through my teaching career…. it creates a bond so to speak to students that they are special and they they're worth your time. (Jillian, Interview, March 17, 2010)

The one thing that I definitely learned is that it's important to know where your students come from, what background, and not just cultural, but you know what are they dealing with outside of the classroom…building relationships because you can't take those challenges and those risks with the students and they won't take risks for you if they don't trust you. (Paula, Interview, April 7, 2010)

If you have a relationship with the student then they really work hard to please you and they want to do well and I think that that's what you want all your students to do so. (Jess, Interview, March 24, 2010)

While at the onset of the practicum, candidates found teaching this context extremely challenging, ultimately all perceived their abilities to meet these challenges fostered increased confidence in their teaching competence. Many noted that this experience significantly enhanced their resiliency and flexibility as teachers.

What did I learn about myself… that I can deal with any situation that I'm given. (Nicole, Interview, March 24, 2010)

I found out that I'm a lot more versatile and resourceful than I ever thought I was. (Susan, Interview, June 23, 2010)

I think we all learned how to be flexible…we quickly learned that it wasn't going to go the way you intended it to go and so you had to be flexible and I think that it is important to know that things aren't always going to go as planned and every class is going to be different and just to have that flexibility and go with it (Andrea, Debriefing Session, March 8, 2010)

I just think that being out of our element made us grow so much more so that now when we go into a classroom and we have had that experience of being completely lost and being able to know that somewhere within us we can come up with something to engage students…I think that in the end I

learned more from those students than I taught them. (Elaina, Debriefing Session, March 8, 2010)

Interestingly, many participants highlighted how they came to realize that strong teaching was not dependent on resources they had become accustomed to using in Canada.

So I think it just made me more confident in my teaching abilities and just showed me that like I am a good teacher and I don't need the Smart Boards and the computers and the monitors and all that kind of stuff. It reinforced how important visual aids and repetition and consolidation is in a classroom, but you don't need all of that fancy stuff to really communicate with your students. (Alex, Debriefing Session, March 8, 2010)

I think definitely taking us to a place where we're not so much in our comfort zone and then allowing us to take risks and challenge ourselves and to try new things with really small amounts of resources is definitely I think the biggest strength [of the practicum]. (Paula, Interview, April 7, 2010)

In sum, the experiences documented here illustrate how participants perceived that this international practicum enhanced their teaching competence and confidence, and enabled them to adopt a global perspective. This in turn holds the potential to enable them to better understand and meet the needs of diverse student populations.

Discussion

This study supports previous research documenting how international practicum experiences can provoke teacher candidates to re-evaluate their worldviews and can enhance their intercultural understandings (Cushner, 2007; Rodriguez, 2011; Roose, 2001; Trilokekar & Kukar, 2011). Furthermore, it extends existing understandings by illustrating how international experiences provided through a university-NGO partnership can foster teacher candidates' adoption of a global perspective, increase candidates' self-perceptions of teaching competence, and support their adoption of the intercultural understandings required to provide differentiated instruction.

Importantly, this study documented the importance of not only providing an international practicum but also concurrently immersing teacher candidates in the culture

and context of rural Kenya. Specifically, participants reiteratively cited the cultural experiences arranged by the NGO such as the "Mama Walk" to the Mara River to gather water, visiting the Manyattas where their students lived and the traditional Maasai market, and learning about the Kenyan context and culture from the Maasai warriors, as the experiences that most provoked them to question and re-evaluate their worldviews. The intercultural understandings that participants derived from these experiences also enabled them to provide instruction that was differentiated to be culturally responsive. For example, participants noted the positive impact of altering their instruction to use examples drawn from their students' culture, rather than those provided in the textbook that were not culturally relevant in the context of rural Kenya.

Interestingly, despite the university-based pre-departure introduction to the work of *FTC*, and the culture and context of rural Kenya, most candidates' perceived that they began this practicum with naïve conceptions. For example, many shared that they believed they were going to realize what the Kenyans lacked, which is a deficit perspective indicative of perceiving that one's values are universally shared, rather than that others in the world have different and equally valid knowledge, beliefs, and ways of living (Cushner, 2007; Mundy & Manion, 2008). Furthermore, participants' experiences here support the contention that media images viewed in North America that were intended to promote charity were counterproductive to developing the global perspective required to provide global education (Swartz, 2003). Indeed, key components of global education are teaching solidarity and tolerance, rather than charity and chauvinism (Mundy & Manion, 2008).

Additionally, the findings of this study illustrate how candidates' came to recognize the significant assets of those who live in this developing country, in lieu of perceiving their differences as deficits. For example, all participants highlighted the emphasis the Kenyans placed on relationships and community, as both exemplary and worthy of emulating in Canada.

Teacher candidates' experiences detailed herein illustrate that they engaged in intentional conceptual change (Sinatra & Pintrich, 2003), with respect to global understandings as outlined by Mundy and Manion (2008) and differentiated instruction as described by Tomlinson (2003).

However, an international practicum in a developing country alone may not have promoted these changes. Rather, this study documented the importance of also providing cultural

immersion, with these experiences creating the credibility required to change conceptions (Gregoire, 2003; Posner et al., 1982). The salient personal experiences undertaken within a community with whom candidates had developed positive relationships, appeared to create the personal relevance required for engagement in intentional conceptual change (Gregoire, 2003).

Of equal importance was the supportive social context for change (Gregoire, 2003; Risko et al., 2005). The NGO-university partnership collectively appeared to optimize the conditions for change. Critical reflection was vital to candidates' abilities to make sense of their experiences (Alfaro, 2008; Jordi, 2011; Risko et al., 2005). Daily collaborative reflection guided by the NGO youth facilitators supported candidates as they became dissatisfied with their initial conceptions and worked towards replacing these understandings with alternative conceptions they perceived to be more fruitful (Gregoire, 2003; Risko et al., 2005). Moreover, synthesizing and deconstructing their perceptions through written reflections and collaborative reflection during the university-based post-practicum debriefing session may have enhanced candidates' conceptual awareness of their beliefs, which is an important precursor to change (Gregoire, 2003; Risko et al, 2005). The support provided through collaborative reflection during the university-based post-practicum debriefing session may have been of particular importance in negotiating reverse culture shock and supporting candidates' realignment of their world views.

Most candidates in this study explicitly identified how their Kenyan experiences fostered confidence in their abilities to meet their future students' needs. Specifically, they outlined how they developed enhanced understandings of the importance of student-teacher relationships as well as providing instruction that was differentiated to be culturally relevant. As perceiving future use of new insights as beneficial is a necessary condition for conceptual change (Gregoire, 2003; Posner et al., 1982), the potential to use these insights to support their future students may have affected the change processes of these Canadian teacher candidates positively.

Canadian teacher education should prepare candidates to confidently and competently meet the needs of a multicultural multilingual student body. Importantly, this study documented how participants perceived this practicum supported this objective and affirmed assertions that international teaching experiences may enhance candidates' self-perceptions of their abilities to teach students of varying cultural backgrounds (Cushner,

2007; Roose, 2001).

Concluding Thoughts

As developing a global perspective is a goal of public education recognized widely in Canada (Evans, 2006), it is imperative to prepare Canadian teacher candidates to provide global education (Mundy, 2007; Mundy & Manion, 2008). Additionally, preparing teachers to differentiate instruction in response to their students' unique needs, interests, and background experiences is of significant importance (Tomlinson, 2003). Participants in this study perceived that engaging in an international practicum provided in association with the Canadian NGO *Free the Children*, which included cultural immersion and collaborative guided reflection, enabled them to develop a global perspective and prepared them to provide culturally responsive differentiated instruction. In addition to supporting Witteborn's (2010) assertion that NGOs have an underutilized role in fostering global awareness, this study documented how NGOs can assist in preparing teacher candidates to educate diverse students. Accordingly, NGOs may have a significant underutilized role in contributing to the preparation of future teachers.

In closing, we hope that the insights shared herein will inspire Canadian teacher educators to develop international practicum opportunities in association with NGOs and will provide some direction in doing so. The insights gleaned through this study document how these opportunities hold the potential to enhance Canadian teacher candidates' abilities to provide global education and meet the diverse needs of students in our multicultural, multilingual country.

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Chapter 10

Teacher Education and new conceptions of 'Canadian-ness': What is Canadian about Canadian Teacher Education?

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Canadians have long struggled to understand, define and describe our national identity and educational institutions have often played a significant role in this struggle. The question of what is Canadian about Canadian teacher education cannot be addressed without an exploration of what it means to be Canadian. The purpose of this paper is to combine development of a descriptive typology of 'Canadian-ness' - constructed out of ideas drawn from political philosophy and citizenship theory - with examination of selected primary source documents representing nation-wide perspectives on teacher education programs to determine if and in what ways teacher education programs in this country reflect a newer notion of Canadian-ness. Based on the analysis, which demonstrates that contemporary notions of Canadian-ness are taken up in present teacher education programs, it can be concluded that there is something Canadian about Canadian teacher education.

The question of what is Canadian about Canadian teacher education cannot be addressed without an exploration of what it means to be Canadian. With our vastly diverse national society, Canadians have long struggled to understand, define and describe our national identity. I posit then that the question of what is Canadian about Canadian teacher education first requires an investigation into 'Canadian-ness' and then requires an analysis aimed at discovering if and in what ways teacher education in this country represents a notion of Canadian-ness. In this paper I intend to explore these questions by drawing on

ideas from political philosophy and citizenship theory and by utilizing a content analysis approach.

Context

In Canada, suspended between our colonial past and our present relationship with our imposing southern neighbour, and where our citizenry is constituted of diverse First Nations and immigrant cultural groups, the search for or construction of an essential national identity has long been a national pastime and/or anxiety. For most of our history, the Anglo-Canadian elite worked hard to create and impose a unifying nationalist myth based on the criteria of homogeneity of race, language and religion (McKillop 1987 & 1994). The Anglo-Canadian elite defined a 'good Canadian' as a person of sound British character, who promoted the traditional social order and supported Protestant Christian morality (Tomkins, 1986; McKillop, 1987). This conception of national identity was promoted by programs of study used in Canadian schools and as part of Canadian teacher education programs (Tomkins, 1986).

Despite this effort Canadians have never completely embraced an essentialist national identity. As John Ralston Saul, (1997, p. 8) argues, "The essential characteristic of the Canadian public mythology is its complexity". He takes the position that this 'soft' approach to national identity is a strength rather than a sign of weakness. Richardson (2002, p. 69) also claims that Canadians "lack a well-developed sense of national self", but that this ambiguous national identity means that Canadians are well, and perhaps uniquely, positioned to understand what it means to be citizens in a pluralistic/ diverse society with a more a 'globalized' identity. Richardson (2002) writes:

> Ironically, although the absence of a strong sense of "us" was a problem in
> terms of the modernist concept of national identity formation, it ultimately led
> to opportunities for progressive redefinition of national identity that other
> nations with much stronger sense of self could not take advantage of (p. 69).

While the present federal government seems bent on reversing the trend, in recent years the penchant within Canadian popular culture has been to reconstruct the notion of 'Canadian-ness' and hence notions about what it means to be Canadian. These popular constructions characterize Canadians as outward-looking, valuing peacekeeping and other forms of international cooperation; as people committed to balancing individual rights with ideas about collective well-being[6], and as citizens who are not defined by a singular culture or identity. Polling indicates that young people are defining themselves as citizens who take pride in bilingualism, the Charter of Rights and Freedoms, and in multiculturalism policies that allow people from different cultural backgrounds to live in peace. (Mendlsohn, 2003, in O'Neill, 2004, p. 4). However, as mentioned above, this is a relatively new understanding of what it means to be Canadian and Canadian schooling and Canadian teacher education programs did not embrace this 'multi-layered and inclusive sense of Canadian identity for most of our history (Tomkins, 1986). Therefore the questions arise: Are these newer conception of 'Canadian-ness' influencing teacher education in Canada? And if so, how?

The construction of Canadians as 'multi-identitied' citizens found in popular culture thinking is also being theorized by Canadian political philosophers. For example, Kingwell (2000), Kymlicka, (2001) and Carens (2000), have developed political theory out of real life contexts and each have come to the conclusion that citizens must be recognized as multi-identitied. Kingwell (2000) contemplates the role and nature of citizenship in this era of globalization, acknowledging that "The persistent challenge set political theory by diverse cultures is how to find a degree of political substance that is sufficient ("thick" enough) to bind citizens, but at the same time sufficiently flexible ("thin" enough) to allow them to pursue their life projects without undue interference"(p.166). In responding to this challenge, Kingwell (2000, pp 168 & 12) developed the idea of "reiterative universalism", wherein the notion of citizenship is defined by "*the act of participation itself*" rather than by conformity to any essentialist notions regarding nationality, ethnicity, gender, class, and/or etceteras. Kymlicka (2001) also takes up the notion of multi-identitied citizens in his discussion of liberal democratic political theory, promoting the notion of "liberal culturalism", which is "the view that liberal democratic states should not only uphold the familiar set of common

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[6] See the Canadian Charter of Right and Freedoms as legislation protecting individual rights as compared to policies supporting public health care, for example.

civil and political rights of citizenship which are protected in all liberal democracies; they must also adopt various group-specific rights or policies which are intended to recognize and accommodate the distinctive identities and needs of ethnocultural groups" (p. 42). In arguing that we should use the term "multination states" rather than nation-states to refer to countries around the world, Kymlicka (2001, 234) reinforces his notions of multilayered citizenship. Carens (2000) adopts the position that a complex understanding of citizen is necessary to promote the notion of justice as evenhandedness. After examining the way in which various peoples around the world organize themselves politically, with a particular focus on Canadian cases, Carens (2000, 262) concludes that:

> People's multiple political identities are variable and shifting and linked to their cultural concerns in complex ways…. …the only morally appropriate way to think about appropriate political arrangements or suitable conceptions of citizenship is to take these differences of culture and identity explicitly into account, trying as much as possible to aim at evenhandedness. (p. 262)

Based on these theoretical positions, it seems possible that people living within a particular country like Canada could perceive themselves as citizens of both their country and the world. In developing philosophical understandings of citizenship in multi-nation states, these Canadian political philosophers present us with conceptions that embrace the idea that Canadians can be multi-identitied beings who have intimate connections to a variety of local, national and international social, cultural, and political groupings and still be considered 'Canadian'. Again, the question arises: Does Canadian teacher education take up these notions of 'Canadian-ness'?

Methodology, Frameworks and Typology

Background Limitation

Canadians have often defined or conceived of 'Canadian-ness' through negative comparisons to conceptions of other national identities - that is, to be Canadian is to *not* be British or *not* be Australian or *not* be American (i.e., citizen of the United States). In this study, however, I

will attempt to develop a typology that describes a newer conception of Canadian-ness without making comparisons to other national identities. Hence, in this study I will not be comparing 'Canadian-ness' with 'American-ness', nor will I compare foundational ideas revealed in documents related to teacher education in Canada with ideas expressed in teacher education documents of other nations. The effort here is not aimed at distinguishing how or whether 'Canadian-ness' is special or unique, nor is the effort aimed at understanding if Canadian teacher education programs are unique in comparison with teacher education programs in other nations. Rather, this study simply attempts to describe and understand that which could be considered Canadian about Canadian teacher education programs though an understanding of a newer conception of Canadian-ness.

Data Sources

While there have been studies that have complied information about teacher education across Canada (Crocker & Dibbon, 2008), there are very few single source foundational documents that provide a nation-wide perspective on what should be the underpinnings of teacher education because education designated as a provincial jurisdiction in Canada, The Association of Canadian Deans of Education (ACDE) did, however, take on the task of developing sets of principles upon which the advancement of education in Canada might rest. The sets of principles are laid out in various documents, or 'Accords', that deal with specific areas of interest from the point of view of this leadership group responsible for the education of educators. For this study, I have chosen to examine the *Accord on Initial Teacher Education* because it has been widely discussed and utilized as a foundational document for initial teacher education in Canada since its ratification in 2005.

Again, because education is a provincial responsibility, it is not possible to find a single primary source document that represents a nation-wide perspective regarding what the 'public' (represented by government) thinks should underpin teacher education. Nevertheless, it seems to me that the examination of teacher certification requirements, particularly in the form of standards or competencies, could provide good insight into this level of thought about what teacher education should be about, as these requirements must be approved by the Minister of Education in each province. In seven Canadian provinces,

teacher certification requirements are listed as particular course requirements or listed as particular topics of study. In these provinces, graduates are considered to have reached necessary standards, or mastered teaching competencies through particular coursework and practicum experiences. However, the documents generated by provinces indicating certification requirements using simple course or topic lists are lacking in detail about expectations. Hence, for the purposes of this study, I decided to examine, as a sample, the certification requirement documents of the three provinces, including British Columbia, Alberta and Quebec, where standards or competencies are described and utilized for certification purposes as these provide rich detail.

In addition, to garner the ways in which teacher education is described in Canada, I decided to utilize the program descriptions that have been provided by several teacher education institutions for the database that is under construction through a survey found at the Teacher Ed Canada website, www.teacheredcanada.org. This project, involving in part the development of the website and database, is connected to SHRC funded research that is aimed at addressing two questions: what is the landscape of teacher education in Canada? And, what pan-Canadian perspectives does knowing the landscape provide? At present, the results of the survey can only be accessed by members of the institutions that have uploaded information. However, the intention is to provide public access in the near future. At the time of writing, seventeen of the sixty-one teacher education institutions in Canada have provided program information to the database, including fourteen sets of data provided in English. For the purposes of this study, I have examined the fourteen English-language program descriptions, which will be identified using a number (citations will read, for example, 'Program 1') rather than the name of the institution to which the program belongs.

As a final point regarding data sources, I do acknowledge that program descriptions can include mission statements or goals that may or may not permeate program syllabi or course outlines and so I acknowledge that examination of these documents could provide deeper insights into the research question. However, in order to limit the length of this paper and with full understanding of the implications, I have chosen to limit my initial investigation into the Canadian-ness of Canadian teacher education by excluding course outlines/syllabi as a data source. The examination of these documents will be undertaken in a future study.

Frameworks and Typology

To address the overarching question of what is Canadian about Canadian teacher education, I use a content analysis approach to investigate the representation of Canadian national identity embedded in these written texts that underpin or describe teacher education in Canada. However, given that the Canadian identity is described as fluid, complex and multi-layered, how can a conception or definition of 'Canadian-ness' be captured in a fashion that allows development of sound investigative approach to a content analysis?[7] For assistance in developing a descriptive typology of 'Canadian-ness' I turned to recently published literature produced by citizenship theorists (e.g., Kymlicka & Norman, 2000; Jamieson, 2002; Joppke, 2007; Banks, 2008; Johnson & Morris, 2010).

Conceptions of 'Citizen'

In discussing the conceptualization of 'citizen', contemporary theorists (Banks, 2008; Joppke, 2007; Kymlicka & Norman, 2000) refer both explicitly and implicitly to three descriptive categories: status, identity and activity. *Identity* describes how individual citizens view themselves as a member of one or more political, social and/or cultural communities. Newer theories of citizenship argue that citizen identity is also influenced by other particular or personal identities that are shaped by class, race, ethnicity, religion, gender, profession, sexual preference, and so on. *Status* is described by the civil, political, and social rights possessed by citizens and the duties or responsibilities they owe. *Activity (or action)* describes the undertakings in which citizens are expected to engage. Descriptions of activity range from voting and obeying laws, to active participation in election campaigns and debates, to transformative action including dissent and the promotion of social and ecological justice "even if such action might violate, challenge, or dismantle existing laws, conventions, or structures". (Banks, 2008, p. 136) Using these three categories citizenship theorists describe

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[7] I acknowledge the difficulty of the attempt to capture a definition of Canadian-ness – the danger in this is reifying a new myth of the 'essential Canadian. However, the overarching question of this study cannot be addressed without such a definition.

two contrasting conceptions of citizen: the Assimilated or 'Essentialized' Citizen and the Cosmopolitan or Differentiated Citizen.[8]

The assimilated or 'essentialized' citizen

In the assimilated or essentialized citizen conception, identity is based on the notion that the ideal society is one in which there are no traces of ethnic or racial attachments. (Banks, 2008) Citizens are to view themselves as members of a single, united and homogeneous political and social community. This conception of citizen assumes that ethnic and immigrant groups forsake their original cultures, blending into one dominant national and overarching culture, in order to fully participate in the nation-state. (Banks, 2004)

The status of citizens, as conceived in this instance, is defined by a set of individual rights protected by legislation. This conception maintains "that the individual must be freed of primordial and ethnic attachments to have free choice and options in a modernized democratic society." (Banks, 2008, p. 131) and so the status of citizens within this conceptualization does not include the notion of group rights as these are assumed to be detrimental to the rights of the individual. (Scott, 2007) In return for the protection of individual rights, citizens have a relatively simple set of responsibilities: they should be loyal and patriotic, obey the law, pay taxes, and perform military service. The activities or actions in which citizens are expected to engage are also comparatively circumscribed: citizens should develop a common body of knowledge about the history and political structures of the country, use rational processes to become informed about public issues, become informed about the positions of the various political parties, and participate by voting and obeying the law.

The Cosmopolitan or Differentiated Citizen

This conception of citizen is based on the notion that individuals have multiple or hybrid identities. (Jamieson, 2002) Rather than subsuming identity/ies into a single dominant national culture, individual and group differences are acknowledged and protected. People

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[8] Citizenship theorists certainly argue that there are conceptions of citizen that lie between the two conceptions described here and that people and nations around the world are at varying stages in the evolving understanding of the concept. However, for the purposes of this paper, the two contrasting conceptions provide a reasonable structure for the development of a typology of 'Canadian-ness'.

within a country can identify themselves as citizens of an individual nation, but remain open to multi-layered descriptions of national citizenship. Associated with this, citizen identity is shaped by a sense of commitment and loyalty to the global community that transcends national self-interest – citizens are people "whose allegiance is to the worldwide community of human beings." (Nussbaum, 2002, p. 4)

The status of citizens in this conception is defined by a common set of protected individual civil and political rights, accompanied by a set of group-specific rights or policies that recognize and accommodate the distinctive identities and needs of multiple socio-cultural groups (Banks, 2008; Kymlicka & Norman, 2000). Status, in this conception of citizen, also sees the notion of rights expanding beyond the narrow territoriality of nation states (Jamieson, 2002). This has the effect of broadening the expected duties of citizens. Citizens are expected to be loyal and patriotic to all peoples of the earth, thus committed to enhancing the 'public good' for all. Obeying the law, paying taxes and performance of military service should be based on the exercise the decision-making power of citizens, and arise out of public discourse in which political demands are justified "in terms that fellow citizens can understand and accept as consistent with their status as free and equal citizens" (Kymlicka & Norman, 2000, pp. 8-9). With an expanded expectation of duties, this conception of citizen broadens the activities or actions in which citizens are expected to engage. Citizens are not only expected to become informed, they are also expected to willingly participate in politics by making their own views known while carefully listening to a wide range of diverse views. In this, citizens are expected to explain their own views intelligibly and candidly, providing reasons for political demands, not simply stating preferences or making threats. (Kymlicka & Norman, 2000) Citizens also take action to promote social justice even if such actions "violate, challenge, or dismantle existing laws, conventions, or structures" (Banks, 2008, p.136). In this, conflict or dissent are not seen as destructive forces in public discourse, but development of critical thinking and conflict resolution skills is acknowledged as necessary.

Conceptualizing Canadian-ness

In the effort to discover if there is something Canadian about Canadian teacher education, this study examines the texts that underpin or describe teacher education using a typology of

Canadian-ness based on the work of citizenship theorist described above. While these theorists describe two contrasting conceptions of citizen, I think, given the claims that to be Canadian is to have a fluid and multi-layered notion of national identity, that the cosmopolitan or differentiated conceptualization of citizen is more informative in describing Canadian-ness than is the conceptualization of the assimilated or essentialized citizen.[9] In fact, if we return to the introductory section of this paper and line up the characterizations of Canadian-ness emerging from contemporary popular culture with the description of the identity/ies, status and activity of the cosmopolitan or differentiated citizen, there is an unmistakable alignment, which will be clarified, below. Hence, while citizenship theorists describe the identity, status and activity characteristics of two conceptions of citizen, I have adapted their ideas to describe the three characteristics of 'Canadian-ness'.

Canadian Identity – To be Canadian is to understand what it means to be a citizen in a pluralistic, diverse society. To be Canadian is to lack a well-developed sense of national self – to not be defined by a singular culture or identity and to embrace (or at least acknowledge) a fluid, complex, multi-layered and inclusive notion of nationality. To be Canadian is to have a more 'globalized' identity – that is, to have the capacity to identify with peoples from diverse cultures around the world.

Canadian Status – To be Canadian is to be committed to balancing individual rights with ideas about collective well-being. To be Canadian is to be bound together by a common set of individual rights protected through legislation while at the same time recognizing the need for policies and legislation that recognize and protect group rights.

Canadian Activity – To be Canadian is to work toward understanding the wide variety of cultural and global viewpoints that exist and to try to critically examine multiple perspectives. To be Canadian is to aspire to engage in 'public reasonableness' – that is, to share personal views using good arguments rather than threats and to listen with care to the

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[9] It must be acknowledged that 'assimilationist' sentiments are still in circulation in Canada, that the abstract description of Canadian-ness to be outlined in the typology will not fit each Canadian in her/his particularity, and that Canadians do not consistently engage in balanced public discourse and promotion of social justice activity, but I do not doubt that the identity and status of the differentiated citizen is more descriptive of Canadian-ness than is the 'essentialized' version.

views of others. To be Canadian is to be outward-looking, valuing peacekeeping and other forms of international cooperation and to take action to promote social justice.

Is this newer conception of 'Canadian-ness', as described within these categories, influencing teacher education in Canada? Does Canadian teacher education take up these notions of 'Canadian-ness'; and, if so, how?

Data & Keyword Analysis

Using the above descriptions as a framework, I employed an interrogative approach to text analysis adapted from the work of philosopher and historian R.G. Collingwood (1939, 1940, 1994). This involves treating the written document as "testimony", with the analyst uncovering meaning by cross-examining the discourse, or explicit statements in the text to address the research question(s) undergirding the study. Further questions may be formulated by the researcher to probe the meaning of the text as themes, ideas, and underlying suppositions emerge during the analysis. (Lemisko, 1998; Clausen, Horton & Lemisko, 2008) To deal with the analysis and comparison of multiple documents, I also borrowed an approach devised by Clausen (2001) which is based on Raymond Williams' (1976) technique of keyword analysis. This involves selection of salient words related to the investigation, determining the location of the keywords in each document under analysis and then the examination of the surrounding text in the document to probe how language is used where the term is embedded. In utilizing this approach for this study, several key word descriptors (and their derivations) connected to the three characteristics of 'Canadian-ness were selected as a means of drilling down into and unpacking multiple documents in an even-handed fashion.

To ensure a focused analysis and comparison of the documents, I selected a fairly limited number of terms for the keyword search and these were selected because of their descriptive connection to the three characteristics of Canadian-ness described above. Specifically, I searched in the documents for terms selected as descriptors connected to Canadian identity, including *pluralistic, diverse/diversity, equity/equality, world, international, global*; as descriptors connected to Canadian status, including, *individual, collective, collaborative,*

community, inclusive, c*ulture/multicultural*; and as descriptors connected to Canadian activity, including, *perspective, viewpoint, democracy, critical, transform, social justice* and *cooperation*.

Using word processing technology - that is, the 'find' function - quickly allowed me to focus on the specific locations where the selected terms were explicitly used in each document. After determining the location of each use of each word, the surrounding written text was examined to explore the context in which the term was embedded. During the interrogation of the locations in the documents where the key words are located, I posed questions particular to this study, including:

- Does the text stand as evidence to indicate that teacher education programs should accept or promote the notion of a fluid, complex and inclusive notion of nationality and/or which indicates the acceptance of the notion that teacher education programs should assist in development of the capacity to identify with peoples from diverse cultures around the world? (Or not?)

- Does the text stand as evidence to indicate that teacher education programs should promote the notion that individual rights should be balanced with ideas about collective well-being? (Or not?)

- Does the text stand as evidence to indicate that teacher education programs should support development of teachers who value cooperation, engage in critical thinking and/or who have the capacity to take action to promote social justice? (Or not?)

After completing examination of key words in the context of in each document, I compared the way in which terms were used in one document with the way they were used in the others to determine if common themes emerged from the analyses regarding the Canadian-ness of Canadian teacher education programs.

Findings & Discussion

Based on the analysis of the selected documents, I will make the bold claim that there is something Canadian about Canadian teacher education because elements of Canadian-ness, as described above, are represented in the selected texts that underpin and describe teacher education in this country. Although there is some inconsistency in the numbers of instances of use of the keyword across the document types, the themes that arise through the analysis

of content reveal that, in aggregate, there are interesting similarities in the representation of Canadian-ness by teacher education document producers. To explore and discuss these findings more fully, the following discussion is divided into the three characteristics of Canadian-ness that emerged during the analysis: 1) descriptions of identity; 2) balancing individual and collective needs and well-being; and 3) the expectations of activity or action.

Descriptions of Identity

While there are no explicit definitions or descriptions of Canadian identity in the teacher education documents, there are multiple references to the notions of diversity, pluralism, internationalism, and global perspective-taking. In the Association of Canadian Deans of Education, (2005) *Accord on Initial Teacher Education* (hereafter, the Deans' Accord) we read:

> An effective initial teacher education program promotes diversity, inclusion, understanding, acceptance, and social responsibility in continuing dialogue with local, national, and global communities. (p.2)

The teacher certification documents include similar references:

> Educators treat students with respect and dignity. Educators respect the diversity in their classrooms, schools and communities. (British Columbia Ministry of Education [hereafter, B.C. Education], 2012, p. 3)

> Teachers' application of pedagogical knowledge, skills and attributes is based in their ongoing analysis of contextual variables [including] ... cultural pluralism; provincial, national and global influences (Alberta Education, 1997, pp. 3-4)

> [A competent teacher] - Takes into account the prerequisites, conceptions, social differences (i.e. gender, ethnic origin, socio-economic and cultural differences), needs and special interests of the students when developing

teaching/learning situations (Quebec Ministry of Education [hereafter, Quebec Education], 2001, p.127).

Descriptions of teacher education programs are also peppered with matching terms. For example:

Our programs embrace the following broad goals for our graduates: …Knowledge of learners' developmental characteristics, learning styles, and diversity that will ensure the continuous intellectual, social, and physical development of students; Knowledge about and understanding of human behaviour, society and culture, with specific attention to international perspectives and issues related to ethnicity, race, and gender. (Program 3, Teacher Ed Canada, n.d.)

The Faculty is committed to educating students to work in a pluralistic society. (Program 4, Teacher Ed Canada, n.d.)

The general purpose of the Bachelor of Education program is to prepare educators for careers in a variety of educational settings, including K to 12 schools, where they will work to advance the intellectual, physical, emotional, social, and spiritual development of learners of all ages and provide leadership in incorporating diversity and inclusion in the development of educational communities. (Program 7, Teacher Ed Canada, n.d.)

Strands woven throughout the program include… 3) diversity, social justice and aboriginal perspectives 4) language, literacies and cultures (Program 13, Teacher Ed Canada, n.d.)

Examination of these examples reveals that Canadian teacher education seems to embrace the notion of 'multi-identied' citizenship.   By insisting that teachers be educated to work in meaningful and culturally sensitive ways with diverse students and communities, teacher education document producers implicitly represent an understanding of Canadian-ness that

matches the characteristics of Canadian identity described above – that is, to be Canadian is to understand what it means to be a citizen in a pluralistic, diverse society and to have a more 'globalized' identity, with allegiance to the worldwide community. Clearly, the emerging conception of 'Canadian-ness' is influencing teacher education in Canada as evidenced by the examples that demonstrate that teacher education is taking up these notions of Canadian identity.

Balancing the individual and the collective

Although the teacher education documents never refer directly to the notion of individual or collective rights as outlined in the Canadian 'status' category, there are several references that indicate the foundational belief that teachers need to take into account both individual and communal needs. The certification requirement documents of the three provinces include several examples that illustrate this point. The B.C. Education (2012) standards document indicates that teachers must "demonstrate an understanding of individual learning differences" while valuing the "involvement and support of parents, guardians, families and communities" (p. 3). The B.C. standards also indicate that teachers must be knowledgeable about how individual children develop as learners, but must also understand how children develop "as social beings" (p. 3). The Alberta Education (1997, p. 4) standards specify that teachers should "appreciate individual differences" and accommodate differences among both "individuals and groups of students." The Quebec Education (2001, p. 141) document indicates that a competent teacher "Recognizes instances where cooperation with other members of the teaching team is required".

Program descriptions also indicate that Canadian teacher educators take into account the balancing of individual and communal interests. For example, one description includes the notion that teacher candidates must learn to value the knowledge of individuals while valuing how "the knowledge each student [brings] contributes to the classroom and community." (Program 2, Teacher Ed Canada, n.d.) Another description indicates that the program is designed to prepare educators who strive to "affirm dignity and respect for individuals [and who] support communities". (Program 7, Teacher Ed Canada, n.d.) In a third example, the description proclaims that the program fosters excellence "through

reflection, and collaborative sustained partnerships" and states that students will "act to collaboratively and continuously improve student learning, as well as their own practice and that of their learning community." (Program 10, Teacher Ed Canada, n.d.)

Although the language used in these examples do not include terms like 'rights' and 'responsibilities' or 'individual rights' and 'group rights' as protected by policy or legislation, the sentiments expressed do imply that teachers should be educated in ways that deepen understanding of and commitment to balancing individual needs with collective wellbeing. In this, teacher education document producers implicitly represent an understanding of Canadian-ness that matches the characteristics of Canadian status described above. While not as explicit as the 'identity' characteristic, the examples do illustrate that the conception of 'Canadian-ness' is influencing teacher education in Canada.

Expectations of Activity or Action

The teacher education documents examined in the study include multiple and explicit references to the kinds of activities expected of Canadian teachers graduating from Canadian teacher education programs. These mesh directly with the kinds of activities and actions described in the category, 'Canadian Activity'. In particular, the documents stipulate that teachers should be educated to become critically-minded, perspective-taking leaders who engage in reasoned public discourse, and take collective action to promote social justice and build communities. Several examples from across the documents illuminate this point.

The Deans' Accord (2005) explicitly indicates that teachers should become critically-minded perspective-takers who take action based grounded knowledge. The document reads: "An effective initial teacher education program supports a research disposition and climate that recognizes a range of knowledge and perspectives" [and] "envisions the teacher as a professional who observes, discerns, critiques, assesses, and acts accordingly." (p. 2)

The certification requirement documents emphasize the idea that educators develop and refine knowledge through reflection and collaboration, work with and within communities to build common understanding (engage in reasoned public discourse) and take

action within communities based on sound understanding of their moral and ethical obligations. For example, the BC Education (2012, p. 2) standards read:

> Educators engage in professional development and reflective practice… [they] develop and refine personal philosophies of education, teaching and learning that are informed by theory and practice. [and they] identify their professional needs and work to meet those needs individually and collaboratively.

 The Alberta Education (1997) standards read:

> Teachers recognize their actions are bound in moral, ethical and legal considerations regarding their obligations to students, parents, administrators, school authorities, communities and society at large. Teachers acknowledge these obligations and act accordingly. (p. 4) …Partnerships with the home are characterized by the candid sharing of information and ideas… [and] Teachers guide their actions by their overall visions of the purpose of teaching."(p. 7)

According to the Quebec Education (2001, p. 123) document, a competent teacher acts

> …as a professional inheritor, critic and interpreter of knowledge or culture when teaching students [and] Adopts a critical approach to the subject matter. - Transforms the classroom into a cultural base open to a range of different viewpoints within a common space.- Casts a critical look at his or her own origins, cultural practices and social role.

Perhaps it should not be surprising that teacher certification documents include some powerful directions with respect to the activities in which teachers are expected to engage. However, it is interesting, and I think revealing, the degree to which these documents require criticality and reasoned public engagement among teachers.

Finally, the program descriptions examined in this study also indicate that Canadian pre-service teachers are expected to strive to become critically-minded, perspective-takers, to engage in reasoned public discourse, and to take collective

action to promote social justice and build communities. Examples drawn from these program descriptions read:

> We believe that… [students] are able to consider, and perhaps challenge, ideas using the context of their experience. (Program 1, Teacher Ed Canada, n.d.)

> Specifically, the program is designed to prepare educators who strive to … build emancipatory action for social and ecological justice, engage in education as transformative praxis, and consider educational possibilities from multiple philosophical perspectives. …Candidates will engage in community-based activities, self-directed learning, critical reflection, and inquiry projects to deepen their awareness of the roles of educator as teacher-scholar. (Program 7, Teacher Ed Canada, n.d.)

> The TEP [teacher education program] will have a strong emphasis on developing critically-minded educators with a passion for social justice and a progressive outlook for the future. These ideals are consistent with and informed by the 5 main program values of social justice, pedagogical sensitivity, critical mindedness, reflective practice and integration of knowledge and practice. (Program 12, Teacher Ed Canada, n.d.)

Examination of these examples support the claim that Canadian teacher education strives to educate teachers who take action promoting social justice and community building based on critical thought, reasoned collective discourse and perspective taking. In this, teacher education document producers explicitly represent an understanding of Canadian-ness that matches the characteristics of Canadian activity as described above – i.e. to be Canadian is to understanding and critically examine multiple perspectives; to aspire to engage in public reasonableness; to be outward-looking and cooperatively take action to promote social justice. In this instance, it seems without doubt that the emerging conception of 'Canadian-ness' has been taken up by teacher education in Canada.

Conclusions

What does an analysis of these documents tell us about what is Canadian about Canadian teacher education? First, there appears to be some consistency between the various teacher education document producers, or stakeholders, the ways in which they are taking up the notion of Canadian-ness. It is also clear that stakeholders are generally more explicit regarding expectations of action than they are regarding notions of identity and status. Perhaps this is unsurprising considering that these documents were written to give guidance for academic programming and therefore lend themselves to be more explicit about 'active' goals and outcomes. Also, it is interesting to note that although stakeholders do not explicitly describe Canadian identity, a clear understanding that our national identity is shaped by our differences and diversities emerges from the documents. Finally, while the documents do not discuss the notion of individual or group rights, there is evidence that Canadian teacher education does take up the idea that protection of individuality must be balanced with the protection of collective wellbeing.

However, before drawing this paper to a close, I must remind readers that my conclusions are based on the examination of a relatively limited number of documents and types of documents, and I must re-acknowledge the tensions that arise when attempting to describe Canadian-ness. While it seems apparent that Canadians are embracing a fluid, complex, multi-layered and inclusive notion of 'Canadian-ness', many assimilationist dreams of creating an essential national identity remain in circulation in our country. Although notions of acceptance and celebration of plurality are becoming part of the popular mentality in Canada, these ideas are a significant but fairly recent departure from the past, when the Anglo-Canadian elite simply refused to recognize diversity or actively worked to assimilate those who were 'other'. Understanding this past, and the way in which the past remains alive in the present is important and of deep interest, but this kind of exploration lies outside the boundaries of this paper. An exploration of these ideas as well as the analysis of more program descriptions and related course outlines and syllabi, are definitely part of my future research plans.

Despite the limitations and tensions I have mentioned above, I am convinced that the analysis demonstrates that contemporary notions of Canadian-ness are taken up in present teacher education programs. Canadian teacher educators appear to a) believe that action to challenging traditional discourses is necessary in order to address issues of power and social justice in Canada and around the world; b) acknowledge the importance of both individual and collective welfare; and c) embrace the notion of a fluid, complex and muli-layered Canadian identity. These ideas match the conceptualization of Canadian-ness as a cosmopolitan or differentiated citizen. This leads to the conclusion that there definitely is something Canadian about Canadian teacher education.

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Chapter 11

Coherence as a verb: Reconceptualizing coherence in teacher education

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Coherence has long been identified as a critical issue in teacher education programming (Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 1999; Hammerness, 2006). In this chapter, the authors review the contested understandings of "coherence" and argue for the primacy of coherence-making and meaning-making by the teacher candidate as core in the continuing process of learning to teach. The efforts of a large teacher education program to frame the program to facilitate the conscious cohering and connecting of varied bodies of complementary knowledge by teacher candidates are recounted. The resulting tool, called "The Learner Document" attempts to articulate the complexity, interconnectedness and contextuality of teacher practice in a way that heightens metacognitive awareness of enduring understandings and pedagogical practices. Using documents, program materials and survey data, this case study outlines the ongoing development of the document over a seven-year period. Finally, the value and challenges inherent in undertaking a process to develop a "living" tool designed to facilitate shared understanding are explored.

Introduction

There has been increased attention and debate about the critical ingredients of high quality teacher education programs. Faculty in the initial teacher education programs at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education have focused attention over the past seven years to better understand key elements and areas of knowledge that teacher candidates engage with in order to learn to teach. Throughout this work we have wrestled with the notion of

coherence in relationship to the development of a conceptual framework for initial teacher education.

Our experiences have led us to not advocate for a single shared framework for teacher education in general. While there are common elements in the many teacher education frameworks that we examined, we suggest that simple adoption or adaptation of another's framework does not allow the benefits of engaging together in the struggle to build a shared vision. Our experiences with coherence-making have demonstrated to us that consideration of context and unique program features are critically influential in creating ownership and understanding for such a framework. Our learnings also point to the value of putting teacher candidates' coherence-making at the center of a quest to understand the journey of learning to teach, and efforts toward structural coherence in program design.

We have come to understand how the process of developing purpose, goals, and vision during the development of a framework has been invaluable for our faculty and program development. Efforts to critically analyze program elements and discuss the purposes of particular program components have been essential activities in this journey. Our discussions continue to be complex, incomplete and multidimensional, but nevertheless, necessary to create a framework of understanding upon which reflective inquiry and practices may be built. The dialogic inquiry involved in exploring the multiple roles of a conceptual framework have supported those who engaged in the dialogues by making our shared work clearer and more coherent.

Rather than proposing a singular conceptual framework, by documenting the process of coming to shared understandings of teacher education within a particular context, we examine and suggest the potential roles inherent in developing a framework as a tool for coherence-making, aiming at reducing conceptual and structural fragmentation of teaching and learning. From initial goals to engage in dialogue about the purposes and understandings of initial teacher education, to clarify course content, and to develop with instructors a shared conception of our program and content, emerged a resistance to consistency and sameness across courses and programs. Instead, we developed a commitment to casting the framework as a primary tool to support teacher candidates' experiences of coherent

meaning-making in their journey of learning to teach. In other words, we explored for whom and by whom coherence was being created or experienced.

From our collaborative journey of exploration, the *Learner Document* has emerged as a conceptual framework to support teacher educators and teacher candidates within our programs, and to facilitate a cogent discussion with our partners about the knowledge bases of effective teacher development. Curricula designed within a conceptual framework support teacher candidates to think explicitly and metacognitively about teaching and learning and to assess their personal knowledge creation throughout the program (Darling Hammond et al, 2005). The *Learner Document* represents our efforts to that end.

In this chapter, we begin by discussing conceptions of coherence, making an argument for the connection between conceptual clarity and coherence, then outline our journey of development of our framework, *The Learner Document*, while fully recognizing its incompleteness and evolving nature. Finally, we share emerging learnings and offer thoughts for colleagues interested in undertaking this process of moving to shared understandings of program purposes and teacher learning.

Considering Coherence in Teacher Education

In their review of conceptions of *coherence,* Grossman, Hammerness, McDonald & Ronfeldt (2008) state that although coherence has been suggested as important in bridging theory/research and practice, field and university, it has rarely been explored or defined in the literature. When it is discussed, it has often been linked to ideas of teacher education program reform, redesign, improvement, innovation or some aspects of these (Cochran-Smith, 2001a; Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, Grossman, Rust, & Shulman, 2005; Fullan, 1998; Hammerness, 2006; Russell, McPherson & Martin, 2001). Coherence is often referenced in opposition to "fragmentation" or the experience of disparate and unconnected elements of teacher education programs (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005). Thus, frequently, coherence is tacitly understood to be what we have come to call "program" or "structural" coherence that is described both across academic components and/or across course work and field work. Many argue for program coherence that connects coursework,

clinical work and research creating a meaningful praxis for teacher candidates (Russell, McPherson and Martin, 2001, Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005).

Tatto (1996) defines coherence structurally:

> in terms of shared understandings among faculty in a manner in which opportunities to learn have been arranged (organizationally, holistically) to achieve a common goal of educating professional teachers with the knowledge, skills and dispositions necessary to more effectively teach diverse students. (p. 176)

Darling-Hammond (2006) focuses particularly on program coherence as a way to connect theory and practice across academic and field learning experiences:

> Tight coherence and integration among courses and between course work and clinical work in schools…and creates an almost seamless experience of learning to teach…carefully sequenced based on a strong theory of learning to teach; courses are designed to intersect with each other; are aggregated into a well-understood landscape of learning, and are tightly interwoven with the advisement process and students' work in schools. Subject matter learning is brought together with content pedagogy through courses that treat them together; program sequences also create cross-course links. Faculty plan together and syllabi are shared across university divisions as well as within departments. In intensely coherent programs, core ideas are reiterated across courses and the theoretical frameworks animating courses and assignments are consistent across the program. (p. 306)

In both of these views, coherence is viewed from the view point of "delivery" of a program by an institution, with particular attention to the sequence and design of learning opportunities connected to "core ideas" and goals. Thus, structural or programmatic coherence is also inextricably linked to conceptual coherence. Achieving conceptual coherence within teacher education programs has been challenging given the complexities, multidimensionality and contextuality of learning to teach. What remains at the center is our ultimate goal to attend to the teacher candidates' need to engage in their own coherence-making, in conscious construction of knowledge.

The complex concept of coherence can be easily misunderstood. Buchman and Floden (1992) describe what coherence should not be, warning of "the pitfalls of equating coherence with consistency and similarity" (p. 4). Where conceptual consistency implies unity, order, and consonance, coherence makes room for many types of connections including "loose ends," tensions, contradictions, and cognitive dissonance (p. 6). Consonance, dissonance and collaborative resonance have been identified as three contrasting relationships that are at the foundation of many reinvented programs and that lead to different opportunities for students to learn to teach (Cochran-Smith, 1992, p. 104). Attention must be given to understanding how teacher candidates integrate their learnings; however, goals of completely unified, harmonious understandings are not realistic or desirable. Notions of coherence must include the individual identities of the teacher candidates and the messy realities of learning to teach over time in a career. Learning to explore a variety of ways to make connections and synthesize knowledge is a necessary part of developing as a lifelong teacher-inquirer. Fostering mere similarity in course content or instructional practice through structural or program coherence does not necessarily mean that the learners' experiences of the program will be coherent.

Attempting to reduce the complexity of learning to teach to a prescriptive check list undermines authentic conceptual coherence. Instead, coherence would ideally be considered from a variety of perspectives and would include many dimensions: conceptual design, program structures, curriculum, integration of theory and practice, sequence and a clear and shared vision and goals, keeping in mind that coherence can contain and negotiate conceptual and theoretical dissonance and difference and that coherence-making must incorporate discrepant experience and thinking (Kagan, 1992). By sharing language and ideas and by making conceptions of teaching more explicit as a way of coherence-making, programs can encourage teacher candidates to actively engage in their own knowledge construction and to grapple with the dissonances that they experience (Russell et al., 2001). As Turner-Bisset (1999) indicates, by creating a conception of the knowledge areas utilized in teaching, we create "a kind of mental map for understanding the complexity of teachers' professional knowledge" (p. 41). It was in consideration of these complexities that our coherence-making framework, now entitled the *Learner Document*, was conceived.

Considering Conceptual Coherence in One Program: The Process of Development of the
Learner Document

 As teacher education has been "criticized for…offering fragmented and incoherent courses and lacking in a clear, shared conception of teaching among faculty" (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005, p. 391), the *Learner Document* aims at reducing the conceptual and structural fragmentation and creating a common conception of teaching and learning. However, the work that led to the *Learner Document* did not begin with this end in mind. In 2004, when the work began, the team of teacher educators was consumed with worries about coherence in a much more structural way. In the large program made up of cohorts, which is focused on elementary, secondary and technological education, discussions were primarily about "vertical" coherence, which referred to coherence within the many sections of a particular program component such as Psychological Foundations, and also "horizontal" coherence which had to do with the ways in which the various program components cohered across a candidate's experience within a cohort. The architecturally referenced adjectives "vertical and horizontal" utilized in minutes and documents indicate that organization and structural coherence were looming large in the thinking about coherence at this early stage.

 Throughout the academic year 2004 - 2005, the Program Component Committee (PCC), a group of 10 program leaders, undertook a process of curriculum mapping as outlined by Heidi Hayes-Jacobs (2004). Hayes-Jacobs' mapping is a review process that assists educators to identify gaps, repetitions, and misalignments in the curriculum and instructional program, to consider the most thoughtful well-researched practices are at a given moment, to ask what learners are being prepared to know, understand and do, to foster dialogue among educators about their work and determine how to move forward to make a difference (2004). Curriculum mapping is grounded in authentic program review, which documents current experience with a view to determining next steps. With six major components in our program reflecting courses and the practicum and internship, each program leader met several times with their component instructors with the purpose of identifying "essential learnings" or big ideas contained within their program component/course. The group returned repeatedly to the PCC table with learnings or competencies that were at differing levels of specificity and complexity and worked together

to identify overlaps, gaps and connections.

With the publication of Darling-Hammond and Bransford's book, *Preparing Teachers for a Changing World: What teachers should learn and be able to do* (2005), the discussions shifted to an "outcomes" approach to our framework. The team debated the difference between redundancy, repetition and reinforcement of concepts through viewing multiple perspectives (Hammerness et al., 2005). PCC struggled with the complexity of learning to teach and resisted any efforts to "make it simple" or attempt to create a check list of outcomes. Questions were raised regarding what resources were needed to support instructors and teacher candidates toward coherence-making in the teacher education program. A graphic from October 2005 demonstrates efforts to grapple with the various needs and purposes of the program and program components (Figure 1).
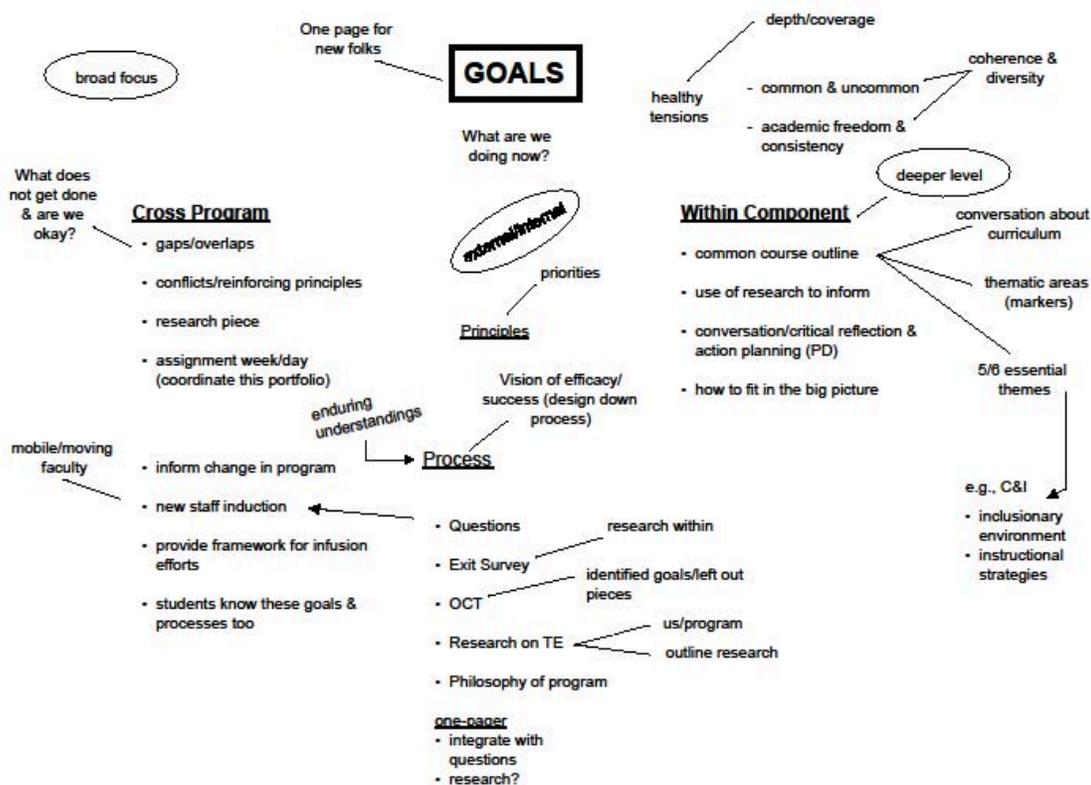
Figure 1. Mindmap of PCC Curriculum Mapping, October 28, 2005.

Figure 1 is a mindmap of the thinking captured on a whiteboard during one of the PCC meetings. It reveals key questions ("What are we doing now?"). One side identifies the "within" component or "vertical" coherence detailing elements such as the need for key themes, building on evidence-based research, and common course outline. Cross program "horizontal" coherence sits on the other side, dealing with elements such as "gaps and overlaps". The center of the graphic identifies both established and emergent program "principles" and "priorities". Surrounding this text, we accounted the tensions and seemingly competing needs such as: depth vs. coverage, coherence and diversity, academic freedom and consistency. The graphic demonstrates recognition of individual autonomy for instructors based on context and expertise, as well practical considerations regarding

sustainability of clarity, curriculum development and innovation, despite instructor "mobility" and frequent transition.

As the leadership team considered the implications of the work represented in the mindmap, the discussion began to move from organizing around "themes" to consideration of the "enduring understandings" of the program. In the centre of the graphic a key revelation is captured. Here, the centrality and importance of a "vision of efficacy/success" for the teacher candidate is articulated. The need for a common vision and the kind of conceptual coherence called for by Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005) became urgent. Barnes (1989) suggests that knowledge be "conceptually organized, represented and communicated in ways that encourage beginners to create deep understandings of teaching and learning" (p 17). This *vision of efficacy* became the focus of discussion at subsequent PCC meetings – the recognition that efficacy really means coming to terms with the complexity of interdependent factors, such as varied knowledge bases, understandings of learners and pedagogy in opposition to the frequent desire for a "tool kit" or a recipe piece, teachers' own identity, different settings and situations, knowing the contexts well in order to use appropriate pedagogical resources to meet the needs of a particular student. At this time, component leaders were supervising teacher candidates in the practicum. They brought back examples of areas in which teacher candidates experienced struggles within their developing teaching practice. For example, one teacher candidate who found the conceptual elements of teaching math in a junior grade challenging, wanting a simple solution asked to be provided with "*the lesson* on how to teach fractions." As one of the program leaders declared, the teacher candidates needed to become their own "human portfolios", to thoughtfully bring together theory and research with their own experiences in practica contexts, and to recognize their continually evolving and developing knowledge about learning to teach. It was becoming clear that a clearly articulated *vision of efficacy* would help to communicate clear teaching goals during practicum and to explain the complexity of teaching in general.

The excerpt from the notes from November 2005 below indicates the beginning of an important shift in direction away from "what we each do" in our component courses to a focused teacher candidate-oriented approach. The team worked to identify important

aspects and key knowledge bases without reducing teacher education to technical skill-focused experiences that do not recognize the complexity of the multi-faceted intersecting knowledge bases and contextuality of teaching, not only a kind of overarching conceptual coherence but one that focused upon the coherence made by the candidates rather than merely by the program elements.

> Based on the discussion during the Exit Survey review and the brainstorming session at the last PCC meeting, it was suggested that we begin with the end in mind and draft our ideas of what candidates should know and be able to do when they leave our program (graduate outcomes). To prepare for this discussion, each component coordinator is asked to consider the *end of program learning* for our teacher candidates, from the perspective of their disciplines. (PCC Meeting Notes, November 30, 2005)

Throughout the winter, the PCC group became determined to create a guiding document that would describe the visions and goals of the program. PCC leaders worked with instructor groups to articulate *enduring understandings* for their courses, challenging themselves not to become too prescriptive or too specific. Sharing began across components, and ended with a re-articulation for clarity. The team became more comfortable with some of the perceived overlaps that frequently meant revisiting important pedagogical concepts or practices with varied lens, theoretical frames, or bodies of research. PCC leaders categorized the broad areas of knowledge and understanding, according to conceptual resonance for each grouping. The group was committed to identifying important aspects and key knowledge bases without reducing the ideas to technical skill-focused experiences that do not recognize the complexity and contextuality of teaching. The results of the program leaders' efforts were continually compared with many other frameworks such as Turner-Bisset's (1999) knowledge bases, Darling-Hammond (2005) framework for understanding teaching and learning, the at that time unratified Association of Canadian Deans of Education Accord on Initial Teacher Education, the Ontario *STANDARDS OF PRACTICE FOR THE TEACHING PROFESSION*, the then draft Ministry of Education New Teacher Induction Program competencies, NCATE and NSDC competencies and practicum evaluation tools from several faculties. By May of 2006, a draft entitled *ITE Graduate Exit Outcomes* contained eight categories at different levels of

complexity ranging from "Learning and Teaching in a Social World" to "Inquiry" which articulated twenty-two statements about a teacher candidate's demonstrable "abilities" at the end of the program. Three examples of these statements are:

Exercise professional judgment informed by a strong sense of professional ethic.

Make informed pedagogical decisions for the success of all students.

Be a critical and reflective teacher researcher with inquiring habits of mind.

Drawing on work developed through a process of consensus building in the spring of 2006 the now twenty statements were grouped under five headings: Transformative Purposes of Education, Teacher Identity, Knowledge of the Learner, Pedagogical Content Knowledge and Learning and Teaching in Social Contexts. The work was complicated because while there was agreement that certain categories had emerged from particular components, there was recognition that all categories related to all components and that they could not be taken up in isolation of each other. The need to support the teacher candidates in coherence became even more evident. Within the complexity, though, the stated "abilities" were arranged in a linear fashion. A very large DRAFT watermark was placed on the document.

Through 2006-7, the working document was trialed within component instructor groups, who reviewed the statements relative to their work. Various culminating tasks from the program, such as unit plans, were analyzed to determine how the various components fit together to equip candidates for the assignment and how the exit outcomes related to the task and might assist the teacher candidates in synthesizing various elements. Editing and revision of the language continued. The team began to speak about "foregrounding" particular dimensions or statements within particular components while recognizing that all components had aspects of every category and "ability". For example, the section dealing with "Knowledge of Learning and Development" which resonated particularly with the Psychological Foundations of Human Development and Learning course was also embedded in Curriculum and Instruction courses.

After eighteen months of informal, yet purposeful exploration, in December 2007 the utility of the document was reaffirmed as the PCC group shared data from their instructors; however discomfort with the terminology of "Exit Outcomes" and "abilities" mounted. New language was needed to emphasize that teacher candidates were responsible to synthesize and integrate their learning. Highlighting coherence-making by the candidates (or the learners), the document was renamed *The Learner Document* to focus upon the centrality of the teacher candidate as learner, the term *ability* was changed to *capacity*.

The PCC generally met for two hours on a monthly basis, although the group had yearly retreats to work on the document. They brought to the table ideas from meetings with individual program components. Thus, people from different parts of the program sat together to look at the information and start to craft the *Learner Document* statements or capacities. Work took place within component meetings and then across components at the Program Component Committee meetings. The PPC meetings had a facilitator who helped the team reach consensus. Within these working groups, there were different opinions; people had to leave behind some pieces in order to embrace other pieces. It was not a straightforward path, but since the group worked together for a number of years, they managed, despite the challenges, to come to a consensus and drafted the *Learner Document*. Next, the PCC worked in cross-component groups that created the capacities, and then different cross-groups came together to look at them. In those meetings it became clear that both instructors and learners would synthesize the information in the *Learner Document* across the program. This insight helped program component leads release ownership of particular capacities and build consensus around the capacities to be included, as well as commit to continue improving this living document. Once the capacities could be seen as cross-program in scope, depth and breadth, each component, instructor and candidate could become agents of the development of the capacities.

In June 2008, recognition that teacher learning occurs across a continuum (Feiman-Nemser, 2001) was incorporated by altering text to include that teacher candidates would "begin to" demonstrate these various "capacities". A new understanding of coherence was developing in line with the effective programs described by Bransford, Darling-Hammond and LePage (2005) where visions of teaching and learning are clear and candidates can

"organize their knowledge and their thinking so that they can accelerate their learning throughout their careers" (p. 3). Additionally, it was understood that the term *capacities* had a broader understanding, building in the notion of knowledge, understanding, practice, and disposition in a way that language like competencies or abilities could not. The team unmistakably recognized the evolving nature of the document. Notes from May 2008 show increasing clarity of purpose and planning but reflect the openness to possibilities and change as evident in the nugget referencing "other".

The purposes of the *Learner Document* are:

- to address coherence by focusing upon the learner and the learner's synthesis of major

    understandings in the process of learning to teach,

- to develop common understanding of our intentions for teacher candidates, instructors and

    field partners

- potential uses include revising practicum assessment and evaluation, for exit survey, for

    program redesign and development

- other . . . .

Draft plan for 2008-9

Build understanding and commitment with the instructors in the following ways:

1. Create contextual preamble – articulate research base, process used to develop, relationship to Standards of Practice and our program principles and the purposes and potential uses
2. Develop process for feedback and vetting as we move toward redesign
3. Ask each component to examine the document and begin to put it into practice, perhaps think of "major" responsibility (PCC Meeting Notes May 29, 2008)

From 2008 -2011, the document remained in DRAFT form, with continued

exploration within components and instructor groups. Cycles of feedback informed the revision process. Consultations included stakeholders such as associate teachers, university partners, and colleagues teaching in graduate programs to ensure that the document had both a sense of ownership from multiple communities and that it reflected the diverse bodies of expertise within the institution. The *ability* to "exercise professional judgment informed by a strong sense of professional ethic" morphed into *capacity* to "exercise informed professional and ethical judgment". "Make informed pedagogical decisions for the success of all students" became "make informed pedagogical decisions with the goal of success of all students based on knowledge of assessment practices, learners, context, and curriculum". The process of consultation developed commitment and understanding and contributed to increased quality of content.

The format of the consultations depended upon the group, as instructor groups had greater familiarity with the work than our field partners. Generally, each consultation included a brief presentation of the history and intention of the document, and then working with the document and obtaining verbal and written feedback. The document was not provided to stakeholders beforehand. With associate teachers and advisory groups, the focus was on capacities that we might be of greatest interest to them. With all these groups feedback regarding the language and terminology used in the Learner Document was sought as well.

In 2010 -11, feedback from teacher candidates regarding their experiences using the document was examined In 2010, instructors used the *Learner Document* with teacher candidates in mid-year and summative self-assessment tasks in order to assist with responsive course development but also to assist candidates to identify areas for further learning and development. Teacher candidates were asked to:

1) Identify the top three understandings/statements that resonate with you and your learning.
2) Check two statements you find to be complex or challenging to learn or act upon.
3) Put a star beside one statement that you haven't had opportunity to think

about, and with which you would like to spend more time. OR List an aspect that you see as missing from the document.

4) How might this tool help you to consolidate your personal whole program learning and experience?

Following their individual responses, teacher candidates met in groups to share and record ideas about their experiences using the document. The data indicate that the candidates clearly recognized that the capacities were important in learning to teach and they could identify readings, practices, and experiences from their program that related to various capacities. They could also articulate their continued learning that was needed in order to develop the capacities. For example, 29 of 37 candidates in one cohort referenced evidence of strengthened awareness of the influence of teacher identity. Nineteen teacher candidates referenced significant growth in reflexivity in teaching. In summative feedback, several noted their growth from the outset in many areas of competence. Bolstered by these data, the team became intentional about developing a plan of implementation, while recognizing the need to continue to collect data to inform the work. These data were collected and used internally only to help update understanding of implementation and determine next steps to improve the journey of learners who followed.

As part of the final vetting process, before removing the "DRAFT" watermark, a small team of representatives from instructors who had not been as deeply invested in the development process, came together for a final edit. Independent from the PCC work, they sought input, made final edits, explored visual layout, and determined that the linearity of a list did not capture the fluid and interconnected nature of the document. They recommended that the transformative purposes of education should be given a central, dominant position on the page. The use of two-ways arrows, boxing the "categories", the use of puzzle pieces and other design elements were hotly debated. Perhaps, fittingly, a 21st capacity emerged in this end stage having to do with information technology and pedagogy, often referenced as a "21st century skills". Once again, the program component coordinators engaged in intense discussion and critique before this new capacity could be included. The current layout of the *Learner Document* in Figure 2 below reflects a seven year journey, which still continues.

Initial Teacher Education, Bachelor of Education/Diploma in Technological Education Consecutive Program, Master of Teaching Program and The University of Toronto Concurrent Program
LEARNER DOCUMENT

Graduates of OISE's Bachelor of Education/Diploma in Technological Education Consecutive Program, Master of Teaching Program and The University of Toronto Concurrent Teacher Education Program will begin to demonstrate:

Knowledge of the Learner
... the capacities to:
- Understand how individuals and groups learn in order to ensure that teaching begins with the learner in mind.
- Understand both learning and human development progressions.
- Understand that teaching is more than a methodology. It includes an understanding of teaching redefined as responsibility for student learning.

Teacher Identity
... the capacities to:
- Understand the ways in which teachers' beliefs, social identity, visions, strengths, personal biases and assumptions influence their practice.
- Develop a personal philosophy of education that embodies principles of equity, diversity, inclusion, social justice and environmental justice.
- Commit to ongoing professional learning.
- Develop as a critical and reflective teacher with an inquiry habit of mind that is grounded in research and evidence-based practice.
- Understand the value and necessity of perseverance and self-assessment in the development of teaching excellence.
- Recognize their potential as collaborators, mentors, and leaders within a variety of professional contexts.
- Exercise informed professional and ethical judgment.

Transformative Purposes of Education
... the capacities to:
- Understand the transformative impact of education.
- Understand the roles teachers, learners, families, communities, schools and systems play in this transformative process.

Subject Matter and Pedagogical Content Knowledge
... the capacities to:
- Know the theory, history, methods, intellectual content, enduring understandings and practices of an academic discipline/domain, and understand the interconnectedness across them.
- Make informed pedagogical decisions with the goal of success for all students based on knowledge of the learner, context, curriculum, and assessment.
- Understand that curriculum planning and delivery are embedded in political, social, cultural and environmental contexts.
- Recognize the potential value added and influence of information communication technologies to support teaching and learning and make informed pedagogical decisions regarding when and how the use of technology can have the greatest impact upon learning.

Learning and Teaching in Social Contexts
... the capacities to:
- Understand that learning and teaching are socially constructed processes and what is valued is socially determined.
- Understand how systematic/institutional practices dis/advantage social groups/learners and ways that they can work with others to counter inequalities.
- Understand themselves as change agents and community members committed to act in socially just and environmentally responsible ways.
- Participate meaningfully and actively in professional learning communities.
- Collaborate effectively with a range of educational partners including families, community, professional resources, etc.

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Figure 2. Learner Document.

In 2011-2012, as the program leaders moved to pilot implementation of the document, some instructors built it into their course outlines or even assignments, as well as utilizing it for self-assessment by candidates. All teacher candidates in the program were introduced to it as a tool for thinking meta-cognitively about their knowledge construction. It was used as a tool for orienting the Concurrent teacher candidates to their intensive, immersive four month professional semester. Formal and informal data collection continued, such as instructors' feedback in point form and observations about the document, as well instructors collecting feedback from students in their classes and then sharing those findings with their colleagues and the PCC group. Members of the PCC also went into classes and solicited teacher candidates' questions about the *Learner Document* and then put those into a wordle to foster further discussions around it during the same meeting. An online instructor survey was used to collect information about usage, implementation

methods, concerns and outcomes and to determine next steps for revision and professional learning.

Interest grew in developing a more formally structured program of research on the document. The program leadership team had hoped to use the annual graduation exit survey to gather data specifically about the teacher candidates' experiences with the *Learner Document* in order to determine efficacy and thus produce evidence to support a move beyond piloting to implementation. During attempts to design the research, the question of sequencing *the horse and cart* emerged: to attempt to find evidence before full implementation or implement and then examine data. It was determined that in order to truly study the efficacy of the *Learner Document,* the program would need to move into implementation and then begin to assess influence on coherence-making for candidates and instructors. This realization led to a decision to move to more intentional implementation and research with instructors before moving to more formal evidence collection from candidates.

Recent data obtained from instructors about their utilization of the document in their discussion, planning and work with teacher candidates have been encouraging. Comments regarding their level of commitment to and comfort with the document showed that many had used it when engaging candidates in reflection on their learning to assist with making connections. Others were using it in course planning with some linking it to assessment as well. Several identified the *Learner Document* as the basis for dialogue and collaboration with other instructors within a component or across a cohort. It appears that the exploration in this pilot year has led to greater familiarity and usage. The intent is to continue data collection and analysis with instructors. In addition, work is underway to start collecting data from teacher candidate in outside of questions included in the candidate exit survey.

Emerging Learnings

As we reflect upon the data from documents and participants in the process, the importance of moving toward greater conceptual coherence seems to manifest in several ways. Our findings support the many researchers who have articulated the importance of

conceptual coherence (Hammerness et al., 2005; Hammerness, 2006; Russell, et al., 2001; Volante, 2006). However, we would add that i) an emphasis on the importance of the process of working toward clarity in conceptual understanding and ii) consideration of turning the focus to coherence-making by the teacher candidates have been the richest elements in our journey of learning about coherence. We offer some of our current understandings below.

The Importance of Process

We do not suggest that the current *Learner Document* is complete or that it would be a conceptual framework or tool for other programs. Recognizing multiple contexts and that there are multiple ways for learners to develop their knowledge and understandings about teaching, the *Learner Document* is a living, evolving and necessarily incomplete document that reflects areas of understanding in the process of learning to teach that emerged in our particular context. In fact, it was the efforts in "coherence-making" and engaging in the messy work of making goals and purposes clear and explicit to one another that moved the work forward. For us, working toward coherence includes continuing inquiry, dialogue, and full acknowledgement of the transformative and complex nature of teaching. Coherence became more than agreeing upon particular outcomes in particular components; instead, considering conceptual coherence provided a scaffold for development of linkages across and between program components. From this scaffold, we believe that teacher candidates are able to develop their own schema, connect theory to practice, and engage in inquiry and reflective practice. Engaging in the process then, is important for both teacher educators and teacher candidates.

The Importance of Centering Coherence for Teacher Candidates

In our experience, centering coherence-making for teacher candidates was the pivotal moment in moving the work toward coherence forward. This shift changed the focus from coherence as goal, to coherence-making as a process of learning. Russell et al. (2001) indicate that it is critical to "take 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" (p. 48). Olson (2003) states that student themselves decide what they will learn. By recognizing the unique identity and experience of each

teacher candidate and placing the candidate as the key 'coherence-maker', we have attempted to provide opportunities for candidates to link theory and research bases with their practical experiences, understandings of self and learners and particular contexts. This emphasis on the learner was an important part in building the commitment by the instructors and field educators as well.

The Importance of Being Metacognitive

The *white board activity* that captured ideas about vertical, horizontal and conceptual coherence [Figure 1] spawned a major breakthrough in thinking. Suddenly, the conception of who was responsible for coherence-making shifted. No longer were the teacher education program developers and instructors creating coherence for the teacher candidates. Instead they were creating conditions that facilitated coherence-making by the learners. Unpacking and being explicit about our pedagogical practices and decision-making has been viewed as important in facilitating development for our teacher candidates (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005). By making our thinking about learning to teach visible in the *Learner Document* we were being metacognitive about our purposes and decisions within the broad "curricula" of our program (Berliner, 2000).

In many ways, we have been learning about teacher education collaboratively and metacognitively in the same critical and reflexive way that we envision our teacher candidates will think about their developing knowledge and pedagogical practice. As Hammerness (2011), Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005), Berliner (2000), Cochran-Smith (2001b), McDonald (2007), Zeichner (2000 & 2006), Zeichner and Conklin (2005 & 2008) suggest, being metacognitive about practice and pedagogical decision-making is a critical habit of mind for teaching and learning about teaching. In the same ways that we encourage our teacher candidates to be reflective and our instructors to be explicit with the teacher candidates about their pedagogical decisions and actions; as program leaders, we became more explicit ourselves and with colleagues about our work.

The Importance of Dialogue

Coherence of experience for teacher candidates relies in part on understanding among faculty members regarding their shared work (Russell et al., 2001). In reviewing effective programs, Russell et al. discovered that clarity came through continued

conversation and deeper sharing, "Without opportunities for ongoing dialogue, contention and division can fracture collaboration and undermine coherence" (2001, p. 46). Teacher candidates may perceive the program as fragmented because of different approaches to teaching and learning on the part of the faculty. This gap between faculty members can be bridged by dialogue as we found through our processes of iterative development.

The document has been enriched by dialogue with partners who have also encouraged continued development. Associate teachers, school district leaders, and policy makers have indicated that the *Learner Document* captures important areas of knowledge from their perspectives. It also serves as a communication tool when working in our field-university partnerships. Conceptual clarity and coherence is also useful in bridging the academy-field dichotomy that can exist (Russell et al., 2001). While dissonance and discrepancy are effective triggers for learning, having common vocabulary and a conception of teacher learning has proven helpful in connecting school and university.

The Importance of Dissonance and Tensions

We also found that our differences and "dissonances" were valuable to our learning (Kagan, 1992). As we faced tensions and debated language and layout, underlying beliefs and tacit understandings and preferences became clearer. We were more able not only to share knowledge but to trouble our ideas and to gain deeper understanding of the complexity and multiplicity of understandings with which our teacher candidates were grappling. Moving from "abilities" to "capacities" and from outcomes to the learner all happened because of dialogue and critical reflection and discussion.

Debates about the design of the document, including which knowledge areas were privileged by virtue of their placement on the page became instructive and important and ultimately reflective of shared understanding. Placing the transformative purposes of education in the centre of our document signaled that for our program transformative purposes were paramount for all of us. For us "teaching as a direct means of promoting social justice" (Hammerness, 2011) is at the core of our vision and mission. The vision of social justice and the transformative power of education was a key element of our vision and assisted us to come together to see our cross-program work as

connected and contributing to that overall purpose. Linking the other aspects of the document to that shared purpose was a powerful aspect of coherence-making.

The value of dissonance for teacher candidates is intentionally reflected in the *Learner Document* in the capacities that frame the complex and many, at times competing and potentially conflictual, elements that must be considered. The intention of the framework is to provide a schema on which individual understandings can be built with multiple perspectives and knowledge bases being brought to any aspect of the learning-teaching process.

The Importance of Incompleteness

Sustaining seven years of attention and effort to move to partial "implementation" demonstrates that the work of coherence-making and developing conceptual clarity is necessarily unfinished and challenging. Removing "DRAFT" from the *Learner Document* proved to be
anxiety-producing and could only be done with the understanding that the programs would continually revisit, research, and review the *Learner Document* in recognition of the evolving nature of our learning about teaching and pedagogy. We continue to critique and interrogate it. The term "document" has been questioned as it may seem too static or too formal. We continue to question the "boxes" around the categories of capacities as restrictive and we've come to know that these seemingly simple aspects actually reflect important tacit and implicit ideas or beliefs. The document is "read" by many different audiences and it's important to listen to those audiences in order to sustain a critical dialogue about our shared work.

The Importance of Research

We must engage in ongoing study. It has been important for us to continually review and reflect upon our processes and development. In many ways, we have been learning our way forward and making the path by walking it. However, because we have been conscious of our own learning process, we have been attempting to critically and reflexively develop both the conceptual schema and conceptual coherence – as experienced by instructors, candidates, field partners and colleagues. Engaging the broader body of literature around teacher education design, structure, programs and coherence has been and will continue to

be important in developing our understanding and in helping us to maintain energy for the pursuit of conceptual clarity and coherence in the face of complexity and challenge.

Benefits, Challenges and Next Steps

Throughout the development period, predictably, the content of the conceptual framework was the focus, discussing what others had written, engaging in ideological conversations based on our context, debating selection of capacities, painstaking editing of each and every word, as well as ongoing experimentation of the visual/graphic presentation of the document. As we worked through these processes, the links to supporting teacher candidate learning as well as instructor support and guidance for course development became evident. As the process emerged, we recognized 1) the importance of the process as a platform for professional growth, in particular for instructors who were at the beginning of their journeys as teacher educator, 2) the influence of the *Learner Document* on program redesign, including a context to engage in larger questions about teacher education and about our specific context, 3) increased opportunities to dialogue and create with our partners in schools, district and federation offices, and governmental and regulatory institutions, and 4) the process of development of a conceptual framework created opportunities to consider multiple layers and components of coherence, including structural coherence, curriculum design, sequencing and lived-experience in knowledge building, integration of theory and practice, and negotiating conceptual consonance and dissonance as a teacher.

There are continued tensions in working with a "living document" in which we commit simultaneously to reflecting current trends in research, maintaining a conceptual core and meeting the needs of all stakeholders in teacher education. Consideration of key questions continues: How might we live in the tensions of using a document while it continues to evolve? How might new ideas and understandings be reflected, while maintaining its conceptual strength? How do avoid creating a laundry list as we bring new ideas to the document? We deliberately made efforts not be reductive and have maintained a relatively high conceptual level; however, as we think about demonstrating utility of the document, do we need to use the document as a starting point for creating indicators?

Notwithstanding these challenges and questions, we continue our commitment to coherence-making and continue to develop the content and visual presentation of the framework, investigate the uses of the *Learner Document* by teacher candidates, instructors, researchers, and our partners in schools, communities and educational institutions. We continue to support our instructors and teacher candidates to view coherence as engagement in the pursuit of knowledge building and in constructing their learning from many aspects of their initial teacher education program. We also hope that in this rigorous pursuit of holistic understandings that teacher candidates will develop their inquiry stance and engage in reflective and transformative practice.

Our process of exploration, study, debate, experimentation, and piloting the use of the *Learner Document* has been a powerful opportunity for professional learning for everyone involved. The richness of the process was built on researching our own program: focusing on current documentation and practices, taking inventory, assessing strengths, weakness and opportunities, collecting feedback from a variety of participants and stakeholders, and experimenting with small scale implementation strategies. We do not suggest that the *Learner Document* is a document or set of understandings to be utilized 'as is' by other teacher educators or programs. Instead we hope to join others who engage in journeying toward conceptual coherence while exploring their unique needs and contexts. We look forward to shared learning through inquiry, reflection and being metacognitive about our work and our efforts in community.

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Part III: *What challenges and advantages does teacher education in Canada share with other countries?*

Chapter 12

Inclusion and Teacher Education in the Canadian Context

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Some believe that Canada is a forerunner in ensuring the rights of the disabled and in fostering an inclusive society. The opportunity exists to also be a leader in teacher education which is essential to the success of the inclusion process. Such leadership, however, will require fundamental changes in teacher education practices for both pre- and in-service teachers, as well as systematic reforms to government policy and school structures. In this paper I propose a number of changes to teacher education. To begin, I briefly outline the current policies and practices of inclusive education within the context of social justice and diverse culture. Next, I present a review of parents, teacher, and administrator perspectives on inclusion which will serve to inform the proposals which I present later in the paper. In order for Canada to be considered a leader in educational inclusion some fundamental changes are necessary to teacher education, schools and education systems, which I outline in the last section.

Canada as an Inclusive Society

Canada was the first country to ensure the rights of the disabled at a constitutional level. The Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms (1982) states that every individual "has a right to the equal protection and equal benefit of the law without discrimination based on race, national or ethnic origin, color, religion, sex, age, or mental or physical disability". Educational inclusion[10] is philosophically congruent for a nation such as Canada, which

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[10] For the purposes of this paper, I focus exclusively on children with exceptional learning needs, as commonly defined in special education policy. The proposed changes that I make later in the paper may, however, be appropriate to all diverse groups and could be included in a wider critical discourse on teacher education for student diversity.

values and celebrates diversity, and which maintains democratic principles for all citizens. Though Canada enshrined the rights of the disabled over 30 years ago, an examination of the status of inclusion in Canadian schools leads to an important question: Have we actualized our national philosophical goal in our provincial education systems? The evidence that I present would lead one to believe that there is still more to be done to achieve effective inclusive education. My position is that initial teacher education is nether the cause of problems with inclusive education, nor the panacea to improve the state of inclusion in Canadian schools. Rather, I take a broader view and include both pre- and in-service teacher education as part of wider educational reform. Such reforms would make Canadian an international leader in teacher education and public school education.

Current Inclusive Educational Practices

Inclusion is defined and operationalized in different ways across Canada, under individual provincial jurisdiction (Belanger & Gougeon, 2009; Crawford, 2008; Roeher Institute, 2004). Each province and territory has their own defined categories of "exceptionality" and funding schemes to match perceived student need, and employ different "best practices" related to parent involvement, individualized assessment, Individual Educational Plans - IEPs (development and review), and legal recourse. For example, the Roeher report (Roeher Institute, 2004) cites the Quebec Education Act which states that parents and students should be involved in the identification, assessment, and planning processes. The Nova Scotia Education Act ensures an avenue for parents to appeal decisions related to the development and review of a child's Individual Education Plan. In Saskatchewan, it is expected that teachers make adjustments to curriculum content, instructional strategies, and the learning environment, to accommodate the varying abilities, cultural backgrounds, and interests of all children within their classrooms (Saskatchewan Ministry of Education, 2011). These are but a few examples of inclusive practices across Canada, and which have ultimately lead to the numerous benefits of educational inclusion (see Timmons and Wagner, 2010 for an extensive review).

Issues and Concerns

Although many benefits of inclusion have been cited in the literature, there are great variations in the findings, revealing that inclusion practices are not without problems.

Below, I report on these issues and concerns raised by parents, teachers, and administrators. This information will provide a platform to discuss reforms in pre- and in-service teacher education.

Definitions Despite the best of intentions, there is a gap between the ideology of inclusion and the "actual reality of day-to-day practice" (Leyser & Kirk, 2004, p. 288). As noted above, in Canada, each province and territory has jurisdiction over their education system and consequently, the implementation of inclusion is "open to interpretation or subject to the will or tenacity of individual principals" (Graham & Spandagou, 2011) and other educational leaders. For some, inclusion means that all children should receive the standard curriculum. This can be problematic, however, for a child with a profound mental disability who needs to learn toileting skills versus paragraph writing. In addition, some authors have suggested that the inclusion of children with certain disabilities, for example learning disabilities or behaviour disorders, can have deleterious effects on the remainder of the class (Friesen, Hickey, & Krauth, 2009). Therefore, definitional issues and the well-intentioned zeal to support the inclusion ideology, can result in individual student needs being overlooked (Press, 2010).

Parents Parent opinion of inclusion differs based on individual contexts. For example, parents of younger children with disabilities tend to have more positive attitudes towards inclusion and subsequent benefits (Leyser & Kirsk, 2004; Rafferty, Boetcher, & Griffin, 2001), but parents of high school children have different hopes and aspirations. Those with non-disabled children feel that instruction should be focused on curriculum content, while parents of disabled children, particularly those with mild to moderate intellectual disabilities, prefer a focus on life skills (Garrick Duhaney & Salend, 2000).

Findings also vary based on the child's disability. Parents of children with mild to moderate intellectual challenges typically support inclusive practices, while parents of children with severe physical and cognitive disabilities sometimes favour more segregated settings (Rafferty & Griffin, 2005). This holds true for parents of children without disabilities, as well. Most are more supportive of inclusion when the disability is mild or does not involve behavioural disturbances and does not interfere with learning (Short & Martin, 2005).

There are other concerns shared by many parents. Some report an apparent lack of teacher training and competence (Garrick Duhaney & Salend, 2000; Leyser & Kirk, 2004; McLeskey & Waldron, 2011). In addition, some parents and students have social concerns such as student isolation or "feigned" interest and friendship by non-disabled peers (Ornelles, Cook, & Jenkins, 2007; Scruggs, Mastropieri, Berkeley, & Graetz, 2010).

Teachers The research on teacher attitudes towards inclusion is also varied. While many teachers, both general and special education, support the philosophy of inclusion, multiple studies have consistently identified areas of concern (Belanger & Gougeon, 2009; Marshall, Ralph, & Palmer, 2002; Martinussen & Cunningham, 2011; Mowat, 2010; Ornelles et al., 2007). For example, general education teachers typically state that they have insufficient training to effectively deal with the learning needs of children with disabilities. Other common concerns include lack of resources and personnel support, and insufficient time to plan and collaborate (Baker & Zigmond, 1995; Blask, 2011; Bunch, Lupart, & Brown, 1997; Hobbs & Westling, 1998; King & Edmonds, 2001; Martin, Johnson, Ireland, & Claxton, 2003; Ornelles et al., 2007; Scruggs, Mastropieri, &, McDuffie, 2007; Trump & Hange, 1996). In addition, while some teachers acknowledge the benefits of inclusive practices, another common theme in the literature is the sense that not all children can benefit equally when learning occurs exclusively in a general education classroom (Avramidis, Bayliss, & Burden, 2000; Ornelles et al., 2007; Press, 2010; Wanzek, Vaughn, Roberts, & Fletcher, 2011). As well, some teachers are more willing to include children if their challenges are mild or physical/sensory in nature (DeBoer, Pijl, & Minnaert, 2011). Further, studies indicate that teachers want more leadership from their principal (Graham & Spandagou, 2011; Philpott , Furey, & Penny, 2010; Waldron, & Redd, 2011). In two separate meta-analyses, both DeBoer et al. (2011), and Mastropieri and Scruggs (1997) note that teacher concerns and attitudes towards inclusive education have changed little over the past half-century. Many classroom and special education teachers remain ambivalent, negative, or undecided about inclusion (DeBoer et al., 2011; Martin et al., 2003).

Principals Literature indicates that school principals also have concerns related to inclusion practices. For example, principals are reluctant or concerned about inclusion because of the perceived extra work and stress involved, in particular if their teaching staff is not supportive of inclusive practices (Graham & Spandagou, 2011; Stough, 2006). As well,

many state that new teachers are unprepared to teach children with special learning needs, particularly those with behaviour problems (Philpott et al., 2010). Further, it is not common for principal leadership programs to include content or experience with special education issues (Brownell & Pajares, 1999). Many principals lack knowledge or understanding of the inclusion process (Garrick Duhaney & Salend, 2000) and require extensive professional development in order to champion inclusion and facilitate the development of effective practices within their schools (Irvine, Lupart, Loreman, & McGhie-Richomond, 2010).

To summarize, Canada is a leader by striving to be an inclusive society and ensuring the rights of the disabled at a constitutional level. Across the country, provincial and territorial ministries of education have incorporated this vision of equality and social justice into educational policies. Despite this, it is clear that there are numerous issues and concerns related to the implementation of inclusion. The first relates to the varied definitions and operationalization of inclusive education. Attitude is another key issue, as is lack of skill or knowledge by principals and teachers. Materials, resources, program availability, and time constraints are also a concern.

It would be irresponsible to assume that teacher education is either the cause of the problems, or able to completely remedy these issues, surrounding inclusive education. There is, however, room for improvement but this must be steeped in a wider educational reform which includes all levels of government. In the next section I outline fundamental changes designed to address the concerns noted above, which are required in teacher education programs, schools, and public educational systems. Such reforms will help to ensure the realization of our national educational goals for inclusion and equality.

Changing the System: Changes to Teacher Education

Knowledge, skills, and attitudes are at the crux of many of the necessary changes or reforms in teacher education, at both the pre- and in-service levels, particularly since principal and teacher attitudes are fundamental to the success of inclusion (Lupart & Porath, 2009; Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2000; Ross-Hill, 2009). As a beginning point, it is essential that

initial teacher education programs select only the most suitable candidates, those with the dispositions which are supportive of diversity. A number of universities across Canada continuously refine and improve their admission criteria and processes. For example, in British Columbia both Simon Fraser and Thompson Rivers universities consider applicant dispositions, while the University of British Columbia assesses background experiences which shape character and attitudes of compassion and social justice.

Beyond admission, initial teacher education programs must also include content and field experiences related to diversity in general, and also specific to children within the various 'special education' categories (Wolfberg, LePage, & Cook, 2009). Most initial teacher education programs in Canada (with the exception of 12-month programs) require at least one course about exceptional learners (i.e. the University of Victoria and Brandon University). Many programs also incorporate principles of differentiated instruction and planning for diverse learners into the methods courses (i.e. Sir Wilfred Laurier's "General Teaching Methods" course).

Theory alone does not change beliefs, however, as Forlin, Loreman, Sharma, & Earle (2009) and others (Ross-Hill, 2009; Sharma, Florlin, & Loreman, 2008) have found. Rather, experiences with children who have disabilities can significantly increase attitudes of acceptance of inclusion and teaching those with special learning needs in the general education classroom. This may require teacher education programs to offer practica in settings with children with special learning needs. Alternatively, teacher candidates could be required to participate in community service, working with individuals with disabilities, either prior to admission or during the initial teacher education program. Le Page et al. (2010) suggest incorporating signature pedagogies such as case studies, action research, curriculum development, reflection, autobiography and narrative expression. A combination of theory and practice with learners with special needs is essential to developing the necessary attitudes for successful inclusive education, as well as an overall program orientation geared toward diversity.

Providing teacher candidates with exposure to children with special needs is only the beginning if we hope to evoke fundamental change in attitudes and skills. Graduates with a Bachelor of Education degree or other teacher certification cannot assume that they are fully

trained and capable of dealing with all of the complexities of today's general education classrooms. As with many other professions and occupations, there is an acknowledgement that individuals become more skilled over time, when immersed in the actual employment context. The process could begin with induction and continue with ongoing professional development.

Residency or induction programs (O'Gorman, 2010) for new teachers could help to support their work and also ensure that children with special learning needs have adequate and appropriate instruction. There are formal provincial induction programs in some jurisdictions across Canada, such as the Northwest Territories (NWT ECE, 2011), many designed to curb the high attrition rates of new teachers. These programs could be developed and offered jointly through every ministry of education and provincial / territorial teacher association. It would be essential, however, to have clear structures in place which would gradually develop the skills necessary to teach groups of children with complex learning needs. Perhaps new teachers could be assigned a particular group of children who can easily be accommodated in the general education classroom, rather than students who have severe learning challenges. New teachers could also be teamed with special education teachers, collaboratively planning and co-teaching, as they learn more about inclusion of children with, for example, severe learning disabilities or behavioural disorders. Only the most experienced teachers would be assigned to classrooms with children who require significant instructional alterations.

Following induction, ongoing professional development and teacher education should become a certainty for every practicing teacher. This is where provincial, territorial, and federal governments must be committed to providing funding so that in-service teachers can have 'block release' time and be involved in education programs which incorporate clinical experiences, as well as theoretical and course work. Advanced studies would allow for deeper exploration of pedagogy appropriate for special needs learners, development of analytical skills, and broadening of a repertoire of instructional strategies. Continual and long-term professional development which allows for critical self-examination of attitudes and skills is essential in order to make substantive changes to one's teaching practice (Borko, 2004; O'Gorman, 2010). Teachers should be required to complete annual professional development plans, similar to those outlined by the Ontario Ministry of Education (2010),

which would be intended as learning opportunities and not designed as punitive measures. Every teacher would set goals and objectives for his/her professional learning, with the support of school and district administration. For current teachers in the field who are skeptical about the benefits of inclusion, or who require additional skills, intensive and high-quality programs must be available, (versus the short-term workshop offerings), and must focus on evidence-based (proven effective) strategies (Philpott et al., 2010).

Post-baccalaureate education should also include skills in collaboration, conflict resolution, and problem solving, given that all educational staff must be effective team members. Some might argue that these skills should be taught in pre-service teacher education programs. While the 'seeds' of these skills should be sown in initial teacher education, it takes time to 'grow' into the role of a skilled collaborator (particularly since our profession has a tendency to be 'closed door'). Few new teachers would be able to debate, disagree, raise questions, and resolve conflict in a manner necessary for successful inclusive practices. (Similarly, it may be advisable to require individuals seeking to specialize in inclusive education through post-graduate programs to first have at least two years of successful general education teaching 'under their belt' before proceeding to these advanced studies.) A second reason to postpone in-depth development of these advanced skills is simply because of the limited time in, and length of, most pre-service programs. Most teacher educators would be hard pressed to find time to add topics to their already full programs.

Initial teacher education must set the stage for successful inclusive educational practices and on-going professional development of these skills should be a requirement of continued employment. In addition, selection criteria must be rigorous at both the teacher education institution and school hiring level so that only the most qualified individuals are accepted for teaching and administrative positions. As noted by the Alberta Ministry of Education (2010), "the concept of teacher preparation must be broadened to include early preparation, teacher qualification, sustained professional development and life-long learning" (p. 12). These reforms could elevate the profession and lead to fundamental improvements in education for all children, especially those with special learning needs (Jahnukainen, 2011; Philpott et al., 2010)

Changing the System: Changing Schools

Other changes are needed within the school itself. To begin, the education of all children within the school needs to be viewed as the responsibility of all staff members, and collectively the staff must be involved in implementing changes. It is not uncommon for teachers to "isolate" themselves within a classroom, maintaining professional autonomy. All school staffs should be viewed as a team and the principal must model and support a collaborative and collective mentality. Collaborative decision-making and planning must be an integral part of the day-to-day operation of the school (Hobbs & Westling, 1998; Irvine et al., 2010; Martin, et al., 2003; Waldron & McLeskey, 2010). For example, all staff should be involved in placement decisions and classroom group composition (Baker & Zigmond, 1995). These decisions would be based, in part, on the nature of the teaching staff. For example, before placing a child with significant behaviour issues in a particular classroom, it would be wise to consider factors such as class size and composition, as well as the skills and expertise of the teacher, whether new or experienced. It would, therefore, be necessary to have open, honest appraisal of each team member's skills and talents.

Part of this process could involve the creation of professional learning communities (PLC) (Waldron & Redd, 2011). Groupings would be based on teacher interest and their professional learning goals for that given year. With the development of trust and respect within a PLC, special education teachers would be considered equals and not guests in the general education classroom. Each PLC could also consider different co- teaching models (Baker & Zigmond, 1995; Gurgu & Uzuner, 2011; Scruggs et al., 2007) and discuss how special education staff can be incorporated into the general education classroom. Individually and collectively, each school staff must consider themselves lifelong learners, open to candid appraisals, continuous self-evaluation, and change in order to best meet the needs of all learners.

Teacher unions will need to grapple with the balance between professional autonomy and professional accountability. The requirement for further certification or professional development can be a contentious issue, often with the fear that the employer is pushing their own agenda. Perhaps continual professional development or re-certification should become the purview of Colleges of Teachers (which are separate from teacher unions and

removed from government, although they do not exist in all provinces). Regardless of the hierarchy, teachers must accept the responsibility to stay professionally current in terms of skill and knowledge base.

As noted above, some parents have concerns about the appropriateness of programming for older children with disabilities. To best meet the needs of all students, school staff members must be innovative and create flexible student and teacher groupings, offering a range of programming options. While some children may benefit by learning in a general educational classroom where the staff utilize universal designs for learning and incorporate appropriate supports, this may not be appropriate for a child requiring intensive, individualized instruction. Classroom configurations and instructional planning must be based on ongoing student evaluation and review (Baker & Zigmond, 1995; McKleskey & Waldron, 2011), which is well-supported within a tiered continuum of services (i.e. Response to Intervention framework). (See Porter and Richler (2011) for case study examples of school transformations which highlight the effective use of support staff, unique teaching models, and collaborative planning and problem solving in order to achieve more equitable and inclusive education systems.) Since there is no consensus on the definition of inclusion, the determination of program placement or services should always be based on student need, not simply philosophy or teacher attitude.

Principals are also key 'players' in the inclusion process (Irvine et al., 2010) and must demonstrate exemplary leadership skills and expert knowledge of best practices in teaching and learning for all children, including those from diverse groups (Waldron & Redd, 2011). As with pre-service teacher admissions procedures and school-based hiring, rigorous selection processes must be in place in order to identify candidates suitable for principal roles. Principals must be the visionaries and champion for the needs of all children. They must be masterful at collaboration and consultation, guiding staff in the team decision-making process. These individuals must be able to effectively deal with parents and funding constraints, particularly in disadvantaged communities (Graham & Spandagou, 2001) servicing children with complex social and educational needs. School districts must ensure that the most qualified individuals are placed in leadership positions. Certification, which includes training in special education issues, should be required before candidates could be considered for principalships.

Changing the System: Government and Policy

As Pugach points out in her 1995 article, we have not been very imaginative in transforming our education system to respect and nurture diversity. At national, provincial, and local levels, a coherent and long-term plan for inclusive education is necessary (O'Gorman, 2010; Pugach, 1995) including the financial commitment to reform education, as needed. This leadership includes funds for long-term teacher training, release time for planning and collaboration, material and personnel supports, and the development of strategies which encourage parent and community involvement (Jahnukainen, 2011; Roeher Institute, 2004; Waldron & Redd, 2011). Funding needs to be provided to, and protocols developed for, post-secondary institutions to promote collaboration in the field (Waldron & Redd, 2011). Teacher educators must become masters of the skills, attitudes, and beliefs which are necessary to employ effective inclusive education. Different levels of government and policymakers need to focus on crafting more precise definitions and forms of operationalizing inclusion. However, these initiatives must allow for some flexibility and variation across jurisdictions to acknowledge different community needs. For example, resources and teacher / student needs in Nunavut will vary considerably from those in metropolitan Toronto.

Fundamental to any definition, policy, or process for inclusion is a focus on individual student needs (Press, 2011), and a willingness to pioneer the creation of a new type of educational system (Pugach, 1995). This includes determining what constitutes "special education", and how roles will need to change (Friesen et al, 2010; Fuchs, Fuchs, & Stecher, 2010). Policymakers need to be cautious, however, that we don't "throw out the baby with the bathwater". To dismantle any type of special education services would be inappropriate; instead we should take with us that which has worked. For example, it is foolhardy to assume that segregation is "bad" and total integration is "good". The notion of total inclusion with no special or alternative service does not make moral or ethical sense, and ignores unique individual student strengths and needs. There is still a place for special educational services, both within and outside of the general education classroom. It is incumbent on all those involved in the education system to create a dynamic context staffed with skilled educators and support with the necessary resources.

Conclusion

The reforms and changes which I have shared for discussion will require political will. Governments must be willing to allocate funds and be prepared to develop long-term plans. Ministries of education, teacher colleges, and teacher unions must all acknowledge that teacher development is a process which is not complete with a B.Ed. degree. Training must be on-going with recognition for advances in skill and knowledge. Operating with the expectation that only the most qualified and exemplary individuals are hired for teaching and principal positions will ensure outstanding education for all, but particularly for students with diverse learning needs. Rigorous training and selection process will elevate the profession and transform our own notions of what it means to be educators and teacher educators.

Canada has the opportunity to become a leader in the preparation of teachers to support the creation of inclusive educational practices. Substantive changes are required at all levels, especially teacher education programs and on-going professional development for teachers to ensure the transformation of a workable and sustaining education system.

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Chapter 13

Teaching in a Global World: International Conversations with Teacher Educators

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Globalization is one of the most powerful influences that is affecting educational systems in many countries. As we prepare pre-service teachers to teach students in the future, an understanding of societal influences on teaching is an important component of teacher education. Thus, it is critical to develop a better understanding of teacher educators' perceptions of the influences of globalization and the multifaceted role of teacher educators in a global society. This paper is based on a qualitative study developed by the researchers to explore the teacher educators' perceptions of globalization and its impact on teacher education programs. The findings provide valuable insights into what it means to be an educator in this rapidly changing world.

Introduction

Globalization discourse has become very widespread in all fields. A scan of the writing about globalization quickly reveals that the term has become an umbrella construct that enables conflicting views to coexist. Some observers are declaring a new world and a new era in human history. For globalization enthusiasts, this new era is linked to unprecedented advances in democracy, the fall of boundaries, the borderless economy, and the chance to provide access to a decent life for everybody on the

planet. For globalization opponents, the rhetoric around globalization serves only to mask its hidden agenda i.e. expansion of capitalist development at the expense of labor rights, democracy, poor countries, minorities, the global ecology, and so forth. For some, globalization "is not one thing, and the multiple processes that we recognize as globalization are not unified or univocal" (Hardt and Negri, 2003, p. xv); for others, globalization is "market-driven, neo-liberal, and non-egalitarian" (Berthelot, 2008, p. 9). Globalization is contested in the literature even to the point that some theorists challenge whether globalization really exists, or if the current form of advanced capitalism, which we call globalization, is simply a point on a continuum of intensifying capitalism (Hardt, 2001).

A quick analysis of existing definitions reveals a set of commonly recurring ideas and terms including 'open markets', 'free trade', 'free movement of people and capital', 'global marketplace, 'outsourcing' and 'off-shoring'. It is not surprising that these terms and ideas are derived from the field of business and economics where discussions about globalization are very common. In fact, The economist Theodor Levitt is credited for coining the term globalization in 1985 to describe the changes in global economics (Stromquist cited in Spring, 2008). Since 1990s, the term, previously used by a few economists, has been integrated into vocabularies of many languages, and various scholarly fields to explain today's world. Simply 'googling' the term *globalization* yields around 50 million references in 13 seconds. In spite of incredible popularity of the term, its clarity and definition are still the matters of constant debates. For purposes of this paper, rather than define globalization in a particular manner, globalization is identified as a complex phenomenon which involves the most common factors effecting globalization such as expansion, concentration, and acceleration of worldwide relations (Ghorayashi, 2004; Osterhammel & Petersson, 2005; Robertson, 1992; Soubbotina, 2000; Wiest, 2004).

Globalization and Teacher Education

Globalization is one of the most powerful influences that is affecting educational systems in many countries. Education is closely tied to the needs of an evolving society and is constantly being required to adapt to social change. Today, many countries are transforming their educational systems within the context of globalization (Apple, 2000;

Bethelot, 2008; Burbules & Torres, 2000; Gabbard, 2003; Green, 1997; Marsh, 1999; Popkewitz, 2000; Spring, 2008; Suárez-Orozco & Qin-Hilliard, 2004) in order to meet the requirements of the global economy, and to satisfy the demand for a skilled work force holding internationally recognized qualifications. As a result, many educational institutions are very quickly adopting concepts of income generation, human capital, economic development, competitiveness, commodification, export and import of ideas and technologies, lifelong learning for improving job skills, etc., that are in line with main economic postulates of globalization.

One manner in which nations try to hone their education systems in a way that will put their students ahead in the global market is the use of international accountability and standards. International testing is one way in which accountability is enacted. Schools are put under pressure to perform well on these tests, causing them to promote programs after those of the top-performing countries. Friedman (2007), in his widely cited book 'The World is Flat', argues that the unstoppable global integration process is underway and that ultimately the positive (mostly economic related) benefits will outweigh the negative ones. Certainly an examination of the economic pros and cons of education is important; however, "in addition to efficiency, cost-benefit, productivity, and competitiveness, we should also consider equity, human development, capacity building, health and diversity to name a few" (Hodges, Maniate, Martimianakis, Alsuwaidan & Segouin, 2009, p.912). Zhao (2010) notes, "a globally homogenous curriculum and pedagogy may not be the right answer for every school to preparing globally competitive citizens" (p. 425). Teachers need to be aware of the dangers of a globally homogenous curriculum, which include loss of local identities and traditions, discounting of local needs and disregard of student differences (Zhao, 2010).

Tatto (2006) examines how competing in the global job market might cause a nation's concept of the ideal person to change, in turn reshaping the concept of the ideal teacher for the ideal person Education systems adapt to change so that they can equip students to be "ideal people" with the skills they will need in order to be internationally competitive. Reflecting on the impact of economic globalization on education Tyack and Cuban (1995) state that "when the purposes of education become narrowed to economic advantages, … an easy next step is to regard schooling as a consumer good rather than a common good" (as cited in Berthelot, 2008, p.57).

Education is future oriented so globalization is changing our teaching in powerful ways (Zhao, 2010). Thus, it is critical to develop a thorough understanding of the influences of globalization and to conceptualize the benefits and challenges shaped by globalization as they relate to teaching. The influences of globalization on teaching are still rapidly emerging, and the data needed for verifying globalization assumptions in a particular country are often insufficient (Wang, Lin, Spalding, Odell, Klecka, 2011).

Preparing teachers to meet future educational needs is an important component of teacher education. As geographical distances begin to diminish, what is happening in one part of the world can have a major impact on all the other parts of the world. Teachers now need to prepare students to become competent global citizens. Tony F. Kirkwood (2001) describes globally educated people as "those who possess high-tech skills, broad interdisciplinary knowledge about the contemporary world, and adaptability, flexibility, and world-mindedness to participate effectively in the globalized world" (p.16). Having this description in mind, one of the main challenge facing educators in the 21st century, is finding the strategies and approaches that meet the requirements of the future. As Stephanie Marshall states: **"**Adding wings to caterpillars does not create butterflies --- it creates awkward and dysfunctional caterpillars. Butterflies are created through transformation" (1996, p. 5). It is clear that the transformation of the students cannot be achieved without the transformation of the teachers. Therefore, preparing pre-service teachers' to face complex issues related to teaching in a global world is critically important.

The purpose of this study was twofold. First, it seeks a better understanding of the complexity and uncertainty education is facing in the era of globalization. Second, it explores the multifaceted role of teacher educators in a global society.

Design of the Study

The methodology for this inquiry involved a qualitative approach as the purpose was to explore participants' perceptions about the complexity and uncertainty education is facing in the era of globalization. Secondly, it explored the multifaceted role of teacher educators in a global society. A qualitative approach was used to get at

the meaning participants give to their daily teaching practices. The main research questions included but were not limited to the following:

- How do teacher educators from different countries conceptualize their experiences of teaching in a global world?
- What do teacher educators identify as the main changes, if any, in their teacher education programs as well as professional practices? What do they perceive as the driving forces behind these changes?

Driven by these questions, the research takes place within a tradition of social research which states that reality is socially constructed (Berger & Luckmann, 1972), and that the processes and dynamics in that construction and reconstruction of meaning are open to inquiry. As researchers, we subscribe to the view that reality is socially constructed via the lived experiences of people (McGregor & Murnane, 2010; Wiersma & Jurs, 2009) and through the interaction of individuals (Grix, 2004). The study was concerned with meanings and understandings given to the world in which the participants of the study live, and emphases the role language plays in constructing reality. The researchers depended on the participants' interpretations of the phenomenon or situation and tried to 'capture the participants' language and point of view" (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). The research was based on inductive logic aimed at creating contextualized findings and at credible representation of the interpretations of those experiencing the phenomenon under study.

Two qualitative methods of data gathering and analysis were used: a) an individual, written questionnaire and b) a focus group interview. Using multiple research methods can operate to enrich the data and to enhance validity (Reinharz, 1992; Ristock & Pennell, 1996). According to David Morgan (1996), the reasons for combining individual and group interviews typically point to the greater depth of the former and the greater breadth of the latter. Slim and Snell (1996) define a focus group as "a group interview – centered on a specific topic ('focus') and facilitated and co-ordinated by a moderator or a facilitator – which seeks to generate primary qualitative data, by capitalizing on the interaction that occurs within the group setting" (p. 189). Kitzinger (1995) describes the focus group technique in the following way:

> The idea behind the focus group method is group processes can help people to explore and clarify their views in ways that would be less easily accessible in a one-to-

one interview… When group dynamics work well the participants work alongside the researcher, taking the research in new and often unexpected directions (p. 299).

When setting up a focus group many researchers consider eight to twelve participants to be a suitable number (Stewart& Shamdasani, 1990; Krueger, 1994), although smaller groups, with four to six participants, have also been reported (Strong et al, 1994). Sim (1998) warns researchers that the data collecting process in a focus group is very complex due to four main reasons:

- Data need to be collected not only on what participants say, but also on how they interact with one another;

- Quotations need to be attributed accurately to individual group members;

- The process of data collections should not interfere with or detract from the coordination of the group;

- The methods of recording data should not itself have reactive affects upon the group participants (p. 347).

It is clear that the role of the researcher within the focus group is central to the nature and quality of the data collected. The personality, social identity and interpersonal skills of the focus group moderator might influence the process of interaction that takes place, and the way in which the moderator behaves, and the verbal and non-verbal cues that he or she gives to the group, are crucial in this respect (Vaughn et al, 1996 cited in Sim, 1998). A focus group moderator needs to find the right balance of involvement in order to fulfill the role of a facilitator, but not so dominant as to bias or inhibit discussion (Goldman, 1962).

General open-ended questions are a catalyst for each participant to consider the issue at hand. A nonjudgmental behavior on the part of the researcher can help the participants feel free and allow important issues to emerge. Charmaz (2006) notes the importance of negotiation during interviews: "Whether participants recount their concerns without interruption or researchers request specific information, the result is a construction—or reconstruction—of a reality" (p. 27). Charmaz (2006) observes that a qualitative researcher needs to emphasize eliciting the participant's definitions of terms, situations, and events and try to tap his or her assumptions, implicit meanings, and tacit rules. Although the questions were determined in advance, the focus group format allowed for divergence from the

protocol to follow up on significant points brought up by the study participants, and required the researcher to reflect back the meaning shared during the course of the interview itself (Kvale, 1996).

According to Smith (1999), focus group discussions may produce a wider range of thoughts and ideas than individual interviews because the interaction between group members acts as a stimulus. Although the social context in a focus group is not a natural one, the use of focus groups presents an opportunity to observe group interactions within this social context (Morgan, 1996). For instance, researchers can observe participants sharing ideas, opinions, and experiences, and even debating each other. Conflicting opinions between group members may give the researcher an opportunity to explore the thought processes of individuals and the rationale for different viewpoints. Focus groups are believed to be most effective when the participants share some common background characteristics as the researcher may be able to explore the varying perspectives and concerns of different groups of people.

Due to the qualitative nature of the research it is not possible to make empirical generalizations, "characteristic of positivistic and post-positivistic approaches in research, where data are assumed to represent a wider population of people, events or situations in a strict probabilistic sense" (Cuba and Lincoln, 1994 cited in Sim, 1998, p. 350). However, the researchers hope that the data gained from the study will allow for theoretical generalizations which "possess a sufficient degree of generality or universality to allow their projection to other contexts or situations which are comparable to that of the original study" (Sharp, 1998, p. 787).

Data Collection and Analysis

A written questionnaire was developed by the researchers based on the literature review. An e-mail was sent to the deans of faculties of education in countries around the world. Using a Canadian list of Deans of Education, we randomly select approximately 20 Deans from across Canada. For the international countries, we sent an e-mail to one Dean of Education in each country based on our professional networks. For each country, one of the authors knew the Dean of Education or a researcher in the Dean's faculty interested in this area of study.

Responses were received from twenty teacher educators from Canada, Kenya, Great Britain, Ecuador, New Zealand, Ukraine, Australia, Trinidad and Tobago and Barbados. All the questionnaires were completed in English. The questionnaires were coded and analysed using an inductive approach (Krueger, 1994; Morgan, 1996; Sim, 1998) to identify shared experiences, commonalities, differences and repetitive responses. Emerging patterns were developed into themes. Respondents to the questionnaire were invited to become participants in a focus group that was conducted via teleconferencing. The information gathered from the questionnaires was used to foster discussion at the focus group. The focus group discussion involved seven participants who were teaching across Canada (two of which were international teacher educators) and one from Trinidad and Tobago. Participants were 80% female with a range of 5 to 30 years of teaching experience in teacher education, and taught in a range of subject areas such as art education, math, science, literacy and social studies. The group discussion was audio recorded and transcribed. A thematic analysis of the focus group transcripts was conducted following the same processes as the written questionnaire. Two key themes emerged from the study. These themes will be discussed in the following section.

Findings and Discussion

This study explored teacher educators perceptions about the complexity and uncertainty education is facing in the era of globalization. Secondly, it explored the multifaceted role of teacher educators in a global society. Two key themes emerged from the data: 1) teacher education in the era of rapid change and 2) information technology and teacher education.

Teacher Education in the Era of Rapid Change

Teacher education is under the powerful influence of rapid globalization. In the globalising process, teacher education programs are facing great transformation and many challenges. Today, long-practised and often highly national in character,

teaching and learning methods are being transformed under myriad pressures from global economic competition, speedy global communication, and growing human migration and others.

One area that is influenced by globalization is the shift in the job markets and the movement of jobs from developed countries to those that are less developed with a much cheaper workforce. This can result in fewer jobs and the need for specialized knowledge and skills to justify the higher costs to the employer (Zhao, 2010). This can also impact on the types of skills pre-service teachers need for future employment. Several participants referred to the changing systemic structures in their teacher education program, especially in the area of expanding one year teaching programs. One participant shared the following:

> *The other thing that's driving the changes, in terms of the extended program, is the lack of jobs. And I think that the government feels that if the students went for two years, then they would be more qualified and also that would give them a year to sort of let more jobs become available. So I know that's been talked about a lot at our university as well.*

Priestly (2002) stated that globalization has altered educational systems at three macro-levels: a) changes in discourse, b) policy, and c) practice. For instance, because of globalization, education systems adopted new fields of study, ways of thinking and examining material, and even a new vocabulary. Many educational institutions are very quickly adopting concepts of income generation, human capital, economic development, competitiveness, commodification, export and import of ideas and technologies, lifelong learning for improving job skills, etc., that are in line with main economic postulates of globalization. The words like 'accreditation standards', 'standardization', 'universalization', 'competitiveness', 'achievements', 'technology', 'social media', 'push for practice', 'job skills', 'global approaches', 'globally' were also among the most commonly used by the participants of the study.

Ruby (2005) discussed the impact of globalization on education, including curriculum, faculty, students, endowments, and even university cafeterias. He described many threats to education due to globalization processes; however, he also suggested that the opportunity created by globalization for education is significant. In

a similar vein, McBurnie (2001) stated that: "Globalization fosters pluralities, hybrids, choices, and exposures to new possibilities. While it poses challenges, it also provides powerful opportunities…" (p. 24). Our study demonstrated that globalization provides teacher education with a great deal of opportunity both locally and globally. Several participants described the instances in which globalization had shaped existing teaching programs in innovative and exciting ways as well as served to bring education to those who previously had minimal access. In the words of the participants:

> *Courses are delivered at a fishing lodge and via distance at other times…Video conferencing has an unexpected advantage in that it's easy to include elders from my teaching site, or from isolated communities.*

> *We're being introduced to things like Wiki spaces, where people can collaborate in different time zones on projects. And I think just the evolution of social media where people from one country can speak to another, there are no borders.*

> *I use Skype and Elluminate Live (etc) to bring in experts from around the world to interact with my students in every course.*

Some of the participants stated that opportunities for education that exist in the global world require certain changes in teacher education programs. For instance, teacher education programs need to prepare pre-service teachers for future global challenges and opportunities. In order to do this, some of the participants discussed the need for cultural immersion experiences, culturally sensitive curriculum, alternative teaching practicum placements, service-learning opportunities, and building curriculum keeping global interconnectedness in mind. Porter and Vidovich (2000), using the sea as a metaphor, expressed hope in the future of higher education stating that "while some of the real dangers seem apparent, it is possible that globalization may also produce dynamic new opportunities from which universities, with established activities in international waters, may be able to steer into new, interesting, and uncharted seas" (p. 466). One of the participants stated that it is imperative for pre-service teachers to understand their role as future educators, to conceptualize their impact both upon and

within global system, and be aware of the innovations and changes in teacher education around the world. Another participant noted:

> *I use a lot of technology to bring people into my classroom from other parts of the world. I've had people talking to my students from Australia and New Zealand, and various other parts of the US and Canada. So that's something that's been very different for them [pre-service teachers]. Also, they're not used to thinking very deeply about who they are and what they do either. So that's been new and a change.*

A rapidly changing society also brings uncertainty. Teaching has always been a profession riddled with uncertainties. A quarter of a century ago, Floden and Clark (1987) examined the pivotal, multifaceted role that uncertainty plays in teaching, and how teacher education should prepare students for this uncertainty. In order to clarify the role of uncertainty within the teaching profession, Floden and Clark offered a framework that differentiates between different types of uncertainties that teachers encounter in their daily practices. They followed their review of different types of uncertainty with the question of whether or not more certainty would actually be better. The conclusion that emerged from this article framed uncertainty as "the tension that lies at the heart of all teaching" (McDonald, 1986, as cited in Floden and Clark, 1987, p. 9) and works as "an essential, driving force…which cannot and should not be removed" (Floden and Clark, 1987, p. 9). Floden and Clark (1987) state that "[t]eaching is in part an art, whose impact comes through interweaving the expected and the surprising" (p. 9).

Uncertainty is also a part of a century long debate over the claim of pedagogy as the art and science of teaching (Eisner, 1983; Highet, 1950; Hestenes, 1979; James, 1899; Luke, 2011). It is this tension that aptly defines the current push for science of education and, in some cases, even the craft of education versus a persistent humanist defense of teaching as art. The power and currency of the metaphor of teaching as science/craft is that it suits well economic and political forces behind the current wave of globalization (Luke, 2011). Participants suggested the need for finding balance between local and global, theory and practice, and university and school expectations within our increasingly changing society. One of the participants stated:

There is a huge debate in our education department. There are faculty members who feel we
should be preparing pre-service teachers for what they're doing in the schools, and there are
others who feel we're preparing them to think critically and to be able to do things that are
innovative and creative; to use strategies and approaches that may differ from the practical
aspects of what's being done in schools. So that's a huge debate as to how much prep we do
for the practical aspects of schooling.

The feedback from the participants clearly indicated that the debates about the integration of theory and practice and how best to prepare pre-service teachers are still continuing. Education programs are entering a period of significant change in order to respond to the challenges, opportunities, and responsibilities before them. The forces driving change in teacher education today are many and varied. One of the most influential of these forces, as identified by the participants, is discussed below.

Information Technology and Teacher Education

Recent advances in our ability to communicate and process information in digital form are reshaping the economies and societies of many countries around the world. Information technology (IT) has become ubiquitous and is a driving factor in the process of globalization. IT drives the innovative use of resources to promote new products and ideas across nations and cultures, regardless of geographic location. Creating efficient and effective channels to exchange information, technological advances have been the catalyst for global interconnectedness.

Time after time participants noted that many changes in teacher education programs have been driven in large part by the emergence of powerful new information technologies such as computers, distance education, use of multi-modal telecommunications, and high-speed networks. Modern digital technologies have vastly increased the capacity to know and to do things as well as to communicate and collaborate with others. Broader use of technology allows teacher educators to transmit information quickly and widely, linking distant places and diverse areas of endeavor in new ways. As some of the focus group participants commented:

Technology has an enormous influence on delivery of content and on the expectation that as knowledge is everywhere, the university classes are there to help navigate and interrogate the content rather than deliver it. Global approaches are more available and ideas are less centred only on Australian perspectives.

One of the things about it is, the world is smaller. You can get any message at the moment because you have your little Blackberry, and you know, and it makes it easier to get a message and to respond. So things that took a longer time are really taking a short time, that's one of the things.

Technology allows teacher educators and students to form and sustain communities for work, research, and learning in ways unimaginable just a decade ago. Never before have people experienced a technology that has evolved so rapidly, eliminating the constraints of space and time, and reshaping the way we communicate, think, and learn.

I'm used to using the learning management systems like Moodle, Blackboard, whatever, as a place where students can engage in activities, can access resources, can communicate and build community with each other and what have you. So I always do that, even though I've got a face-to-face course, I always create an online presence that's fairly extensive and allows them to connect out of various things.

I have this scheduled [online] drop in session on a Friday afternoon where everybody can drop in, either individually or in groups and talk to me.

We're being introduced to things like Wiki spaces, where people can collaborate in different time zones on projects. And I think just the evolution of social media where people from one country can speak to another, there are no borders.

Many participants agreed that successful integration of technology may provide differentiated instruction and promote collaborative working environments

(Lee, 2006; Matzen & Edmunds, 2007; Solvie & Kloek, 2007). Ma and Runyon (2004) suggested the effective use of new technology may increase academic efficiency and enhance the quality of student work. Dick (2005) states "technology is the key to improving student achievement, but without high-quality professional development, technology will never be successful in fulfilling that role" (p.31). Educators however, need to receive adequate training and opportunities to try new teaching practices, to realize the benefits offered by technology-based instruction.

> *I'm a real follower of the Universal Design for Learning and feel it is a way of bringing the technology in and making things accessible for all learners.*

> *I like the fact that VLEs and resources mean you can transform the classroom to something other than 'telling' students stuff - in this day and age, what's the point of getting 50 people in a room and telling them stuff they could read? So I ask them to read stuff away from the room and then use the F2F time inside the room to discuss and develop analytic skills where possible - and also to get students to be a little more creative than the cognitive sponges other courses would like them to be.*

New technologies and applications to support teaching and learning are developing rapidly but they are still very controversial. Many teacher educators are trying to keep pace with integrating these changes in order to effectively use technology to achieve their educational goals (Muniandy et al., 2007) and others would prefer not to use the technology. In the words of the participants:

> *Some of us are not all that comfortable with the pace that technology is going at. We've had Smart boards installed in our classrooms. I know that not everybody is still able to use those, and it's important to be able to demonstrate the skills to the students.*

> *There's no consistency around opportunities around presentation practice or in engagement, or use of technology or any of those types of things. I think regardless of the length of the program, that's just a problem. Because students get mixed messages some professors don't like, some don't use technology, some use it all the time, some use it badly, and some use it well. So that inconsistency I just think is a big problem in these pre-service teacher programs.*

I taught an online course, and it was so long. It took me so much longer to teach and to mark and to read everybody's postings. And I found it utterly frustrating. I would much prefer to teach, and I actually I would much prefer to learn in person. I don't know, that's just me, maybe it's because I'm older, I don't know. I love technology for my own personal use, but in terms of teaching online, I don't love it at all.

I think people have strong feelings about the use of technology and the move to technology, and the increase of social media and those kinds of things partly because on the one hand, a lot of teachers aren't very familiar with that kind of thing. So it adds a lot of stress to their life.

We think that our students are completely wired and that's the way that they want to engage with their studies. And the reality is probably somewhere in between. For example, we are now available to our students nearly 24/7 due to e-mail. That is a big factor for many. Students are expecting answers nearly at the pace of instant messaging.

There is an expectation that everything should be available online- makes my job one of value adding and entertaining.

Understanding how technology may be used to enhance teaching methods may not always be clear to educators. Rose (2006) explained how pre-service teachers receive state of the art instruction on methodological practices using technology only to find themselves practicing in school systems where these teaching methodologies are not supported. In a similar vein one of the participants described her concern about the student teaching practicum:

There is a huge disconnect, because the people teaching the courses aren't necessarily the people supervising them in the practicum. And they're all guests in the classroom, so it's very difficult sometimes for them to integrate some of their own ideas, and it becomes sort of doing what the teacher wants you to do.

Seasoned teachers with experience in instructional design often lack technical expertise using technology as some educational systems have offered scarce opportunities for professional development on technology implementation (Matzen & Edmunds, 2007).

Over the last two decades, however educators have incorporated technology in varying degrees within the classroom. Formal training, professional development opportunities, time and practice, available resources are among the many reasons for this wide variation in use (Levin & Wadmany, 2008). Educators often have limited time to plan lessons and learning to use technology is time consuming (Iding, Crosby, & Speitel, 2002). Some educators are not aware of the ease in which technology can be learned and integrated in the classroom, and some may not be aware of how technology can make curriculum development, planning lessons, motivating students, and tracking student progress easier to handle. Effective use of technology involves integration into curricula (Duffield & Moore, 2006) and applying the technology in meaningful ways in the classroom (Sadik, 2008). As one of the participants noted:

> *Whereas I always use technology, the most important thing is to creative a meaningful learning experience. If you can use technology to do that, then that's great, and if it doesn't bring anything to the learning experience, then we shouldn't be using it.*

Muniandy et al. (2007) pointed out that the difference between technology implementation and technology integration can be another gray area for educators. Technology implementation refers to digital competency and skills in using technology resources; whereas technology integration refers to using technology as a tool or medium to acquire new skills, knowledge, and understanding of a concept or phenomena (Muniandy et al., 2007; Okami, 2001). Without adequate professional development and training, educators may lack the skills needed to make this distinction and this may contribute to frustration and stressed attitudes towards using technology in the classroom. Many teacher educators concur:

> *One of the things I notice is that my students fail to understand that technology is a vehicle for delivery of content, rather than the technology being the lesson itself. And they very often fail to have a plan B and a plan C. Everything is invested in the technology. And I think that that's something we have to continue to stress with students.*

I think sometimes the technology could be a bit of a problem, especially when you are in the midst of something and everything that could go wrong with the technology goes wrong. Then you have to look for plan B, and plan C.

Can we in fact teach in such a way that incorporates technology in an effective manner?

In terms of how technology has effected education over the past five years, the findings indicate participants perceive a definite change in technology use in education. They report changing attitudes, a dependency for addressing daily needs and work related tasks, and a saturation of new and exciting technology as the driving forces behind increased use.

Concluding Thoughts

The purpose of this study was to explore teacher educators' perspectives on the importance of globalization and its impact on the ways in which they prepare pre-service teachers for an uncertain future. The participants in this study drew attention to the rapid changes that are taking place in teacher education programs around the world as time and distance take on new meanings in a highly globalized and digital society. As one participant shared, "Yes, 21st century teaching practices are not as much about the tools (e.g., digital) being used as they are about the new ways that people are designing, negotiating, producing, and disseminating information." Teaching, as always, is about student learning and how best to meet student needs in our global society.

There's no certainty in what will happen next, but it our responsibility, as teachers and teacher educators, to create spaces that can help us stay 'open to the mystery, open to wonder, open to questions' (Green, 2001, p.146), and to strive for a balance between the art and the science in our pedagogical approaches. We need to remember that "uncertainty need not imply lack of whatever it takes to become a confident professional" (Floden and Clark, p. 17). Uncertainty can be an essential part of a multifaceted component of teaching that is

delivered in many different ways and allows for diverse ways of knowing and representing our knowledge in an increasingly diverse, complex and interconnected world.

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Chapter 14

Teacher Education in Quebec: A critical examination of a competency-based approach

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This chapter traces the evolution of teacher education in Quebec over the past two and a half decades through the lens of a critical examination of the competency-based approach that was adopted in the mid 1990's. We explore the notion of competency building in teacher education programmes, and question whether or not it is present in the current programmes on offer. The paper will also include a discussion of why this situation is particular to French Canada in terms of the historical background to teacher education in that province, and the European as well as North American influences on its development.

Teacher Education in Quebec

In the mid 1990's in Quebec the one year postgraduate teaching certificate for secondary teacher education programmes, and the three-year 90 credit for elementary teacher education programmes were replaced by a four year (120-credit) Bachelor of Education degree. We should note that the structures of educational programmes in Quebec are slightly different than elsewhere in Canada, as students complete secondary school at the end of their 11th year, and go on to do a two year academic pre-university diploma at a separate institution referred to as CEGEP (*Collège d'enseignement général et professionnel*) . A typical undergraduate degree requires a further three years. Elsewhere in Canada, students complete 12 years of schooling before moving straight into a four year undergraduate degree. CEGEPs also offer three year vocation diplomas, the equivalent being the community college system in the other Canadian provinces.

At the time these changes in teacher education were implemented, the Ministry of Education (Ministry of Education, Leisure and Sport or MELS) required universities to make substantial modifications in the way future teachers are prepared for both elementary and secondary schools in Quebec, with two important reforms of provincial orientations being implemented in the 1990's and early twenty-first century (MEQ 1992, 1994*a,* 1994*b* and 2001). Along with a substantial increase in the number of practice teaching hours (700 hours from 125 hours), one of the major changes requires all programs in teacher education to incorporate a competency-based approach for the preparation of new teachers.

Historically, the transfer of programmes in teacher education from Normal Schools to the university setting at the end of the 1960's was marked by a desire to base teacher preparation on rigorous scientific knowledge and research. There was also a desire to gradually limit the almost complete control of the church on education at that time. It was the first movement towards the professionalization of the field; that is creation of the "science of education", a legitimate university-based field of study. Since then, the professionalization movement has come to be associated with a discourse that recognises the complexity of the role of the teacher. This is linked to the necessity for university teacher education programmes to use research to better prepare teachers to know how to act in professional contexts.

The substantial increase in practice teaching hours was intended to permit all future teachers to benefit from the learning afforded by extended periods in classrooms (Putnam & Borko, 2000; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Rajuan, Beijaard & Verloop, 2008; Korthagen, 2010) Additionally, the decision to offer an integrated programme for secondary school teaching was linked to the argument that this choice would promote the development of a professional teaching identity (MEQ, 2001). There was a strong interest in offering future secondary school teachers an opportunity to develop a sense of the educational possibilities of their subject area along with the necessary background knowledge right from the beginning of their university studies. This important increase in the number of practicum hours also corresponds to the termination of a system of probation, which was controlled by the school milieu and which consisted of a form of validation of teaching competencies during a period of two years following completion of a teaching diploma. Successfully completing this probation period allowed the teacher to obtain a permanent teaching permit. Following the first reform in teacher education in 1990, this period of probation was

abolished and graduates of a degree in education are now immediately eligible for a permanent teaching permit on the basis that they have adequately developed their teaching competencies. Validation of this competency development now rests entirely with the universities given that completion of a Bachelor of Education degree now leads to permanent certification with no further validation in the school milieu.

At the beginning of the 1990's, the concept of competency in professional programmes was still embryonic in Quebec. This concept marked a desire to focus teacher education on the development of knowledge of how to act in a teaching context, but the framework related to this type of a programme had yet to be developed (Gauthier & Mellouki, 2006). The focus on competency-building can be seen as a response to the frequent criticisms that teacher education was far too theoretical and did not prepare teachers to act professionally in contexts that are complex and constantly changing (Whitty & Willmott, 1991; Pourtelance & Durant, 2006; Piot, 2008).

The 2001 orientations and the competency-based approach were also mandated in an attempt to better prepare beginning teachers to meet the perceived new challenges in the 21st century classrooms. "The changes that have occurred in society have created new tensions and brought about a major redefinition of the work of teachers. They must now develop high-level professional competencies that can no longer be acquired by trial and error, but rather must be learned systematically as part of a training process designed to produce cultured professionals." (MEQ[11], 2001 pp. 8-9)

The initial competencies listed in the 1992 ministerial documents to be developed by pre-service teachers appeared to be heavily influenced by the neo-behaviourism that has dominated education since the early 1960's. The competencies proposed at this point were comprised of an interminable list, as there were more than 60. In 2001, the MELS published new orientations for teacher education, in which the focus on the development of competencies is retained, and a new understanding of the concept is put forward, for example:

- Competency exists in a real-life setting;

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[11] Although the Ministry of Education is now the Ministry of Education, Leisure and Sport, and referred to as the MELS, in 2001 it was still the Ministry of Education of Quebec, and referred to as the MEQ.

- Competency follows a progression from simple to complex;
- Competency is based on a set of resources;
- Competency is based on the ability to mobilize resources in situations requiring professional action;
- Competency is part of intentional practice;
- Competency is demonstrated as a successful, effective, efficient, recurrent performance;
- Competency is a project, an ongoing pursuit.

This reformulation led to the creation of the current list of twelve professional competencies to be used as a framework for programme revisions at the elementary and secondary levels required between 2001 and 2004.

These twelve required competencies for becoming a teacher in Quebec are organised into four sections: (1) foundations, (2) teaching act, (3) social and educational context and (4) professional identity. The complete list can be found here.

Core Professional Competencies for the Teaching Profession

Foundations

1. To act as a professional inheritor, critic and interpreter of knowledge or culture when teaching students.
2. To communicate clearly in the language of instruction, both orally and in writing, using correct grammar, in various contexts related to teaching.

Teaching Act

3. To develop teaching/learning situations that are appropriate to the students concerned and the subject content with a view to developing the competencies targeted in the programmes of study.
4. To pilot teaching/learning situations that are appropriate to the students concerned and to the subject content with a view to developing the competencies targeted in the programmes of study.

5. To evaluate student progress in learning the subject content and mastering the related competencies.

6. To plan, organise and supervise a class in such a way as to promote students' learning and social development.

Social and Educational Context

7. To adapt his or her teaching to the needs and characteristics of students with learning disabilities, social maladjustments or handicaps.

8. To integrate information and communications technologies (ICT) in the preparation and delivery of teaching/learning activities and for instructional management and professional development purposes.

9. To cooperate with school staff, parents, partners in the community and students in pursuing the educational objectives of the school.

10. To cooperate with members of the teaching team in carrying out tasks involving the development and evaluations of the competencies targeted in the programs of study, taking into account the students concerned.

Professional identity

11. To engage in professional development individually and with others.

12. To demonstrate ethical and responsible professional behaviour in the performance of his or her duties.

The entire document, including the full descriptions of the competencies and their components as well as an overview of the vision for these changes in teaching practices that inspired them is available through the Ministry of Education website at

In this paper we will critically analyze the effect a competency-based approach has had on teacher education in Quebec, two decades after its implementation. The paper will also include a discussion of why this situation is particular to Quebec in terms of the historical background to teacher education in that province, and the European as well as North American influences on its development.

Competency-based approaches in teacher education

Competency-based education practices are not new in the Anglo-Saxon context, as they were first described in 1890 and became relatively popular in the United States in the 1960's and 70's. At that time, the concept of competence was closely linked to the behaviourist framework with regards to theories of learning (Spady, 1977; Harris, Guthrie, Hobart & Lundberg, 1995; Hoffman, 1999). Whitty & Wilmott, (1991) suggest that this may be explained by the close connection of competency development to vocational education and the learning of technical skills. Since then, the concept has evolved to become more closely associated with constructivist theories of learning rather than behaviourist (Pourtelance & Durant, 2006).

However, competence as a concept still suffers from a lack of a clear definition (Whitty & Wilmott, 1991; Hoffman 1999) and this has led to confusion and a lack of consistency in the research involving the term. Hoffman (1999) suggests that there are two main definitions in current use, one which refers to output or performance, and the other to what input a person may require in order to be competent, or to perform competently.

Harris et al. (1995) have pointed out that critics "…have denounced the [competency-based] approach as overly product-oriented, narrowly mechanistic and too fragmenting" (p. 4). It is also possible for this strong focus on the development of competencies and the knowledge of how to act in context can have the effect of diminishing the importance of theoretical and content knowledge in teacher education programmes.

More recently, Struyven & De Meyst (2010) explain, for their part, that the definition of competency has evolved over the years, and now includes the potential for behaviour, such as effectively carrying out tasks and problem-solving based on knowledge and understanding of different contexts, and not just the behaviour itself. The important development of constructivist frameworks on learning is certainly not disconnected from the evolution of the concept of competency, as is shown most notably by European researchers. It is not until the 1980's that we see reference to the notion in French (Desjardins & Dezutter, 2009). In the French-language literature, the debates about competency-based approaches revolve around the fact that it is subject to a variety of interpretations (Gauthier & Mellouki, 2006), and the difficulty of defining what it means to know how to do something (Fabre, 2004;

Tardif, 2006; Toussaint & Yxpas, 2004). However, an approach favouring the development of teaching competencies has been generally accepted to constitute an improvement over teacher education, as it focuses on the development of learning to be competent in the context of professional practice. A competency-based approach places the development of knowledge of how to do things at the core. In this framework, the acquisition of knowledge is not an end in itself, but supports the development of this practical knowledge in a context.

Francophone authors are particularly interested in the cognitive dimension of the development and the enactment of knowhow in competency-based learning programmes. Influential researchers such as Jonnaert (2002), Perrenoud (2002) and Scallon (2004) have explained that developing a competency means learning to mobilise both internal and external resources in authentic and complex contexts so as to be able to exercise judgement when undertaking an action.

The rapport between action, knowledge and the thought process is still, however, relatively unknown. As Perrenoud (2002) has explained, the metaphor of "mobilisation of resources" is frequently used to explain the link between knowledge and competency is expressive, but leaves important questions unanswered. For example, resources of all kinds are grouped together, when they should really be described in a specific way. At the same time, the phrase does not describe the nature of the cognitive processes implied by the concept of mobilisation. Allal (2002) proposes a theoretical hypothesis founded on the work on cognition to explain the place of knowledge in the process of the construction of competencies. In his view, it is "the organisation of knowledge in a system, which is established during the acquisition process, and which then makes the mobilisation of this knowledge probable in other situations"[12] (p. 84) For Allal, this perspective has important implications for the learning situations to prioritise in order to promote the development of competencies.

Parallel to the reflection on the cognitive processes implicated in the development and the exercise of a competence, which is particularly emphasized in the work of francophone researchers (Perrenoud, 2002; Le Boterf, 2000, Tardif, Lessard, Lenoir & Gauthier, 2001), important questions remain as to the conditions that must be put into place in university-

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[12] Translation from the French by first author.

based teacher education programmes in order to favour the development of teaching competencies. For example, it is difficult to provide authentic learning opportunities for teaching competency development in university classrooms. As Struyven & De Meyst (2010) point out "The object of learning ideally relates to authentic contexts, real-life situations and meaningful problems, all of which are job-related" (p.1497).

With this in mind, we present here at least two aspects of teacher education that are essential to a programme that is based on the development of professional competencies: 1) the programme structures, and 2) the learning situations that students are faced with.

In terms of the programme structures, several authors have pointed out that the course offerings in a teacher education programme must be reviewed to ensure that they are not simply organised according to a logic based on disciplinary content, but relate to a plan of action for learning to teach (Bourdoncle & Lessard, 2003; Desjardins, 2010). This point may seem relatively straight-forward, but in reviewing teacher education course offerings in a majority of jurisdictions, we find that courses on learning to teach are still organised around the disciplines in isolation, such as literacy and language arts, mathematics, etc., rather than on helping to prepare teachers for classroom realities (Zeichner, 2010; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005).

When considering learning situations for future teachers, a competency-based approach calls for a revolution in terms of teacher education practices in the sense that a competency cannot be transmitted from an instructor to a student; it must be constructed by the student in a realistic context. In a competency-based approach, the transmission model of teaching and learning becomes incongruent and students are placed in situations where they are required to put their knowledge into action in a contextualized way (Dolz & Ollagnier, 2002). Learning therefore takes place in situations where the learner is faced with choices where he or she must exercise judgement and mobilise resources according to the particular situation he or she faces (Grossman & McDonald, 2008; Grossman, Hammerness & McDonald, 2009).

Desjardins (2010) has also shown that the implementation of a competency-based approach poses important challenges to teacher educators, both from an individual and a collective prospective. Rather than being the source of knowledge, the teacher educator now

accompanies the student teacher in the construction of competencies. It is no longer enough for a teacher to simply transmit knowledge; he or she must create contextualised learning conditions that support the competency development of students. This represents a fundamental change which requires the teacher educator to reposition him or herself within a university milieu that often remains structured for traditional knowledge transmission approaches to teaching and learning. The teacher educator can no longer consider him or herself as a specialist in particular field related to education, but must determine his or her specific role related to the domain of action.

What remains to be seen is how the competency based approach can be successfully transferred into a teacher education programme in such a way that students not only understand that being able to teach is not based on instinctual behaviours, but also requires related theoretical knowledge about teaching and learning, and being able to mobilize this knowledge in a pertinent way, while in a classroom context. In order for this learning to take place, teacher education programmes also have a responsibility to put into place opportunities for students to make the connections between theoretical and practical knowledge about teaching. In Quebec, the framework referred to above proposes common end-of-programme competencies, although universities are given some freedom as to what exactly they teach and how they choose to reach those objectives. While not as structured or prescriptive as some programmes, for example, Belgium and England, the framework is restrictive enough to give cause for concern, due to the fact that universities have responded to the changes by continuing to offer courses in methods in subject areas with knowledge-based objectives and continuing to hire subject area specialists to teach them. Lampert (2005) describes a similar situation in the United States.

Teacher Education in Quebec: the example of the Université de Sherbrooke

Up until this point, what the twelve universities in Quebec offering initial teacher education have done with their programmes in relation to this framework is relatively unrecorded in the literature with the exception of Desjardins & Dezutter (2009). Therefore, in this section we will base our comments primarily on an examination of the strengths and limits of three competency-based teacher education programmes at the *Université de Sherbrooke*: Elementary

education, Secondary education and Teaching English as a Second Language. This analysis is based on our understanding of the system currently in place in terms of our experiences both as teacher educators and as programme coordinators of these programmes.

1. <u>A competency-based approach has not revolutionized programme structures</u>

We can state that the structures of teacher education programmes Quebec have not changed much since the revisions in 1994. The different components of the teacher education programmes at the *Université de Sherbrooke* are still infused with a disciplinary approach to learning to be a teacher, such as literacy, mathematics and the sciences. There is little evidence in course outlines of an approach based on active pedagogy, and even less evidence to support the notion that a competency-based approach has been adopted.

However, despite this fact, Desjardins and Dezutter (2009) in their study of primary teacher education programmes in Québec, observe, in the course descriptions, a tendency of certain universities to create courses based on intervention (pedagogy, methods, evaluation, etc.) while breaking down the barriers between the different facets of the teaching act in order to take into account a greater number of aspects related to the teaching act at the same time. For example, even if the programmes offer a separate course on evaluation, this is also touched on in methods courses and courses on general pedagogy in certain universities. This is definitely the case for the Université de Sherbrooke programmes, at both the primary and secondary level. For example, in the secondary programme, students complete an assignment that is submitted to both the evaluation specialist and the methods specialist for their teaching subject. Each professor grades different aspects of the same assignment. There is even time built into the timetable to facilitate the necessary group work to complete the assignment. The same could for technology in relation to teaching and learning. It is therefore possible to conclude that, in some universities at least, that teacher education in Quebec seeks to offer programmes that are less rigidly compartmentalised, which corresponds to a competency-based approach. However, there is still progress to be made, as anecdotal evidence reveals that students and professors do not always recognise the integrated learning opportunities that are offered. For example, both students and professors have been known to make comments such as, "We cannot expect student teachers to evaluate pupils in second year because they don't take the evaluation course until 3rd year."

This type of comment is typical, despite the fact that students take methods courses that discuss evaluation in both first and second years of the programme.

2. <u>Pedagogical approaches that remain traditional</u>

Toussaint & Xypas (2004) have written that the reforms in teacher education in Quebec and francophone Europe necessitate major changes in order to meet the requirements of a competency-based approach, such as the integration of a project-based approach. In their view, it is not possible to envisage a programme for the preparation of teachers that is both reflexive and action-oriented. However, in reality, such changes are often complex and close to impossible to integrate fully. For example, in 2004, the secondary education programme at the *Université de Sherbrooke* began offering courses entitled "integration courses." The original idea was to set up project-based courses to encourage students to integrate both disciplinary and pedagogical knowledge in a project that was based in the school milieu but not a practicum per se. Students were originally required to take one of these courses each year during the four year programme, and each course related to one of the ministry competencies (see pages 3-4 of this document). Professors provided students with general background information, but much of the class time was allotted to project work with the professors taking over a facilitating role.

Despite the best intentions of providing a real opportunity for students to develop competencies in semi-authentic situations, course evaluations were consistently negative and anecdotal evidence reveals that students did not understand how project-based learning situations could be beneficial to their learning to become teachers. Students complained of the lack of course content and stated they were not learning because they were not given specific information to memorise and repeat on a test. The socio-constructivist inspired projects were viewed as fun, but not real learning because most of the information was provided by the students themselves. Since that time these courses have been considerably modified to include far more teacher-selected content, and the project-based aspect has been downplayed to the extent that final exams are now a part of the course. Somewhat ironically, student evaluations reveal that students are more satisfied with the traditional aspects of the course.

Apart from these courses in the secondary education programme, university coursework at U de S remains traditional, consisting typically of professor-led lectures. Classrooms feature, for the most part, rows of desks, and classes and exams are organised around a typical university schedule of three hour classes featuring lectures and occasional group work, accompanied by textbook readings and assignments, and followed by a final exam. In terms of other universities, Desjardins and Dezutter's 2009 research, which was based on classroom observations of university courses in six different primary education programmes, shows that the majority of their teacher educator participants were using highly magisterial teaching strategies. The contents of the courses based on classroom intervention are often presented in the form of techniques or procedures to follow, or perhaps rules of action. The cognitive processes called into question are often that of assimilation. Among the six teacher educators who accepted to open their classes for observation by the researcher, only one presented a lesson where the students were placed in a learning context that required a process of construction of knowledge. In all the other cases, the teaching methods were clearly transmission of knowledge to be assimilated. Therefore, it appears that the model of knowledge transmission, as opposed to one that promotes the development of competencies, is still very much alive and well in Quebec universities, despite rhetoric by teacher educators to the contrary. This is not surprising as it has been found to be the case in other countries which have also attempted competency-based approaches to teacher education, such as Belgium (Struyven & De Meyst, 2010).

3. <u>Little support for professional development for teacher educators</u>

As is frequently the case for teacher education, programme changes such as the ones required by the Ministry of Education in Quebec in 1994 and 2001 were developed and adopted by teams of professors involved in the programme reform, without consultation with experts in the field of competency-based education programmes. University professors are considered to be experts in their field by ministries of education and therefore capable of facilitating their own professional development, even when a major paradigm shift is involved, such as the incorporation of a competency-based approach in the Quebec teacher education programme reforms of the turn of the century. Recent literature on the preparation of teacher educators indicates that much needs to be done to adequately prepare

teacher educators to integrate innovations such as competency-based approaches into their courses (Florian, 2012; Margolin, 2011; Murray & Male, 2005).

The Israeli researcher Margolin (2011) writes, "Since there is no formal program for preparing teacher educators, the latter have to develop their own professional competencies, knowledge and pedagogy while performing their role as teacher educators" (p. 7). The same is true for Quebec-based teacher educators. In an article on the challenges facing substantial changes required to a teacher education programme in Scotland to prepare teachers for inclusive classrooms, Florian (2012) points out that many teacher educators are simply not able to make substantial changes to their practice

> … because teacher educators often share this feeling of being unprepared. The argument put forth in this article is that responsiveness to a changing educational landscape requires the professional development needs of teacher educators to be addressed as part of the reform of Teacher Education… (p. 276).

In Quebec, the professional development needs of university-based teacher educators have not been considered as part of an over-all strategy to ensure the implementation of the reformed programme in teacher education. A relatively recent interest in university level teaching and learning on the part of francophone researchers (Bédard & Béchard, 2009) is encouraging, but no comprehensive project to ensure that all teacher educators are well-prepared to implement a competency-based approach in their courses has been put in place, or even under consideration. Twelve years have passed since the programme changes and the evidence that these methods are not effective is accumulating (Toussaint & Xypas, 2004; Kane, 2007; Russell & Loughran, 2007), but professional development of university-based teacher educators is still left entirely up to the individual.

Given the challenges required to integrate a competency-based approach to pre-service teacher education in university settings and the lack of institutional support for the professional development of teacher educators, it is not surprising that many professors continue to offer courses on learning to teach based on lectures, textbook readings and written exams.

4. Teacher Education programmes that do not take into account social and educational realities

Teacher education in Quebec is strongly oriented towards a preparation for efficiency of action in context along with a heavy emphasis on teaching school subjects. On the whole, universities have largely lacked the creativity to break free of previous moulds for teacher education, despite the possibilities created by the recent reforms. Consequently, most universities in Quebec have made little room in the curriculum for courses related to current realities in education, such as the increasing diversity in school populations due to immigration, the integration of students with disabilities in regular classes, the particular needs of First Nations students or the exploding use of technology in educational contexts. The Secondary Education programme at the *Université de Sherbrooke* is a case in point, allotting only 2 credits out of a total of 120 for a short course on multiculturalism in schools and a further 2 credits for a course on students with learning disabilities and behaviour difficulties. The course on multiculturalism does not include any information on the particular needs of students for whom French is a second language. The curriculum also does not include any reference to First Nations students and students are expected to learn to integrate technology into their teaching on their own. In the Elementary Education programme, students take two courses on integrating technologies, for a total of five credits out of 120, and two courses on working with students with disabilities for a total of six credits. The course on multicultural education is optional, and there is no provision for learning about teaching students who speak French as a second language or who are of First Nations ancestry.

The result of these curricular choices is that although new teachers in both urban and rural areas are facing new, increasingly challenging situations, pre-service teachers are not always well-prepared for them. The focus of current programmes remains on developing subject-area knowledge, as is evident in the fact that in the Secondary programme, which is based on 99 credits in coursework (the other 21 credits are designated for the practica), 74 credits are specifically connected to developing subject area knowledge and methods in teaching it. The Elementary programme requires students to take a total of 48 credits in the different subject areas taught at elementary school, half of their coursework credits in the programme. The remaining time simply does not provide enough opportunities for exploring solutions to the

current problems faced by teachers. A survey of the course offerings and programme descriptions of teacher education degrees in other Quebec universities based on their websites reveals a similar pattern. More research is needed to reveal how different universities have taken up the challenge of implementing a truly competency-based approach to teacher education within traditional tertiary level institutions.

Therefore, on one hand, we find that many universities in Quebec have lacked the creativity to go out of the previous moulds for teacher education, despite the possibilities created by the recent reforms. On the other hand, it is possible that a revision of the actual framework that guides the development of teacher education programmes is necessary. Although the list of competencies was developed in 2001, now over a decade ago, there is no plan at this time to revise and update this list, despite the huge changes taking place in Quebec society in terms of immigration, high numbers of single parent families and the integration of children with learning and behavioural challenges into regular classrooms.

5. Challenges in connecting coursework with the practicum

Another important change in teacher education programmes with the move to a four year programme was the extension of the practicum requirements to a total of 700 hours over the four years of the programme. Pre-service teachers across the province generally complete a practicum during each of the four years of the 120 credit programme, and complete an extensive internship of 3 months during their final year. The decision to increase the amount of time spent on practicum is a very popular one with students, but the research does not necessarily show that more time on practicum leads to greater development of teaching skills (Tigchelaar & Korthagen, 2004; Wideen, Mayer-Smith & Moon, 1998; Zeichner & Tabachnik, 1981). In fact, some studies on practical teaching experiences suggest that we know very little about what students learn while on practicum (Hiebert, Morris, Berk, Jansen, 2007; Kane, 2007). There is considerable evidence to show that student teachers are more likely to repeat the teaching approaches that they are familiar with from their own schooling than to implement constructivist or problem-based approaches that they may have learned in teacher education classes (Britzman, 2003; Korthagen, 2010). As Sachs (1997) has written,

> The tension between academic knowledge and practitioner knowledge is played out
> regularly when university students visit schools for practicum. All too often, students

attending 'prac' (sic) are faced with prejudice against 'theory' as represented by university learning, and told by their supervisors: "Don't listen to what they tell you at Uni—the real knowledge and learning happens here. (p. 48)

In addition, many student teachers' primary concerns appear to be to conform to their cooperating teacher's expectations in order to do well and get a passing grade, rather than to experiment with innovative lessons or techniques (Thomas, 2009). Gaudelli & Ousley (2009) discuss the finding that the more time pre-service teachers spend conforming to an image of "the good teacher", the more likely they are to perpetuate the status quo, and to see that as the only viable way of interacting with students and enacting their professional role. In their study of mentoring, Rajuan, Beijaard & Verloop (2008) found that a practicum placement may not always be an ideal learning site for a wide variety of reasons, which can place additional stress on a student teacher and reinforce certain negative teaching behaviours. Therefore, it is possible that a greater number of practicum hours may actually have a detrimental effect on helping student teachers learn to become effective professionals.

One of the important issues for teacher education remains, in this context, that of establishing strong links between the frameworks of teaching that are valued and taught at the university, and those that are advocated in the practicum contexts, that is, the school milieu. A lack of connection between the university courses and practice in schools continues to persist, as well as inconsistencies in requirements and standards due to poor communication between universities and the school milieu. The increased amount of time spent on practicum actually exacerbates the situation, and has been known to lead to negative learning ("I now know how not to teach"), rather than a consistent improvement in the competency levels of new teachers. The increase of practicum hours for student teachers causes important challenges for universities, such as the assurance that this time in classrooms is truly significant, and most of all, that the learning while on practicum is in line with the rest of the programme's goals.

The Ministry of Education in Quebec recognises this problem and has invited universities to develop mechanisms that will ensure strong connections between the practicum and university-based courses by implementing a programme-based approach, that is one where concepts are not taught and evaluated in isolation, but where students have opportunities to

gradually learn theories and research about teaching and learning at the same time as they learn to put these into practice and take more responsibility in a classroom of pupils.

> This is why greater emphasis must be placed not only on a better integration between theoretical and practical courses, but also between practical courses and the actual conditions in which future teachers will practice their profession. … Educational situations must be set up to allow knowledge to be applied and to allow prospective teachers to develop professional competencies such as designing learning situations for students. (MEQ, 2001, p. 24)

The work of Darling-Hammond (2006) in the United States has introduced several strategies for universities to overcome this problem; solutions exist, but resistance can come from a variety of directions. One of the solutions involves the judicious selection of associate teachers, but the mechanisms for coordination with the various partners in the school milieu, as well as pedagogical strategies used in university courses are also important factors. Desjardins (2012) has also shown that the concept of a programme-based approach has much to recommend it in terms of developing a better coherence between the different components of teacher education programmes. Nevertheless, it must be said that universities are have made few advances in this area of the programme, and in most cases the practica continue to be carried out independently from the rest of the programme. The main reason for this suggests Lessard (1996), is that very few professors get involved in the practicum part of the programme, and there few mechanisms built in to promote communication between associate teachers in the classroom and university-based teacher educators.

Part of the problem in the Secondary Education programme at the *Université de Sherbrooke* stems from the fact that the university does not select associate teachers, the local school principals do, and there is currently no requirement that associate teachers follow any kind of training programme to prepare them for their roles. This is not the case for the Elementary programme, where prospective associate teachers are required to take courses on mentoring student teachers before they are permitted to take on this role. This situation means that for secondary pre-service teachers there is often a lack of consistency between what is taught in universities and what student teachers are exposed to in schools. In addition, lack of a common language can lead to misunderstandings and a sense of

disconnect or even conflict for the students caught between the two cultures. Both sides could learn a great deal from one another, as universities often ignore the complexities of today's schools and classrooms, and associate teachers are not always aware of changes in university programmes or of research that can inform practice. It is not only the lack of a structure to bring both sides together that is missing, but the will to create this structure and make it focal to teacher education programme improvement that is lacking.

6. <u>Particular challenges related to disciplinary-based knowledge</u>

Despite the changes designed to respond to perceived weaknesses in teacher education, universities are still looking for ways to improve their programmes and overcome the persistent challenges faced by new teachers in adapting to the requirements of the profession. Some of the challenges are common to both elementary and secondary preparation programmes, while others are specific to one or the other. For example, in teacher education programmes for the elementary level, the acquisition of a solid basis in disciplinary knowledge in line with what these future teachers will actually teach represents a considerable challenge, considering that they will teach several subjects (mathematics, language arts, science, social studies, art, and ethics and religious culture), and will need the content knowledge as well as how to teach the subject. It is important to keep in mind that the only way to become an elementary school teacher is by completing a four year degree in Education, where all of the courses are offered in the Education faculty. Some universities choose to offer the courses aimed at the development of background knowledge on different subject areas separately from methods courses, whereas others integrate the subject area knowledge with methods on how to teach it. In either case, four years appears to be insufficient time for students to develop a solid background in subject-area knowledge of so many different subjects, as well as in appropriate teaching methods for each one. For further information on how elementary education students' views of their learning of these subjects, see Lebrun, Lenoir, Oliverira, Morin & McConnell (2011).

In the secondary programmes, students specialise in a particular subject area, but even then, there are multiple topics within one school subject such as social studies (history, geography and citizenship), science (biology, chemistry, physics and technology), etc. For some subjects, such as English as a second language and music, teachers are required to become

specialists for both the elementary and the secondary levels, so they must learn about working with students from age 6 to adult. For future secondary school teachers in the four year programmes, often half of their credits are taken in the disciplinary faculties. At the *Université de Sherbrooke* the Bachelor of Secondary education consists of 120 credits that are divided between the faculty of education and the subject area specialty. When the credits for the practica are factored in, there are very few credits left for courses in foundations, pedagogy, methods, evaluation and working with students with learning disabilities. In fact, at many universities, there are almost no foundational courses, such as the history, philosophy, or sociology of education offered to students who are preparing to teach at the secondary level. The approximately 60 credits in the four year programme that are allocated for education courses are usually divided relatively evenly between the practica, general pedagogy and methods courses, meaning that students will receive about 10 to 12 courses on topics such as educational psychology, evaluation, and working with students with learning or behavioural challenges, as well as specific methods courses for their subject area.

Spread over a four year programme 10 courses in the field of education does not seem like very many. However, the advantage of this approach is that students can take a different course on a topic such as methods in teaching each year over the period of four years, allowing for increasingly complex interaction with theories and research into the topic. This is in comparison with most one year post degree teacher education programmes, where there is only space for one methods course, and everything on that topic has to be concentrated into a single semester. Providing opportunities for pre-service teachers to work on connecting theory to the experience they get while on practicum by alternating coursework with practice teaching over a period of four years gives a definite advantage for gradually building understanding of how students learn, and what teachers need to be able to do to support that learning.

At the same time, there is a distinct disadvantage to the approach because it means that student teachers who plan to teach at the secondary level never entirely engage in studies in a subject area over a substantial period of time. Their courses in the subject areas are interspersed with courses in pedagogy and methods, and many students express a lack of interest in learning about a subject for its own sake. Student teachers often complain that what they are learning in university level courses in subjects such as mathematics, history or

literature are not relevant because they will never have to teach the exact same material. Many students state that it would be more practical for them to learn exactly what they will be expected to teach in their turn. This is unfortunate as research has shown that the most effective and inspiring secondary school teachers are those who are passionate about their subject areas (Hare, 1993; Michalos, 2003), and continually demonstrating a desire to learn more about the subject, regardless of whether it is part of the curriculum.

The four-year competency-based teacher education programme has been in place in Quebec universities for 18 years, and there are no plans to return to the one year post degree diploma still common elsewhere in Canada. There are now, however, programmes at several different universities for students with undergraduate degrees who wish to pursue teaching qualifications without returning to university for a second, four year undergraduate degree. These recent programmes had first been certified on a temporary basis to permit students with degrees in subject areas where there are shortages of teachers, such as math, science and second languages, to complete a 60 credit Master's of Education that includes secondary school teaching qualifications. Recently, the Minister of Education has recognised that these programmes fill a real need and has authorised a permanent status for them. There is no possibility to gain credentials for teaching at the elementary level in this way.

7. Other challenges and issues related to a competency-based approach

When examining the progress that has been made in teacher education in Quebec over the past 20 to 30 years, it is clear that programmes are more thorough, practice-based, and accountable than in the past. However, questions remain for Quebec universities that offer teacher education. A thorough examination of what it means to incorporate as well as evaluate pre-service teachers using a competency-based approach has yet to be undertaken. For the moment, the emphasis on the development of competencies suggests that there is a great deal of preoccupation with the technicalities of teaching, but very little time spent on the values of education to a society. Critical reflections on the point of education and the role it plays in society are not evident in many teacher education programmes in Quebec, and these are of crucial importance. We are still wrestling with questions such as: what are the fundamental values promoted in teacher education programmes and courses? And what

purpose does teacher education serve in terms of preparing future generations to live well in the world?

In basing its teacher education programmes on the development of teaching competencies, Quebec has chosen to adopt a pragmatic philosophy, centered on performance and the efficiency of the act of teaching. However, it seems that, within this same approach, if one is to develop a critical philosophy, it would have been advantageous to ensure a space for reflection on the meaning of teaching and of the nature of education itself.

What is Canadian about Teacher Education in Quebec?

This volume is entitled *What is Canadian about Canadian Teacher Education?*, and this chapter would not be complete without a discussion of how the situation described above is particularly Canadian, and in this case, particular to Quebec, Canada's largest province and only province with French as the single official language. Quebec's unique history as a colony, first under France and then as a province in within Canada has made Quebec society sensitive to cultural and linguistic differences and anxious to preserve these distinctions through a public school system that favours the development of the French language, and is strongly influenced by educational approaches found in French-speaking countries in Europe, although adapted to its North American context (Lenoir, 2005).

The specificity of Quebec within Canada is that researchers and the Ministry of Education have been particularly influenced by francophone researchers on the subject. Even the definition of the concept of competency appears to particularly difficult to determine, notably because of the diversity of authors in Europe who have worked on conceptualising the term (Le Boterf, 2000; Dolz & Ollagnier, 2002).

Despite a lack of consensus on the definition of the concept, the theories behind competency-based approaches for learning to teach were adopted by policy-makers at the MELS because of the emphasis on educating teachers to mobilize resources and use judgement when undertaking actions in the classroom, a contrast to the rigid and technical approaches used by teachers in the highly conservative schools systems of the past. This chapter is an attempt to portray teacher education in Quebec as it now exists a decade after

competency-based approaches to learning to teach were first implemented. However, as Struyven & De Meys, (2010) have also found, the process of transformation of teacher education is never complete.

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Part IV: *What recent innovations can be found in Canadian teacher education?*

Chapter 15

Beginning at the Beginning: Early Years Kindergarten Education across Canada and in

Canadian Faculties of Education

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It is becoming commonly accepted that early formal schooling for young children can have many academic, social, and developmental benefits that influence immediate growth and reach into adult life to affect aspects of adulthood such as career choices or trajectories and even physical health (Hertzman and Irwin, 2007; Reynolds, Temple, Robertson, and Mann, 2001; Schweinhart, 2004; Schweinhart, Barnes, and Weikart, 1993). Across Canada, various approaches are used in early learning contexts to reflect the uniqueness of the constitutional birth of educational mandates provincially or territorially, the geography and climate of the areas across vast distances, the ethnic makeup of the region, and the influence of American initiatives on local educational endeavors. This chapter will examine early learning initiatives across Canada, advocate for some unique learning environment characteristics to serve early learners, and identify some responses from Faculties of Education to prepare new teachers for the important role of providing rich educational experiences for four and five year old children in public school contexts. We will consider the question, "How are Faculties of Education designing courses and programs for early learning in response to international research and local frameworks, and in light of unique classroom structures in local contexts?"

Background

The development of early Canadian kindergarten experiences for young children has been influenced by many historical factors and social movements. As we have expanded our

understanding about the nature of early learning, the design and foci of publically funded kindergartens has evolved.

Early movements to include formal school-based instruction and care for young children in Canada began with the move toward social responsibility for the poor in the mid-1800s. This movement reflected activity in European countries, most notably in Germany, to provide kindergarten experiences for young children. German educator Friedrich Froebel first introduced the name kindergarten in 1840 to identify the focus for early learning he intended for the *Play and Activity Institute* established in Bad Bladenkenburg, Germany. The name kindergarten was intended to reflect the idea that early learning environments should be both gardens *for* children to learn through observation, stimulation, and interaction and gardens *of* children, nurtured in non-threatening, unified spaces that focus on the growth and development of the whole child.

In Canada, infant schools were opened in many provinces around this same time period, to respond to a need in a specific segment of the population. Later, in the middle of the century, privately owned and operated kindergartens began to open in response to the growing social belief that young children benefit from formal schooling. By 1870, larger towns and cities had commonly available access to kindergartens for the local population. However, these were still private operations and mostly addressed clientele from middle and upper class backgrounds as fees were charged for access.

Later, kindergartens began to be offered to immigrants and poorer families and access was free. They became known as "free kindergartens" and espoused a social reform philosophy and pursued social integration for children from all backgrounds (Prochner, 2000). Free kindergartens were sponsored by charitable and religious groups. As Canada expanded on each frontier of its earliest colonies, educational opportunities also developed. However, the earliest of these opportunities were found in the most populated provinces of Ontario and Quebec. It was not until 1883 that the first publically funded kindergarten opened under the auspices of the Toronto Board of Education. By 1885, provincial funding was being provided in Ontario to support the first Canadian kindergartens, with expansion across the province occurring over the next fifteen years (Mathien, 2000). These early kindergartens were intended to serve children between the ages of three and five years.

Early kindergartens reflected the roots of schooling that were influenced by early settlers in various areas of the country, most notably the French, English, American, and Scottish traditions for schooling. The schooling traditions found their ascendency and decline in parallel with the political evolution of Canada as a nation.

In Quebec, education systems evolved to reflect the practices established in France. Schools were usually run by religious orders and taught by nuns and priests, with some lay staff. These schools were financed by contributions from the Catholic Church, the French monarch, and the students' parents. Civil laws did not influence educational issues in Quebec until after 1760. The curriculum in Quebec schools focused on rudimentary reading, writing, and arithmetic skills. Schooling was usually only available to students in settled urban areas. A separate Protestant school system was set up for this segment of the population beginning in the early 1800's. Public education remained highly segregated along religious lines until into the 21st century.

The Problem

Early kindergartens did not share a common pedagogical approach, a common mission, or common clientele in terms of age. Some served as day care and supported opportunities for mothers to take employment. Some provided care for infants. Many kindergartens were run by charitable groups with a focus on support for women. They started in areas of Canada where population density and settlement patterns created needs. Therefore, key events in the development of early learning in the early years of Canada's history are mainly related to the areas of eastern and central Canada. Readers who are interested in the details of the development of kindergartens in Canada between 1900 and 1942 are encouraged to examine other accounts of early learning by reading Neil Sutherland's 'Children in English Canadian Society: Framing the Twentieth Century Consensus' (1976) and ' Growing Up: Children in English Canada from the Great War to the Age of Television' (1997).

By 1942, the Canadian government passed legislation for some coordination of early kindergartens through an Order-in-Council. This order established the Dominion-Provincial War-time Agreement for parents in Ontario and Quebec. The agreement provided a 50% funding subsidy for mothers engaged in employment in war-time essential industries.

However, as a war-time measure, this subsidy agreement had a short life span and was discontinued when the Second World War was over.

Following the turbulent times for early childhood care that characterized the years between 1995 and 1998 when government support for early learning funding was irregular, several gains in early childhood care have been made. In 2000 several new pieces of legislation supported improvements in childcare in Ontario. Since childcare and education is legislated by provincial mandate across Canada, changes progressed differently in different provinces and territories. Initially in Ontario, childcare subsidies could be provided directly to parents under an amendment to the Day Nurseries Act. This act allowed funds for parents of children aged 6 to 12, and up to 18 if the child had special needs, so that parents could enroll children in unregulated recreation programs. Second, the government encouraged partnerships between the public and private sectors and the use of volunteers to provide childhood supports for families. Third, childcare fee subsidies were limited to times when parents were required to work or attend school. Finally the Ontario Ministry of Education proposed full-day kindergarten for 4- and 5- year- old children in publically funded schools to replace direct care payments to parents through the Education Improvement Commission.

The next nine years between 2001 and 2010, saw a rapid expansion in a vision for services for early learners but these services continue to be made available at different rates in various jurisdictions across Canada. In 2002, phase-in funds were provided by the federal government for services across Canada to support early childhood development for First Nations children, through research, integration, and coordination of services. It is, however, outside of the scope of this paper to address the unique constitutional situation that governs schooling on reserves for First Nations people.

Also in 2002, the 1999 report by Dr. Mustard and Hon. McCain was revisited in a second report, which condemned the lack of action on its earlier recommendations regarding early childhood care. The second report resulted in the provision of a task force to review school funding formulas in Ontario. However, funding models vary across provinces and territories, which in turn influence availability and structure of early learning opportunities.

Early childhood care for children of aboriginal heritage is funded federally for first nations' children, non-status native people both on and off reserve, Métis children, and Inuit children. On-reserve care facilities are typically administered by First Nation communities, including the administration of funds and coordination of services. In 1996, the Royal Commission on Aboriginal Peoples recommended improved coordination of services among levels of government to extend care to all aboriginal children regardless of location, to recognize growth needs across physical, social, intellectual, and spiritual development domains, to engage the aboriginal community in service design and to administer programs, while respecting parental choice and involvement in services.

While specific details of historical development of early learning vary across provinces, all Canadian jurisdictions share an on-again, off-again history in relation to their support of publically funded early learning in kindergarten settings. Philosophies, approaches, accessibility, and funding have been varied and inconsistent, largely reflecting the social priorities and historical events of each jurisdiction. Research has consistently shown the long-term benefits of early learning. The long-term disadvantages of not addressing early learning have been the impetus behind the recent development of more supportive legislation to address the needs of young learners in many jurisdictions. As accessible early learning kindergartens become more common in Canadian jurisdictions, teacher preparation programs will need to provide professional knowledge and skills specific to teaching this age group of children.

The broad variety of approaches used for early learning across Canada, and the optional nature of all programs for this age group, have meant that children who enter schools at age six do so with a variety of educational backgrounds. Some may have had no engagement in childcare, daycare, preschools, or kindergartens while other children may have had several years of experience with all of these early learning services. Some may have attended a Montessori preschool and kindergarten and have extensive formal learning experience.

The differing philosophies, beliefs, funding supports, and needs for early learning environments for young children during the last century in Canada have created a very diverse early learning environment across the provinces and territories. Child care, early

childhood education, and parenting/ caregiver supports, with their histories of different sources of funding, different purposes, and different goals for different populations have left the country with different starting points for improving early learning for Canadian children.

Publically funded, fully accessible, full time junior and senior kindergartens (JK/SK) for young learners can be planned to coordinate the fractured efforts of the support programs that have, until now, been available across Canada. Teacher education initiatives must parallel these new learning opportunities to prepare teachers who espouse educational beliefs and have the educator skills to provide learning that is developmentally appropriate for these young children.

Recent Innovations in Canadian Teacher Education Related to Professional Preparation to Teach in Early Learning Environments

The history of early learning initiatives across Canada is as diverse as the country's physical regions and the settlement patterns that have characterized each region. However, there is now sufficient research and social will to initiate a more broadly applicable national early learning environment for Canadian children. Canadian policy makers are realizing the importance of sound investment in opportunities for early learning for all children and recognize the need to realign current services to support efficient and effective delivery of services to young children and their families. While education has traditionally been the responsibility of provincial and territorial governments in Canada, as defined by the British North America Act (1867), the federal government is supporting provincial and territorial efforts through related policies and funding. Evidence of increased will to cooperate on service provision for early learners can be seen in national policies and laws (see Table 1) that have taken effect over recent years.

Table 1 – Policies and Laws to Support Early Learning 1998–2000

Dates	Policy and Funding Initiatives to Support Coordinated Early Learning
1998	Implementation of the National Child Benefit (NCB), which provides a Canada Child Tax Benefit, a low-income supplement, and provincial reinvestment commitments, is coordinated between the federal and provincial/territorial governments.
1999	The Social Union Framework Agreement (SUFA) is signed by all jurisdictions, federal and provincial/territorial, except for Quebec; this agreement sets the parameters for Canadian social policy.
1999	The prime minister's speech from the throne calls for increased resources and supports from all levels of government for early childhood development, signalling this as a national agenda item.
2000	The annual premiers' meeting agenda includes discussion and support for early childhood development.

Early learning frameworks provide the philosophy for program delivery for children and direct teachers about curriculum goals for early learning. Despite the national agenda to focus efforts on early learning initiatives across Canada, and because of the historical evolution of kindergarten services for young children across the country, early learning frameworks across Canada vary. However, in response to variations in frameworks, their specific learning goals, and differences in how kindergarten accessibility is implemented within a national agenda, it is predictable that teacher preparation programs would reflect different foci in their design while maintaining a common vision of early learning characteristics that are informed by current research and being culturally responsive to various Canadian contexts.

As the regions of Canada have developed in unique ways to reflect the needs of communities and the uniqueness of the constitutional foundations of each provincial or territorial education system, so too the early learning provisions of each jurisdiction have

developed in unique ways. These provisions for early learning education are designed to accommodate the unique geographical, political, economic, and ethnic factors in each region as the country expanded. Table 2 summarizes some of the significant variants in programs for early learning kindergarten currently characteristic across Canada's provinces and territories. This chart compares some of the key characteristics of early learning kindergarten implementation that are definitive of the most vibrant publically funded options, including: format of the learning day, extended day options for before and after school daycare, the instructional approach grounded in play-based intentional learning, the status or development state of the local curriculum framework for early learning, and the variations in governance of early learning kindergarten provision in each jurisdiction.

Table 2 New Brunswick

Details about progress toward full-day JK/SK for other provinces and territories are provided in the appendix.

Format of the Day	Kindergarten is compulsory for all children in the year they turn 5. It is provided on a full-school-day basis, with a minimum of 4 and a maximum of 4.5 instructional hours/day, and 187 days of instruction. For children who turn 5 on or after September 1, entry to kindergarten may be delayed a year at the parents' discretion.
Extended Day Option	None
Play-based Approach/Intentional Play-based Learning	The prescribed curriculum is specific to each subject area and is organized by K-Grade 3 or K–Grade 5. The New Brunswick Curriculum Framework for Early Learning and Child Care is being implemented in preschools and childcare centres, and has also been provided to transition-to-school coordinators. The framework was developed with input from the Department of Education and complements the primary school curriculum.
Curriculum Framework Status	The prescribed curriculum is specific to each subject area and is organized by K–Grade 3 or K–Grade 5.

Governance	A new Early Learning and Childcare Act received Royal Assent in the NB Legislature in April 2010. This is the first legislation in NB to specifically pertain to early learning and child care programs. The new Act requires all licensed programs to implement either the NB English or French early childhood curriculum framework, sets out areas for regulations to be developed, and addresses the operation of licensed early learning and child care programs, operating grants and family subsidies. Previously, NB had "standards" to define licensing requirements. The province is supporting four integrated early childhood development centres demonstration sites.

It is likely that provinces and territories will continue to move forward with increasingly common commitments to full day early learning kindergarten in all jurisdictions as local political will, financial support, and logistical plans can be made for implementation. The research espousing the benefit of such rich early learning starts is too evident to ignore. The impactful events of the years between birth and age eight establish many of an individual's life patterns (Reynolds, Temple, Robertson, and Mann, 2001; Schweinhart, 2004; Schweinhart, Barnes, and Weikart, 1993). Correlations between opportunities for strong early learning experiences and a reduction in incidents of juvenile arrests, school dropout rates, school failures, and the need for special education services are dramatic. High-quality early learning can affect the trajectory of a child's later life.

Evidence also links experiences with learning in the early years to many adult health issues, including obesity, high blood pressure, heart disease, some forms of diabetes, and mental health issues such as depression. Adult challenges with literacy and numeracy can be traced to early learning patterns (Hertzman and Irwin (2007). Recent brain research has also shown the critical role of early learning in brain development (Healy, 1987; Jensen, 1998; Schore, 1997; Shore, 1997; Wolfe, 2001). Stimulation and nurturing in early childhood support the development of connections in the brain. These connections affect learning throughout life and are necessary for physical development, emotional and social development, personal abilities to express oneself, and the acquisition of knowledge.

Given this background in the history of early learning initiatives across Canada and the growing body of research about the benefits of early learning, it seems an ideal time to investigate how our faculties of education across Canada are preparing new teachers to address a cohort of new learners in play-based contexts designed to meet the unique learning needs of four-and five-year olds.

Essential Understandings for Teacher Preparation for Early Learning Environments

Many parents across Canada choose some form of group-care interaction outside of the home for their preschool-aged children. The benefits of doing this may support the mother's career choices but also reflect the parents' concern for socializing the child. When parents are asked what they want early learning environments, including kindergarten, to provide for their children, socialization is high on their list of the benefits of schooling at this age and there is remarkable agreement across parents, teachers, and classroom support staff about early learning priorities (Johnson and Mathien, 1998). The goals of early learning may not be universally agreed to by all who access this resource for early learners; some parents see early learning as a preparation or head start for formal schooling. Others want early learning experiences as a unique period of child-centered growth that is social in nature and un-fettered by the requirements of formal learning goals. Early learning kindergarten goals may include proportional focus on any of the following purposes: preparing for transition into formal schooling in Grade 1, developing numeracy and literacy skills, making friends and learning how to interact with others, learning to trust others, developing autonomy, developing initiative, developing empathy, and developing self-confidence. Such foci are locally determined and may vary across jurisdictions.

In school jurisdictions, early learning kindergarten environments are seen as a preparation for the transition to Grade 1. These jurisdictions may put more emphasis on the development of early literacy and numeracy skills to prepare students to engage in more academic tasks at age six.

Those who advocate for early learning as a unique and un-fettered social growth environment may see the early learning experience quite differently. Making friends and learning how to interact with others in constructive ways may be critical aspect of learning the JK/SK classroom setting.

Unique Goals but Common Approaches?

For either purpose, early learning contexts will universally seek to develop an environment that fosters certain learning-related characteristics in young children. Regardless of the goals for early learning most strongly espoused in each jurisdiction, the learning environment will need to provide some common characteristics that are uniquely suited to early learners' development. They would need many opportunities to trust others, to test the impact of forays into independent action and exploration to seek their own autonomy, to show initiative when alone and when with others, to understand and show empathy, and to build self-confidence.

To develop trust, young children would need opportunities to learn that others will provide support and encouragement, advice, and safety, as they explore and investigate. In the JK/SK kindergarten setting, young children need to learn to trust many teachers, the early childhood staff and educational assistants, school nurses, visitors, other parents, and school administrators.

To develop autonomy, young learners need to feel safe and welcome to take risks within the boundaries of safety. They begin to see options and make choices, while experiencing the impact of their choices. Opportunities to explore in new contexts, with new materials and self-identified problems, and in new relationships, support the young learner's sense of autonomy as an individual separate from their primary caregiver. To develop initiative, young learners need many age-appropriate opportunities to make choices and decisions. Gradually they will come to understand options and planning as part of making choices with predictable outcomes. As children develop the language to describe their choices, their

options, their plans, and their impacts, they begin to develop a sense of causality and responsibility for their actions and choices.

To develop empathy, children need many opportunities to interact with other young children and to experience a wide range of things. In these new contexts, a range of emotions can be experienced by young children. Discussions can lead the children to be aware of the different language they can use to describe reactions— *happy*, *sad*, *excited*, and *scared*. Through language, children learn to express ideas about how they perceive the reactions of themselves and others. They come to understand that the emotions they experience are shared by other people, and they learn to display empathetic responses to the other children. Moreover, through interactions with other children, they also can learn that body language is another way of expressing feelings.

To develop self-confidence, young children need to experience successes with their explorations and experimentations with people, materials, and places. As young children develop their sense of accomplishment in diverse situations, confidence grows and helps them acquire coping skills that will support them when experiments and explorations are less positive. Success in interpersonal relationships and success in valued tasks create the two conditions needed for self-confidence (Curry and Johnson, 1990).

To create the optimal environment for young learners, teachers need to solidify their beliefs about the learners and the desired learning environment before they begin to plan specific learning opportunities to stimulate exploration and investigation. These beliefs will start by understanding the locally mandated early learning kindergarten curriculum framework. Such a framework is likely to be rooted in some common current beliefs about early learning that are supported by recent research and developed through focused instruction in Faculties of Education. These may include such early learning philosophies as:

- Children are born with an innate desire to learn.
- Families are the primary caregivers of children and have the most important role in promoting their children's sense of well-being, learning, and development.

- Communities need to contribute to the growth and development of their young children.

- Play is vital to children's learning and to their healthy development.

- Consistency, responsiveness, and nurturing are essential to early learning.

- The physical, social, emotional, cultural, linguistic, and intellectual aspects of children's development are interrelated.

- Language is essential for children to connect thoughts and learning.

- Children need to learn through active exploration, with time and support to think about their explorations.

- Children's individual cultural and linguistic backgrounds need to be respected and integrated into early learning opportunities.

- The physical environment is an important variable in the quality of early learning opportunities.

- How adults see the child as a learner influences how they support the child's learning.

In addition to understanding priorities for early learning kindergarten, new teachers who develop a focus on this age group of children will learn about play-based philosophies, which are generally accepted across Canada as the basis of instruction for JK/SK children (Montessori, 1946; Piaget, 1930; Vygotsky, 1962). Two key concepts of a play-based learning environment are *constructivism* and *social constructivism*. Constructivism is the belief that some essential experiences, accompanied by opportunities to make meaning of those experiences, are essential for learning. Social constructivism is the belief that these essential learning experiences and the meaning-making opportunities that are central to them are best accomplished through social interaction in which children can work together to learn and develop a shared sense of meaning. Play-based learning evolves from these beliefs. Teachers who work with early learners in publically funded kindergartens face the need to align their understanding of constructivism and social constructivism philosophies, play-based learning methodologies, and local curriculum framework mandates that outline expected learning outcomes for young learners. From this combination of influences comes the common approach to early learning often referred to as *intentional play-based learning*.

In addition to the need to clarify, through professional preparation, the teacher's personal philosophy, beliefs, and pedagogical practices, teachers in early learning contexts also need to understand many aspects of local government policy that will influence their practice. These policies will determine the format of the school day for JK/SK, the possibility and intersection of extended day services in the school, and the governance of the early learning kindergarten program locally, which may in turn influence both format and extended service availability.

At present across Canada, the JK/SK day is formatted in a wide variety of ways (see Table 2). While some jurisdictions provide the option of kindergarten for 4 and 5 years-olds, others make it mandatory for all five year-olds. While some jurisdictions offer kindergarten for half days on either a daily or alternate day schedule, some offer full-day programs. Some programs provide two years of service, while one year of kindergarten is more common in other areas. The impacts on programming and the potential outcomes in terms of children's learning from these program variations are broad and diverse. Understanding these potential impacts should inform how teacher preparation programs evolve to provide teachers to serve these young learners.

In some jurisdictions across Canada, one aspect of early learning kindergarten programming is the adjunctive provision of extended day services in a hubbed school setting. Extended day services provide parents with the option of child care for kindergarten aged children in the same school building before and after regular class times. This option provides greater security and safety for children, reduces transition times in the day, and is more convenient for parents. It also may be only one of many hubbed or co-housed services located in the school where community services are brought to parents rather than having parents move from agency to agency to seek various community support services for their child. Coordinating efforts with extended day staff or with community support services is a skill that should be addressed in today's faculty of education programs to prepare new teachers to facilitate early learning in the most progressive and complex urban environments where such services are most likely to be available.

Preparing Teachers to Develop Effective Early Learning Environments

Similarly, as is historically true across Canada, early learning JK/SK teachers need an understanding of governance issues related to the province of the early learning program in their jurisdiction, and any limitations on that program that may be impacted by governance cycles such as provincial elections. Where a provincial or territorial government does not demonstrate a solid commitment to early learning that is publically funded for 4- and 5- year olds, program longevity may be impacted.

As full-day early learning in publically funded kindergartens begins to respond to public demand and become more universally available across the country, we can anticipate that the faculties of education that prepare Canadian teachers will become more responsive to the need to provide specific professional supports that address teachers' learning about play-based intentional learning, curriculum frameworks and priorities for early learning, format of the day alternatives, extended day coordination, and governance issues that may impact programming.

Some trends are evident in course calendar descriptions for kindergarten preparation courses and their availability at Canadian universities. Although all university calendars were examined, only English language universities in Quebec and universities in Ontario were found to advertise courses dedicated to early learning. These courses are discussed further in Table 3.

Table 3 Faculty of Education Courses in Early Learning Kindergarten

Canadian University	Course Title	Online Course Description
Bishop's University, Quebec	Kindergarten and Elementary Curriculum	Students participating in this introductory course, taught in an authentic primary classroom environment, will explore the principles and practices which are germane to organizing and

		operating the classroom for learners in kindergarten through and elementary school. They will examine typical early childhood programs emphasizing active learning, the role of play, the physical environment, materials and organizational components including criteria for creating and evaluating the quality of the environment for children in kindergarten through elementary school. Attention will be paid to the teaching of all subjects including moral and religious education.
McGill University, Quebec	The Kindergarten Classroom	An orientation to the kindergarten curriculum. Integration of the school subject areas (language arts, second language, mathematics, social sciences, science, expressive arts, moral and religious education, and physical education) in a manner appropriate to the developmental level of the pre-school child.
Brock University, Ontario	Special Topics- The Kindergarten Classroom	As Ontario school boards begin implementing full-day kindergarten programs, the demand for early childhood educators will increase. This course considers the unique learning styles of young children with an emphasis on concrete, hands-on manipulation and inquiry, and play-based activities. Participants will visit, explore, and design learning environments that

		foster creativity, problem-solving, body movement, music and social growth. Print-rich literacy will address oral language, symbolic and numerical conceptual development, as well as current children's literature, in relation to role-play, drama and global perspectives. Practical aspects of lesson-planning, evaluation, and reporting within a kindergarten context will reflect a pedagogy that promotes in young children self-confidence, curiosity, and a sense of wonder.
Lakehead University, Ontario	Teaching Kindergarten	An exploration of methods to encourage thinking related to the processes and practices used in Kindergarten. Will relate child maturation and philosophy to the expectations outlined in the Ministry of Education Kindergarten Program.
Nipissing University, Ontario	Kindergarten: Curriculum Theory and Practice	The context of the kindergarten classroom is unique. This course explores relevant learning theories, current research, policy changes and curriculum design for the kindergarten classroom. Teacher candidates will explore the ways in which families, members of the community, early childhood educators, and teachers interact during the education process to provide a strong foundation for students' intellectual, physical, and social development. Curriculum

		expectations, methodology, essential elements, and resources for Junior and Senior Kindergarten programs, will be examined from an integrated studies perspective.
Queen's University, Ontario	Early Primary Education	Building on their prior knowledge and understandings, teacher candidates study the learning of early primary students (junior kindergarten to grade one), who are making the transition from pre-school to early primary classes. Professional readings, research and workshops are related to practicum experiences in a primary classroom (Fall term) and in a school or alternative setting (Winter term).
University of Western Ontario, Ontario	Supporting Early Literacy in Kindergarten Classrooms	Designed to support core literacy in arts instruction, this course focuses on classroom-based pedagogies that support the early literacy practices of children in kindergartens. Topics include a critical consideration of approaches to early literacy curricula in the context of the Ontario Kindergarten program.
University of Ontario Institute of Technology (UOIT), Ontario	Teaching Kindergarten	This course provides teacher candidates with an overview of teaching and learning at the Kindergarten level. The content will include a review of related curriculum documents and supporting resources, as well as a review of current theory, teaching strategies and classroom practices

		at the kindergarten level.
University of Ottawa, Ontario	Kindergarten and the Early Years	Examination of theoretical understanding, practical applications and resources appropriate for the Junior kindergarten/Senior kindergarten classroom; topics will include developmentally appropriate practices, theories of play, the current Ontario curriculum, assessment and evaluation, and emergent/early literacy and numeracy.
Wilfred Laurier University, Ontario	Teaching in Kindergarten	An in-depth examination of Kindergarten, focusing on developing knowledge and skills for creating an effective teaching and learning environment for students in the early years. Specific issues related to teaching in Kindergarten will be explored; blended JK/SK programs, half day and all-day, alternate day programs, home-school communication.

An online search of course calendars provided access to information about course offerings for 43 Canadian English speaking universities. Several trends are evident when course offerings are examined. The term "early learning" is used differently across the country, making analysis of course offerings somewhat confusing. In most Canadian jurisdictions "early learning" and "early years" refers to the primary grades (e.g., in Manitoba the term is used to designate JK to Grade 4). These grade grouping also vary across provinces; in some jurisdictions primary or early years grades include kindergarten and grade one; in some kindergarten to grade 5, and in others kindergarten to grade 7. For example, Vancouver Island University offers a course called "Human Development and Education"

which focuses on early childhood to adolescence and theories of childhood from a developmental perspective. Many courses focused on early years or early learning are literacy centered or subject focused (e.g., Math, drama, technology, environmental education) across jurisdictions.

In central Canada (Quebec and Ontario), several universities advertise courses specifically designed to address teaching in kindergartens. McGill, Bishop's, Brock, Lakehead, Nipissing, Queen's, Western, UOIT, Ottawa, and Wilfred Laurier are among the universities that offer specialized courses focused on the philosophy and pedagogy of kindergarten teaching. Additionally, Queen's University in Ontario offers a course ("Early Primary Education") that addresses learning from junior kindergarten to grade 1, supporting transition into formal schooling contexts. Many other national universities include a spectrum of K-12 education in courses focused on a specific subject (e.g., Drama in Education, Music Education through Technology). Only three university calendars nationally – Brock, Ottawa, and Bishop's – specifically reference play-based approaches in their course offerings. This is notable in that recent research promotes play-based approaches for early learners as a developmentally appropriate strategy for instructional environments for this age group yet it does not appear to be a highly publicized aspect of courses in many universities that offer specialized courses for kindergarten.

It is evident when examining national courses supporting development of kindergarten specialization that the course offerings are closely tied to local Ministry of Education support for kindergartens in the spectrum of public education. Ontario has a recent initiative to expand JK/SK early learning in all public schools for all children ages 31/2 to 5 years by September 2014. Ontario also has the greatest number of universities offering courses specifically designed for kindergarten instructional expertise development, with prominent English language universities in Quebec providing similar offerings.

Implications and Discussion

Kindergarten researchers promote early learning in public school contexts for many reasons, including the resounding evidence of links between early learning opportunities for

children and correlations with success in many aspects of later life, including school success. Provincial initiatives to establish early learning kindergartens that are fully funded, easily accessible for all children, and offer full-day learning contexts are evident in many jurisdictions across Canada, particularly in Ontario, British Columbia, and Alberta. However, many Faculties of Education either do not provide specialized courses to prepare teachers to teach in the unique contexts of kindergarten classrooms or do not promote a play-based developmental philosophy when they design course descriptions to attract this unique teacher demographic to their courses.

Canadian jurisdictions have an historically evident practice of wavering support for early learning kindergarten instruction in fully-funded kindergarten classrooms. Even in Ontario where several years have been devoted to the roll-out implementation of early learning kindergartens, with a play-based philosophy and fully funded support for full-day learning, recent austerity recommendations (i.e., The Drummond Report, 2012) challenge the commitment to this public service. Despite the strong research evidence to support specific practices to structure learning in early learning kindergarten environments, huge inconsistencies exist among those few (approximately 25%) Canadian English speaking universities that offer specialized training courses for kindergarten teacher preparation.

It may help Faculties of Education across Canada to be aware of the variants in teacher preparation for this specialized area of teacher preparation. Faculties of Education may benefit from ensuring clarity and specificity in the opportunities they provide for aspiring teachers to develop expertise with the philosophies, strategies, and resources to optimize learning in courses designed to serve the unique needs of the learners who will be guided by these teachers.

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Appendix I

Progress towards Full-Day JK/SK in Canada's Provinces and Territories

See Table 2 in the text for a summary for New Brunswick

Province/Territory: Newfoundland/Labrador

Format of the Day	-There is public support for full-day JK/SK according to CBC Newfoundland (Aug. 31, 2011). - Kindergarten is offered part day to all 5 year olds but is not compulsory. - Kindergarten is a legislated entitlement for all children in the year they turn 5. It is a part-day program, operating for an average of 2.5 hours/day; many schools have children rotate between morning and afternoon sessions on a bi-weekly or monthly basis. There are 475 instructional hours/year. -Kindergarten attendance is voluntary. There is no Kindergarten for 4-year olds.
Extended Day Option	None
Play-based Approach/Intentional Play-based Learning	-Learning through play approach is used in Newfoundland daycares. - Emphasizes play-based approach in Kindergarten curriculum.
Curriculum Framework Status	-*Early Beginnings: a Kindergarten Curriculum Guide* provides the overall philosophy for Kindergarten, examples of developmentally appropriate instructional strategies, a curriculum framework and assessment strategies.
Governance	-Kindergarten is under the auspices of the Department of Education (child care under separate Ministry). -2011; The election candidate for Liberal party promised to establish a task force to develop a

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	strategic action plan for the implementation of full-day Kindergarten.
Other	-*Kinderstart* is a Kindergarten orientation program aimed at a successful transition from home to school.

Province/Territory: Prince Edward Island

Format of the Day	-Kindergarten is mandatory for all 5 year olds. - Effective September 2010, Kindergarten programs are delivered through the public school system. -Children must turn five years old by December 31st that year to enter Kindergarten and turn six years old by December 31st to enter Grade 1.
Extended Day Option	-Kindergarten is a full day versus a half-day, which allows the province to provide increased hours of instruction, effective Sept. 2010.
Play-based Approach/Intentional Play-based Learning	- Kindergarten in PEI uses the play-based approach.
Curriculum Framework Status	- PEI introduced an integrated play-based Kindergarten curriculum, developed by early childhood educators. - It encompasses a full range of learning domains including early literacy and numeracy, social studies, science, creativity, and health and physical development.
Governance	- Day cares under separate dept. - Since 2000, Kindergarten has been publicly funded (universal), delivered through the early childhood system, and governed by the Child Care Facilities Act, Regulations and Guidelines.
Other	- Children who did not receive extended early intervention services specific to autism will have the

	opportunity to have intensive individualized support during the kindergarten year. Families do not have to be involved in finding, hiring, scheduling or paying tutors when their child is enrolled in Kindergarten.

Province/Territory: Nova Scotia

Format of the Day	- Known as Grade Primary in Nova Scotia, Kindergarten is compulsory for all children in the year they turn 5. - It is provided on a full-school-day basis, with a minimum of 4 instructional hours/day.
Extended Day Option	None
Play-based Approach/Intentional Play-based Learning	-Primary invitational professional learning; connecting play with learning in science, visual arts, and movement. -Exemplifies a developmentally appropriate play-based approach to learning.
Curriculum Framework Status	-*The Learning Outcomes Framework Grade Primary* contains curriculum outcome statements describing the knowledge, skills and attitudes children are expected to demonstrate as a result of their learning. -Curriculum areas include health education, language arts, mathematics, music, physical education, social studies, science and visual arts.
Governance	- Department of Education

Province/Territory: Quebec

Format of the Day	-Kindergarten is a legislated entitlement for all children who turn 5 by September 30. It is not

	compulsory and is provided on a full-school-day basis, for 23.5 hours/week for 36 weeks. -Prior to the implementation of the new family policy in Quebec, a number of Kindergarten programs for 4-year olds were developed, initially for inner city schools. -Most 4-year old Kindergarten programs are in Montreal. -Expansion of the programs stopped with the new family policy, but the existing 4-year old Kindergarten classes have been maintained. They operate for between 9.15-11.45 hours/week for 36 weeks. - 4-year old children with identified special needs may participate in a Kindergarten program at the parent's request.
Extended Day Option	None
Play-based Approach/Intentional Play-based Learning	- A play-based approach is used in some school boards.
Curriculum Framework Status	-*The Preschool Education Program* for 4- and 5-year olds in kindergarten is based on competencies, defined in terms of overall development, which are cross-curricula. -The program is organized into six competency areas that contribute to: psychomotor development, emotional development, social development, language development, cognitive development and development of work methods.
Governance	- Ministère de l'Éducation, du Loisir et du Sport (Ministry of Education, Leisure and Sport)

Province/Territory: Ontario

Format of the Day	- Full day optional JK/SK is available for all 4 and 5 year olds. - Full adoption was scheduled initially for Sept. 2014. - Kindergarten is available for all children in the year they turn 4 (called Junior Kindergarten, or JK). - Approximately 8% of JK programs are offered on a full-school-day basis. The number of instructional hours is not specified.
-Extended Day Option	- Extended day option to be universal (all schools) after fall 2014. - Once full day is fully in place, after school programs are to be provided at all sites but only for children aged 6-12.
Play-based Approach/Intentional Play-based Learning	- *In a well-planned and adequately equipped play-based setting, children have access to a wide range of different materials* (ETFO).
Curriculum Framework Status	- Unique 2 year revamped curriculum; *The Kindergarten Program* (revised) contains both overall learning expectations and specific learning expectations in the areas of personal and social development, language, mathematics, science and technology, health and physical activity, and the arts. - Overall expectations outline the knowledge and skills children are expected to demonstrate by the end of Kindergarten; specific expectations indicate what children may be able to demonstrate as they progress through the Kindergarten years.
Governance	- Ministry of Education and Training

Province/Territory: Manitoba

Format of the Day	- Kindergarten is available to all children in the year they turn 5. - It is provided on a part-time basis, either part day 5-days/week or full-day 2-days/week. - The hours are determined by each school board. - Participation is voluntary.
Extended Day Option	- Full day Kindergarten is available but only twice a week.
Play-based Approach/Intentional Play-based Learning	- Provide an environment where children are offered play choices based on their individual interests. - Teachers are required to reflect on documentation of children's play when setting up the learning environment each day. - Teachers prepare a variety of materials ahead of time and set them out to invite children to play.
Curriculum Framework Status	- *A Foundation for Excellence* is the basis upon which all other K-12 curriculum documents are developed. The curriculum is organized into six subject areas: arts education, English language, mathematics, physical education/health education, science and social studies. - Assessment is based on provincial learning outcomes. - Subjects may be combined through integrated themes.
Governance	- Manitoba Education

Province/Territory: Saskatchewan

Format of the Day	- Kindergarten is available part day for all 5 year olds.
	- Pre-K is offered part day to vulnerable children (social welfare approach).
	- Kindergarten eligibility varies by school division, but is usually available to children in the year they turn 5.
	- The hours vary by school division, but most offer 100 full-day equivalents. Some school divisions offer full-school-day Kindergarten.
	- Participation is voluntary Pre-kindergarten is provided for 3- and 4-year olds in selected schools for vulnerable children who meet specific eligibility criteria. Programs operate for at least 12 hours/week, usually 3 hours/day for 4 days/week. There are approximately 200 pre-kindergarten programs across the province. Teachers work in partnership with parents and encourage their active participation in the classroom, family education programs and home visiting/liaison.
	- The child-centered learning environment is supplemented by
	specialized educational supports and services including speech and language assessment, developmental assessment, technological supports and referral for psychological assessment.
Extended Day Option	- Focus is on providing money and benefits directly to families so they can raise children; no specific education focus.
Play-based Approach/Intentional Play-based Learning	- Kindergartens are designed to promote high quality, age-appropriate, play-based learning experiences for young children – primarily three-, four- and five-year olds.

Curriculum Framework Status	- *Children First: A Resource for Kindergarten* provides the principles that guide the Kindergarten program. - The Kindergarten program principles are: *Children as competent learners *Development and learning as holistic *Relationships as opportunities *Environments as stimulating and dynamic. -The curriculum is organized into 7 subject areas: arts education, English language arts, health education, mathematics, physical education, science, and social studies.
Governance	- In 2011 elections, the NDP candidate platform included funding full-day Kindergarten programs and extending pre-kindergarten education and increased funding support for childhood disabilities programming. - Pre-election news coverage largely focused on childcare issues (2011).

Province/Territory: Alberta

Format of the Day	- Children eligible for Kindergarten must be at least 4 years and six months old as of September 1 (born on or before February 28 in the following year). - The basic Kindergarten program operates for 475 hours/year. - Participation is voluntary. - Children who have been assessed and coded as having mild/moderate disabilities or delays, or exceptional potential and/or performance in one or

	more areas, are eligible for ECS base instruction for two years before Grade 1, and must be at least 3 years and six months old by September 1. -Also eligible are children who have been assessed and coded as having insufficient English language (ESL), or who are attending a Francophone program and have insufficient French language skills to succeed in school.
Extended Day Option	- The decision to offer full-day or junior Kindergarten programs within a community is the decision of the local school authority, which has maximum flexibility to use their funds in whatever manner they choose.
Play-based Approach/Intentional Play-based Learning	-Early childhood professionals are trained in background knowledge and practical advice about: * contemporary early learning theories and research **** play-based learning across a variety of settings * evidence of learning in play-based environments * communicating effectively with parents. -Kindergarten professionals develop skills and knowledge in the following: * discerning effective play-based environments * creating play-based learning activities * assessing the learning within a play-based activity *documenting children's learning in play-based environments * creating a communication plan that outlines the significance of play in the early years.
Curriculum Framework Status	- *The Kindergarten Program Statement* provides expectations for children in seven learning areas: *Early Literacy *Early Numeracy *Citizenship and Identity

	*Environment and Community Awareness
	*Personal and Social Responsibility
	*Physical Skills and Well-being
	*Creative Expression.
	- *Primary Programs Framework for Teaching and Learning, Kindergarten to Grade 3: Guiding Principles* provides a framework for teachers to plan for the interconnectedness of learning in K–3.
Governance	- Alberta Education
Other	- In Alberta, the term *Early Childhood Services (ECS)* is often used interchangeably with Kindergarten. However, ECS refers to a "broad, coordinated system of local and provincial programs that meet the developmental and special education needs of young children and their families, and Kindergarten refers specifically to the education program for children in the year prior to Grade 1."
	- ECS programs are provided by a school authority, private school, or an approved private operator, and may be available to eligible children for a maximum of three years.

Province/Territory: British Columbia

Format of the Day	-Introduced to first half of student population in 2010 and to the remainder in 2011.
	-Kindergarten is a legislated entitlement for all children in the year they turn 5; however, parents may choose to defer their child's enrolment until the following school year.

	-Most Kindergarten programs are offered on a part-day basis, with 2.4 instructional hours/day.
Extended Day Option	-Full-school-day programs may be available for ESL students, Aboriginal populations and children with special needs. -Some school districts offer additional kindergarten hours for a fee.
Play-based Approach/Intentional Play-based Learning	-The rationale for full day Kindergarten includes the following: - Full day Kindergarten can provide a range of benefits over and above those from half day programs largely because it allows more time for play based exploration and inquiry. -These types of hands-on experiences are responsible for most of the cognitive growth that occurs in Kindergarten children.
Curriculum Framework Status	- *The Primary Program: A Framework for Teaching* describes five areas of development for children in kindergarten to Grade 3: *Aesthetic and artistic development *Emotional and social development *Intellectual development *Physical development and well-being *The development of social responsibility - *The Primary Program Framework* articulates the particular importance of human and social development during the early years of school as the basis for intellectual development. It also appreciates the importance of play in young children's learning and welcomes children's diverse learning styles and their individuality in mastering skills through learning

	experiences.
	- *The Kindergarten Curriculum Package (March 2009)* contains the prescribed learning outcomes and achievement indicators for the required areas of study. Curricula are organized into 8 subject areas: daily physical activity, English language arts, fine arts, health and career education, mathematics, physical education, science, and social studies.
Governance	- Ministry of Education

Province/Territory: Yukon

Format of the Day	- The focus on early learning care is on support for children with disabilities. - Kindergarten is available to all children in the year they turn five. - Approximately two-thirds of the Kindergarten programs are full school day, including all the Kindergartens in Whitehorse. -Full-day programs are provided for 950 instructional hours/year; half-day programs for 475 hours. - Eight rural communities offer half-day Kindergarten for 4-year olds, who are included in the same class as the 5-year olds. These programs are targeted to children determined to be at risk.
Extended Day Option	- Approximately 2/3 of programs are full school day.
Play-based Approach/Intentional Play-based Learning	- A positive, play-based learning environment, in which children of all abilities can thrive, is provided.
Curriculum Framework Status	- Yukon is a partner in the *Western and Northern Canada Protocol,* which supports the development of common curriculum frameworks. The BC program of studies

	forms the basis of the Yukon curriculum.
Governance	- Department of Education

Province/Territory: Northwest Territories

Format of the Day	- Kindergarten is a legislated entitlement for all children in the year they turn 5. - There are both full-school- day and half-day Kindergarten programs. - Half-day programs must provide 475 instructional hours/year and full-day programs must provide a minimum of 780 hours. - Participation is voluntary.
Extended Day Option	- Full day is offered but voluntary.
Play-based Approach/Intentional Play-based Learning	- School readiness focus in daycare is a common platform among politicians. - In August 2011, the Kindergarten curriculum was revised, ensuring it is play and literacy based, culturally appropriate and can be used for both full and half-day kindergarten programming options.
Curriculum Framework Status	- The Northwest Territories is a partner in the *Western and Northern Canada Protocol,* which supports the development of common curriculum frameworks.
Governance	- Kindergarten is under the auspices of Department of Education, Culture, and Employment.

Province/Territory: Nunavut

Format of the Day	- Kindergarten is a legislated entitlement for all children in the year they turn 5, on a half-day

	equivalent basis. - Programs must provide 485 instructional hours/year and no more than 6 hours/day.
Extended Day Option	- Full-day, every-day Kindergarten has been carried out on a pilot project basis in the French language school in Iqaluit.
Play-based Approach/Intentional Play-based Learning	- Nunavut has employed an approach to curriculum design, delivery, and application, which, as it evolved over the course of several years, successfully combined the culture and values of the community with the technical aspects of the Kindergarten program.
Curriculum Framework Status	- In 2000, Nunavut joined the *Western Northern Curriculum Protocol* partnership, which contains a common framework in mathematics and language arts for Kindergarten to Grade 12.
Governance	- Department of Education

Chapter 16

Diverse Perspectives in Teacher Education

NADEEM MEMON

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Prior to, and particularly since the Deans Accord on Indigenous Education (2010), significant strides have been made in many faculties of education to advance indigenous ways of knowing and knowledge systems in Canadian teacher education. As a collective effort to center diverse ways of knowing in teacher education the Accord represents a major step forward. But what other perspectives related to faith, spiritual, or culturally-based communities exist that can contribute to broadening conceptions of teaching and learning? In a context where faculties of education aspire to center inclusive and equity-based teacher education, this chapter will explore some of the ways that spaces are being created for diverse perspectives in education to be addressed.

The distinction between inclusive education and being inclusive of educational perspectives

Over the past 10 years, Canadian teacher education programs have arguably shifted from emphasizing multiculturalism to equity and inclusive education when referring to difference and diversity in schools. This shift has broadened the ways that differences among students are understood. Inclusive education pushes beyond the conventional areas of multicultural acceptance of differences in dress, diet, and dance (Lee, Menkart, and Okazawa-Rey, 2008), toward a more nuanced recognition of the ways that power and privilege shape the multiple and interconnected identities of Canadian students. These identities push the boundaries of culture to include race, class, gender, religion, ability, language, sexual orientation, *and* culture.

Using equity, social justice, and inclusive education as lenses within teacher education has opened a plethora of possibilities for rethinking how teachers approach classrooms. The fact that many faculties of education across Canada now have courses that address issues of equity in education is a significant shift in the field. Some programs will also facilitate professional development opportunities to support teacher candidates with the fodder to facilitate conversations related to equity and inclusion in their own classrooms. Yet beyond these conceptions of inclusive education, there remains a nuance often tacitly mentioned but yet to be fully conceptualized.

The distinction between inclusive education and inclusion of educational perspectives is important in a Canadian context. Inclusive education has come to be generally understood as encouraging the understanding of difference related to all forms of in/equity. Inclusion of difference can become active when curricular resources are adapted or instructional approaches are differentiated to meet diverse student needs. On the other hand, inclusion of educational perspectives centers on diverse ways of knowing that are informed by particular values and worldviews. In schools this manifests as diverse ways of teaching and learning that are grounded in multiple worldviews. The distinction can be characterized as the difference between teaching *about* diverse perspectives and teaching *from* diverse approaches.

Approaches in preparing teacher candidates about Aboriginal epistemologies, histories, and lived experiences will further assist in conceptualizing the distinction between 'teaching *about*' versus 'teaching *from*'. As early as the mid-1970s, some Canadian faculties of education established Indigenous teacher education programs (Accord on Indigenous Education, 2010). In some cases, early initiatives on Indigenous teacher education attempted to build understanding of non-Native teachers about the beliefs and lived experiences of Aboriginal peoples. They addressed the implications of residential schooling, Aboriginal cultures, languages, and prepared teachers for teaching on reserves. This initial approach represents the conception of multiculturalism at the time where emphasis was placed on what many would critique today as superficial cultural understanding. However, in the years leading up to and since the Dean's *Accord on Indigenous Education* (2010), the vision of such programs has expanded beyond "Respectful and Inclusive Curricula" and toward broader teaching considerations such as, "Culturally Responsive Pedagogies." Teaching from within Indigenous pedagogies means that Aboriginal communities are not solely contributing to a

more accurate perspective of Canadian history, but also, to the field of philosophy of education and instructional practice within teacher education programs.

Kanu (2010) provides greater clarity on this point when she conceptualizes the term curriculum integration in relation to Aboriginal perspectives. Kanu outlines 5 layers of integration. She says that at the first layer, there must be *Integration at the Level of Student Learning Outcomes* where educators must identify certain values, beliefs, practices, issues, and historical events that are important among Aboriginal communities and codify them into learning outcomes for all Aboriginal students integrated across Ministry learning outcomes. The second is to *Integrate at the Level of Curriculum Content and Learning Resources* where educators are expected to address the absence of teaching materials that incorporate the history, values, and perspectives of marginalized groups and also address biased teaching materials. The third is to *Integrate at the Level of Instructional Methods/Strategies* which in the case of Aboriginal education refers to using strategies such as storytelling and reliance on elders. The fourth layer suggests integration *at the Level of Assessment Methods/Strategies* where educators consider an emphasis on performance-based assessment or modeling as a form of assessment preparation which are common to Aboriginal lifestyles. The fifth and final layer that Kanu outlines is to integrate at *the Level of Philosophical Underpinning of the Curriculum.* This is the crux of integration because it requires integration of an Aboriginal worldview such as the Seven Sacred Teachings (Wisdom, Respect, Love, Courage, Humility, Truth, and Honesty) to serve as the basis upon which everything in a learning environment (from instructional approaches to assessment tools) is built. Based on Kanu's five layers of integration, the distinction between inclusion and inclusivity of perspective can be distinguished as appending curriculum resources versus employing pedagogical approaches that are grounded in non-dominant worldviews.

The aim of this chapter is to create awareness for the ways that some faculties of education in Canada have created spaces for teacher candidates to explore diverse perspectives in teacher education. Similar to the distinction made earlier between teaching *about* Aboriginal cultures versus teaching *from* Indigenous pedagogies, this chapter will provide a small sampling of programs and initiatives that center non-dominant pedagogies. The term 'Indigenous' will be used throughout this chapter to refer not only to Aboriginal or First Nations Peoples' of Canada but also to the diverse cultural knowledges and faith and

spiritually-based traditions that are represented by diasporic Canadian communities. Part of the aim of this chapter is to bring to light that to achieve a robust conception of inclusive education, perspectives of teaching and learning from diverse indigenous communities must also be considered.

Conceptualizing Terminology

To explain current conceptions of inclusive education, I will employ the stages that the term inclusion has evolved from articulated by two Canadian education scholars. Ratna Ghosh (2004) and Helen Harper (1997) both attempt to explain the trajectory of Canada's education system responding to an increasingly diverse student population. Harper notes that with regards to the unprecedented diversity in schools today the challenge has been to balance between engaging with difference while cultivating some semblance of "Canadian-ness." In attempting to strike this balance, educational responses have varied across a spectrum from outright suppression of difference to critiquing dominant discourses that create spaces for difference (Harper, 2004). Both Ghosh (2004) and Harper (1997) have developed relatively similar trajectories in five stages that assist in explaining how a term like inclusion or inclusive education has evolved to become a central discourse in Canadian teacher education today.

Harper (1997) outlines five stages that the term difference has evolved through. These stages are: (1) Suppressing Difference, (2) Insisting on Difference, (3) Denying Difference, (4) Inviting Difference and (5) Critiquing Difference. Within the first three stages, she argues that Canadian schooling has evolved from a time when differences were "suppressed" such as residential schooling, to "insisting" on difference through segregation by race, gender, and ability, and then to "denying" differences during the push for equality (over equity) and colour-blindness. It was not until the 1980s and 90s that schools began to "invite" difference through heritage language programs, multicultural days and supplementary teaching resources, but even these initiatives are "critiqued" in the final stage of her model as being superficial additives to curriculum. The final stage of Harper's model suggests that the anti-racism, anti-oppression movements that grew into a discourse of equity over equality in schools articulate the current stage of the trajectory.

Ghosh (2004) describes a similar trajectory when she outlines how the term multiculturalism has been understood in Canadian education. Her stages include: (1) Assimilation, (2) Adaptation, (3) Accommodation, (4) Incorporation, and (5) Integration. In the assimilation stage, Ghosh argues that subordinate groups were expected to relinquish their cultural identities for a mono-cultural identity defined by a dominant group. In education this translated as relegating differences to inadequacies. In the adaptation stage cultural differences were celebrated often related to dress, food, and entertainment. The third stage of accommodation created spaces for heritage language programs and cultural and religious requests related to curricular exemptions. The fourth stage of incorporation pushed for equitable policies and practices to address forms of discrimination such as employment equity. The final stage of integration calls for a radical departure from the previous stages where knowledge will be formulated into new world-views and ways of knowing.

The final stages that both Harper and Ghosh outline are most instructive for the conceptualization of this chapter. Harper's final stage of *"Critiquing Difference"* where she applauds the anti-racist movement in critiquing the power that maintains privilege (Sleeter, 2001; Dei, 2003) is essential to understand how Canadian teacher education currently approaches difference and diversity. Critique, however, creates possibilities for which Ghosh's final stage builds on by calling for the radical departure toward an integration of cultural perspectives where distinct worldviews become valid ways of knowing. For schools this translates to mean moving beyond the additive approach to multiculturalism (Johnson and Joshee, 2007, Banks, 2009; Ladson-Billings and Gillborn, 2005) and toward acknowledging the ways that life, death, love, or hate are viewed differently in varying cultural perspectives. Ghosh and Harper's stages provide an appreciation for how conceptually Canadian education has shifted between equality and equity or multiculturalism and inclusivity. More importantly, the frameworks also provide a sense of where Canadian teacher education currently is in the trajectory as the field of research in education grapples with what a robust form of inclusive education would mean for classrooms, curriculum, and teacher education.

Analytical Approach

This chapter is the beginning of a larger intended research project aimed at exploring how diverse worldviews may inform instructional practices. It is a conceptual analysis setting the framework for a qualitative study. This chapter aims to explore the ways that some Canadian faculties of education have already created spaces for non-dominant perspectives in teacher education. I employ grounded theory as a methodology for this conceptual analysis which provides a framework for taking abstract ideas and using them to analyze current processes and perspectives.

The first step in grounded theory analysis is to understand what is happening on the ground, what are people doing (Charmaz, 2008, p. 212). It is intended to define what is happening in a particular setting in order to problematize current conceptualizations and create spaces for new ways of thinking. In the case of this study, although many teacher educators are at least tacitly aware of discourses around Aboriginal Education in Canada, applying Aboriginal worldviews in education to create spaces for other worldviews in education such as Africentric education, for example, is a correlation that is still taking shape. Similarly, as both Harper (1997) and Ghosh (2004) alluded to in their stages outlined above, the distinction between teaching about a culture and teaching from within a culture's epistemology can be deemed quite distinct.

In the words of Charmaz (2008) who connects grounded theory to social justice related research, she defines grounded theory as a set of analytical guidelines that allows a researcher to collect data that will evolve through successive levels of data analysis and conceptual development. Further, she says that "The grounded theory openness to empirical leads spurs the researcher to pursue emergent questions and thus shifts the direction of inquiry" (Charmaz, 2008, p.209). A significant goal of this chapter is to serve as conceptual fodder for future research into specific programs and offerings within Canadian faculties of education. By pushing the boundaries of inclusive education as a common term in the field into possibly new directions, this chapter may assist in researching the potential of current

and established programs and institutes in more relevant ways to the field of Canadian teacher education. Employing grounded theory here allows us to question, grapple with, and challenge inclusive education at a conceptual level. Grounded theory promotes stages of empirical study that begins with conceptualization as a precursor to designing a study through research participants. It is necessary as a foundational step to problematize terminology and assess alternative meanings prior to exploring them or even before considering ways to define them. Terms that are often taken for granted in social justice work such as race, class, or gender are themselves, as Charmaz (2008) states "social constructions with contested definitions that are continually reconstituted." Charmaz (2008) continues, stating:

Using them as static variables, as though they have uncontested definitions that explain data and social processes *before* or *without* looking undermines their potential power. Taking their meanings as given also undermines using grounded theory to develop fresh insights and ideas." (p. 210)

In the subsequent pages of this chapter, I employ grounded theory to the term inclusive education in theory and practice to achieve "fresh insights." I will first outline five particular initiatives in Canadian faculties of education and then close with an analysis of those initiatives that will provide the necessary conceptual directions of future research in the area of inclusive education when referring to ways of knowing.

Diverse Educational Perspectives in Canadian Teacher Education

Canadian teacher education has been inclusive in many ways to varied pedagogical perspectives for decades. The existence of Catholic teacher education programs for example, provides a model for community service and social justice education from a faith-based perspective. A few notable faculties of education house Catholic teacher education programs and courses, such as the University of Alberta and University of Victoria. Brock

University is among the few faculties of education that teach courses in faith based schooling (Catholic) and faith-based schooling non-Catholic. The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education at the University of Toronto (OISE/UT) offers courses on Holistic Education and a course entitled Qi Gong and Embodied Learning both of which use holistic and spiritually-based education practices emphasizing Buddhist, Hindu, and Jain spiritual practices that include teaching meditation. Together these are a smattering of the ways that some faculties of education create spaces for non-dominant ways of knowing – both through formal religious and spiritual traditions. Granted some of these initiatives are institutionalized programs while others are elective courses yet each raises the relevance of ways of thinking about instructional practices more broadly. In this section, I provide a brief overview of five such programs or initiatives that offer diverse perspectives to teacher education.

1. Native Teacher Education, Lakehead University

Lakehead University houses the eldest Aboriginal teacher education program in Canada. Established in 1974 as the Native Teacher Education Program (NTEP), the program was initiated to fill an urgent need to train Native teachers to teach in schools located in northern reserves. At the time, there was a dearth of Native teachers graduating from local teacher's colleges to work in reserve schools. The issue, however, was that there were also very few Native adults who had the qualifications (both language and academic) to enter into a teacher education program. As a result the program was initially designed for two years: the first year to teach basic math and English because few Native adults had finished high school, and the second year was dedicated to teacher education. In many ways the initial thrust behind NTEP was similar to faculties of education developing programs in French language teaching – a dearth of teachers in a particular area served as the catalyst for specialized programs. Over the years, the program has grown in two significant ways. Firstly, Lakehead is now one of the few Canadian universities with a focus on undergraduate studies, teacher education, and language studies related to Aboriginal histories, cultures, and communities. The teacher education component has grown into the Honours Bachelor of

Education (HBEd) in Aboriginal Education, which is a four year program that is comprised of two years of course requirements cross listed with the Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities and two years in teacher education. The program emphasizes foundation courses that range from First Nations peoples' histories and ways of knowing, to language courses in Ojibwe and Cree, along with courses in gender studies and the changing roles of Native women. The Native Language Instructors' Program (NLIP) is the second component with a focus on training teachers to teach a second language. With the intent to promote and maintain Native languages, these summer diploma and certificate programs are grounded in Aboriginal ways of knowing and pedagogical principles. The third component is NTEP, which can either be taken in conjunction with the HBEd or on its own with a B.A. degree specialization other than Aboriginal Education, and can be complemented by NLIP or not.

Secondly, the program shifted its emphasis from preparing Native teachers for teaching on reserves to preparing anyone (non-Natives) interested in working on reserves for teaching. More significantly, in the early 2000s, Lakehead's faculty of education made a course in Aboriginal studies mandatory for all teacher candidates. To an extent these changes have encouraged more teachers to engage with Aboriginal ways of knowing. Although relatively insignificant in terms of numbers, Lakehead's faculty of education does now accredit non-Native teachers in Aboriginal studies, and as a result, the qualifications to teach in reserve schools.

2. Jewish Teacher Education, McGill and York Universities

The Jewish Teacher Training Program (JTTP) was established at McGill University in 1977 and the Jewish Teacher Education Program (JTEP) at York University soon after. In the JTTP there have been approximately 250 graduates in the program since its inception. The program serves a small, targeted population, primarily the community of 8 Jewish day schools in Montreal. The JTTP enrolls approximately 10-20 teacher candidates annually, about half the size of a similar program at York University. JTEP at York University has a more significant draw as it serves local Jewish day schools in Toronto, but also garners

interest from Jewish day schools across the country. The aim of JTEP is to prepare teachers of Hebrew Language and Jewish Studies in Jewish day schools primarily. Those interested in Rabbinical studies often will travel to Israel for more formal religious education. Both JTTP and JTEP are collaborative programs between the Faculty of Arts and the Faculty of Education at their respective universities. Teacher candidates combine courses in Hebrew Language and Jewish Studies in the Faculty of Arts with courses in educational foundations and methods along with a teaching practicum in the Faculty of Education to complete their joint degrees.

Although most of the courses related to Jewish Studies focus specifically on foundations of religious beliefs and practices such as teaching Biblical literature and Jewish liturgy, what stands out is the emphasis on teaching religious studies. Essential to the JTT program for example is a course on "Visions and Realities of Jewish Education" that explores the multiple perspectives and contemporary ideologies that inform the types of Jewish schooling today, and the multiple meanings of what defines an educated Jewish person. Other courses on nurturing spiritual consciousness through moral teachings are distinct in that these courses explore the pedagogical approaches and challenges in schools today in relation to moral questions.

3. Africentric Education, OISE/UT

Although there is no formal support or institutionalized program that represents Africentric education at a Canadian faculty of education, there has been faculty endorsement of and educational inquiry into the purpose and potential of Africentric education at institutions such as OISE/UT. Professor George Dei has arguably been the most outspoken Canadian faculty member about the need for exploring Africentric pedagogies and their place in schools. His research on critical anti-racist education has been the catalyst for graduate student work, research, and community advocacy on the need and potential for Africentric education.

There have been numerous American academics who have contributed to this larger discourse (Asante, 1998 Shockley, 2007 Lomotely, 1992) but a significant amount of Canadian research of Africentric education has been inspired by the work of Dei. Some of his courses offered at OISE/UT that have informed the larger discourse of Africentric education are courses such as: (1) Principles of Anti-Racism Education; (2) Modernization, Development and Education in African Contexts, (3) The Sociology of Race and Ethnicity, (4) Indigenous Knowledge and Decolonization: Pedagogical Implications, and (5) Franz Fanon and Education: Pedagogical Possibilities. As a result, these courses have inspired a small, but growing, amount of research in the area and have provided three significant discursive shifts for education in Canada. The first significant discursive contribution he has made is the reconceptualization of term school "drop out" to students who are "pushed out" of the system because of institutionalized racism (Dei, 1996). The second discursive contribution is the parallelism between Eurocentricity and Africentricity. When speaking of Africentric schools, the aim is not to segregate students racially, but to center the histories, experiences, and epistemologies of peoples from the African Diaspora over the common curriculum that is founded on a Eurocentric experience (Dei, 1996). The third contribution has been his reconceptualising the term "indigenous knowledges" to refer to all cultural, spiritual, and faith based traditions including but not solely Aboriginal (Dei, 2000).

4. Islamic Pedagogy, OISE/UT

In 2006, a small group of faculty and graduate students established the Muslim Education Project (MEP) at OISE/UT. The rationale for such an initiative was the growing Muslim demographics across the Greater Toronto Area (GTA) and the concentration of Muslim students in particular parts of the urban public school landscape. In some parts of Toronto, Muslim students of varying cultural, linguistic, and sectarian communities comprise anywhere between 50-90% of the student body at select schools. For schools and school boards the sheer numbers coupled within a post 9/11 context of increased media related stories about Islam and Muslims created teacher training needs related to Muslim sensitivities and revised policies around religious accommodations. Part of the mandate of the MEP was

also to explore the growing number of private Islamic schools in the GTA, of which there are currently close to 30, the largest concentration of Islamic schools in North America (Niyozov and Memon, 2006).

Through community roundtables and conferences, three significant contributions have been made and established. The first is a SSHRC funded research project entitled "Teachers' Perspectives on the Education of Muslim Students, the Political Socialization of Muslim Students in Ontario, and the Development of Islamic Pedagogy" (Issues that Matter, p.133). This three year study explored teachers' perceptions of working with Muslim students in public, Catholic, and Islamic schools in the GTA. The second major contribution is the initiation of a professional learning certificate program through Continuing Education geared toward Islamic school teachers and conceptualizing principles of education and pedagogical practice from within the Islamic tradition. The final significant contribution is a related studies course launched in 2011 entitled "Perspectives on Muslim/Islamic Education" that is currently offered annually to teacher candidates and graduate students at OISE.

5. **Gandhian Pedagogy, University of Alberta**

For the past 10 years, the University of Alberta's departments of secondary and elementary education have partnered with the Mahatma Gandhi Foundation for World Peace to offer a summer institute on Gandhian Pedagogy. Gandhi's work has been researched and implemented globally in areas of peace and social justice education. In particular his concepts of *ahimsa*, commonly translated as nonviolence and *satyaghara*, non-violent resistance and insistence on truth are explored for their relevance to teaching and learning. The summer institute at the U of A, entitled, "Building Peaceful Communities" brings together graduate students, teachers, and principals who consider Gandhian perspectives on peace education in relation to classroom practice and school community building. The ideas of a Gandhian Pedagogy are rooted in Jain, Buddhist and Hindu epistemologies and practices in not doing harm to others as part of a life practice. Teachers in the institute take

the core course related to Gandhian Pedagogy which is offered by Professor Reva Joshee of OISE/UT.

For educators and those becoming educators, the Gandhian Pedagogy institute speaks to larger educational discourses of poverty, racism, and structural and cultural violence. How that translates into classroom-based pedagogy is through providing a framework for conflict resolution and mediation. Joshee (2006) makes the distinction between three ways of thinking about conflict resolution in classrooms: peacekeeping, peacemaking, and peace building. Joshee argues that schools often focus on solely peacekeeping through punishments as deterrents from further misbehavior. From a Gandhian perspective, however, schools would move toward a more robust form of peace education if peace building were to be emphasized. Through Gandhian concepts educators grapple with making this shift from peacekeeping to peace building in a way that also shifts classroom conversations from debate to dialogue – a dialogue that in the Gandhian approach does not aspire for common consensus necessarily, but for understanding of "differences between one's own position and that of others" (p. 10).

Problems and Possibilities of Inclusive Perspectives

In these five snapshots of Canadian faculties of education creating, providing, or allowing for conversations related to diverse educational perspectives to take place that are beyond the core topics in teacher education is a significant step in being inclusive. Such initiatives can easily also be discounted and dismissed as irrelevant or unimportant when compared to the larger impact that faculties of education make on teacher candidates and graduate students, but I would propose the opposite. There will always be pockets of outright resistance and tacit support to such initiatives where non-dominant perspectives of education are presented. Yet, what these initiatives achieve is a possibility – a possibility for teacher candidates and graduate students to realize that education can be conceptualized in diverse ways.

Arguably what I have outlined above is a smattering of initiatives. Some have existed for over 40 years and others for less than four; some of the initiatives have a very insular purpose and a specific community to serve, while others seek to shape public discourse; some aspire to engage teacher candidates of all backgrounds while others do not; and some of these initiatives are formally housed at Canadian universities while others are offered as supplementary initiatives. The objective of this chapter, as mentioned earlier, is to explore existing initiatives of non-dominant voices in education. In the following section I will provide an analysis of the five initiatives outlined above through three overarching discursive themes that raise the problems and possibilities of such initiatives.

Moving from the absence of recognition to the margins in Canadian faculties of education

Returning to the stages outlined of Ratna Ghosh (2004) and Helen Harper (1997), the relationship that Aboriginal perspectives have had within Canadian faculties of education is an excellent case in point. If there is a model community that has had their "difference", as Ghosh puts it, from being suppressed, to being celebrated and to being critiqued, it is Aboriginal communities in Canada. In the past ten years alone, Canadian faculties of education have moved from what Doige (2003) cautions educators about: teaching *about* Aboriginal traditions without teaching about *how* such traditions fit within an Aboriginal epistemology will not lead to deep understanding. There has undoubtedly been a shift in some teacher education programs to thinking beyond the celebration of difference of Aboriginal cultures toward taking the contexts and realities of Aboriginal communities more seriously. For example, Lakehead University made a course on Aboriginal education mandatory for all teacher candidates as opposed to their initial model where it was only mandatory for those intending to teach on reserves. The shift was presumably intended to nurture understanding about Aboriginal communities for all teacher candidates. Similarly, in response to the Dean's *Accord on Indigenous Education*, OISE/UT recently created a position entitled "Aboriginal Infusion Lead" whose mandate is to work with faculty and find ways to connect Aboriginal education across the teacher education program.

These examples illustrate that there are attempts to build greater understanding for marginalized educational perspectives and communities. The case of Aboriginal education is likely the closest to the center – meaning infused within core content of a teacher education program. Such centering of Aboriginal education raises the question of as to what other perspectives ought to also be centered in teacher education programs. Grace (2009), a British education scholar, concludes that it is essential that programs related to faith and spiritually-based traditions be integrated within mainstream public institutions such as university faculties of education to garner "dialogue to generate greater mutual understanding and appreciation of the varieties of faith and secular schooling in a multi-faith democracy" (p. 492). With the initiatives we now have such as Jewish teacher training programs, institutes on Gandhian thought and courses on Muslim education, the relevance of faith-based educational perspectives are also beginning to come to the fore in Canadian teacher education, albeit on the margins.

Differentiation between redressing historical inequities and centering worldviews for a robust inclusivity

The difference between redressing historical inequities and centering a worldview is a major point of differentiation and contention when speaking about inclusive education. The case of Africentric schools is an excellent case in point. There is ample research, in particular out of the United States, about the ways that the public education system has marginalized students from the African Diaspora. For example, Shockley (1997) points out research about the numbers of Black students that have interfaced with the criminal justice system is disproportionate from other racialized groups, Black communities speak about being disenfranchised, and the significant socio-educational problems that keep Black students from succeeding. Similarly in Toronto**,** Galabuzi (2008), like most proponents of Africentric schools, justify the need for an Africentric school based on the under achievement and high school drop-out rates of Black Canadian students. Using references to educational policy, such as the Ontario Safe Schools Act, these studies make an important argument about the criminalization of many Black youth and how institutionalized discrimination has bolstered dropout rates. Similarly redressing discrimination through Holocaust education and anti-

Islamophobia education have been two additional areas of focus in some faculties of education over the past decade. Not undermine or oversimplify the complexity, impact, and implications of each of these initiatives but it must be acknowledged that redressing historical inequities cannot solely be limited to a reaction of accommodation policies and cultural sensitivity training within teacher education. Rather, what is essential to redressing such historical inequities is the need to recognize, understand, and create spaces that are central in teacher education for the ways that diverse peoples understand the process of teaching and learning.

In a study on Queen's University's Aboriginal teacher education program, it was noted that, "As is the case with other Aboriginal teacher education programs, one of the challenges facing our program is to look beyond the inclusion of Aboriginal studies and Aboriginal languages as add ons and to seek a vision for a uniquely Aboriginal way of schooling" (Goulet and McLeod, 2002, p.357). Most Aboriginal studies programs are established to preserve a cultural tradition, and as a result Aboriginal education programs similarly focus on the history and traditions of Aboriginal peoples. However, that is one part of inclusive education. The distinction being made here in this study and from what I have seen in existing programs is the need to define and consider an "Aboriginal way of schooling" that codifies a pedagogical practice that is grounded in an Aboriginal epistemology.

To clarify the difference between teaching about historical inequities and a worldview in education, I will provide another example from Aboriginal education. Preparing teacher candidates to work with Aboriginal students could include an overview of residential schooling, its impact and implications for Aboriginal communities and students today. This is an important and essential element of understanding Aboriginal peoples deeply. However, another way of preparing beginning teachers could also include an explanation of how an Aboriginal worldview informs a distinct pedagogical practice. In the latter case, teacher candidates would learn about the centrality of elders and the traditions, stories, and wisdom they carry through oral traditions. They would learn about how Aboriginal education is highly interpersonal, intergenerational, and how elders are like prayers that reflect the sacredness of life and learning (Akan, 1999). Teacher candidates would learn that time, success, and completion are interpreted in very different ways in an Aboriginal pedagogy. Doige (2003) explains how Aboriginal students are often raised in a culture where learning

progresses at an individual pace, based on individual interests, and success is only measured when a student deems that it is their best effort. To aspire for an inclusive education where cultural worldviews inform educational practice, faculties of education must consider both teaching *about* cultures but also *through* cultural perspectives.

Beyond Politicized Conceptions: The Potential of Diverse Perspectives

Particular educational discourses such as Africentricism (race) and Jewish, Catholic, and Islamic (religious) views in education are highly politicized debates that raise very strong opposing views, often out of presupposed assumptions about incongruent educational values. Take the Ontario Conservative government platform of 2007, for instance, when John Tory proposed as part of the platform, to provide public funding for private faith-based schools similar to the publicly funded Catholic schools in the province. The province's position of maintaining public funding for Catholic schools and no other faith-based school has already been deemed discriminatory by the United Nations Human Rights Commission in 1999 (McDonough, Memon, and Mintz, 2013). Yet the Tory Platform quickly became a single issue campaign that many have said was the catalyst of his demise as a politician. Fears of what religious schools might teach, in particular minority faith-based schools such as the rapidly growing Islamic schools in Ontario, created public perceptions that quickly labeled faith-based schools as isolationist and dogmatic. Similarly the push to establish Africentric schools both in Toronto and Halifax garnered significant public attention and debate (Know, 2007).

The challenge facing diverse educational perspectives or proposed alternative schools is that public debate often quickly categorizes and reduces them to simple dichotomies. Africentric schools, for example, quickly became labeled as "Black only schools" conjuring images of racial segregation. Others pinned Africentric schools as solely having the purpose to address the substantial dropout rate of students from among the African diaspora. For some, the potential of an Africentric school either meant segregation of schools by race or a reactive, short term, ill-planned solution to a complex socio-political issue. Either way, the potential of Africentricity as an educational perspective and a form of indigenous educational knowledge was dismissed (Dei and Kempf, 2007).

The benefit of raising such discourses in Canadian faculties of education, as opposed to limiting them to media sound bites, is that perspectives can be explored, grappled with, and acknowledged for their potential in making Canadian schools and teacher education programs deeply inclusive. It is important to acknowledge that diversities exist within perspectives. Africentricity itself has distinctions and interpretations. Some, for example, define Africentricity through an emphasis on cultural reattachment. Proponents in this perspective propose choosing an African culture, becoming familiar with it, and then practising it in whole or in part to reattach oneself to a lost identity. This reattachment is through learning of African values, histories, traditions, and languages (Shockley, 2007). Others propose a more general Africentric approach acknowledging that African heritages and cultural practices are evolving, have evolved, and students must be taught to see themselves as part of a past and present. This perspective has been labelled "Africentrics" in that it emphasizes a deep sense of African heritage within Canadian expressions to create shared identities. Even here, however, are distinctions as some writers will emphasize African values and an African worldview while others will emphasize African histories. Among and within these two perspectives, some also take the approach that Africentric education is for the benefit of all students. Some see Africentric schools are beginning to explore what an Africentric curriculum focus may look like before thinking of ways to integrate such perspectives within the common core curriculum (Galabuzi, 2008). The potential of diverse perspectives is, therefore, to broaden the ways that teacher education, and by virtue schools, consider new ways of knowing but also the nuances within them. The multiple interpretations of Africentricity is an example that illustrates the importance of avoiding oversimplifications.

Conclusion

The essential aim of this chapter has been to illustrate initiatives in some Canadian teacher education programs where diverse approaches to teaching and learning are being explored. Although there is variation in terms of how each is embedded institutionally, what I have attempted to outline is that conversations related to diverse educational perspectives, values,

and worldviews linked to faith and spiritually based communities are taking place in fragments, pockets, and at times informally in some teacher education programs. What we can gain as educators is that 1. Diverse perspectives are not limited to histories but can also contribute in relation to pedagogical practice, and 2. A robust concept of inclusive education requires faculty in teacher education to consider how worldviews shape educational approaches.

I feel it is also important to reiterate two important points made early in this chapter. The first takes us back to the trajectories of equity and inclusive education outlined in the work of Helen Harper (1997) and Ratna Ghosh (2004). If Canadian teacher education is to continue to evolve toward a deeper conception of inclusive education, teacher candidates must be informed about the trajectory of where inclusive education was, where it is now, and where it can be. I feel it is insufficient to speak about equity and inclusion without positioning how the conceptualizations of the terms have evolved. In the absence of teacher candidates' understanding of this trajectory, I fear a continued generalization of what inclusivity can potentially be. Secondly, I feel it is necessary to use the discourse of Aboriginal education and how it has evolved as a way to consider what other indigenous ways of knowing may contribute to teacher education and to illustrate how the discourse of inclusive education has moved from teaching *about* a particular community to teaching from *within* the worldview of that community.

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Chapter 17

An intricate dance: Achieving balance in an emergent Master's degree Teacher Education program

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In this paper, we offer a glimpse into the genesis and development of a new graduate level teacher education program leading to certification, designed to meet both immediate needs and serve future aspirations of prospective students. We briefly chart the journey from conception to approved program and identify some of the successes, challenges and tensions associated with this new path to teacher certification in Quebec. The opportunity to design with a clean slate, enabling the incorporation of key elements and design features, is juxtaposed with the challenges faced in developing professional programs, located in an academic milieu, while answering to external governing and accrediting bodies. The paper is designed around the identification of tensions across a range of locations throughout the process.

Introduction

McGill's new Master of Arts in Teaching and Learning (MATL), a post-degree program, has been welcomed by candidates and our partners in the field who have been calling for such an initiative for some years. In the following, we chart the journey and identify some of the successes and resultant tensions associated with this new path to teacher certification in Quebec. We discuss the myriad challenges we were confronted with in the development, launch, rollout and immediate revision of this new program as well as ongoing program direction.

Context for the Initiative

Serving as the largest English university in the majority French speaking province of Quebec, the role of McGill's Faculty of Education is a very complex and evolving one. The population of the province of Quebec is close to 25% of Canada's 34 million inhabitants. Of these some 8 million, approximately 80% are French speaking while 8% are English speaking (Statistics Canada, 2011). Quebec's *Charter of the French Language* (1977), colloquially known as "Bill 101", restricts access to English education by allowing only those children whose parents were themselves educated in English to attend English-medium elementary and secondary schools. As such, most francophones and immigrants to Quebec attend French-medium schools. Around 50% of Quebec's inhabitants are located in Montreal, whose urban population currently sits at 3,824,221 (Statistics Canada, 2012). With urban centers still providing the strongest draw not only for immigrants but also for those relocating from rural Quebec, the province still experiences a vibrant difference between its regional homogeneity and its urban diversity. While this is formally attended to, at least in part, by the province's 14 French School boards and 9 English School Boards, it is still the case that tensions arising from cultural, linguistic and geographical realities make for an extremely intricate educational landscape in Quebec (Lamarre, 2008).

In the last few decades Quebec has sustained major educational restructuring that had a significant impact on teacher preparation programs. In the mid-1990's the Ministry of Education mandated four-year Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) programs as the only path to teacher certification in the province. This change phased out the standard three-year B.Ed. programs, as well as the one-year post-degree programs, both with two years of professional probation, as routes to certification. On the heels of this change, the province also undertook the development and introduction of a new school curriculum: the competency based Quebec Education Program (QEP).

In the four-year B.Ed. programs, students gain in a concurrent fashion both subject matter expertise as well as preparation to teach. Professional probation is not a requirement, and graduates are recommended for provincial teacher certification upon completion of the program. At McGill, we offer B.Ed. programs leading to certification at the kindergarten and elementary, secondary and specialist areas, and admit approximately 450 students per year, for a total student body of about 1400 (accounting for attrition).

This approach to teacher preparation ideally serves students who select teacher education as their first degree. Individuals who decide on teaching as a career post degree however, are often ill-served by this four-year model. While recognition of a previous degree can, to some extent, be achieved through advanced standing, a minimum of two years (and sometimes still four years) remains to complete the requirements needed. This reality is further exacerbated by the fact that one-year post-degree teacher preparation programs are offered in the neighbouring province of Ontario. At McGill, with the largest English teacher preparation program in the province, we are aware that we lose potential candidates to these one-year programs and the lack of a post-degree program impeded our ability to be competitive and attract candidates. As well, McGill's lack of this fast track to certification was misunderstood by our partners in the field as McGill being obdurate rather than as a consequence of an edict of the Ministry of Education. Since the inception of the four-year B.Ed. programs, McGill's attempts at persuading the Ministry of Education of the need for a post-degree program fell on unresponsive ears, perhaps partially due to the fact that, in Quebec, the majority of prospective students for teacher education programs apply to French universities which do not suffer the comparison to other available paths to teacher certification in the rest of Canada to the same extent.

In the mid-2000's the tide turned when it became evident that there was a critical shortage of mathematics and science teachers across Quebec, and this led to many non-certified teachers, lacking in adequate pedagogical preparation, occupying these critical posts in both the French and English sectors. In 2006, the Ministry of Education approached universities across Quebec requesting the development of a 60-credit *Maitrise qualifiante* (M.A. with restrictions) route to teacher certification for those currently teaching on contract in schools without teacher certification. We began the design and development of such a post-degree program in earnest. This imagined program was more innovative than the existing structures in our B.Ed. programs, and met certain standards through themes of study and problem-based learning venues that broke away from existing structures such as three-credit courses and set terms. To our chagrin, however, the Ministry of Education placed certain constraints on the program - namely that only be targeted exclusively for mathematics and science teachers currently teaching on contract without teacher certification. Given limitations in terms of university resources, both human and financial, we decided to abandon this instance of a post-degree program. We also rejected, on

principle, the constraints, as our vision was to offer a program for all disciplines and to open a path to teacher certification for those with a previous degree.

Continued requests by school boards and individuals caused us to reconsider our decision, however, and two years later we began the development of our MATL program, with the hope that the Ministry constraints would be relaxed. We presented a first proposal to the Ministry of Education at the end of 2009 and launched the program in the summer of 2010. In developing the program, we took advantage of the opportunity to implement recommendations from a recent program review, which drew on best practices in teacher education (Beck & Kosnik, 2006; Cochran-Smith, Davis, & Fries, 2004; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Goodlad, 1994). While the mandate for this program was to respond to a current need, we used the rare opportunity of being presented with a blank slate to design a program to graduate highly competent master practitioners.

With the support of McGill (and in light of the Ministry of Education's sanctioning of such programs), McGill's MATL program was moved through the approval process at record speed and accredited for one year in the spring of 2010. We accepted our first MATL cohort of 30 students in the summer of 2010 and began the program in July 2010. Almost simultaneously, the Ministry of Education relaxed the admission criteria, no longer restricting this type of program to those currently teaching without certification. Thus, with the ink barely dry on the new program, we immediately began the process of revision and reapplication to the Ministry of Education for accreditation of a program open to this wider variety of applicants. In so doing, we were also able to respond to evident program needs, and make important revisions to the existing program. The MATL was reaccredited in December of 2010, just in time to change the entrance requirement for the upcoming academic year and second MATL cohort. In this second iteration, we accepted 30 students, about half currently teaching without certification and half for whom we needed to secure student teaching placements.

We are now in our third year of the MATL. We have doubled our intake and with two cohorts of thirty, face new challenges such as the coordination of multiple course sections, not to mention the increased demand for student teaching placements. We continue to develop this program whilst dealing with the expectations of academia and the constraints of government regulations. Those of us closely involved from the inception of

the MATL have accumulated a great deal of insight and wisdom on this short but tumultuous journey. If we were to be given the opportunity to start over we would repeat much of the process but there are some aspects that we most certainly would approach more cautiously.

We see the benefit of documenting this process as a way of shining the light on tensions that can arise in the development of professional programs located in academic milieu that also answer to external accrediting bodies.

Thematic Approach: Tension as a Dynamic Force

While one's own story is of interest to the individual, we acknowledge that a linear narrative account of "what we did and what happened" in the development of our new program would be of little relevance to other educational professionals. That said, we do believe that our particular program development experience, when scaffolded by a thematic analysis and presented accordingly, can have potential value, either as: a) an account to provide a roadmap and active strategies for others going through similar experiences and facing similar challenges; b) historical documentation of the educational landscape of a particular place in time. In the best case scenario, our story may serve to encourage others to pursue goals in program development which may to some seem foolhardy or risky but which, as we hope to show here, can lead to a successful outcome.

We have therefore selected the concept of tension as a scaffold for this particular story. While we favour the definition of tension drawn from physics: "tension: the state of being stretched tight; a strained state or condition resulting from forces acting in opposition to each other" (OED Online, March 2012), we also acknowledge that other types of tension can and do manifest: "tension: mental or emotional strain; a strained political or social state or relationship a relationship between ideas or qualities with conflicting demands or implications" (OED Online, March 2012). We want to acknowledge at the onset, that despite the challenges faced in the 'tensions' identified below, it is these dynamic instances which provide the context for the forceful process of change, such as identifying challenge, reflection and planning, proposing innovation, shifting location, facing new emergent challenge, and re-evaluation, which fuels the cycle of evolving positive change.

Epistemological Tensions

Beliefs

In the field of teacher education work such as program design is carried out at the nexus of personal, political, and professional belief (Cochran-Smith, 2006; Darling-Hammond & Zeichner, 2005). While this can be a positive force in terms of the coming together of "like minds", it is worth noting here that this can also give rise to tensions in communication and/or collaboration. In extreme cases, these tensions may slow or impede the completion of projects. Academic administrators charged with working together in program development, for example in the revision of existing and creation of new programs, curricula, and courses, are called upon to collaborate closely together. While in the academic community as scholars and educators we are in most cases free to determine our collaborators, when working as academic administrators we are not always free to choose the partners with whom we work. This is the case despite the fact that the "world view" of a colleague is inevitably a factor in, for example, decisions regarding program elements or course content. It is not difficult to envisage how this can become an impediment– either because individuals fail to grasp each other's point of departure and therefore differ or, even more seriously when they flatly disagree. This can lead to– and in our case has resulted in - serious challenges and tensions in terms of priorities and ideologies to name a few.

Ambition

When the MATL program was in preliminary discussion, the Faculty was in a period of transitioning under the leadership of a new Dean of Education. One of the first tasks issued to the Associate Dean Academic was to lead the Faculty in a major program review, with a view to determining – and eventually implementing – best practices in teacher education. This Undergraduate Program Re-visioning (UPR) (Office of the Associate Dean, 2009) comprised an in-depth review of current literature on teacher education programs across North America. Our five working groups collaborated for one academic year, and the final report was completed in 2009. As mentioned above, while the recommendations were based on a review of our B.Ed. programs, within the constructs and confines of the faculty and university, revision of existing programs can be slow. Given the mandate and new nature of MATL program, we were fortunate to have much more freedom in the structuring and content from the onset. From the UPR report on exemplary practices and program

components, key recommendations informed the development of the new MATL program. Of these, the following are the most salient:

- cohort model
- coherent standards of assessment across the program
- supported and integrated field experiences
- sustained partnerships with local schools
- commitment to social justice, diversity and equity

The context from which the MATL program emerged provided us with a strong sense of possibility with which we approached the task. It fuelled us and allowed us to sustain what turned out to be a process more challenging than anticipated initially.

Partner Tensions: Inter-institutional Challenges

Historical Context

The daunting responsibility of preparing young people for an unknown future is rendered even more complex due to the participation of numerous inter-connected institutions all aiming to accomplish the same stated goal. In Quebec the emergence of a sustained infrastructure serving compulsory public education is relatively recent, having only been established in the last 50 years (see Henchey, 1987; Milner, 1986, for in depth history and critique). Prior to the 1960s, Quebec was primarily a rural society, and public education was under the authority of Catholic and Protestant committees. Higher education was accessible primary only by the privileged and by a larger percentage of English than French Quebecers (Milner, 1986). There was little immigration, and the clear division between the majority (the little-educated rural inhabitants) and the minority (the more cosmopolitan urban middle classes) was sustained in part by the very low immigration rate at the time.

The 1960's, however, saw cultural transformation globally, and considerable geo-cultural movement and social change in Quebec. In 1963 what is commonly known as the Parent Report, was commissioned, leading to radical reform (Commission royale d'enquête sur l'enseignement dans la province de Québec & Parent, 1965). Elements of this reform, among others, included the creation of a Quebec Ministry of Education, obligatory schooling up to the age of 16, and the creation of CEGEPS (Colleges d'enseignement

general et professional - post-secondary colleges which offer career and pre-university programs) replacing the classical colleges historically run by the clerics as well as other post-secondary institutions and somewhat regulating differences between the pathways to university in the Catholic and Protestant sectors (for a more detailed discussion see Edwards, 1990). Of most importance here is that it was at that time that Quebec mandated greater stringency in teacher preparation, and also took steps to increase access to university to all, regardless of social circumstance.

Current Structural Issues

The designation of education in Canada as a provincial jurisdiction means that the systems vary across provincial boundaries. In Quebec today, the Ministry of Education is responsible for a broad range of services, including the school curriculum itself and support to various constituencies. The Ministry determines the curriculum, certifies teachers, and provides services to particular groups (for example there exist services as wide-reaching as "Preparation and Certification of Teaching Personnel", and "Services to Cultural Communities").   To this already complex university-ministry dyad, which necessarily involves university – ministry collaboration, a third player must be added for accreditation. In Quebec there is no professional order as exists in other provinces, rather the accreditation of teacher preparation programs in Quebec is ensured by CAPFE ([Comité d'agrément des programmes de formation à l'enseignement](#)), an arms' length body comprised of representatives from across the spectrum of stakeholders - schools, school boards, universities, and ministry representatives, and accreditation is awarded for up to five years.

Human Resource and Continuity Issues

Stability is an elusive element against any dynamic backdrop, not the least in the field of education today. Inter-institutional collaboration and cooperation is reliant upon individuals working together (Bolden, Petrov & Gosling, 2008; Burke, 2010). It takes a considerable investment of time and energy to navigate one's way around institutions such as Ministries of Education and universities, and of course, there are constant changes in personnel and the organisation of internal structures to deal with as well. This has been a particular factor in our work over the past years. Between September 2007 and September 2008, for example, the Faculty of Education at McGill was under the leadership of three Deans (outgoing, interim and incoming).   The head of the unit within the Ministry of

Education responsible for teacher certification also changed leadership a number of times during the development of the MATL, most notably just after the initial accreditation of the MATL. Finally, since 2005 there were four Ministers of Education within the Liberal government, and now a fifth in the new Parti Québécois government.

This context has created a difficult climate for us for a number of reasons. First, living memory is diminished with the transfer or retirement of each figurehead, regardless of institution. This means that discussions, agreements, approvals and planning completed amongst one set of players is often challenged when one leaves and another arrives on the scene. Second, a very bottom-heavy power dynamic is created when new administrators step into non-familiar contexts. As it is very rare for there to be much, if any mentoring or training of new heads of units, it remains nonetheless the reality that while retaining decision-making power, they are entirely reliant upon their subordinates to not only guide them along the learning path but also to provide solutions and to a lesser (or in some instances greater) extent inform or even make decisions.

This turnover rate, together with the complexity of the educational system itself (see discussion of population and demographics above), and the position of the Ministry of Education as a separate institutional body from the school boards, the universities and the accrediting body, means that the field of education is highly vulnerable in terms of its ability to ensure consistency and coherence across the various structural stakeholders and constituents.

Resource Tensions

Global Context- The University Context

It is no secret that educational budgets globally are under siege, and that institutions are struggling to meet their goals in terms of quality and accessibility of education. This is nowhere more poignant a reality than in Quebec, where the spring of 2012 has seen a massive mobilization of college and university student protests against the Quebec government's proposed tuition hikes, currently sitting at the bottom of the provincial tuition levels. While the protest is vocal and current, the reality of diminishing resources for education in Quebec universities is not. Budget cutbacks have been the annual reality since the early 1990s, and never have the universities struggled so hard to maintain their standards

while sustaining what amounts to annual resource reductions. Current measures include attempts to reduce costs in every possible place, from buildings to cafeterias to programs. One place in which such reductions are urgently felt is on the ground, where the replacement of support staff occurs at a mere 50% (which means that for every two departures, only one position is filled). This is the backdrop against which our MATL was built.

Starting up the MATL Concurrently with the Existing B.Ed.

Our drive to design, approve, and implement the MATL was strong. We wanted not only to play a role as a Quebec English university responding to the urgent need for certified teachers in the province and globally, but we also believed in the tenets supporting this program (from the UPR report) and also felt that it was timely. We did not want to miss the window that had presented itself. This meant that we finalized the development in fall 2009, flew through an accelerated approval process in spring 2010, in March received a one-year accreditation for the only option permitted by the Ministry of Education, a program exclusively for those currently teaching without certification, and launched the first cohort of 30 students at our summer institute in July of that same year. This is record speed for an institution such as ours, which is known for the many levels of approval required (at last count, 10 committee levels), which can result in considerable delays. That summer the government announced that universities could apply for approval for programs not restricted exclusively to non-certified teachers, and so we completed that process in December 2010. This meant that the July 2011 Institute welcomed two types of students, those currently teaching on contract without teacher certification and those seeking to obtain teacher certification in order to pursue a career in teaching but without a teaching contract. Our third year saw a doubling of student numbers meaning two cohorts and new challenges in staffing and coordinating course sections. In this third year, we also graduated of our students from the program.

During all of this time, however, no additional funds were allocated. The speed, the momentum, and the enormous responsibility and activity that fell on the shoulders of those involved meant that faith prevailed (the funds would come eventually) while additional resources failed to materialize. While we agree that we have capitalized on the momentum, and would do it the same if given another chance, it is nonetheless the reality that this

program was designed, approved, administered and delivered with no additional resources, while at the same time our existing teacher preparation program (the four-year B.Ed.) continued to support approximately 1400 full-time students. While efforts are currently underway to finalize the business plan required in order for us to harness the resources that will hopefully not only cover costs incurred thus far, but also ensure longer-term program security if that is possible, it is nonetheless the reality that the human cost paid thus far is significant. Workloads increased, inquiries flowed with only a portion receiving attention, and a climate of "tension" prevailed overall.

Program Design Tensions

We are critical in the best sense of the word of our four-year undergraduate teacher education programs. Although we are confident that we graduate teachers who are well prepared for the realities of teaching – we constantly seek to revise and improve. We are well aware of what works and what doesn't in our bachelor of education programs and, as noted earlier in this paper, through regular program evaluations and reviews (e.g. Riches & Benson, 2011; Office of the Associate Dean, 2009) we have defined a clear path for re-thinking and re-visioning our teacher education programs. The needs of any program, of course, evolve and change overtime, and we are constantly assessing and readjusting based on feedback from our stakeholders.

We re-started the design and proposal of our current MATL with the hope that Ministry of Education restrictions with regard to subject area and employment would become less exclusive. As noted previously, our faith was rewarded as shortly after we began our planning this second time around, the Ministry of Education agreed that the additional subject areas of Social Sciences, English Language Arts and English or French as a Second Language could be included as program streams. As noted earlier, coinciding with our inaugural launch of the program, the condition that applicants needed to have a teaching contract was lifted by the outgoing Minister of Education.

We began in earnest to design our MATL program, however, given the short timeline from development to launch, we also had to work with the constraints of existing resources and structures. The reality in our institution, due to the limited financial and human resources as mentioned elsewhere in this paper, was that we would need to grow our new MATL program while maintaining the current B.Ed. programs and enrolment numbers.

However, mainly in response to the constraints stated above, rather than re-inventing completely, we designed the MATL using our existing B.Ed. program as a framework and seriously re-visioned it to achieve the different goals of the MATL program in response to the specific needs of the students. For example, while in our initial design of the program we envisioned a thematic approach which broke free from three credit course constraints, in the program which went forward, we needed to incorporate existing graduate level courses. Foundational courses were identified and we mirrored the content, objectives and outcomes of these courses in graduate level equivalents. Part of our reasoning was that if growth and enrolment in the new program proved to be low in certain areas, we could opt to cross-list undergraduate and graduate courses. We also deemed these foundational courses to meet the 'relevant and rigorous' curriculum standard. In the end, there has been no need to cross-list courses. Most of the foundational courses translated well to a graduate level, and others, through feedback from instructors and students, presented themselves as candidates for the second phase of revision, where we subsumed certain content into other courses. For example, the content in a course on classroom practices was subsumed into a professional seminar – which made sense in terms of encouraging theory to practice links.

While logically it made sense that the MATL needed to prove itself as a viable and successful model for teacher education before reducing numbers in our existing teacher education programs, running two programs at once has created a tension and strain on already over-burdened resources. In addition, we set ourselves the ambitious goal of beginning admission to and the launch of our new program for the upcoming academic year (a daunting feat given the myriad levels of approval needed both in-house and at the level of the Ministry of Education).

In the design of our MATL program we were able to act upon recommendations such as cohort design, the addition of a more defined research focus and deliberate scheduling of courses and field experiences to promote theory to practice links from the onset (recommendations equally applicable to our B.Ed. programs. A smaller set of courses also allows for more focused course and program coordination meetings, to ensure consistency and coherence across the program. Due the student intake of 30 in our first year of the program, we were able to realize some elements of a cohort model (Kosnik & Beck, 2006; Zeichner & Noffke, 2001). However, achieving the full benefits of a cohort model, through involving a small team of faculty, for example, has been somewhat more challenging

– not due to lack of engagement or interest, but as a result of introducing the program when workload had already been allocated as well as the resource implications of running two both B.Ed. and MATL programs in tandem with no adjustment for student intake.

The Ministry has mandated 12 professional exit competencies (Government of Québec, Gauthier, Raymond & Martinet, 2001) to underpin all teacher education programs in Quebec and CAPFE, our accrediting body, examines our program in terms of how we include, address and assess the development of the competencies in our courses. This provides us with a coherent set of assessment standards across the program. The challenges in ensuring that the competencies are included in productive and coherent ways across the program have proven to be easier, in comparison to the same challenges in our B.Ed. programs, due to the smaller size and newness of the program. These factors facilitate the ability to accommodate all instructors at formal coordination meetings.

The newness of the program and courses allows for a more deliberate commitment to issues of social justice, diversity and equity in student thinking, writing, discussion and practice in schools. The inclusion of a capstone project in the program is intended to serve as an integrating piece throughout the program and also adds a component more in keeping with graduate studies. Students identify an area of professional interest either in the broad landscape of teaching and learning or directly related to their subject specialty (Zeichner & Noffke, 2001), and develop a project around that interest. Providing the support for students, and understanding by students, for this inquiry-focused initiative has proven to be a challenge, partly in encouraging students to take ownership and appreciate the importance and value of such a requirement, and also in terms of resources. While we situated the supervisory responsibility for the capstone in the professional seminars, we are well aware that assigning individual supervisors might serve students better.

Owing to the initial constraint of a program for non-certified teachers teaching on contract, all courses are offered intensively in the summer and in the fall and winter terms in the evenings or on-line. Fortunately, and obviously, through this schedule of course delivery, the integration of theory and practice and support of the field experience is seamless, as courses are always offered concurrent with the field experience. While we have made inroads to achieve this in the larger B.Ed. programs (again, approximately 450 students per year), the cohort size of 30 and set up of the MATL program provides a structure in which the integration has no choice but to occur. Most deliberately we scheduled the professional

seminar concurrent to the field experience, and devised an embedded model for our methods courses, which is elaborated on in the section on praxis below.

While there were tensions created by developing our MATL program using the frame of our existing B.Ed. programs, this plan allowed us to serve the needs of our stakeholders in a very timely fashion and did allow us the opportunity to immediately build in changes and innovations.

Praxis Tensions

We have previously alluded to the short time line in which the MATL was assembled, presented to the necessary accrediting bodies and launched in 2010. We have also written of the energy, excitement and perhaps necessary naiveté that enabled the key players to get that work accomplished. Part of that work rested with the Office of Student Teaching (OST), a small office made up of a director and three placement officers. The OST oversees all aspects of the four field experiences (one in each of the four years of the programs) for approximately 1400 student teachers annually. In late 2010 we were faced with the reality of having to support the two MATL internships in addition, an added strain on an already over-burdened and under-resourced office. Whilst the initial cohort of MATL students wasn't overwhelming in number and those students were teaching on contract (meaning that a field placement did not need to be found), the OST was keenly aware of the work that needed to be accomplished in a very short time-frame without causing any disruption to "business as usual". While field placements did not need to be secured in this first year, supervision and assessment protocols needed to be developed and a different relationship with the school partners needed to be established. To provide some sense of what was involved in preparing our school partners for the MATL and its first cohort of students, we rapidly set about consulting with our school partners, designing and aligning assessment materials with our Ministry of Education mandated exit professional competencies, composing accompanying communication materials aimed at the various partners, and planning how best to support cooperating teachers in host schools and their administrators, and our own university field supervisors (Caruso, 1998). Planning such as this requires an interesting blend of experience, imagination and fortitude. Those attributes served us well. What they did not do was allow us to predict some of the surprising tensions that emerged in the field and within the ranks of some of our partners.

When the MATL information campaign was rolled out, along with all the associated and newly designed assessment materials, the OST encountered a certain element of cynicism from some of our partners in the field that we were not prepared for. Perhaps the "new kid on the block" has to expect to be asked to jump through some hoops in order to be accepted, but we were taken-aback by this response, and understandably disappointed. Responding to our critics in the field, with the MATL not yet underway, who intimated that we were doing nothing more than gussying up the existing secondary B.Ed. Program in order to satisfy the Ministry of Education requirement for teacher certification, was challenging. It seemed at times that no matter the quality or quantity of the information shared, or how often we pointed out the difference between the B.Ed. and MATL in terms of depth, breadth and expectation of attainment of the 12 professional exit competencies, we were unable to change the mindset in certain quarters. This state of affairs was somewhat surprising given that a program along the lines of the MATL had been requested previously by many in the field.

In the second year of the MATL, once the Ministry of Education policy had shifted with regard to the 'teaching contract' condition of admission and we admitted students who did not have teaching contracts (some with no prior formal teaching experience), we were faced with the challenge of needing to accommodate a sudden increase in the need for student teaching placements. It was difficult to predict what placements we would need to secure. Compounding this challenge was that the contract statuses of MATL students were also subject to change, or students without a teaching contract were offered teaching contracts in other schools whilst undertaking internships. To say that these situations caused us and the field no end of headaches is putting it mildly. It was also another strain to our already fragile system. Of greater impact in the field was the difference in the background knowledge of approximately 50% of the second MATL cohort (those without teaching experience) –who were sent into the field for their first internship in the fall of 2011. Suddenly, we were hearing from the field that these students were not as well prepared as the field had been lead to believe (and experienced with the first MATL cohort of students). While we rose to the immediate test by providing additional supervisory support in the field to these students, and communicating different expectations to the field – the damage was done, and a painful lesson learned.

Now that the MATL is into its third year, the quality of the program, as recognized and heralded by our accrediting bodies, the Ministry of Education and CAPFE, and by our partners in the field, along with the performance of our MATL students and our stakeholders' familiarity with the program, has stemmed the cynicism and negativity. We are also aware that embracing change can be difficult – especially change that is introduced rapidly. Program change of any description places an added burden on school administrators, cooperating teachers and university field supervisors as they struggle to fully grasp the differences and how that will impact them (Harwell & Moore, 2010). Attending information workshops takes time and resources – as does reading though materials – no matter how succinctly put together. And as new programs evolve, as they must, with rapidity and responsiveness, this adds to the work our partners need to do in order to support and engage with us. In our experience to date with the MATL, the importance of communication, repetition and sincere understanding cannot be understated. Nor can a thick skin and a sense of perspective.

As we planned for the third influx of MATL students, we added three weeks to the first MATL internship for all new students whether or not they were teaching on contract without teacher certification and no matter their prior teaching experience. This has resulted in the need to redesign the model and materials for assessment that allow for a more gradual implementation and demonstration of the required professional competencies (Edwin, 2004). This in turn required revised communication materials and once again, our partners in the field were asked to understand and adopt yet another change. Our field supervisors also required preparation on implementing and supporting this change in the field. These steps will, we trust, put to rest most of the tensions in the field resulting from previous and initial expectations. This will not however, make our work in designing the MATL with the goal of helping all our students to become exemplary teachers, any less formidable.

The inescapable irony in the question emanating from the field in the early days of the MATL "what are you doing creating a two-tiered system?" is that the MATL was brought about in response to a perceived acute shortage of certified teachers in certain subject areas as articulated by school boards to the Ministry of Education . The rather obvious answer, that there have always been different pathways to accreditation, was clearly insufficient to address the criticism and feelings bordering on betrayal that emerged from

some quarters. Word reached our ears that cooperating teachers in schools harboured concerns they would be replaced by the very MATL students they would be encouraged to mentor. There was talk of unfavorable comparisons being drawn in school staff rooms between undergraduate credentials and those of the MATL. Rumour ran rife that teachers without a Master's degree, even those with many years of experience as cooperating teachers, would be denied the opportunity to mentor and assess MATL student teachers. School administrators called our office wanting advice on how to avoid possible tensions that might erupt if both undergraduate and MATL students were placed in their schools during over-lapping field experiences/internships (in a shrinking English sector where every school placement is desperately needed). Field supervisors felt, understandably, that in their role as university program "ambassadors", they would be on the hot seat and made dire predictions about the barrage of questions that would be leveled at them by undergraduate student teachers who saw the MATL students as a direct threat in a competitive job market. They were clairvoyant. Supervisors wondered on what basis they would be selected to supervise the MATL student teachers and if this would create a divisive hierarchy within their close ranks. The OST occasionally fielded an irate call from a school board union representative calling us to task about the potential unfairness of the MATL to their existing membership and our recent B.Ed. graduates, and the headaches we were causing them.

To report that all those concerns have disappeared would be an exaggeration, or wishful thinking. They have diminished greatly as the MATL program has found its legs and proven it can co-exist in the schools with the undergraduate programs, albeit not without the occasional friction. Preparing for the MATL as quickly as we did, and the ongoing nurturing the program demands, at times necessitating a certain neglect of the other, established programs, has taken a toll on the OST. Having insufficient resources for such an undertaking does not help the process of understanding and responding to the sorts of tensions in the field referred to above. On a positive note, with time we have made headway and learned a great deal in the process.

As we planned the MATL we were acutely conscious of ensuring opportunities for theory to practice links that would be robust and explicitly supported. The MATL "embedded methods courses" required close collaboration with and support from the OST in terms of what that ethos asked of our partner schools, cooperating teachers and field

supervisors. The design of the embedded methods courses was such that a three week period of time in the middle of 10 week internship was dedicated to a focus on instructional subject-specific methodologies, exclusive of any formal assessment by the cooperating teacher or field supervisor. This created its own set of tensions. Certain cooperating teachers felt that their role was being usurped by the university course instructors, even when they were involved in the course and communicating with the instructor (Koster, Korthangen & Wubbels, 1998). Some, supported by their school administrators, chastised the model for "watering down" existing program expectations by allowing MATL student teachers to have free reign for three weeks in their classrooms. Teachers and school administrators told us that we were risking confusing pupils and setting them back by using the classroom to "experiment" with different approaches to curriculum. Adding to the tension was that the MATL students were engaging in tasks such as recording their teaching, inviting other MATL students and teachers to observe them trying out different approaches in their classrooms, and in some cases, using their spare periods to engage in professional conversations with course instructors. Understandably, the field component design of this course, with its success contingent on the support of teachers and schools, was difficult for many to embrace. (See Falkenberg and Smits (2010), and Falkenberg (2010) for further discussion on the challenges and rewards of innovative field experience design in Canada.) Field supervisors too did not take kindly to being asked to steer clear of their MATL student teachers during this three week period. They were concerned that "their" MATL students would be getting yet more, and possibly conflicting, feedback on their teaching from the course instructors. They felt uncomfortable explaining this different approach to their undergraduate charges in the same school who were being assessed on a weekly basis during their field experience. Needless to say, trying to address these tensions took a great deal of time and our efforts were not always well received. Perhaps one lesson learned is that new programs offer the exciting opportunity to beget new approaches to courses. Such approaches can be unsettling and received negatively, and it behooves us to adopt a more inclusive approach to such initiatives.

A critical chapter has yet to unfold however, that being when the MATL students hit the job market in force. Some of those individuals who were teaching on contract and needing to acquire certification or lose their jobs will simply be kept on by their schools.

Others will most certainly be vying for jobs alongside our B.Ed. graduates. That reality will certainly present its own set of challenges and tensions. Time will tell if there will be negative fallout about the MATL. It is obvious that there is a difference in preparation and on paper between our B.Ed. and MATL graduates. We remain convinced however, that choice is a good thing when it comes to selecting pathways to teacher certification. We are equally confident that those in the position of hiring new teachers look for the best candidate, and that goal offers the same opportunity to all our graduates.

Applicant Pool Tensions

As mentioned previously, this program was created in the first instance exclusively for those teaching on contract in schools without teacher certification, in order to provide an expedited pathway to certification. We embarked upon this program creation with the very best of intentions, and in a mindset that aimed at serving the needs of the teaching community. Over a number of years, from the first indications that a post-bachelor degree program might be approved by the Ministry, we had been keeping lists of potential applicants with completed bachelor degrees, some teaching on contract without certification, others simply wanting to pursue a degree leading to teacher certification. We also had been in communication with various school boards to determine how many teachers they had teaching on contract without teacher certification.

The moment we received approval of our MATL program by our accreditation body, we opened the application process, notified our list of potential applicants and sent communiqués to all of our school board partners. In a very short timeframe we received 100 applications and began our review process. As this is a graduate level program, certain criteria were set by the Graduate and Post-doctoral Studies Office, such as a minimum cumulative grade point average in all previous studies. Other criteria were set by the Ministry of Education such as a required 45 credits in the subject area in which certification is being sought. This along with the standard letters of intent, curriculum vitas and letters of reference completed the application profiles that we were presented with to interpret and assess. The challenges we experienced in this process were quite unexpected. While there were a good number of applicants who met our criteria, a surprising number of applicants did not meet the CPGA minimum requirement. There were also many applicants who did

not possess 45 credits of background in the applied for subject area. While this was somewhat disappointing, the decision on these files was straightforward. The unexpected tension, however, came from the expectations of some of our applicants and their employers. As the program existed, some non-certified teachers on teaching contracts were informed by their schools that they could not be rehired unless they were enrolled in a program leading to certification – and they were not eligible for acceptance. An additional challenge had to do with a mismatch of subject area background to the actually held teaching position. Ministry of Education regulations dictate, and rightly so, that the internships need to be in the subject area for which certification will be granted. The reality of following this regulation is that teachers would have to leave a salaried position to complete a non-paid internship. The final challenge was that some individuals, while they *did have* a teaching contract at the time of application –they were *not offered* a contract for the coming school year. Furthermore, the human element of highly anxious applicants fearing that contracts would not be renewed unless they were admitted into the MATL programmed sent stress-levels sky-rocketing for all involved.

In retrospect, as we were delving into a situation fraught with exceptions and inconsistencies, tensions should have been expected. Our program was constructed upon current standards and theoretical principles for entrance to teacher education programs, and initially we were dealing with teachers arriving from the other side of the needs and realities of the shortages in the schools.

So – we have come very near full circle. We started the development of this program first and foremost with a desire to respond to the expressed "real-world" situation of shortages within the professional education milieu – "the field" – and, not only time and again throughout the process, but particularly in this example involving the student-teachers themselves, we were confronted with the realities of the milieu.

Conclusion: Complex and enduring tensions

Of course, all teacher education programs are evolving toward that elusive moving target of best practices within global contexts, and with this comes the strident need for education to respond to challenges resulting from urgent 21st Century phenomena: global economics, immigration (with critical challenges related to language and cultural issues), emergent family and social contexts, and the proliferation and growing capacity of

technology, to name a few. Challenges abound. That said, some of our most difficult challenges have been and continue to be responding to repeated changes in decision-makers at the Ministry of Education; miscommunication in regard to ownership of the process leading to teacher certification; resources that have yet to materialize, and of course building and sustaining a dedicated team of MATL support staff, instructors and mentors.

The local reality in terms of demographics in English Quebec is that, for the time being at least, McGill's teacher graduates are basically serving a shrinking English population in Quebec, although some graduates plan to, and end up teaching outside of Quebec. The issues linked to budgetary restraints noted above are far from resolved, and global realities suggest that in order for programs to be responsive to global imperatives while attracting much-needed resources, they need to enhance their capacity for on-line delivery. In Canada, this is overlaid by the Agreement on Internal Trade (Internal Trade Secretariat, 2011), which ensures professional mobility across provincial jurisdictions. Despite this growing list, we have tossed our hats into the ring with this new program, knowing full well that all such initiatives are inevitably in permanent evolution.

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Chapter 18

Reimagining Teacher Education: Our Ongoing Story

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Our reimagining of teacher education is an ongoing story, a work-in-progress. As teacher educators, we have enacted an alternative program structure for a cohort within the general program for two consecutive years. This alternative program structure is becoming a model of teacher education practice for all those who participate. The paper begins with a formed/forming image of teacher education in theory, and then moves into the design and structuring of the alternative program. Finally, we theorize about the effectiveness of this alternative structure for our teacher education practices. Our reimagining of teacher education includes the agency of teacher candidates, the valuing of their personal professional knowledge and their potential to shape their teaching identities in response and in resistance to their experiences in the alternative program.

Introduction

Our reimagining of teacher education is an ongoing story, a work-in-progress. At our institution, the quality of the pre-service teacher education program is under review, with the intent of pursing a potential reform agenda. After more than a year of intensive work by an internal review committee, drawing on data collected from students and faculty, various concerns with our teacher education program were identified. Not surprisingly, we identified concerns, also reported in teacher education literature, such as a lack of integration of university course work and practicum field experiences, and lack of opportunities for collaboration. This synchronicity between our internal review and teacher education

scholarship provided a process for our reimagining teacher education. To be sure and to be honest, this imagining was not an immediate realization, but rather emerged over time and gradually coalesced as we enacted alternatives within our teacher education program. Thus, this paper is a story in reverse, where we begin with the image and then fill in our efforts to reform our practice as teacher educators.

At this time, the story told primarily from our perspective as teacher educators working with teacher candidates. It is a future story to generate formalized data informing the lived experiences of teacher candidates enrolled in our program. We will describe our imaginings of teacher education, built around the notion of personal professional knowledge landscapes and teacher identity. Then we describe an alternative approach to structuring the learning experiences of teacher candidates, which we have enacted for two cohorts of K-8 education students. We then draw further on teacher education literature to build a theoretical possibility of the potency of our vision. What makes this story interesting, we believe, is that it is our story, in progress, of reimagining teacher education through structuring learning experiences in relation to perception of teacher candidates as agentic collaborative participants in their education

Our Reimagining of Teacher Education

Teacher education traditionally mirrors the dominant values of the culture in which it is embedded (Ladson-Billings, 2005); Reid & O'Donoghue, 2004). Resisting these dominant values is also inherent in the process of teacher education (Dewey, 1938; Fine, 1994). Teacher candidates enter an education program with particular experiences of schooling that inform their traditional (Korathagen, 2004) and alternative (Britzman, 1991) beliefs about education. Unlike other professional careers, teacher candidates have been immersed in educational experiences since a young age, participating in the profession as learners. Their familiarity with the educational context (Nieto, 2004) supports and impedes their learning.

Like other students in professional schools, teacher candidates enter an education program with an identity and an intention. However, there is a greater overlap between the personal and professional identities of teacher candidates than for other professions. Teacher

education has been influenced by this conflation of personal and professional identities of teachers. Thus, the humanistic approach of the 70's focused on self actualization as part of teacher education. Later, the influence of post structural feminism on teacher educators, involved teacher candidates in an examination of self, from within a social context that included the constructions of race, gender, class and ability (Adams, Bell & Griffin, 1997; Ellsworth, 1989; Lather, 1991). The understanding of identity as socially constructed and still agentic has had significant influence on teacher education pedagogy.

Our imaginings of teacher education include the teacher candidate as a participant in a collaborative, personal and professional process. This process resists individualism as a core value. Benhabib (1992) stated (as cited in Brydon & Coleman, 2008, p. 3),

> The 'I' becomes an 'I' only among a 'we', in a community of speech and action. Individuation does not precede association; rather it is the kinds of associations which we inhabit that define the kinds of individuals we will become. (p. 71)

In structuring a teacher education program, it is our belief that the "kinds of associations", or social interactions, which teacher candidates experience are central. These interactions support the development of a teaching identity grounded in collaboration and community, and interrogate the boundaries between theory and practice. This collaborative process amplifies individual inquiry into teaching.

Connolly and Clandinin's (1988) curriculum theory understands curriculum as experience, with an interest in the moral, aesthetic and emotional content of experience. Teaching experiences include people, things and processes, as well as a temporal aspect. A teaching experience or situation is connected to the past and to the future and a narrative of that experience provides connections. Connolly and Clandinin (1988) view curriculum as the interaction of all these parts: "The past shapes our future through the medium of a situation, and the future shapes the past through the stories we tell to account for and explain our situation" (p. 9). Their curriculum theory is situated in teaching identity, described as the teacher's personal professional knowledge landscape.

By situating individual experiences in social contexts, we can imagine spaces for extending the personal professional knowledge of teacher candidates. When the focus in teacher education is the experience of an individual teacher (Clandinin, 1986; Ross, 2003), the social context of that teacher is described, but is not necessarily interrogated. We imagine that inquiry includes a critique of self and other within social contexts structured by a teacher education program. Teacher candidates discover and inspect their individual assumptions about teaching and learning within multiple physical locations and intellectual spaces and among a community of learners. The social context of teaching and learning is central where program structures are designed to amplify and analyze the experiences of teacher candidates as individuals and as collectives.

Traditionally, teacher education programs include two physically defined education landscapes, the field (the location of practice) and the university (the location of theory). These two landscapes are also metaphorically defined as disparate. The field and the university are separate spaces of experience. The program structures, that we imagine, support an integration of field experience and coursework, of practice and theory. In particular, teacher candidate experience is a privileged space for teacher identity making. Such identity making is more than opportunities for teacher candidates to apply theory to practice. Rather, teacher candidates develop their identity as emerging teachers through opportunities to analyze both theory as an educational lens for interpreting practice, and personal theory building/refining based on practice. The basis of this developmental process is collaborative experience. The structures of a teacher education program can and should contextualize this development of teacher candidates.

There are still physically separate locations, the field and university, where educators can design learning experiences for teacher candidates, but our program structures reject the metaphorical separation of these experiences. University coursework is the location for encountering and developing educational theory. It can also be labelled as the past, the place that is informed by the thinkers of the past. Within the university location, the present engagement of the students with those theories, each other and the professor(s) is also occurring. This engagement moves with the teacher candidates to the field, the second location of discourse and shared experience. Potentially, these discussions are connected across field and university locations, partly through collaborative structures between the field

and university, and partly through communication among all participating teacher educators (e.g., co-operating teachers, university instructors, faculty advisors). We imagine that an interactive approach to curriculum (Applebee, 1994) emerges because of the increased across-location interactions fostered by program structures. The intellectual landscape encompasses both field and university locations and the interactions between them. In all spaces, theory is connected to experience. These are not just the individual teacher candidate experiences, but also shared experiences of the teaching partners and of the school group contextualized by the participating teacher educators. These experiences and discussions can be carried back-and-forth between university coursework and the field. The spaces for experience of the program are designed with permeable boundaries. As teacher candidates move through these spaces, their personal professional knowledge can be stretched; their teaching identities are experienced as more permeable, flexible and responsive to the dynamic complexity of teaching.

An Alternative Structure Emerges from Listening to Students

In this section, we describe an alternative program structure for organizing the learning experiences of teacher candidates, informed by our internal review. It is our listening to the voices of teacher candidates, captured by the program review, which triggered and informed the development of an Alternative Program Structure. Later in the paper, we will try to theorize about the potency of this alternative structure for reimagining our teacher education practices. We begin with some specific contexts where teacher candidates lived as they informed our internal review of the program. Our alternative program is built on the most salient features of these contexts.

There are several teacher education programs at our institution, including a two year after degree program and a five year integrated program with the streams in early years (grades K-4), middle years (grades 5-8), early/middle years, and senior years. Education students are placed into a cohort for their entire program, based on the stream and degree type. The existing structure largely consists of two general features: (1) general and subject specific methods courses slotted in a condensed nine week university timetable, and (2) practicum in a school one day per week during university courses and a teaching block after each nine

week block of courses. The two year program is split into four terms, each structured by the above two features. Courses change between terms is largely based on subject-specific methods. Year one focuses on K-4 both in course work and practicum placement. Year two is a carbon copy structure with the grades 5-8 content plugged-in. For example, one half-course on mathematics teaching methods is offered in the first year and another in the second year. These two half courses focus on curriculum, instruction and assessment practices in grades K-4 and 5-8, respectively. The same structure is used for all subject based methods courses.

The voices of teacher candidates, who lived this program structure, were captured in the program review. The following quote from a final year teacher candidate represents some of the concerns.

> *The classes that I was taking in the first term of this year gave me no methods that I could apply to the classroom that I am in. These classes had nothing to do with the type of classroom that I was placed in. The practicum setting is a huge source of learning, and I would much rather learn hands-on in the practicum, than learn nothing in class. 90% of assignments that we are given can be completed in the first week of class. They take much longer than that to complete, but we do not need to be in class for more than a day to be able to competently complete them. This makes the whole term a complete waste of time (and very stressful). Assignments should be geared towards preparing us for our blocks. Allow us to plan our units, assignments, daily plans, etc. This would be way better. I do not know if it would be beneficial to come to the university during the block, but it would be nice to meet with students within my practicum school, or at least in the school division (rural) to discuss our experiences. Even if we met once a week, or every two weeks, this would be helpful. If students were placed in schools in pairs (2 from each major), then they could continually meet with each other and give one another support and help.*

The above quote reflected teacher candidates' frustration about little relevance of university coursework's content and assignments to their practicum experiences. The teacher candidates expected that university coursework would provide more support in developing instructional materials applicable during practice teaching at schools.

The following quote provides further information about the teacher candidate perceptions of the relationship between university-based theory and field-based practice.

> *I feel that the courses were helpful in understanding children but I just don't feel prepared to actually implement the theories we have learned about. In the actual classroom there is just not enough time to test and try the theories.*

Again, the emphasis is on application. Although the teacher candidate acknowledged the value of educational theory about child psychology as a lens for interpreting practice, she still expected the immediate instrumental application of this theory to practice. It could be argued that our traditional teacher education structure reinforces the linear conception of the relation between theory and practice. In terms of personal, professional knowledge landscapes, the lived experiences of teacher candidates include a strong narrative of seeking opportunities to make sense of practice by practicing theory.

In addition to the problems with the alignment between field practicum and university coursework, teacher candidates reported various other concerns. In particular, they were anxious about classroom management and lesson delivery to a classroom of children. The teacher candidates perceived the content of courses within and across terms and years as repetitious. They expressed concerns about the lack of elective courses, the insufficient coverage of assessment practices and excessive workload (perhaps exacerbated by perceived irrelevance of university coursework). The teacher candidates felt that they did not learn enough about teaching in the inner city schools despite the apparent program mandate to devote sufficient time to this topic. They saw mismatch between university instructors' claims about the need for differentiated instruction and the lack of it in their own courses. The teacher candidates disliked overly long blocks in the coursework timetable. On the positive side, teacher candidates indicated they valued the cohort structure and opportunities to work with other teacher candidates during the practicum block. They appreciated working with peers, as a resource, support, and sounding board for their ideas.

Of the many issues emerging from the internal review of our program, we decided to focus on three, namely, the fragmentation of practicum and course work experiences, the desire of teacher candidates to work closely with their peers, and anxiety of teacher candidates concerning solo teaching due to perceived inadequacies to manage a classroom. This focus reflects our emerging reimagining of teacher education as a collaborative process among teacher candidates, teacher educators and the field. Teacher education literature is replete with calls for closing the gap between theory and practice (Darling-Hammond, 2006), and the importance of collaborative learning communities (Borko, 2004; Campbell, 2012; Levin & Rock, 2003; Webster-Wright, 2009). This focus also emerged from the pragmatic question, 'What was possible to work on within the existing program at our institution?'

An alternative program structure of integrated and collaborative course work and practicum experience was devised for one cohort of students with the intention to respond to the three issues noted above. The changes were made only in the structure of the first year of the two-year after-degree program for the early/middle stream cohort of teacher candidates.

At the core of the alternative program structure is the "Foundations of Teaching and Learning" (FTL) course. This full-credit, two-term course is a part of the traditional program. It covers general topics concerning theories about teaching (e.g., backward design, success for all learners, positive behaviour programs), learning (e.g., Bronfenbrenner, Vygotsky), and foundations (e.g., progressive and essentialist philosophies of schooling). We retooled the course to be the focal point of an alternative program structure intended to articulate university course work with designed practicum experiences.

As the personal professional knowledge landscape of teacher candidates already includes a strong narrative of seeking opportunities to make sense of practice by practicing theory, we sought to expand this landscape with two kinds of experience within the FTL course, namely, theory building/refining based on practice and theory as a lens for interpreting practice. A key structure of the course is to guide teacher candidate's observations of and reflection on practice, using sets of observation questions for their weekly visits to their practicum schools. These observation questions were intended to cue

teacher candidates' thoughts about their spaces of educational experience with a focus on a specific topic that would be considered during the FTL course.

We deliberately designed opportunities for teacher candidates to view theory as a lens. Teacher candidates, for example, were asked to interview a child at their placement school, using a short learning theory assessment that cued conversations concerning how children make sense of the world. We are mapping a learning theory landscape where teacher candidates can explore ideas developed by Piaget (e.g., scheme, accommodation, assimilation) and Vygotsky (e.g., zone of proximal development). These ideas became an opportunity to interpret how children might make sense of the world. Instead of direct application, learning theory is used by teacher candidates here as a lens for making sense of their observations of practice.

We also deliberately designed opportunities for teacher candidates to build and refine their theories of practice. For example, teacher candidates were asked to observe some of the relationship building practices of their co-operating teachers. In sharing these observations with others and in relating these reflections to theories such as Glasser's connectedness (i.e., a classroom learning environment developed by a teacher seeking to build connections with students, rather than control them), teacher candidates began to flesh out the nature and importance of relationship building. Connectedness becomes more than an "obvious" theory of what good teachers do; rather, teacher candidate's landscape of lived experience, populated by notions of friendship and relationship, becomes enhanced with opportunities to build and refine personal and professional understandings of how teachers create effective learning environments through relationships.

The alternative program structure also includes a commitment to establishing and supporting ongoing collaborative learning communities (CLC). We view CLCs as spaces for learners to safely and critically examine their own and the teaching spaces of others under the guidance of mentors. The two main qualities of effective CLCs are that they are safe and critical places for dialogue (Darling, 2001). They must be safe so that dialogue can begin and be supported. CLCs must be critical to ensure a meaningful dialogue that moves beyond the familiar and challenges participants to non-trivially reflect on theirs' and others' practices. Our CLC's aim is to provide teacher candidates with an opportunity to examine their

personal professional knowledge in the contexts of the action spaces created by these communities.

Three layers of collaborative learning communities

There are three embedded and overlapping layers of CLCs built into the alternative program structure. The first layer is formed by the dyads of teacher candidates and their co-operating teachers. The second layer is formed by the group of teacher candidates hosted by a given school together with their faculty supervisor. The third layer is formed by the cohort of teacher candidates participating in the program. These layers of CLCs are not possible without considerable partnership with and agency of several host schools. Four schools, each one hosting about 10 student teachers, participated in the planning and enacting of the alternative program. These university-school partnerships were prioritized during the planning stages of the alternative program. The relations between the university and the schools continued to evolve over the last two years of program's implementation. In the next four paragraphs, we describe the qualities of each layer and the type of dialogue fostered within it as well as the interactions between layers.

The first layer is the placement of two teacher candidates with one co-operating teacher. This arrangement is intended to respond to the desire of teacher candidates to work closely with their peers and to their anxiety concerning solo teaching due to perceived inadequacies to manage a classroom. The structure also responds to the idea that we can design teacher education around teacher candidates' individual development within a small group teaching team as a trajectory toward whole class solo teaching. To reduce the anxiety of student teachers, small group team teaching is emphasized as part of a trajectory toward whole class solo teaching. Opportunities for teacher candidates to work together with a small group of children are emphasized, especially during the first term, so that they may be better able to observe learning in-the-moment, rather than being solely concerned with classroom management issues (a perceived priority of teacher candidates, which tends to overwhelm all other considerations of teaching). This structure fosters opportunities for observation, and this observation process is integrated in the learning structure established for the other layers of collaboration and for the Foundations course. Further, Betts (2011) described how these

dyad CLCs evolved into effective spaces for teacher candidates to safely and critically examine their lived experiences within the program.

The second layer is an opportunity for teacher candidates at each host school to collectively reflect on their spaces of educational experience. These meetings are hosted at each host school on a weekly basis during both the fall and winter university term. The purpose of these school-based meetings is to guide reflection by teacher candidates on their experiences as they related to specific educational issues pertinent to their school placement and to university coursework. These school-based meetings also take about 40% of the contact time of the FTL course described above. The content of school-based meetings is driven by the focused observations described above for the FTL course where topics of discussion are synchronized with the content of university-based lectures within the FTL course. These meetings are lead by the faculty supervisor, but often professionals from the host school attend these meetings to share their expertise. For example, one host school, used the first meeting for introducing the school-wide "positive behaviour program" program to all teacher candidates at this school.

The third layer is the cohort of teacher candidates participating in the alternative program. This cohort participated in all university coursework together. Thus, the teacher candidates in the cohort have an opportunity to share and reflect on spaces of educational experience across the contexts of the four host schools. Such conversations are enhanced by viewing university course work as an opportunity to build a community of learners. Further, these discussions provide a context for introducing and enriching the content of university courses. For example, university course work includes assignments based on practicum experiences during the weekly school visits. Given the importance of reflection, university course work provides teacher candidates with opportunities for guided reflection on their small-group team teaching experiences at schools. Teacher candidates worked in pairs to plan and, implement their teaching strategies as well as reflect on the impact of these strategies on student learning. This structure was supported by the co-operating teachers, who formed the groups of children for the teacher candidates to work with as well as provided teaching resources and child assessment data to support planning decisions by the teacher candidates.

The embedded structure of the CLCs - dyads within school groups within whole cohort – offers multiple opportunities to foster interactions among the layers of CLCs. Dyads worked together in their host classroom on university work such as focused observations, subject-based small group teaching opportunities, and journal writing. These activities became data for reflection within the school meetings and university courses. This structure fosters opportunities for university course work to do more than disseminate educational theory that can be applied to practice. Rather the conversations start and are continually enhanced by the personal professional knowledge landscapes of the teacher candidates participating in the program. Educational theory takes its rightful place as a tool to be used by teacher candidates. First, it is a tool that is a lens for interpreting practice. Second, educational theory is a tool for informing teacher candidates as they build and refine their personal theories of teaching, both individually and collectively.

Does the Alternative Program Structure Reflect our Reimagining?

In this section of the paper, drawing on teacher education literature, we make theoretical claims on the potential of our reimagining of teacher education and the program structure we have designed to enact this reimagining. In what follows, we draw on the literature concerning the following ideas: the relation between theory and practice, professional learning communities, collaborative action research, school-university partnerships, and hybrid spaces.

First, the fragmentation between knowledge learned in university-based course work (theory) and school-based practicum experiences (practice) has received considerable attention in the teacher education literature (Davis, Sumara & Luce-Kapler, 2008; Solomon, Singer, Campbell & Allen, 2011; Zeichner, 2010). Traditionally, practicum is viewed as a place where teacher candidates apply what they have learned in university course work. This view is problematic because it assumes a one-way linear relation between theory and practice. At the forefront of our alternative program is the reimagining of theory and practice. The structures of the program continually foster opportunities for teacher candidates to do more than apply theory to practice; rather they have ongoing opportunities

and directed support to build/refine their personal theories from practice as well as to interpret practice through the lens of educational theory.

Second, there is increasing evidence in the professional development literature that professional learning communities contribute positively to the learning of teachers (Borko, 2004; Campbell, 2012; Levin & Rock, 2003; Webster-Wright, 2009). These communities foster increased learning opportunities for a team of teacher educators and teacher candidates to plan, implement and reflect, where a team is more likely to detect the many ways that teaching impacts learning, and use these observations to further inform their practice. The alternative program is structured with embedded layers of learning communities intended to guide and support teacher candidates' learning and reflection.

Third, the literature suggests that collaborative action research can be a highly effective model for both in-service and pre-service teacher education (Levin & Rock, 2003). Two key features of this model are a practice-reflection dialectic and collaborative enactment. Reflection is an important method for fostering pre-service teacher growth (Lowery, 2002). These features are supported by the alternative program structure because thinking about teacher education is grounded in their spaces of education experience, including designed observations of practice and guided opportunities to reflect on practice within the various layers of CLCs. The continual interplay between university and practicum work, fostered by the structure of the alternative program, becomes an opportunity for teacher candidates to integrate their educational experience in these two spaces of the university-school landscape.

Fourth, proactive school-university partnerships are a critical element of effective teacher education programs (Darling-Hammond, 2006). A recent survey of teacher education programs in Canada identified the disconnect between faculties of education and the school system, and recommended the development of stronger university-school partnerships (Crocker & Dibbon, 2008). The alternative program structure, described above, is not possible without strong collaborative partnerships between the university and host schools. Several collaborative meetings among university faculty and school staff from the host schools (e.g., cooperating teachers, administrators) are necessary to design synchronized university and in-school experiences. The collaborative efforts of university- and school-

based teacher educators mitigates against the common perception that theory is solely learned in university and practice is solely learned in school. Several planning meetings focused on key in-school learning experiences that could be facilitated by teachers. These ideas were articulated with the content of school-based meetings and university coursework, and designed in-school small-group teaching experiences. During the implementation of the program, a continued partnership was maintained through deliberate feedback structures across the university and field, including responding to various perspectives of the program as-it-happens.

Finally, the program was infused with ongoing interactions among all stakeholders who participated in planning and enacting the alternative program as well as reflecting on its outcomes. These interactions can be interpreted as the emergence of a hybrid space (e.g., Zeichner, 2010) between the university and schools. The alternative program structures helped to avoid the reinforcement of traditional hierarchical dichotomies between theory (the domain of university) and practice (the domain of schools). University instructors participated in the school-based experiences of teacher candidates as faculty supervisors and by taking advantage of opportunities, made possible by the alternative program structure, to legitimately integrate university content with in-school experience. In-school professionals influenced university content by sharing their expertise and local knowledge in the school-based CLCs and program planning meetings. Thus, all participants in the alternative program, whether located in the field or at the university, contributed to providing better learning opportunities for the teacher candidates.

Closing Remarks

Britzman (1991) stated,

> Learning to teach is not a mere matter of applying decontextualized skills or of mirroring pre-determined images: it is a time when one's past, present and future are set in dynamic tension. Learning to teach, like teaching itself, is always in the process of becoming: a time of formation and transformation, of scrutiny into what one is doing and who one can become. (p.8)

Our reimagining of teacher education includes the agency of teacher candidates, the valuing of their personal professional knowledge and their potential to shape their teaching identities in response and in resistance to their experiences in the Alternative Program. The program structure demonstrates this orientation. Agency occurs within one's awareness of being positioned in a particular context where one can resist this context's structure and negotiate one's position within it. Emphasis on collaboration and critical reflection make room in the program landscape for agency. Teacher candidates can impact the direction of the program by becoming associates in it. As captured so aptly by Britzman in the quote above, teacher education shifts from learning the content to the process of becoming.

We hope that the alternative program reflects our reimagining of teacher education and that the program offers multiple and ongoing opportunities for teacher candidates to expand their personal professional knowledge landscapes. The alternative program provides opportunities for teacher candidates to build and/or refine their personal theories of teaching based on practice. Similarly, by interpreting practice through the lens of educational theory, teacher candidates enrich and extend their personal professional knowledge. It is the alternative program structure that constructs these possibilities for teacher candidates.

We have detected ad-hoc evidence of this theorized expanding of teacher candidate's personal professional knowledge landscape. Our survey data supports the claim that teacher candidates' lived experiences are dominated by managing the classroom behaviour of school students during solo teaching. Maynes and Hatt (2011) and Lowery (2002) note the importance of providing opportunities for teacher candidates to shift their attention from their teaching acts to the learning of children. Within the journaling of many of our teacher candidates, we have noted this shift in attention. For example, in their lesson planning, they focus on the question, 'What will the children do?' rather than on the question 'What should I do?' We see this shift as evidence that these teacher candidates are exploring beyond, while still anchored in, their personal professional knowledge landscapes.

Our reimagining of teacher education is on ongoing story, a work-in-progress. We have enacted the alternative program structure for two consecutive years, making adjustments based on feedback from all participants. The alternative program structure is

becoming a norm of teacher education practice for all those who participate. The time has come for us to begin generating rigorous data that support or suggest enhancements or changes to the alternative program structure, the data that continue to inform our reimagining of teacher education. We have also started to interrogate the content of the program. Often, local school knowledge and traditional university knowledge do not integrate smoothly. A shift to a hybrid space, a shift in the university theory/field practice spaces from either/or to both/also, leads us to wonder about what kinds of theoretical content (both from the university and the field) should be plugged into the structure. Our alternative program structure allows us to ease this integration of knowledge by shifting from the dichotomy of the 'either/or' perspective on the theory-practice divide to the 'both/also' view of the university-school partnership in the hybrid space.

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Chapter 19

Thin ICE for pre-service teachers:
An examination of imagination creativity education in Canadian teacher education

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Creative teachers evidence a positive attitude and affirming disposition towards creativity; foster student-centered teaching by actively engaging students in their learning and encouraging them to think for themselves; and, mediate and in some cases elevate students' needs and expectations of prescribed curriculum. Even though teachers' creativity plays an important role in developing students' creativity and creativity is seen as an important dimension of education, there has been little emphasis given to imagination creativity education (ICE) practice in teacher education in Canada. This study draws attention to this critical issue by surveying teacher education programmes and by examining course descriptions, and, where available, course syllabi in an attempt to reveal the extent to which ICE is constituent in Bachelor of Education programmes within Canadian universities. The study concludes by asking more questions than are presently answered and illustrating the need for deeper investigative research into why ICE as creative process is not integral in pre-service teacher education in Canada.

Introduction

Csikszentmihalyi (1998) suggested that the fundamental question in respect to creativity was not "what is creativity" but "where is creativity?" Indeed, in the context of this paper and given that "… our schools often fail to nurture creativity [and that] creativity is low on most

lists of learning objectives" (Dunning, 2003, p. 3), we, as researchers, ask, where is creativity in Canadian classrooms; and equally important, where is creativity in education programmes for pre-service teachers? The latter question is the focus of this study, the results of which in some ways are not surprising.

On a personal note and as an experienced educator, I have pondered this question on many occasions especially since the birth of my first grandchild in 2000 and with the first publication of Sir Ken Robinson's *Out of our minds: Learning to be creative*, in 2001. Although not ostensibly connected, these two events merged as I became more and more preoccupied with and observant of the growth and progression of my first grandchild. Now, I have multiplied that experience by eleven, and have inquired and observed, recorded and recounted with growing fascination and appreciation the innate creativity that each of these children display with spontaneity and ease.

However, my empirical research encountered a rude awakening when in late May 2011, I inquired of one of my grandsons, "Hey bud, how's kindergarten treating you?" His answer has reverberated in my mind, my heart, my teaching, and my research ever since. Said he, "Grandad, they're boring me out!" and with fallen countenance, which was uncharacteristic of him, he walked away without another word or a backward glance.

This, from my grandson who in the past had regaled me for hours with song, story, and countless interactive activities that ran the gamut from delightful trips with Thomas, The Tank Engine and his friends; to conquering unknown worlds and defeating seemingly unbeatable foes with selected transformers; to the reshaping of cardboard and paper to fashion elaborate caves as hiding places for his friend and constant nightly companion, Bear-Bear; to building miniature garages out of Lego for his Matchbox cars and trucks. I cannot recount the number of pictures, paintings, sculptures, and "special" gifts that have been lovingly and kindly bestowed on me by a bright, eager, imaginative, and highly creative lad. The after-shocks of his pronouncement have puzzled me and caused me to ponder how it is that in Kindergarten, of all places, he lost his zest for learning and for school.

Now, you have some sense why in my in-depth discussion with my colleague and co-author, we are drawn to our Bachelor of Education optional course: Exclusion to Inclusion: Imagination and Creativity in the 21st Century Classroom, more affectionately known as ICE (Imagination Creativity Education); and why, we are emboldened to suggest that imagination and creativity naturally reside in the province of childhood, keeping in mind with Csikszentmihalyi (1998) that creativity is never the result of individual action. The child does not exist independent of the social and cultural institutions of home, school, and community nor will the child operating within the domain of childhood bring forth change within any domain that others have not accepted and deemed to be creative. Despite the fact that children frequently introduce imaginative changes into their lived experiences none are accepted as creative works unless judged to be so by peers or adults.

The unique imagination and creativity within each child and the imaginative child within the adult fascinate us as researchers. Imagination and creativity are talents, abilities, or attributes commonly exhibited by children but they can and do exist in adults, usually in one of two ways. Imagination and creativity can exist as a child-like disposition within adults who are in constant touch with their inner child; or, they can exist as relearned attributes by adults who have forgotten or lost touch with their inner child. It is therefore our desire in teaching ICE to support the former while achieving the latter; to assist pre-service teachers, in many instances, to reconnect the child to the adult within. We function, in the words of Froebel, as a "benevolent superintendence …[with] the purpose of teaching to bring ever more out of [each of our pre-service teachers] rather than to put more and more into [them]" (in Quick, 1894, p. 403).

Unfortunately, as Hailmann, writing in 1888, accurately pointed out, public schools [and university teacher education programmes] are "chiefly mechanical" and "inveterate in the habit of school[ing]…. From the primary school to the college productive creative doing is almost wholly excluded" (in Quick, 1894, p. 412). Dunning (2003), writing over a century later, sounds a similar dissonant note in respect of imagination and creativity in education as it applies to schools, but which could as easily apply to teacher education programs in Canada:

> While giving lip service to the notion that all children have a creative impulse, [schools] do not often enough encourage young minds to explore widely and imaginatively; …schools sometimes applaud the sudden flash of genius, but they fail to teach the value of sustained creative work (p. 3).

Experienced educators often marvel at the creative genius of pre-school and early elementary children. And, too often, experienced educators have seen the detached look or blank stares of children who by upper elementary have had imagination and creativity schooled out of them.

As educators, we may not possess the ability to foretell the future either for ourselves or for our students. We may not be confident in determining all the skills, abilities, and attitudes that will be requisite for the career-fields of tomorrow. Nevertheless, a few things are obvious to the discerning educator. The students of today in order to be prepared for the dynamics and innovations of tomorrow will need to be flexible, adaptable, effective communicators, imaginative, able to think critically and act creatively. In order for this to occur, they will need a supportive education system and teachers who are capable of establishing and maintaining a community of learnership that is respectful of space and valuing of student place; that is mutually inclusive, appropriately responsible, reciprocally enhancing, harmonious, meaningfully engaging and capable of fostering the imagination and creative potential of all learners in their surrender to the critical quest. In short, a community of learnership is based on a dialogic relationship (Freire, 1997) between teacher and students and among students.

Traditionally, imagination and creativity were thought to be the domain of the gifted or accelerated achievers. Increasingly, research is providing evidence that imagination and creativity are emergent in every child but are systematically and systemically 'schooled out' of them by the time they complete upper elementary school (Robinson, 2006). This is usually accomplished through standardized evaluations, competition, restricted choices, pressures to conform, frequent labeling, failures, and rote learning. Not surprisingly, too many of our normed achievers and far too many of our delayed achievers have 'checked out' of schooling by 10 or 12 years of age. ICE is an orientation to teaching and learning which seeks to

reverse the current de-schooling trend by educating pre-service teachers to discover and unlock for themselves their own latent imaginative and creative potential; to infuse imagination and creativity into their pedagogical practice; and, to inspire and impel the imagination and creativity of their students to achieve cognitively and non-cognitively in school and in life.

In this paper we seek to explore the nature of imagination creativity education, and determine through surveying course offerings, calendar descriptions, and, where available, course syllabi the extent to which imagination and creativity predominate in Canadian teacher education programmes. We conclude by considering the issues and implications of our findings.

Imagination Creativity Education

Imagination is possibility and potentiality unrealized and is generally conceded to be the ability or action of the mind or heart to form new ideas, images, or concepts not present to the external senses of sight, sound, taste, touch, or feel. Without appropriate follow-through in action, imagination remains secure from violation but lacking in the ability to impart vigour or vitality to an idea or image. One of the unique qualities of imagination is that it is a catalyst and precipitates the process of creativity and the innovative event without being involved or changed by the consequences of its action. In effect, imagination dissolves or loosens the constraints that allow the creative process to begin.

In the United States, the Commission on the Skills of the American Workforce (2007) emphatically condemned the American public education system as underperforming and inflexible and accused it of failing to develop the innovation and creativity needed to compete in the contemporary global economy. One of the reasons cited by the Report for this abysmal decline was a hyper-reliance on the testing of basic skills to the detriment of creativity and critical thinking. Despite the messages in support of imagination creativity education during the first decade of the 21st century, the United States has taken a decidedly conservative turn toward uniform (common-core) curricula, common-core standards, increased standardized testing, and public disclosure of accountability results and school

rankings thus putting any move to a new educational practice on the defensive. It is difficult to fathom a staunch position of uniformity and standardization given current findings regarding the shortcomings of a traditional academic approach to education. Hargreaves and Shirley (2009) reported that: "Achievement gains often occurred for a year or two in most cases but soon reached a plateau;" and, "Standards raised the bar but didn't help children reach it. As measures of performance rose in tested literacy, rates of reading for pleasure actually fell" (p. 11). Gardner (2008) contends that there are two legitimate reasons for undertaking new educational practices: [1] current practices are not actually working; and [2] conditions in the world are changing significantly" (p. 10).

Frank Kelly (2012), Executive Director of CASA (Canadian Association of School Administrators) in a recent issue of Leaders & Learners, stated: "Today, our productivity in education is commonly assessed by outcomes of our students on standardized tests. There is a great drive for accountability of results and those schools and teachers that fall short on the measured scale are looked upon as not serving their students"(p. 11). He stopped short of denouncing standardized testing within the educational systems of Canada but he did signal a "soft wind" and while it may not "shake the barley" as in the Irish Proverb, it is nevertheless a resuscitating breath of air:

> What published results usually do not show are the levels of positive engagement and the creative delivery and presentation of content that made a lasting impact on the student and advanced the commitment to lifelong learning. To have a creative classroom, the teacher must risk innovation and students will respond with enthusiasm. Teachers are role models for learning. If they are innovative and allow students to express creativity, the learning process will take on a vitality that is contagious. …. It is up to our [CASA] leaders to insist that there is a regular, positive and accepted place for creativity and innovation in education (p.11).

Clearly, from the Commission on the Skills of the American Workforce and from the Executive Director of CASA there is a new wind blowing in North American education and

while we cannot control the wind we can, at the very least, trim our sails and tack into it to take full advantage of its strength and to minimize the oppositional force that will surely come from those who are reluctant to lose faith or trust in the "increasingly unholy trinity of markets, testing, and accountability" (Hargreaves & Shirley, 2007, p. 25).

We are not the first researchers to detect this shift in the wind. Hargreaves & Shirley (2007) posit that one such change as we enter into "an age of post-standardization in education" (p. 1) is a renewed focus on the importance of imagination and creativity. In support of their claim, they cite specific augurs of the new age:

> In the U.S., the chair of the U.S. House Education and Labor Committee proclaimed shortly before the 2008 U.S. presidential election that the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act had 'become the most negative brand in America' [and a large number of leading American educators including] two former secretaries of education – complained that America's obsession with tested and standardized basics was destroying its capacity to be economically creative and competitive. Singapore mandates 10% 'white space' for teachers to bring individual initiative and creativity into teaching. In the European Union, 2009 was named the 'Year of Innovation and Creativity.' In Finland, they avoid standardized tests all together and reach high levels of achievement. In England, that country's government put an end to all standardized testing in secondary schools; and, in Canada, the province of Alberta voted to abolish the Grade 3 provincial test and Nova Scotia eliminated its provincial exams in Grades 6 and 9 because 'they are not worth the costs' (pp. 1-2).

Nearly two decades ago researchers were extolling the virtues of imagination and creativity. Runco and Chand (1995) posited that thinking is creative "if it leads to original and adaptive ideas, [and] solutions of insights" (p.224). Houtz and Krug (1995) suggested that, "creativity is both a cognitive and an affective endeavor" (p. 284). A cognitive endeavour is thought to include knowledge, technical skills, reasoning and talents related to logic and analysis. An affective, or non-cognitive, endeavour is thought to include feelings, affections, emotions,

and aesthetic, visceral, or spiritual responses to lived experiences. Froebel, in the nineteenth century, was among the first to directly connect the transcendent actions of man (living, acting, conceiving) with the affective or non-cognitive responses to living, acting, and conceiving: "[this] formative and creative instinct … has existed in all children in all nations and in all ages of the world' (Quick, 1894, p. 404). A decade ago, the Canadian poet, Carl Leggo, (2003), affirmed a similar view but with a significant educational qualifier:

> … everyone has inestimable gifts for learning creatively. School is not the place we come to learn how to learn. We are learning all the time. We come to school to engage in collaborative learning, to be challenged by the different perspectives and approaches of others. (p. 14)

The old adages that "two minds are better than one" or "many hands make light work" attest to the enduring belief that collaboration is an essential principle in imagination creativity education that needs to permeate the life of students, teachers, parents and community personnel in our schools. Hargreaves & Shirley (2009) contend that: "Our schools are the social embryos of humanity – those institutions that we establish to promote our highest collective values. They should be the embodiment of norms of reciprocity, active trust, and democratic deliberation" (p. 99).

ICE and Improved Student Learning

Imagination and creativity are concepts that have traditionally been associated with fine and performing arts but imagination and creativity extend beyond the arts into countless everyday activities of life and living. Robinson (2011) and Livingston (2010) contend that as a direct result of being human, everyone is inherently creative in many different ways whether in exceptional acts or in daily activities. The task that lies before us as in teacher education programmes is to nourish and nurture the imagination and creativity that is implicit or explicit within each pre-service teacher.

Hattie (2009) compiled the largest evidence based research into what is actually effective in schools to improve student learning. The factors that have the greatest positive impact on student achievement are: ample opportunity for formative assessments, the importance of timely and effective feedback, reciprocal teaching and learning, and the quality of pedagogical (teacher-to-student) relationality (Hatt, 2005). The factors with the least impact or in some cases a negative impact on student achievement included: student input into their learning, multi-grade/age classes, ability grouping, grade retention, and teacher education programmes.

It is discouraging to discover that in the examination, analysis, and synthesis of the extensive research contained in Hattie's (2009) study there is a lack of reference to imagination and/or creativity and to the integral linkage of both to education. ICE exists as an alternative to the unholy trinity of markets, testing, and accountability and like the musical invention of the triad in Renaissance music it counterpoints accepted practice. In the sounding of the triad three distinct yet harmonic tones are strategically rooted and sounded to determine a new quality in music. Similarly with ICE, a new quality of teaching and learning in education is sounded. As public education becomes attuned to the triad of imagination, creativity, education, ICE becomes the essential rhythm in the functional, personalized learning of the 21st Century.

Faculties of Education must become communities of learnership that place a high premium on negotiating for learning rather than for teaching (Livingstion, 2010) and that foster imagination creativity education through knowledge, skills, attitudes, and expression (Tillander, 2011). In reality, the community of learnership in a growing number of Canadian schools is becoming more diverse, more global, and more socially interconnected. The challenge for communities of learnership within Faculties of Education is to meet the demands of diversity, differentiation, imagination and creativity while encouraging mutuality and respect through communication, collaboration, and a shared vision of and commitment to success. Communities of learnership must become inclusive cultures of understanding that identify and advance the potential and possibility within each learner for effective and affective success in learning. However, current approaches to public education and teacher preparation are boxed in by an intransigent insistence on the basics.

Essentialism flavoured with behaviourism and sprinkled with idealism has been the recipe for the political reform of education in Canada. Teachers' success in the classroom is measured by their performance in raising test scores within a system framed by overall and specific expectations and driven by an imperative language that is persistently pressing in its urgency and demand for increased performance. A top-down political agenda that demands that schools be data-driven and that improvement be numerically measured is pedagogically prescriptive and results in an educational climate characterized by fear and aggravated by the anxieties that attend the demands for increased performance. A system that "tries to raise expectations, push harder and have everyone be more diligent with curriculum materials and test preparations – engage[s] fewer and fewer of our students" (Hargreaves & Shirley, 2009, p. 106). Too many teachers in too many schools are required to teach to standardized tests in literacy and mathematics while other areas of the curriculum such as social studies, environmental science, physical education, and the arts are marginalized or eliminated.

A systematic over-reliance on the testing of basic literacy and numeracy skills is detrimental to imagination creativity education. Robinson (2011) posits that, "the challenge now is to transform educational systems into something better suited to the real needs of the 21st century. At the heart of this transformation there has to be a radically different view of human intelligence and creativity" (p. 14). Guilford (1967) declared that "creativity is the key to education in its fullest sense and to the solution of mankind's most serious problems: (p.13). It was the 16th century schoolmaster, Richard Mulcaster, who first pointed out: "the only hope of improving our schools lies in providing training for teachers" (in Quick, 1894. p. 93). The benefits of directed instruction in imagination creativity education for teachers are succinctly presented by Prentice (2000), " [they] display cultural curiosity and continue to be self-motivated learners, value the creative dimensions of their own lives and understand how creative connections can be made between their personal responses to experience and their teaching" (p. 15). As experienced educators in the field of education, we believe that in-service teacher development and pre-service teacher preparation which is focused on professional learning opportunities in ICE offer the greatest opportunity and hope of improving teacher education and enhancing student learning success in the 21st Century.

Imagination Creativity Education in Canadian Pre-Service Teacher Programmes:

The need to increase the teaching of creativity in our schools especially in teacher education is not a new idea. Mohan (1973) advocated a course for creativity in pre- and in-service teachers. In later research, Mack (1987) found that the students and teachers he surveyed in ten institutions overwhelmingly supported enhancing creativity in children but felt that teacher education programmes were not appropriately addressing the requisite pedagogical base or the methodology of teaching required by pre-service teachers to enhance creativity in the teaching/learning process for children.

Given that the clarion call for imagination creativity education has been sounded, what are Faculties of Education in Canada doing today to infuse ICE into the educational programmes of pre-service teachers? In 2008, I led a team of colleagues within the Schulich School of Education at Nipissing University in the development of a new option course for pre-service teachers. The course was entitled: EDUC 4826: Exclusion to Inclusion: Imagination and Creativity in the 21st Century Classroom. It has since been re-named and promoted as ICE: Imagination Creativity Education but its description and primary purpose have remained the same:

> [ICE] is a study of imagination and creativity development for K-12 learners. It is an introduction to alternative education with a focus on the interdependent relationships among philosophy, psychology, methodology, technology and education to inspire imaginative and creative teaching. The goal is to foster an attitude that values other ways of knowing, doing and expressing, and to challenge the teaching world taken-for-granted. The course will offer first-hand experience(s) including a variety of imagination and creativity teaching/learning activities relevant to the classroom.

As part of our documentation for the proposed option course at our university, we conducted a pan-Canada examination of Education programmes to determine how many of

them were offering a course in imagination and creativity for pre-service teachers. At the time, we found two course offerings at the undergraduate level: Brandon University offered an elective course focused on creative activities in the Language Arts classroom and University of Lethbridge offered a course strongly rooted in the theories of creativity for its Elementary pre-service teachers. Extensive in-service courses at Simon Fraser University under the pioneering leadership of Kieran Egan were offered in Imagination at the graduate level.

For the present research project, we repeated the examination of Canadian Education programmes to determine how many of them were presently offering pre-service teachers courses focused on Imagination Creativity Education. One thing we discovered is that most Faculties of Education in their B.Ed. course offerings were not focused on imagination creativity education or on imagination and innovation as integral to the creative process. They remained focused in their course offerings on the following three traditional concepts of creativity.

The first, and perhaps the most traditional concept, is that creativity is directly associated with and defined by the Fine Arts or what many call, the Creative Arts, chief among which are visual arts, dance, drama, and music. The second concept of creativity is directly associated with Special Education and a focus on Differentiated Instruction. Typically, a course description focused on this concept might read as follows:

> This course introduces pre-service teachers to various exceptionalities: learning disabilities, behavioural disorders, giftedness, developmentally delayed, hearing impairment, physical disabilities, language delay and disorders associated with issues relating to special education. The course examines the learning needs of students with high and low incidence exceptionalities and highlights methods of differentiating classroom instruction to meet individual student needs.

Given the broad scope of special education, it is difficult to predict the exact amount of time that would be devoted to creativity as it relates to giftedness but our hope would be that it

would get sufficient attention for pre-service teachers to be able to develop strategies that would prepare them to address the special education needs of accelerated achievers in a regular classroom. The third concept of creativity addresses the shortcoming noted in the previous concept and offers courses specifically focused on the gifted or talented students. A course description based on this concept might read:

> This course is an examination of the characteristics of the gifted student with emphasis on identification and development. The gifted and talented are examined in terms of their intellectual, social, and emotional characteristics. Implications of giftedness for learning and instruction will be examined in light of several education programmes for the gifted and talented.

We examined the Education programmes of 54 universities in Canada as posted on university/faculty web-sites, as contained in course descriptions found in university calendars; and, occasionally, as found in a course syllabus. The results of our examination are represented in the data presented in the Table 1: Canadian Universities Offering B.Ed. Courses in Creativity. There has been a marked increase in the number of universities offering elective courses with either partial focus, or total focus, on creativity to pre-service teachers. As mentioned above, we found two universities in 2008 offering courses in creativity for pre-service teachers. Our present research indicated that 25 of the 54 universities examined offer elective courses in creativity to pre-service teachers. The down side is that elective courses are just that – elective; and, students are not required to take them unless they have a special interest or are advised to do so by a faculty advisor.

Seven of the 25 universities offered elective courses entirely focused on the first concept of creativity (creativity is directly associated with and defined by the Fine/Creative Arts). All of the universities in Nova Scotia and Ryerson's BA in Early Childhood Education offered elective courses in the primary Fine/Creative Arts of visual arts, drama, dance, and music. Mt. St. Vincent added *Children's Literature* as another offering in Creative Arts in the Classroom. Of these six universities, we could find only one, Acadia that required all pre-

service teachers (Early Years, Middle Years, and Senior Years) to take one elective course in Fine/Creative Arts. The recommended course, *Creative Arts in the Classroom*, examined visual arts, drama, and music within the respective classroom: Early Years, Middle Years, and Senior Years. However, *Art Education: Middle Years or Creative Drama for Teachers* could be substituted for the more general *Creative Arts in the Classroom*. Brandon University continues to offer its elective course on *Creative Activities in the Classroom.* This course focuses on acquainting teachers with a variety of activities for creative expression in the Language Arts classroom. Additionally, it deals with the philosophy, materials, and methods for creative activities and the integration of art, music, and drama to stimulate classroom participation.

Table 1 – Canadian Universities Offering BEd Courses in Creativity

Each X in the Table represents one (3 credit-hour) course (unless otherwise indicated) and DI stands for a focus on Differentiated Instruction

UNIVERSITY/ UNIVERSITÉ	B.Ed. – Fine or Creative Arts	B.Ed. – Special Education or Exceptionality	B.Ed. – Gifted or Talented	B.Ed. – Creative Process	Other
Memorial			X		
Cape Breton	XX				
St. Francis Xavier	XXX				
Mt. St. Vincent	XXXXXX				
Acadia	XXXX				
de Ste. Anne	XXXXX				
Prince Edward Island		X (DI)			

New Brunswick			XX		
St. Thomas			X		
du Québec (Montréal)					X (Artistic Expression)
Concordia					X (Toys)
de Montréal		X (DI)			
Ottawa		X			
Nipissing				X	
Ryerson	X (BA - ECE)				
Brock		X (DI)			
Wilfrid Laurier			X (1.5)		
Windsor		X (DI)			
Manitoba			X		
Brandon	X		X		
Regina		X (DI)			
Saskatchewan		X (DI)			
Mt. Royal		X (DI)			
Royal Roads			X		
Trinity Western		X			
Victoria					X (.5) (Creativity

					Workshop)
Vancouver Is.			X		

Nine universities offered elective courses based on the second concept of creativity, that is, a thread of giftedness woven within the Special Education course. The gifted or talented as exceptionality was addressed under the inclusive Differentiated Instruction by seven of these nine universities. An additional eight universities offered elective courses based on the third concept of creativity as exclusively devoted to the gifted or talented. In our findings, the University of New Brunswick was unique in that it offered two electives in this grouping to pre-service teachers, namely, an introductory and an advanced course on giftedness.

Three universities offer tangential courses on creativity: Québec (Montréal) offers an elective focused on the importance of artistic expression in primary students' learning; Concordia offers an elective on the multiple roles of toys, pop culture, and the media on the development, learning, socialization, and identity of children and adolescents; and, the University of Victoria offers a .5 credit-workshop on creativity tools intended to develop self-actualization and individual empowerment.

Only one university, Nipissing University, offers an elective course focused on the contiguous relationship within imagination creativity education. The course syllabus indicates that among the topics to be explored are:

- the imaginative and creative process;
- the missing link: imagination and creativity in the classroom;
- the attributes of imaginative and creative teachers and students;
- creative activities for imaginative development; and,
- teaching for imagination and creativity in the classroom.

The course through its methodologies and content seeks to embrace the creative process fully and to serve as a catalyst for nurturing the imaginative possibilities and the creative potentialities of pre-service teachers so that they can infuse ICE into their teaching and learning activities for future generations of students.

Montaigne maintained that: "Il ne faut pas attacher le savoir à l'âme, il faut l'incorporer – Knowledge cannot be fastened to the mind; it must become part of the mind itself " (in Quick, p. 71). The melding of imagination, creativity, and education into a prospective pedagogy in teaching and learning results in effective and affective innovations in "meaningful learning and mindful teaching that goes to the heart of the human condition [and] acknowledges our needs for emotional engagement, our quest for excellence, and our craving for relatedness and purpose" (Hargreaves & Shirley, 2009, p. 85). ICE is a 21st century answer to a series of questions posed at the close of the 20th century by Sutton-Smith (1998):

> … what if the imagination is the very font of thought? What if the imagination is what permits thought to work by providing it with the images and metaphors that give it direction? What if the imagination is primarily not mere fancy or imitation, but is itself thought's direction? Presumably our educational foci would then be different (p. 7).

Vygotsky (1930/2004) posits an educational focus on a prospective view of education that is vastly different from the intractable, retrospective view of education that habitually characterized schools at the time of his writing. He asserts that, "…education involves awakening in the child what already exists within him, helping him to develop it and directing this development in a particular direction" (p. 51). He envisions integrating imagination and creativity into the child's lived educational experiences thus enabling her/him to experience education as a prospective process (Kozulin, 1993) rather than a retrospective process. Lindqvist (2003) suggests that, "[p]rospective education implies that a student should be capable of approaching problems that do not yet exist at the moment. The student must be oriented toward productive (creative), rather than reproductive, knowledge" (p. 250). Eckhoff & Urbach (2008) support this view and further contend that: "Educating for the future – a prospective view of education - …requires educators who are willing to create nurturing environments that stress the value of imaginative thought" (p. 185). ICE is an educational focus with a difference. Its lens converges on the imagination creativity

education of the pre-service teacher whose needs, as a prospective educator, must first be met before attending to the prospective needs of the whole child. Unfortunately, as noted by Oberski (2009), "… the requirement of fostering such qualities in teachers is left implicit, rather than embedded explicitly within pre-service teacher education course offerings" (p. 23).

It is encouraging to discover an increasing number of Canadian universities in their B.Ed. course offerings moving toward first, second, and third concepts of imagination and creativity; but, it is disheartening to realize that there remains only one Canadian university offering a single course focused on the fourth concept: the creative process. There is an inching forward in the creativity tide in public education and in teacher education in Canada but no indication of a rippling in the waves as is the case in the United States and certainly no evidence of the surging tide which has flooded across Britain since its rising in the late 1990s.

The British and Renewed American Interest in Imagination Creativity Education

In 1997, the British Government issued its seminal White Paper entitled Excellence in Schools within which education was ear-marked 'top priority' because the 21st Century would demand the diverse talents of all students and the government was committed to a National education programme that would create a society that was dynamic, productive and offered opportunity and fairness for everyone. The Prime Minister of the day, Tony Blair, in announcing the purpose of the National Advisory Committee on Creative and Cultural Education, stated: "Our aim must be to create a nation where the creative talents of all the people are used to build a true enterprise economy for the twenty-first century – where we compete on brains, not brawn" (NACCCE Report, 1999, p. 5). A decade later a report was released by the Creative Partnerships programme (2009) entitled: *Creativity, culture and education: Changing young lives*. On its website, Creativity, Culture and Education (CCE) states its belief in "the fundamental unlocking of the creativity of young people" because to do so brings young people, "intrinsic pleasure and benefits; raises their aspirations; improves their achievements and skills; unlocks their imaginations; and, brings about lasting improvements in the quality of their lives" (http://www.creativitycultureeducation.org/).

Other researchers have given prominence to the tendencies within creative teachers to evidence a positive attitude and affirming disposition towards creativity; to foster student-centered teaching by actively engaging students in their learning and encouraging them to think for themselves; and, to mediate and in some cases elevate students' needs and expectations of prescribed curriculum (Craft, 2000; Fryer, 1996). A tragic flaw in the British approach to imagination creativity education is the direct, political connection of creativity to economic prosperity: "In the global marketplace, our capacity to break new ground will be crucial to our future prosperity, and we need to act now to make Britain's creative industries accessible to an even wider pool of talent and to support our creative economy to enable it to grow" (Huerta, 2010). This perspective has created opposition in the rank and file of teachers, educators, and scholars who have refused to accept uncritically the official discourse on creativity. Nevertheless, as a result of the Creative Partnerships programme and other education initiatives, pre-service teacher education programmes became more focused on methodologies associated with creativity that encouraged their students to question, debate, experiment, present, and critically reflect on topics and materials presented to them. Unfortunately, an analysis of the data collected for this study did not evidence any correlative program(s) existent in Canadian teacher education programmes.

The ripple effect of the British imperative regarding creativity in education has been felt across the pond in the United States. Sir Ken Robinson now resides in the United States and has been featured in several highly publicized TED talks on creativity and schooling and is currently on a major speaking tour throughout the United States promoting creativity in education. In 2010, the July issue of Newsweek was entitled *Creativity in America* and featured a lead story entitled: *The creativity crisis: For the first time, research shows that American creativity is declining. What went wrong – and how we can fix it?* The subtitle sounded a note of alarm and like a siren call was intended to mobilize forces that would put creativity into teacher education programmes across America and by extension into the classrooms; thereby propelling the United States back into the lead position in global economic innovation, development, and production. Bronson and Merryman (2010) strongly suggested that the "creativity crisis" could be averted by infusing creativity into schools through pedagogical practices that required high levels of critical and creative thinking by teachers and by students.

Predictably the debate polarized in the United States between those in favour and those opposed to creativity in the classroom and oscillated between the two extremes with little progress being made by either side until the British drift of creativity in education with its accompanying promises of economic prosperity and enhanced emphasis on performativity as a measure of accountability washed ashore on the New England coast and became the property of the Massachusetts legislature. In 2010, Chapter 240 of The Massachusetts Acts: An Act Relative to Economic Development Reorganization directed and empowered the Secretary of Economic Development to, " establish performance measurements for all public and quasi-public entities engaged in economic development … in order to improve the effectiveness of the economic development efforts of the commonwealth." Schools were designated as a constituent entities and Section 181 of the Act instructed that a commission be developed "to establish an index of creative and innovative education in the public schools" (http://malegislature.gov/Laws/SessionLaws/Acts/2010/Chapter240).

Additionally the index of creative and innovative education in the school was to rate each public school on teaching, encouraging, and fostering creativity in schools; the availability of pre- and post-school programs offered by school districts including, but not limited to, arts education, debate clubs, science fairs, theatre performances, concerts, film making, and independent research. The commission was also charged to "measure and encourage skill building in increasingly critical areas to employers such as creativity, creative thinking skills, innovation and teamwork"
(http://malegislature.gov/Laws/SessionLaws/Acts/2010/Chapter240).

The State of California followed the Massachusetts lead and introduced SB 789 "An act to add Section 52052.61 to the Education Code", relating to school accountability for Third reading in March 2011 and is presently held in committee and under submission. The California Act like the Massachusetts law establishes an Advisory Committee on Creative and Innovative Education for the purpose of developing an Index of Creative and Innovative Education (http://ca.opengovernment.org/bills/sb-789). Ohio is following the example of Massachusetts and California and is presently drafting a law to establish an index of creativity and innovation in schools for that State.

While all of this is swirling and churning in the tidewaters of change, Canadian and America Universities in their preparation of pre-service teachers appear to be unfazed. In the most recent research in the United States regarding university courses that teach methods of enhancing creativity, the author concluded that, "…we need to increase the teaching of creativity in our P-16 schools, especially in teacher education" (Fasko, Jr., 2000-2001, p. 326). In a study conducted in Canada on creative teachers in a Canadian context, the authors revealed that: "Even though teachers' creativity plays an important role in developing students' creativity and creativity is seen as an important dimension of education, there has been little [emphasis] on creative teaching practice outside of the UK" (Reilly, et al., 2011, p. 535).

Conclusion – Why not a new ICE age?

The information collected in this study through surveying teacher education programmes, examining course descriptions, and, where available, course syllabi marks a beginning in the research required to reveal the full extent to which imagination and creativity are constituent in Bachelor of Education programmes within Canadian universities. As a benchmark, this study illustrates the in-depth need of further investigative research into Imagination Creativity Education as creative process in pre-service teacher education. ICE is an orientation to teaching and learning which seeks to educate pre-service teachers to discover, uncover and/or recover their own imaginative and creative potential in order to gain in self-efficacy and self-actualization. Once acquired, the progression is for pre-service teachers to infuse imagination and creativity into their pedagogical practice; and subsequently, to inspirit the imaginative possibility and creative potential within their students so that they are able to achieve effectively and affectively in school and in life.

It is evident that there is a strong belief among government leaders and an emerging belief in an increasing number of educators that creativity is considered an important skill for all to acquire; one that should be given the same status in schools as literacy (Robinson, 2006; Oberski, 2009). In point of fact, the renowned international literacy scholar and spokesperson, David Booth, entitled his keynote address at the ICE 2010 Conference, *Imagination and Creativity: Cornerstones of Literacy*. As researchers, we may well wish to

emphatically acclaim Rhodes (1961) imperative, "Now is the time for every teacher to become more creative!" (p. 310) but, we need to temper such enthusiasm with the reality that the machinery of institutional bureaucracies turns very slowly and the checks and balances within Universities can grind the most innovative change to a halt. As Obenski and McNally (2007) observed: "…the bureaucratic machinery regulating the supply and accreditation of teachers have the effect of removing the realm of feeling from a profession where feeling is perhaps the primary channel of communication, through relationships" (p. 940).

We cannot entirely blame the university structure because it was originally set up to privilege the left-brain functionalities of rational thought, sequential ordering, analysis and logical patterning – everything we expect from our brain and from an institution designed to increase our intellectual capacity. Universities are established primarily to educate the head and only tangentially, the heart. And, while Pink (2006) may assert that "the keys to the kingdom are changing hands. The future belongs to a very different kind of person with a very different kind of mind – creators and empathizers, pattern recognizers, and meaning makers" (p. 1), the reality is that universities are trapped in a maze of their own making. The intellect is celebrated in scholarship, research, publications, teaching, hiring, promotion, and longevity of service. Universities as self-generating institutions continually recreate themselves in their original image. It is extremely difficult for a university to immediately react to a change that is borne on the wind or carried in the turning of a tide.

Another impediment to change within pre-service teacher education programmes is that governments are often bound by mindsets that are antithetical to the creative process. For example, we might well think that school systems must move away from a culture of high-stakes tests, encourage innovation and creativity, and engage parents and communities in educational change. But, if a government is committed to the unholy trinity of markets, testing, and accountability, then developing an antithetical perspective may well be equivalent to committing political, or, in the very least, ideological suicide. There needs to be a lot of evidence stacked up and acquired over a lengthy period of time for governments to reverse a course once their sails are set.

Finally, the Conference Board of Canada in identifying the critical skills, attitudes, and behaviours needed to participate and progress in today's dynamic world of work include the following:

- access, analyze and apply knowledge and skills from various disciplines (e.g., the arts, languages, science, technology, mathematics, social sciences, and the humanities)
- assess situations and identify problems
- seek different points of view and evaluate them based on facts
- recognize the human, interpersonal, technical, scientific, and mathematical dimensions of a problem
- be creative and innovative in exploring possible solutions
- check to see if a solution works, and act on opportunities for improvement (Employability skills 2000+).

Understanding the processes that bring these skills, attributes, and abilities into existence is not easy. We need to understand how to recognize and nurture creative talent and abilities and then put in place policies, programmes, and practices that will ensure growth and attainment.

There is a critical need for educators who have the responsibility for directing teacher education programmes in Canada to acknowledge that there are core abilities and skills that need to be cultivated and celebrated in each individual to enhance her/his imagination and creativity. To better understand the complexity of imagination creativity education, such educators might ask themselves the following questions: Why did Aristotle believe that analogy and metaphor were vital to creativity? What is the function of "what if" propositions in finding new problems and in reframing existing problems? Why is there value in the ability to risk failure, to confront ambiguity and uncertainty in the face of adversity? Why is it important to accept critical feedback while revising and refining a concept? Why is understanding the functions of right-brain and left-brain hemispheres important in imagination creativity education? Why is it important to be a keen observer, astute at recognizing novel patterning? Why is it important to establish effective communities of

learnership and communicate meaningfully within those communities using multimodal approaches?

As researchers and colleagues in education, we believe that as we grapple with these questions at all levels of education, from kindergarten to post-graduate, we will recognize the value and viability of ICE in teacher education programmes, in our classrooms with students, and in our communities with parents as educational partners. As we do so, we might well agree with Gardner (2008) that, "the challenge to the educator is to keep alive the sensibility of the child" (p. 84). In light of that challenge, we conclude this paper and simultaneously open the door to future inquiry by asking: Why are the majority of universities in Canada not offering educational opportunities for pre-service teachers that support and sustain imagination creativity education in and through course-based instructional programmes; in enactive teaching/learning activities; in innovative teaching practica; and ultimately, in students' engaged learning experiences in K-12 classrooms?

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