

Handbook of Canadian Research in Initial Teacher Education



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EDITOR

Handbook of Canadian Research in Initial Teacher Education

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Thomas Falkenberg

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Angela Mueller

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This publication brings together information about initial teacher education programming in Canada including scholarly discussions of core elements of initial teacher education programs and the research being conducted on the topic. The chapters focus on initial teacher education programming in various parts of Canada, specific aspects of initial teacher education, and selected issues in initial teacher education.

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This book is dedicated to all those Canadian teacher education scholars
— past, present, and future —
who were, are, and will be involved in building, sustaining, and invigorating
a lively and productive Canadian Association for Teacher Education.

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First and foremost, I want to thank all those colleagues of mine who considered the project worthwhile and contributed a chapter to this handbook. This handbook is only as good as the chapters it brings together – and I am absolutely delighted that so many excellent scholars in the field of teacher education agreed to share their expertise through this handbook. Second, I need to express my deep gratitude to the following colleagues: Tony Clark, Julie Desjardins, Karen Goodnough, Clare Kosnik, Tom Russell, and Jon Young. They graciously gave their time and expertise to be on the Advisory Board for this handbook, which was tasked in the initial phase of the conceptualization of the handbook with identifying the chapter themes and potential lead authors for the respective chapters. Their advice on the design and the contributors to the handbook was invaluable and has greatly contributed to the quality of this handbook. While I needed to make some changes as the handbook developed, the structure, themes, and contributors are for the most part reflecting this original outline.

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Finally, I want to express my deep appreciation to Angela Mueller for all the support that she has given in a range of ways to this project, from the very beginning to the very end.

My hope is that I have not forgotten anyone whom I should have acknowledged here and that if I did so, the persons will forgive me that shortcoming and find solace in the quality of the handbook that they contributed to.

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Winnipeg, October 2015

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Young

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION: CANADIAN RESEARCH IN INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION

Thomas Falkenberg
University of Manitoba

In this introduction I try to frame a place for this handbook in the discourse of initial teacher education (ITE) in Canada and, through it, identify its intended purpose. I will do so by first addressing four themes that have played a central role in the conceptualization of the handbook:

- giving voice to Canadian ITE research;
- understanding research in ITE;
- conceptualizing Canadian ITE research; and
- identifying a role for Canadian ITE research for Canadian ITE programming.

I discuss each of the four themes in separate sections below. The second part of this introduction makes some suggestions on the question of where ITE (research) in Canada could go from here and how this handbook can support this path.

Giving Voice to Canadian ITE Research

Over the last few years I have seen the emerging and strengthening of an *inter-active* pan-Canadian community of ITE scholars under the leadership of the Canadian Association for Teacher Education (CATE; website: <http://www.csse-scee.ca/associations/about/cate-acfe/>). Since the revival of CATE about ten years ago under the presidency of Tim Hopper (University of Victoria), further built upon by his successors in the presidency, CATE provides now two major means for the continuous development of such an inter-active community: its Polygraph Series, in which a number of collections of Canadian teacher education research have been published, including this handbook; and its now bi-annual Working Conference Series, which itself has been leading to publications of Canadian teacher education research (all published on the CATE website). I think that it is now very difficult for research in and about Canadian ITE not to give serious consideration to the Canadian voices brought together through those publications on a range of areas, like foundational studies in ITE (Christou & Bullock, 2013), field experiences in ITE (Falkenberg & Smits, 2010), and self-study of teacher education practices (Kitchen & Russell, 2012b).

When I talk about “voice” here, I envision it as a *process*, namely the process of interaction of a community. That means a call for a “stronger voice” of Canadian ITE research in the Canadian discourse on ITE is primarily a call for a stronger *inter-active community of Canadian ITE*, which includes Canadian ITE researchers and the Canadian ITE community more generally. The interaction manifests itself in different communal practices, like the intentional reception of Canadian ITE research within the community, understanding and creating of research programs driven by larger interests of the community of Canadian ITE, and so on. A strong voice manifests itself in these kinds of communal connections. This handbook is intended to strengthen the Canadian voice on ITE (research) that has been developing over the last decade. It was actually the emerging and strengthening of this inter-active community of Canadian ITE scholars that gave rise to the idea and the ultimate development of this handbook. A single, handbook-like source about *Canadian ITE* (research) was missing. With CATE’s Polygraph Series and Working Conference Series—both very successful and alive—the timing seemed right for such a handbook-like source. The published handbook strengthens the Canadian voice on Canadian ITE; on the other hand, it also reflects Canadian *voices* (plural) across the different chapters, as well as within chapters—different voices that make up the inter-active community of Canadian ITE research.

When I started conceptualizing the idea of a handbook on Canadian research in ITE, the driving force was the notion that it was time for a forum for an all-Canadian and handbook-like perspective on (research on) ITE in Canada. To adequately reflect Canadian voices beyond the circle of voices I was aware of, I invited a number of Canadian ITE scholars involved with the Canadian Association for Teacher Education to be part of an advisory board for the handbook project; to quote from the invitation to participate in the advisory board: “The role of the Advisory Board is to advise the editor on the structure of the handbook, relevant topics to be included, on potential contributors to chapters, and on the solicitation process for chapter contributions.” The advisory board consisted of the following people: Tony Clark (UBC), Julie Desjardins (Sherbrooke), Karen Goodnough (Memorial), Clare Kosnik (OISE/UT), Tom Russell (Queen’s), and Jon Young (Manitoba). Initially, we met at CSSE’s annual conference and then communicated through a conference call and e-mails, leading to an outline of the handbook in terms of themes to be addressed and potential contributors to be approached. While I needed to make some changes along the way, the structure, themes, and contributors for the most part reflect this original outline. From the beginning it was important to the project to have Indigenous and francophone voices represented in the handbook.

Usually when one is concerned with someone or a group “having a voice,” it takes its starting point in the perception that the person or group does not have (enough of) a voice and the view that the person or group should have a voice in the respective context. The idea of this handbook arose from my and others’ perception that *Canadian* voices in ITE are not heard loudly enough and need to be heard more loudly in the Canadian discourse on ITE and in Canadian school education more generally.

One indicator for neglected Canadian voices in the Canadian discourse on ITE is the prominence given to the teacher education research literature from the USA. The concern is not the drawing on and engaging with that literature, rather it is a matter of neglecting Canadian ITE research in the Canadian discourse where it seems inappropriate to do so. One symptomatic example can be drawn from the now often referenced and relatively recent report on teacher education programs in Canada by Crocker and Dibbon (2008). In their literature review focusing on “recent teacher education reform initiatives” (pp. 41–42), the authors draw exclusively on literature on teacher education reform from the USA, neglecting the existing recent literature on teacher education reform in Canada by Canadian scholars for the Canadian context (see, for instance,

Chapters 9 and 10 of this handbook, and CATE's Polygraph Series and Working Conference publications, both referenced above).

Why is an adequate representation of Canadian voices in Canadian ITE discourse important? Because education is at its core a moral endeavour (see, for instance, Chapter 13 of this handbook; Coulter & Wiens, 2008; Falkenberg, 2009) shaped by cultural and communal values that establish capabilities that Canadian children are to develop during their school-age years. Interestingly, while there is collaboration across different levels of school education in Canada—for example, the Western and Northern Canadian Protocol (<https://www.wncp.ca/english/wncphome.aspx>) and the collaboration through Council of Ministers of Education Canada (<http://www.cmec.ca>)—formal education at any level is under provincial and not federal jurisdiction, with the exception of reserve-based schooling, which is under federal jurisdiction. There has been and still exists the view that school education has to be guided locally rather than centrally. The continued existence of even more localized control of school education through school boards within Canadian provinces is a continued testament to this sentiment about school education in Canada (for a defense of local control of school education against a tendency toward stronger centralization of control by provincial governments, see Young, 2009-10).

It is now this understanding of the importance of a local perspective on educational matters that provides the strongest argument for strong(er) Canadian voices in matters of Canadian teacher education. This local perspective is not just about control over educational goals, but it is also about the need for understanding the local context, for consideration of and concern for the local context, and for research undertaken within that local context, shaped by the specific Canadian system of social imaginaries (Taylor, 2004) dominant in Canadian society. This is in no way dismissing the important ITE research undertaken in the USA and elsewhere. The point here is a different one. Even if we draw on ITE research undertaken, for instance, in the USA, it will need to be *interpreted* for the Canadian context. For this, at least, Canadian voices are needed; no one else will do that for us. What shapes the Canadian ITE discourse influences Canadian ITE, which in turn influences school education. Thus, we should want to hear the voice(s) of Canadian ITE research for the benefit of Canadian school education. Canadian teacher education (research) should not be defined by its opposition to teacher education (research) in other countries. However, the dominance does shape Canadian teacher education (research) discourse, which is problematic in light of the argument I just made.

The main purpose of this handbook is to provide a single, handbook-like source of Canadian ITE research for Canadian ITE. The first part of the handbook provides a description of ITE in the different regions of Canada; it provides ITE researchers, practitioners, and policy makers with an overview of primarily the programmatic aspects of Canadian ITE. In the second part of the handbook, core aspects of ITE programs are discussed by leading Canadian ITE researchers in the respective areas with reference to other Canadian ITE research, thus providing a unique Canadian perspective on the respective areas. The third part of the handbook brings together chapters focused on selected issues in ITE from a Canadian perspective. While many issues could have been selected, the focus was on those that are broadly relevant to *programmatic* consideration of ITE: philosophical-foundational issues in ITE; rural ITE; gender issues in ITE; social justice issues in ITE; and the issue of internationally educated teachers.

Understanding “Research in ITE”

One core question that the advisory board faced when conceptualizing what should be included in a handbook on Canadian research in ITE was the question of whether subject-specific education in initial teacher education programs should be included in the handbook. In other words, should drama teacher education, mathematics teacher education, and so on be themes addressed in the handbook? The advisory board ultimately decided against the inclusion of subject-specific initial teacher education themes. For me there were two main reasons to argue against such inclusion, both were of pragmatic nature. First, including subject-specific perspectives on teacher education would have meant increasing the volume of the handbook—and thus the work involved—by probably 50%. This would have made the project untenable. Second, with the advisory board and myself being grounded in CATE as our organizational affiliation, identifying the right scholars as lead authors for subject-focused ITE would have been somewhat challenging. In their thematic analysis of the research foci of the presentations at CATE’s annual conference from 2007–2011, Hirschhorn, Kristmanson, and Sears (2013) have found that only 12% of all presentations had a subject-specific research focus (p. 69), and, as they noted, the research foci of the presentations were not evenly distributed across different subject areas, with 56.5% of the subject-specific presentations being focused on mathematics teacher education (p. 69). Subject-specific ITE research does not have a strong representation in CATE.

While the decision not to include subject-specific ITE themes in this handbook was based on pragmatics, it raises the more substantial question of how the domain of research in ITE should be understood. A number of more recent handbooks and handbook-like publications on ITE in the USA (e.g., Cochran-Smith, Feiman-Nemser, McIntyre & Demers, 2008; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005) do not have separate chapters on subject-specific ITE. Almost thirty years ago, Shulman (1986) suggested that for teacher education subject-matter related questions are important and should not be forgotten. He suggested that the pendulum has swung from teacher education being concerned with only subject matter learning, to only non-subject related competencies. More recently, Kosnik and Beck (2009) have identified as one of their “seven key elements of pre-service preparation” (the title of their book) subject content and pedagogy. They argue that for a teacher “much of the school day is spent teaching specific subjects and accordingly teachers must be prepared for this work” (p. 105). While that is undeniable, one can also argue that ITE that is primarily structured as subject-specific ITE is too re-active and not enough pro-active in promoting and preparing for what some might see as the need for a stronger holistic or integrative school curriculum (see, for instance, Clark, 1997; Drake, 2007; Miller, 2007, 2010).

There is no doubt that *conceptually* research in subject-specific ITE does belong to the domain of ITE research, but there is also no doubt that *practically* and in terms of scholars’ self-understanding there are interesting tensions between subject-specific ITE (research) and subject-transcending and more “programmatically” ITE research. In terms of these tensions, it is noteworthy that in Canada there are almost no tenure-track positions focused on teacher education more generally—most seem to be linked to a specific subject-area—and that many scholars involved with CATE, including those who have taken on leadership positions in the organization, identify themselves (also) as subject-specific teacher educators: professors in science (teacher) education, language arts (teacher) education, PE (teacher) education, and so on.

Research in ITE has a specific domain of study that is distinct from the domains of study of other educational research. Research in ITE is concerned with the theory and practice of the education of teachers. This domain of study is clearly distinct from, for instance, research in the area of language arts education. However, the question of what the domain of study of research in ITE *is*, is quite different from the question what domains of studies *need to be considered* in order to address

appropriately the theory and practice of the education of teachers. Whether it is Shulman's (1987) classical "categories of the knowledge base [for teachers]" (p. 8), Darling-Hammond and colleagues' "vision of professional practice" (Bransford, Darling-Hammond, & LePage, 2005, p. 11), or Kosnik and Beck's (2009) "seven priorities for teacher education" (p. 8), the domains of study that have been identified as being relevant to the education of teachers seem to include almost all domains of study of educational research. What matters to teaching and to being a teacher is relevant to the education of teachers and, thus, is relevant the domain of study of research in ITE. David Berliner (2002) declared educational research "the hardest science of all" (p. 18), arguing that

doing science and implementing scientific findings are so difficult in education because humans in schools are embedded in complex and changing networks of social interaction. The participants in those networks have variable power to affect each other from day to day, and the ordinary events of life . . . all affect doing science in school settings by limiting the generalizability of educational research findings. Compared to designing bridges and circuits or splitting either atoms or genes, the science to help change schools and classrooms is harder to do because context cannot be controlled. (p. 19)

Teacher education research seems to me to be the most complex section of this "hardest science of all", because in addition to what Berliner says about educational research more generally, teacher education research requires understanding of (almost) all other educational domains of study.

However, teacher education has its own domain of study. This handbook's Chapter 11, "The Pedagogy of Canadian Teacher Education," makes this distinction clear. While in ITE programs teacher candidates learn about pedagogical approaches that they can use in their practicum teaching and later in their own classrooms, those are conceptually—although, of course not always practically—distinct from what Chapter 11 is about, namely the pedagogical approaches used *in* ITE to help teacher candidates with their own learning to teach and to become a teacher.

This handbook shares in the "academic division of labour" and focus on subject-transcending aspects of the theory and practice of ITE—without assuming that *conceptually* or *substantially* subject-specific aspects of the theory and practice of ITE should be excluded. In 1986, Wideen and Holborn published a paper that "describes and assesses research in teacher education conducted in Canada over the last 15 years and identifies substantive and methodological priorities for improving its quality" (p. 558). They state that "the review was limited to reports in which data had been collected, analyzed, and interpreted. This excluded papers of a prescriptive and philosophical nature" (p. 559). This handbook does intentionally include chapters of such nature (see the chapters in Part 1 and Chapter 18), suggesting that papers of such nature are within the domain of *research* in ITE.

Conceptualizing Canadian ITE Research

With this handbook being about Canadian research in ITE, another question the advisory board faced with respect to the content to be included was what should be meant by *Canadian* research. Is it referring to research in ITE undertaken by Canadian teacher education scholars, regardless of what the focus of the research was? Is it referring to research about Canadian teacher education, regardless of whether the scholar is Canadian or not? The handbook was to do both; it was to be *about* Canadian ITE and it was to be *by* Canadian scholars. The first section of the handbook provides an overview of teacher education programming in Canada, structured by region—with the exception of the first chapter in the first part, which discusses Indigenous teacher

education programming across Canada. For the other two parts of the handbook, the invitation to potential lead authors for a chapter expressed the focus on Canadian ITE research as follows:

The primary intention of these chapters is to provide the reader with insights into a selected aspect/issue of initial teacher education programs as it plays out in the *Canadian context* and as it is discussed by *Canadian scholars*. The chapters can frame those insights within international scholarship relevant to the respective aspect/issue.

In addition, each chapter was to give consideration to the anglophone as well as the francophone literature relevant to the respective chapter.

While this answers in a *formal* way what Canadian means in the context of this handbook, it does not answer the question in a *substantial* way. Because the chapters in Parts 2 and 3 have pretty much implemented the intention expressed in the quote above, and because the chapters in Part 1 of this handbook are describing in some detail ITE programming in the different regions of Canada, I can say with some confidence that the chapters collected in this handbook answer the question of what currently constitutes Canadian ITE (research) in a substantial way. As a matter of fact, this is one of the primary purposes of this handbook, a purpose inseparably linked to the purpose of giving Canadian ITE research a stronger voice (see above).

The handbook is not the first publication to provide a substantial understanding of what *Canadian* ITE (research) is. In terms of ITE programming, there are characterizations of ITE programs in Canada (e.g., Crocker & Dibbon, 2008; Gambhir, Broad, Evans, & Gaskell, 2008; Van Nuland, 2011) and characterizations of certain aspects of the “landscape” of ITE programming in Canada (e.g., Connelly & Clandinin, 2001; Grimmer, 2008; Grimmer & Young, 2012). Recently, Lemisko (2013) has taken on the question “What is Canadian about Canadian teacher education?”, which is a different question than the previously referenced scholarship has been inquiring into, namely, “What is *Canadian* ITE?” Lemisko (2013), on the other hand, inquires into the question whether Canadian ITE programming reflects what other disciplines have characterized as “Canadian-ness.” Keeping in mind the methodological limitations of her study (Lemisko, 2013, p. 230), Lemisko does find evidence that Canadian ITE, as characterized by the selected sources, does indeed reflect the kind of Canadian-ness characterized in relevant contemporary (Canadian) citizenship scholarship.

In terms of ITE *research*, there are characterizations of Canadian ITE research more generally (e.g., Wideen & Holborn, 1986), and characterizations of specific aspects of Canadian ITE research (e.g., Kitchen & Russell, 2012a). A very original approach to inquiring into *Canadian* ITE research was undertaken by Hirschhorn, Kristmanson, and Sears (2013). They examined the themes of 375 presentations given at CATE’s annual conference in the years from 2007 to 2011 in order to approach the question of what characterizes Canadian teacher education research. They had two concluding observations. First, “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” (p. 74). Second, “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’” (Hirschhorn et al., 2013, p. 76).

The past and current scholarship that gives us both a perspective on Canadian ITE (research) and a Canadian perspective on ITE (research) leaves a number of important issues untouched. Two of the most important ones go to heart of the idea of Canadian-ness more generally: the status of Indigenous ITE (research) within or next to Canadian ITE (research); and the “two solitudes” of an anglophone-oriented and a francophone-oriented ITE scholarship, each drawing often on quite different scholarly traditions, each being generally presented at different conferences organized by different scholarly associations. While this handbook responds in some small, formal way to these

important issues, it does not address them directly. These are clearly *Canadian* issues, and they need to be addressed in a constructive and co-constructed way as part of and for the benefit of Canadian ITE (research).

A Role for Canadian ITE Research for Canadian ITE Programming

Above I said that this handbook has been conceptualized and developed to give voice to Canadian research in ITE in Canada, because it has partially been neglected in Canadian ITE (research) discourse, and because it provides for a localized understanding of ITE. Here I want to briefly argue the benefits of such localized understanding, namely that it can be given due consideration by those responsible for ITE programs in Canada: faculties of education, the teaching profession, and provincial governments. ITE programming practice and policy should be value-focused and research-informed, as I will suggest and elaborate on in the next section, and Canadian ITE research will have to and should play an important role in informing this practice and policy. In my assessment, ITE research, whether Canadian or not, has not always been given such a role in program review and reform. (I elaborate on this point further in the next section.)

My wish for this handbook is that it does indeed play such a role for Canadian ITE practice and policy. For that reason I am very pleased that the handbook is published in the CATE Polygraph Series, which makes the book available as an open-access e-book. The open-access approach, which I wholeheartedly support, is a counter balance to the increasing commodification and privatization of primarily publically funded university research (see Elliott & Hepting, 2015).¹ Aside from the ethical issue of the public not having to pay for research it already payed for through the salary and often grants for researchers, this handbook can much better play the role of informing Canadian ITE practice and policy and the stakeholders involved by being published as an open-access e-book.

Where Could We Go from Here?

Forty years ago, Clarke and Coutts (1975) published the findings of a Delphi study that they had undertaken with “the chief administrative officers of the English-language teacher education institutions in Canada”—nowadays these would be the deans or associate deans for undergraduate programs—to solicit “their views about features or aspects of teacher education in the year 2000” (p. 221). Following the Delphi method, participants were initially asked for their views and then, in a second survey round, asked for their level of agreement with the views expressed by their peers. Following are some of the findings by Clarke and Coutts (1975), selected to suggest that (some of) the desirable features of ITE programs in Canada are a long way coming:

- 91% of respondents found it desirable or very desirable that “teacher education in the future will be much more individualized, with candidates having much more say in the design of their own programs” (p. 228). In addition, 95% of the respondents thought that this would probably be a feature of Canadian ITE programs by the year 2000 (p. 228).

¹ I am, of course, not promoting so-called “predatory” open access journals and book publishers, who have been attracted by the opportunities that a “publish or perish” culture in the academy provide for the commodification and commercialization of research at a time when advances in technology have made on-line publishing itself an easy and relatively cheap undertaking.

- 77% of respondents found it desirable or very desirable that “teacher education in the future will include a supervised internship with a total duration of approximately a year” (p. 228). 85% of respondents thought that this would probably be a feature of Canadian ITE programs by the year 2000; 2% thought that would “never” be the case (p. 228).
- 87% of respondents found it desirable or very desirable that “teacher education in the future will involve much more concern and commitment by the total university” (p. 230). 61% of respondents thought that this would probably be the case by the year 2000; 11% thought that that would “never” be the case (p. 230).
- 91% of respondents found it desirable or very desirable that “teacher education in the future will feature much greater concern for, and devote much more time to, the personal development of candidates” (p. 230). 81% of respondents thought that this would probably be a feature of Canadian ITE programs by the year 2000 (p. 230).

I venture to claim that none of these four features classified by administrative leaders in Canadian faculties of education as (very) desirable is in any substantial form in place in Canadian ITE in 2015.

Almost thirty years ago, Wideen and Holborn (1986) reviewed research in Canadian ITE from about 1970 to 1985. Here is a characterization of Canadian ITE that they drew from the review:

Teacher education in Canada is characterized by diversity. Programs differ widely from one institution to the next, in some cases, within institutions. Moreover, the landscape is constantly shifting as new programs are planned or introduced. . . .

Broadly speaking, two types of programs in Canada were being examined in the research reviewed. On the one hand, most provinces have some form of one-year (or one-year equivalent) program in which education courses are interspersed with one or more short practice teaching periods. Course work and the practicum are more or less separate, with little attempt to relate compass activity to the school experience. On the other hand, in almost every province examples exist of alternative thrusts which provide a more extensive field experience and innovative approaches to course work In addition, in many institutions, smaller innovations have occurred which typically are directed toward a closer relationship between and an integration of campus input and school experience. (Wideen & Holborn, 1986, pp. 599–560)

Does this not more or less describe the ITE program landscape in Canada in 2015 (maybe except for the length of the program)?

In 1995, Sheehan and Fullan suggested that “teacher education has failed to achieve the place it deserves in the improvement of education,” because “there are several myths which continue to present major barriers to achieving needed breakthroughs” (p. 89). Ten years later in his 2005 keynote address at the annual conference of the Canadian Association for Teacher Education, Tom Russell concluded with some resignation that “teacher education reform is certainly possible; yet, it seems highly unlikely, not only because the challenges are many and considerable but also because many of the biggest challenges are invisible—taken for granted and lost in forgotten history” (Russell, 2009, p. 25).

There is clearly enough evidence available to justify Russell’s (2009) pessimistic view on actual enactment of ITE reform in Canada. On the other hand, if we look at some of the more substantial and recent programmatic changes in Canadian ITE, like the doubling of the length of many

programs in Ontario (see Chapter 4 of this handbook) and the slow demise of the role of foundational studies in ITE in Canada (Christou & Bullock, 2013), those seem to have happened without open and scholarship-based debate, which is exactly how re-visioning and re-forming should *not* happen. And even if larger reform steps have thoughtfully been taken in Canada, one cannot always be sure that those are indeed true steps of reform or steps in the right direction. Let's look at two examples.

First, there is the big institutional shift of ITE in Canada from normal schools to university-based ITE (see Chapters 7 and 8 of this handbook). Patterson observed that the one-year, university-based concurrent programs prominent in the 1970s and 1980s in Canada were very similar to the teacher's college or normal school concept (as referenced in Wideen & Holborn, 1986, pp. 559–560).

Second, there is the ever expanding number of consecutive programs, where teacher candidates enter their education degree program with a completed first, non-education bachelor degree. Currently 65% of all ITE program in Canada are of the consecutive type (Crocker & Dibbon,

2008, p. 60). Consecutive ITE programs conceptualize the first non-education degree as a component of the formal education of teachers in Canada, generally considered the part of formal teacher education in which future teachers develop their “content” expertise in one or two teachable subject areas, with a specific number of credit hours in teachable subject areas being an admission requirement for many ITE programs in Canada (see the chapters in Part 1 of this handbook). For a number of reasons, this approach to ITE seems very questionable. If we take this approach to “content preparation” of school teachers seriously, consecutive programs leave at least half of all teachers, namely those who will teach as elementary classroom teachers, unprepared for most of the subject areas they will be teaching, since they will be teaching more than two subjects. Also, and a far more fundamental concern, the notion that taking university-level subject-specific courses as preparation for subject-specific school teaching—even at the high-school level—has been damagingly criticized (see, for instance, Proulx & Simmt, 2011). Grimmert (1998) has made the case for *concurrent* ITE programming on the ground of these two concerns, although at the surface, his line of argumentation runs somewhat differently.

There are many challenges to ITE reform in Canada, many systemic and many invisible, as Russell suggests, unless one knows where to look for them. But we can learn to look for them; we have the capacity and the scholarly support to identify desired programmatic features and practices; and we have the capacity and the scholarly support to plan and implement the changes needed and to advocate for the changes needed where forces external to a faculty of education are involved. The recent federal election in Canada and the presidential election of 2008 in the USA illustrate the power that hope can have for bringing change; but hope needs to be brought alive through strategic and thoughtful action. In the remainder of this introduction I outline a few general but important strategies to convert hope into a *process* toward a more systematic and intentional approach to assessing, revisiting, revising, reforming, and reconceptualizing existing ITE programming in Canada.

Value-Focused and Research-Informed Approach to Programming

I have been involved at the practical and scholarship level in ITE in Canada for 10 years. Again and again I have had reason to wonder about the irony that in the discussion, decision, and implementation of ITE programs so little attention and consideration is generally given to the huge scholarship in ITE that is available and to which many of the colleagues in one's own faculty and other Canadian faculties have been contributing. This statement, of course, needs many qualifications to be defensible, but, as a statement about a general tendency of how ITE program reviews and revisions happen, I think I have good reasons to make this claim (for some illustrative but also qualifying case reports, see Chapter 9 of this handbook).

On the other hand, I have been observing that the *Accord on Initial Teacher Education* (Association of Canadian Deans of Education [ACDE], 2005), developed and ratified by ACDE, is being referenced again and again in not just the Canadian ITE scholarship literature (including in chapters in this handbook), but also in discussions about program reform and design in faculties of education. This observation is a concern to me as well as a hopeful sign. It is concerning to me because the *Accord* consists of a set of statements about ITE programming that are not grounded in ITE scholarship within the *Accord* itself, and as such they contribute to the irony I identified above. They are value statements in which ITE programs in Canada should be grounded. They are, as ACDE said in response to a corresponding question, statements that are to reflect the views of ACDE members only, not of faculties of education or the Canadian teacher education (research) community at large. No one outside of ACDE was involved in the development of the *Accord*. Also, now ten years after the ratification of the *Accord*, it is very unlikely that any of the deans of education who developed and ratified it is still in his or her position. However, I take the attention given to the *Accord* in the ITE discourse in Canada also as a hopeful sign. I take it as an indication for the desire of the Canadian ITE community to have something in hand that can be considered a pan-Canadian framework for ITE programming. I take this as a hopeful sign, because it suggests a pan-Canadian outlook on ITE among ITE scholars and practitioners, and it suggests a good basis for enacting the strategy I will be talking about in the next section: a pan-Canadian research agenda for ITE.

With this last point in mind, I suggest as the first process strategy (Strategy #1) toward a more systematic and intentional approach to assessing, revisiting, revising, reforming, and reconceptualizing existing ITE programming in Canada that such programming be approached as value-focused and research-informed. This would mean three things. First, ITE practice needs to be understood as being grounded in and inextricably entangled in values. It is here, where ACDE's *Accord* with its normative principles can play the role of initiating and potentially framing the needed value discussions within a faculty of education.² Resulting value judgments about ITE establish the purpose of the respective ITE program, and they also establish the value base for appropriate processes to achieve those purposes, since means need to be in line with established ends, as Biesta (2010) has suggested. More philosophically oriented ITE research scholarship should be valued in this step for its potential for value discourses. Second, the programmatic means, which are framed by the value-based purpose(s), are then to be *informed*—not determined—by more empirically oriented ITE research. Third, a research-informed approach to ITE programming will also mean the need for *on-going* program evaluation, to establish what means might need to be adjusted to achieve the purpose(s) and to establish when those purposes might need to change.

Developing a Pan-Canadian Research Agenda for ITE

In order to provide the means needed for a value-focused and research-informed approach to ITE programming, the following strategy (Strategy #2) seems to me very promising: Under the leadership of CATE, a pan-Canadian research agenda for ITE should be developed and implemented.³ This strategy has two components. First, it suggests research by Canadian teacher

² Because of the exclusive way in which the normative principles of the *Accord* were developed, I would not want to go so far as Peter Grimmett (2008, pp. 41–42), who seems to suggest that the *Accord*'s normative principles should be “translate[d] . . . into desirable outcomes that can be debated and assessed” (p. 41), but not questioned themselves.

³ I know of two attempts to initiate such a pan-Canadian ITE research agenda: Tardif, Lenoir, Lessard, Martin, Mujawamariya, & Mukamurera, 2000; and Falkenberg, 2008. Neither seems to have had the desired effect.

education scholars for Canadian ITE programs. This is justified as follows. While a lot can be understood for Canadian ITE from research undertaken in other countries, social science research oriented toward action—under which a good portion of ITE research falls—needs to be conceptualized and practiced as *phronetic* social science research (Flyvbjerg, 2001; Flyvbjerg, Landman, & Schram, 2012).

Phronesis is that intellectual activity most relevant to praxis. It focuses on what is variable, on that which cannot be encapsulated by universal rules, on specific cases. *Phronesis* requires an interaction between the general and the concrete; it requires consideration, judgment, and choice. More than anything else, *phronesis* requires *experience*. (Flyvbjerg, 2001, p. 57).

Teacher education research oriented toward action in the particular and local context requires experience with the particular and the local context.

Second, this strategy also suggests *coordinated* research by Canadian teacher education scholars for Canadian ITE programs. In the natural sciences, research teams seem to be more the rule than the exception—because it is recognized that larger research problems are so complex and complicated that larger teams are needed to address them. In educational research—at least as far as I can tell for the Canadian context—the rule seems to be more the research team of one or two. How are we to address adequately larger research problems in the field of education without larger teams engaging in more coordinated research? Especially in the pursuit of phronetic social science research, coordinated research would be of great benefit, considering that phronetic social inquiry is grounded in a case study approach (Flyvbjerg, 2001). Such a coordinated research approach seems to me best organized by CATE, which has already demonstrated that it is able to bring Canadian teacher education scholars together on a regular basis. To support a value-focused and research-informed approach to ITE programming in Canada, such a coordinated research agenda would include (a) research and scholarship around value questions in teacher education to help ITE programs with their purpose development, (b) research and scholarship around programmatic means to achieve purposes in ITE programs, and (c) research and scholarship around on-going program evaluation.

Addressing Questions of Personnel

Based on informal observations, it seems to be the case that Canadian faculties of education employ more and more sessional instructors for the teaching of their BEd programs, moving professorial faculty members in further expanding graduate programs. Thus, faculties of education seem to move into a direction that other university faculties have already moved into a long time ago. This has two problematic implications for the quality of ITE programming. First, a greater use in number of sessional instructors in ITE programs endangers any attempt for coherent programs, which is a programmatic feature generally recognized as important to “powerful” ITE programs (Darling-Hammond, 2006, p. 41). Second, the use of more sessional instructors in ITE programs separates teaching from research even more than is currently the case for ITE programming. Considering what I suggested above about the important role of on-going program evaluation, this separation of those involved in the teaching and those doing the research in ITE is problematic. If the move of professorial staff into more and more graduate programming is difficult to avoid, ITE programs in Canada need to review the way in which teaching personnel for their undergraduate programs are hired, organized, and supported in order to address the issue of coherent programming

(Strategy #3). For instance, hiring course instructors on a term-by-term basis is clearly less desirable and so is their non-involvement in program planning and teaching team meetings more generally.

Another strategy toward a more systematic and intentional approach to assessing, revisiting, revising, reforming, and reconceptualizing existing ITE programming in Canada concerns the personnel needed for the type of value-focused and research-informed approach to programming. Although CATE is the second largest association within the Canadian Society for the Study of Education, to my knowledge the tenure-track or tenured positions in Canadian faculties of education that are *specifically* announced as positions in teacher education can be counted on one hand. It seems to me that this situation needs to be reviewed (Strategy #4) if Canadian faculties of education buy into a value-focused and research-informed approach to programming and support the development of a pan-Canadian research agenda for ITE in Canada.

Acknowledging and Responding to the Continuum of Teacher Education

Another strategy that would support a process toward a more systematic and intentional approach to assessing, revisiting, revising, reforming, and reconceptualizing existing ITE programs in Canada is to acknowledge and respond to the *continuum of teacher education*. ITE programming should be seen and understood “on life’s continuum”: “We see teacher education as being on a continuum of a lifelong process of learning to teach” (Connelly & Clandinin, 2001, p. 6). The education of a (future) teacher starts—in a most general sense—in the (future) teacher’s childhood. Childhood experiences shape his or her personal qualities that come to bear in his or her decision to become a teacher and in his or her work as a teacher. In a more specific but still general sense, a (future) teacher’s education moves then into the phase of informally learning about teaching and what it might mean to be a teacher when the (future) teacher attends formal schooling. This “apprenticeship of observation” (Lortie, 1975) shapes the (future) teacher’s view of teaching and his or her view of the process of learning to teach—for better or worse (Bullock & Russell, 2010). The formal ITE of the (future) teacher has in Canada two components: the university-based course work and the school-based practicum. Generally, there is very little connection between the two, except in the expectation of the teacher candidates and the collaborating teachers that the university-based course work prepares the teacher candidates for the practicum work. In Canada the education of teachers is expected to be complete in general terms after graduation from an ITE program. New teachers are hired and employed like more experienced teachers, with the same expectations and under the same conditions. Teachers, whether new or experienced, are expected to spend almost all their paid working time in the classroom. Any additional formal teacher education (in-service teacher education) is, thus, relatively rare, unsystematic, generally unstructured, and generally dependent on self-initiated activities, often on the teachers’ own time. More formal and systematic in-service teacher education in the form of formal degree studies at the university level—post-baccalaureate programs, MEd programs, or PhD programs—is generally unconnected with the actual teaching context of the respective teacher and is generally expected to be undertaken *in addition to* one’s full-time teaching work.

The notion that ITE is an integral component of the continuous process of teacher education needs to be recognized and supported (Strategy #5). Having received some insights into the working of a number of ITE programs across Canada through my involvement with CATE and some of my research projects, I can say with some confidence that the teaching profession at large is not as integrated into Canadian ITE programs as it needs to be. Such integration has two components. First, the university-based course work and the school-based field experiences need to be much more integrated than they currently are. This requires (a) a greater acknowledged and enacted responsibility for ITE by the teaching profession and school divisions and (b) a move toward ITE programming

that is co-constructed by faculties of education and the provincial and local teaching profession. Second, ITE programs need to be more strongly integrated into the continuum of teacher education from the time teachers are hired in school divisions. This requires (a) a greater acknowledgement and enacted responsibility by school divisions and the provincial government for on-going and systematic teacher education programming for all teachers, but in particular for beginning teachers, and (b) a move toward a greater integration and coordination of such programming with the ITE programming from which beginning teachers have just graduated.

A Role for This Handbook

This handbook can play a central role in enacting each of these five strategies. As a single-source publication that brings together information about ITE programming across Canada and scholarly discussions of core elements of ITE programs and research thereof, the open-access handbook can easily serve as a reference document for value-focused and research-informed approaches to undergraduate programming in Canadian faculties of education (Strategy #1). As a publication that brings together leading scholars in a range of areas of ITE research, writing about the current discourse in the respective fields, the handbook can also serve as a guide for developing a pan-Canadian research agenda for ITE in Canada (Strategy #2). Because of its nature as a handbook, it can also serve as a starting point for orienting new teacher educators in current and relevant ITE research for Canadian ITE programs (Strategy #3). The very existence of the handbook also makes a very strong argument for the need to acknowledge (initial) teacher education as an important field of study that needs to be recognized and considered as a stand-alone research area when Canadian faculties of education consider the creation of new tenure-track positions (Strategy #4), especially where faculties of education want to take a value-focused and research-informed approach to their undergraduate programming. Finally, the breadth and depth of the areas covered and the open-access availability of the handbook make it an ideal resource that can support a greater involvement of the teaching profession, school divisions, and provincial governments in approaches toward a closer collaboration of the different educational groups in ITE (Strategy #5).

My hope is that at least some of the discussed strategies toward a more systematic and intentional approach to assessing, revisiting, revising, reforming, and reconceptualizing existing ITE programming in Canada will be picked up or strengthened and that this handbook can play its role in supporting it.

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PART 1

INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION IN CANADA

Chapter 2

ISSUES IN INDIGENOUS INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION: CANADIAN PERSPECTIVES

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Introduction

There have been progressive initiatives across Canada in recent years to integrate indigenous perspectives into primary and secondary education (Battiste, 2013). It may be important to consider that the success of such initiatives may be facilitated by suitable initial teacher education. There has been some evidence that suggests that integrating indigenous perspectives into initial teacher education may have challenges. Kanu (2005, p.57) identified challenges that were perceived amongst in-service schoolteachers—challenges that were also prevalent in initial teacher education (Deer, 2013). Issues such as lack of appropriate knowledge, racism, and one's own ancestry as a teacher appear to be perennial concerns.

Many faculties and colleges of education, school districts, authorities, and provincial ministries have developed opportunities for initial teacher education that may support the appropriate development of knowledge and attitudes that appear to be required for the effective integration of

indigenous perspectives into school programming. Initial teacher education courses have become better with content associated with indigenous perspectives. Books, resources, and community support are becoming more accessible for teachers-in-training. Currently, the resources and safe spaces required for the adequate study of indigenous perspectives in schools are improving. As faculties and colleges of education continue to reform in an effort to accommodate the growing need for development in this area, pre-service teachers' confidence in their ability to deliver should become a priority.

Background

In Canada, primary and secondary education currently operates under a number of different governance structures, among which two principal forms of governance are particularly important: public education and First Nations education. Public education, which accounts for most of primary and secondary students in Canada (Young, Levin, & Wallin, 2007), is a provincial/territorial responsibility for which government officials mandate curricula, certify teachers, fund public school operations, and administer other relevant processes. In public education, schools, school districts, and provincial/territorial ministries are accountable to the public in a given region. Canada's Indigenous population, a comparatively large portion of which is of primary and secondary school age, tend to attend public schools under provincial jurisdiction (Hare, 2011), although many Indigenous students who are status Indian attend band-managed schools on First Nations (Richards, 2013).

First Nations education operates separately, but not necessarily independently, of provincially controlled public education in Canada (Mendelson, 2013). First Nations education, which in this discussion refers to primary and secondary education that is managed by First Nations bands, does not have the same accountability relationship with the general public as is the case for public education (Newhouse & Belanger, 2011). Elementary and secondary education in First Nations communities in Canada is funded through fiscal transfers from the federal government in accordance with Canada's Indian Act (Carr-Stewart 2006) or through government–First Nation agreements. Although primary and secondary education on First Nations was once administered by federal authorities and religious representatives, developments in government and the emergent liberal sentiment amongst the Canadian public has led to a raised state of awareness for the marginalized state in which many First Nations peoples lived and have been educated. As a result of social and political developments over the last four decades such as the Trudeau government's *Statement of the Government of Canada on Indian Policy* (Indian Affairs and Northern Development Canada, 1969), popularly known as the *White Paper*, First Nations have begun managing their own schools through locally controlled education authorities (Urion, 1993). As band-management of First Nations schools in Canada developed concurrently with native political activism following the development of the *White Paper*, a desire for the revitalization, affirmation, and celebration of traditional First Nations identity emerged. Local control of First Nations schools has provided the opportunity, and perhaps the inspiration, for some First Nations and non-First Nations educators to develop appropriate educational curricula and other resources as a means for facilitating cultural revitalization and celebration.

In attempting to foster a climate that will facilitate cultural revitalization, numerous education authorities and indigenous organizations have introduced policy and programming in an effort to encourage rediscovery of localized manifestations of traditional knowledge, heritage, and consciousness. These efforts, which have the potential to provide community context that transcends general stereotypes of the Indigenous peoples of Canada, are frequently associated with what a community may value about their own local identity.

These developments have been facilitated through the efforts of Indigenous and non-Indigenous peoples working at the university and community level (Deer, 2013). Because of the increasingly specialized nature of educational programming and curricular development, many have developed an appreciation for the potential that exists for cooperative efforts between faculty members at universities and community members in the establishment of initial teacher education programming that is responsive to the needs and requirements of Indigenous education.

In spite of the encouraging institutional changes that have taken place in order to facilitate the integration of Indigenous perspectives into primary and secondary education in Canada, there is an emerging issue amongst prospective teachers—apprehension of the prospect of integrating such perspectives into their teaching (Kanu, 2005, 2010; Deer, 2013). Primary and secondary school teacher-candidates in the 21st century tend to be non-Indigenous (Friesen & Friesen, 2002) and, outside of their teacher education programs, usually have little or no experience in the area of Indigenous perspectives. Because of the manner in which Indigenous cultural revitalization and celebration has developed in Canada over the last three to four decades, with plenty of political rhetoric, stories of marginalization and disadvantage, and personal narratives of hardship, the emergent imperative to integrate Indigenous perspectives into school programming has resembled a politically charged social movement (Widdowson & Howard, 2013). Due to the politically charged manner in which rhetoric associated with Indigenous issues in Canada (including education) has been dispensed in previous decades, debate continues amongst some scholars and in-service professionals regarding the purposes of Indigenous education (Anuik, 2015; Cassidy & Marsden, 2009). Is such integration intended to help Indigenous peoples to experience some form of success in Canadian society? Is it intended to correct historical and social problems that have occurred as a result of colonial and post-colonial relations between Indigenous peoples in Canada and their oppressors? Is it intended to supplement other topics in the social sciences in order to adequately represent Canadian history or the growing Indigenous population in Canada? Is it regarded as an essential form of knowledge that should be a part of Canada's social consciousness?

These questions and the issues that are associated with them have obfuscated the issue for many prospective teachers and even some scholars. For many, the prospect of integrating Indigenous perspectives requires focus on a particular group of people—and focus on that group of people takes the form of a client–service provider relationship. Otherwise stated, Indigenous perspectives should be integrated in school programming if and when Indigenous students are present in the classroom or community. If there are no Indigenous students in the class, school, or community, then, for some, there is little point in integrating Indigenous perspectives into school programming. For some, Indigenous education is education for Indigenous students. For others Indigenous education is education for all students, and Indigenous perspectives can provide a supplementary set of views on the world we live in and the people with whom we share that world.

This chapter brings together scholars from across Canada to provide regional perspectives on teacher education that reflect some of the initiatives and challenges that have marked the introduction of development of Indigenous education into contemporary initial teacher education. Although the parlance and stages of progress may differ from region to region, the development of Indigenous education across Canada bears evidence of similar challenges and interventions from region to region. For instance, many provincial jurisdictions are mandating the inclusion of indigenous education into teacher education, many university faculty members have participated in the development of curricular resources for classroom teachers, and many faculties/colleges of education have promoted programming that will welcome teacher candidates of indigenous descent into their respective institutions. These and similar developments are reflected in five Canadian regions: Atlantic Canada, Quebec, Ontario, the Prairies, and the West Coast.

Atlantic Canada

Across the Atlantic Provinces, there are 10 university-accredited Bachelor of Education (BEd) programs. Of these universities, Cape Breton University, Memorial University, and the University of New Brunswick offer a BEd stream specifically for First Nations, Métis, and Inuit student enrolment. The University of Prince Edward Island offers a BEd program with the option of an Indigenous Specialization. (See Table 1 for an overview of these Atlantic Canadian universities and the focus or non-focus on an Indigenous stream or specialization.)

Table 1

Atlantic Canadian University BEd Programs, With/Without an Indigenous Focus

Atlantic Canadian university offering a BEd	Location	Indigenous stream or specialization?
Acadia University	Wolfville, NS	No
Cape Breton University	Sydney, NS	Yes
Crandall University	Moncton, NB	No
Memorial University	St. John's, NL	Yes
Mount Saint Vincent University	Halifax, NS	No
St. Francis Xavier University	Antigonish, NS	No
St. Mary's University	Halifax, NS	No
St. Thomas University	Fredericton, NB	No
University of New Brunswick	Fredericton, NB	Yes
University of Prince Edward Island	Charlottetown, PE	Yes

Due to limited space and due to its uniqueness, the authors have chosen to highlight one program—the University of Prince Edward Island's BEd Specialization in Indigenous Education.

University of Prince Edward Island's BEd Specialization in Indigenous Education

Not only is this Specialization in Indigenous Education certificate anchored in community-based learning, it is, to the author's knowledge, the only Indigenous-based teacher education certificate in Atlantic Canada with optional enrolment for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous students. To fully understand this particular certificate, we present a short narrative of a student who experienced this program, followed by an explication of the distinctive features of this certificate.

Julia's story. It was late August. Julia Blanchard¹ left her home province with one goal in mind—to start the Bachelor of Education program at the University of Prince Edward Island (UPEI). Julia had decided to enrol in UPEI's BEd program because this particular program offered a Specialization in Indigenous Education. Julia's intention to gain this unique certificate meant that she would complete the regular BEd requirements and four additional three-credit Indigenous-related courses. For these extra credits, three courses were instructor-led, and the fourth course was a six-week teaching practicum in an Indigenous community located in Canada, New Zealand, or Sweden. In Julia's case, she traveled to New Zealand to teach in a Maori setting. Then, shortly after

¹ Julia has provided permission to use her real name, communicate her story, and use her words.

convocating with a BEd and Specialization in Indigenous Education certificate, Julia gained employment as a full-time teacher in a First Nations school in Northern Manitoba. Reflecting on her teacher education journey, Julia said,

I came to UPEI specifically for the Indigenous Specialization, and it was everything I hoped it would be. As a Mi'kmaq person, I was eager to learn more about my own culture and to learn about other Indigenous cultures in Canada. The program allowed me to do that, and so much more. It truly was a life changing experience for me, opening my eyes to my true calling. I will be forever grateful for this gift. I highly recommend this program to anyone who is interested in learning not only about Indigenous cultures, but in learning about their true selves. (J. Blanchard, personal communication, August 11, 2012)

Details of the specialization. Described as “experiential learning at its best” (University of Prince Edward Island, n.d.), the Specialization in Indigenous Education certificate program edifies authentic learning as a process of self-awareness catalyzed through the development of interdependent relationships among peers, instructors, community members, and Elders. A typical class may begin with a smudging ceremony led by an invited speaker who comes from an Indigenous community in the local area or throughout the Maritimes. As well, students participate in a variety of talking circles and partake in Medicine Wheel teachings led by an Elder. Indigenous music, dance, and singing are threaded into the classes. As generally expressed by students who complete the Specialization, a seminal, nostalgic experience of the program is their participation in a sweat lodge ceremony offered during the fall and winter months. In order to experience and fully comprehend the educational successes of Indigenous youth, students also travel to various First Nations communities throughout Atlantic Canada. By visiting First Nations communities such as Lennox Island (Prince Edward Island), Membertou and Millbrook (Nova Scotia), and Elsipogtog (New Brunswick), students personally witness the educational activities and achievements of Indigenous learners. These onsite cultural immersion experiences enable students to recognize how Indigenous languages, traditions, and ways of knowing are intricately linked to the educational success of Indigenous youth and the overall wellbeing of Indigenous communities.

In particular, the content of many classes emphasizes and contests Canada's history of cultural assimilation and cognitive imperialism; therein, students critically analyze the colonial injustices imposed on Indigenous peoples during the past hundreds of years. As a part of the students' scrutiny of past and current educational practices, students reflect upon the impact that residential schools had and continue to have on Indigenous communities across Canada. Moreover, students acknowledge and celebrate the healing, accomplishment, and strength of Indigenous peoples.

Through its organization and delivery of content, the Specialization attempts to emulate features of an Indigenous worldview where teaching and learning are natural, value-laden, social events and interactions. For example, students organically absorb knowledge as they observe, listen, and participate in community events, role modeling, group discussions, learning circles, and student-led activities. In such a manner, instructional pedagogies and learner-focused assessment practices are first and foremost experienced by students. Then students are expected to emulate these actions as teachers during their practicums, which are located in First Nations schools or in schools that have a large enrolment of Aboriginal students. Overall, re graduates of this program are to be teachers who balance head, heart, body, and soul to more fully empower Indigenous learners and their communities.

Of the current 100-plus graduates who have completed the Specialization, the majority work as full-time teachers with Indigenous communities across Canada or internationally. In a 2010–2011 survey (University of Prince Edward Island, n.d.), accolades from graduates of the Specialization are

virtually unanimous in praise of this program, describing it as truly transformational. Collaboratively, instructors and guest speakers foster this transformational learning by asking students to first acknowledge their personal values and belief systems and critically assess them. Then, ensconced within a safe communicative learning environment, instructors and guest speakers ask students to openly discuss conflicting feelings, thoughts, and past actions. After undergoing these often emotionally enervating reflections of self and others students are empowered to develop and attain a broader comprehension of teaching and learning within Indigenous settings. With regard to this transformative learning process, one respondent explained,

What I learned in the Indigenous Education Specialization was priceless and immeasurable. It was an amazing learning, teaching and growing experience to have taught in a tiny First Nations school. The things I learned there I will use the rest of my life. (Doiron, Favaro, & Croken, 2009, p. 79)

An Overview of Initial Teacher Education in Quebec

Since the 1970s, First Nations have experienced a certain autonomy in their education system. In 1972, the Indian Brotherhood² underscored the “critical and urgent” need for Aboriginal teachers and proposed, among other suggestions, “an easing of the basic educational requirements” to encourage the education and training of Aboriginals (Indian Brotherhood, 1972). The education of Aboriginal teachers is crucial not only in that it concerns the transmission of the language and culture at the school level, but also so that students perceive the teacher as a meaningful person, a model for their own community (Maheux, 2008). In the autonomy movement in Quebec in 1972, we have the founding of the Kativik School Board, following the James Bay and Northern Quebec Agreement. The Aboriginal school administrators, together with the universities, worked to create teacher education programs whose content was adapted to the First Nations’ context. For example, the Inuit created a partnership with the University of Quebec at Abitibi-Tamiscamingue (UQAT) in 1984, the purpose of which was primarily to train Inuit teachers within their own communities (Maheux, 2009).

In many communities, teaching is done in the first language, up to the age of eight. Consequently, school organizations hire bilingual Aboriginals to fill teaching positions. Most of the time, these hirees do not have the legal qualifications to teach. In Quebec, the qualifications come with a teaching certificate obtained after a bachelor of education degree and the successful results of the French language exam, set by the Ministry of Education, Leisure, and Sports (Ministère de l’Éducation, du Loisir, et du Sport, 2013). Student registration is often done in cohorts by the band council. The education of Aboriginal teachers is not only a personal journey, but also “their Nation’s sociocommunity project” (Maheux & Gauthier, 2013). Since these students work while taking their education, the education is done on a part-time basis. Their admission to university is often based on their work experience and their age (21 or over) because students who hope to take initial teacher education have often completed their secondary studies, without having done their college courses.³ Moreover, it must be remembered that Aboriginals study in a second language (English or French). From this perspective, and before even beginning teacher education, they often take upgrading courses (such as the ones required by the University of Quebec at Chicoutimi, UQAC, for example),

² Now *Assembly of First Nations*.

³ “College” would here refer to CEGEP, which equals our final year of high school in Manitoba, plus an introductory pre-university year.

or a certificate in French for non-francophones (as is required by the University of Quebec at Trois Rivières, UQTR, among others).

Education Programs and Initiatives

There are essentially four universities in Quebec which offer specialty programs for the education of Aboriginal teachers: UQAC, UQAT, UQTR, and McGill University. With the exception of these four Quebec universities which offer an alternative to the bachelor of education (Pre-School and Early Years), the other universities offer no specific education for Aboriginal teachers. It is not a question of easing students' assignments, or of awarding a diploma of lesser value, but rather of taking into account the needs of Aboriginals and adapting their academic program to meet these needs. At UQAC, for example, an Aboriginal student can, by accumulating certificates, obtain a Bachelor of Pre-School and Early Years' Education.

Different courses are also offered to perfect initial teacher education. The Universities of Quebec network offers various courses in language teaching methodologies, a certificate in teacher aide education for the Aboriginal context, and a certificate in substitute teacher education for the Aboriginal school setting. More precisely, UQTR offers a microprogram in teaching an Algonquin language (aimed at the ATIKAMEKW) and UQAT offers a microprogram in teaching a second language in the Aboriginal context. It is to be noted that several UQAT programs are available in French and English. As for McGill University, they have created education programs for teaching at the primary and adult levels. A literacy certificate for Aboriginals, a certificate for teaching physical education for the First Nations and Inuit, and a middle school certificate are among their programs. The education is sometimes given outside the community, as in UQAC's case, where students take their courses on campus. Students from UQAT and McGill have access to education both on the campus and within their communities. It is important to note, however, that to our knowledge, no Quebec universities have put in place any programs aimed at teaching at the secondary level.

As a complement to these programs, the universities have put forward a good number of initiatives to support students and to encourage scholastic perseverance. At UQAT in particular, the First Nations' Service, founded in 2002, proposes a holistic approach whereby both psychological and physical well-being is taken into account towards the students' success. At UQAC, the Centre for Nikanite First Nations has existed since 2009. This welcome centre constitutes a place of help and support for Aboriginal students. It also has a mandate for the creation and management of First Nations' curricula. Moreover, the University of Concordia has opened an Aboriginal Student Resource Centre. McGill University has similar kinds of resources in its First Peoples' House. The University of Montreal offers a special support to Aboriginal students. The University of Quebec at Outaouais, the University of Quebec at Montreal, and Laval University have student organizations specifically for First Nations' students. Lastly, there are neither student organizations, nor specific support, at the University of Quebec at Rimouski, Bishop's University, or at Sherbrooke University.

Issues

In light of this overview, Aboriginal teacher education would seem to pose several challenges, both for teacher educators and for their students. Teacher education programs for Aboriginals must consider the particular linguistic and cultural dimensions of Aboriginals. As well, the geographical and cultural distance between educators and their students, including the availability of pedagogical resources, can complicate the education of Aboriginal teachers. A First Nations' teacher constantly finds himself between his traditional culture and that of the non-Aboriginals. If we imagine that a teacher is mandated to move between learning content from official curricula and the educational

curricula springing from his own cultural identity, teacher education programs must take this into account (Maheux, 2008). Furthermore, the context of teacher education is itself a written culture, while the students come from an oral culture. Thus, university pedagogy must accord a greater place to orality and to multimodality while encouraging holistic means of teaching, learning, and evaluation in order to better serve the education of Aboriginal teachers.

Indigenous Initial Teacher Education in Ontario

A review of the literature pertaining to Indigenous teacher education in Ontario reveals the existence of two general trends. The first consists of teacher education programs designed specifically for Indigenous educators, and often geared to teaching in First Nation contexts. The second trend consists of initiatives within so-called “mainstream” initial teacher education programs to infuse, incorporate, or imbed Indigenous content, perspectives, worldviews, and pedagogies within the respective programs. In this section I will briefly outline the available literature on both, and then detail the work of one such program that I am affiliated with, the Deepening Knowledge Project, which is situated at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education at the University of Toronto.

Postsecondary Education Programs for Indigenous peoples in Ontario

Teacher education programs specifically geared towards Indigenous teacher candidates have long been established in the province of Ontario. Lakehead University, located in Thunder Bay, has offered an on-campus Native Teacher Education Program (NTEP) since 1974 (Heimbecker, Minner, & Prater, 2000, p. 39). From 1993 to 1996, Heimbecker, Minner, and Prater report that Lakehead offered three community-based NTEP opportunities which were developed in partnership with program management committees in the Rainy Lake Education Authority, Wabaseemoong Education Authority, and the Sioux Lookout District (p. 39), and approximately two-thirds of the coursework was done in the student’s home community (p. 41). According to the Department of Aboriginal Education at Lakehead’s website, NTEP is currently:

Part of a four-year *undergraduate concurrent degree* program with teachables in most grade levels. Enrolled in the core courses of the NTEP program, students may earn an Arts or Science degree while they are concurrently working towards a Bachelor of Education (General) degree. (Lakehead University, 2013)

Since 1991, Queen’s University has also offered an Aboriginal Teacher Education Program (ATEP), with both community- and campus-based streams (Hill, 1998; Queen’s University Faculty of Education, n.d.-a). The community-based stream is open exclusively to Aboriginal students, and is offered part-time over two years (Hill, 1998; Queen’s University Faculty of Education, n.d.-b). Successful applicants have a secondary school diploma or equivalent (Hill, 1998). The campus-based stream is full-time, and open to students of all backgrounds, who must have an undergraduate degree to apply (Hill, 1998). In both streams, practicum placements can be completed in both First Nation communities and provincial schools, and both programs can end in the earning of a BEd. However, that certification is only available to those students who enter the program with an undergraduate degree (Queen’s University Faculty of Education, n.d.-a, n.d.-b).

The programs offered at Lakehead and Queen’s Universities are but two such programs geared towards Indigenous educators in Ontario. In her MA thesis, Naokwegijig-Corbiere (2007) provided a

snapshot of all education programs available to Aboriginal candidates in the province of Ontario (pp. 59–60), which has been reproduced and updated with the permission of the author (see Table 2). It reveals a variety of certificate, diploma, and BEd programs designed specifically for Aboriginal peoples.

Table 2

Aboriginal Postsecondary Programs in Ontario—Teaching Related

<i>Name of program</i>	<i>Type of accreditation</i>	<i>Institution</i>
Aboriginal Adult Education	BEd	Brock University
Aboriginal Adult Education	Certificate	Brock University
Aboriginal Teacher Certification Program	BEd	Nipissing University
Aboriginal Teacher Education Program	BEd	Brock University
Aboriginal Teacher Education Program	Certificate	Queen's (with Kenjgewin Teg)
Aboriginal Teacher Education Program	Certificate	University of Ottawa
Aboriginal Teacher Education Program	Diploma	Seven Generations (with Queen's)
Early Childhood Education	Diploma	Anishinabek E.I; Oshki-Pimache-O-Win (with Cambrian); Six Nations Polytechnic (with Niagara)
Native Classroom Assistant Diploma Program	Diploma	Nipissing University
Native Language Instructors Program	Certificate	Lakehead University
Native Language Instructors' Diploma Program	Diploma	Lakehead University
Native Teacher Education Program	Certificate	Brock University
Native Teacher Education Program	BA/BEd—Indigenous Learning	Lakehead University
Principals of First Nations Schools—6 weeks		Six Nations Polytechnic and Seven Generations
Teacher Assistant	Certificate	Northern College
Teacher of Anishnaabemwin as a Second Language Program	Certificate	Nipissing University

(Adapted and updated with permission, Naokwegijig-Corbiere, 2007, p.59–60.)

Indigenous Content in Mainstream Teacher Education

Mainstream teacher education programs with student bodies mainly consisting of settler teacher candidates across the province of Ontario have instituted various initiatives created to bring meaningful instruction in Indigenous education to their teacher candidates, and there is a growing body of literature which documents and analyzes those initiatives (Dion, 2007; Cherubini, Hodson, Manley-Casimir, & Muir, 2010; Vetter & Blimkie, 2011; Styres, 2011; Styres, Haig-Brown & Blimkie, 2013). Universities in Ontario, including OISE at the University of Toronto, Trent, Brock, York, Wilfred Laurier, Western, and Lakehead are signatories to the deans' *Accord on Indigenous Education* (ratified 2009), which has as one of its goals, “to improve the quality of knowledge, understanding, and pedagogic skills that all educators gain about Indigenous education and Indigenous knowledge systems” (Association of Canadian Deans of Education, 2010, p.6). In 2011, the Association of Canadian Deans of Education, who produced the *Accord*, released a progress report that provides an important snapshot of the activities each signatory is engaged in to promote Indigenous content within their individual institutions (Association of Canadian Deans of Education, 2011).

The initial teacher education (ITE) program at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education is an example of one such program. In 2008, a group of faculty members, instructors, and students came together to create the Deepening Knowledge Project (DKP), the ultimate purpose of which was to attract more Indigenous teacher candidates to OISE. The team recognized that to do this, greater and more systematic attention had to be paid to Indigenous histories, contemporary communities, and pedagogies within the curriculum (Mashford-Pringle & Nardozi, 2013). The project delivers two to three hour-long presentations on Indigenous histories, cultures, and current experiences across the concurrent and consecutive ITE and Masters of Teaching program, holds optional seminars and lectures throughout the year, and oversees the development of a highly popular online repository of teacher resources which includes lesson plans, videos, and other resources divided by grade level and curriculum subject area (<http://www.oise.utoronto.ca/deepeningknowledge>). Members of the DKP meet with instructors who teach subject-specific courses to plan relevant workshops in such areas as philosophy, science, and politics. Members also worked closely with Central Option at OISE, a professional learning community of approximately seventy teacher candidates each year, which until 2014 had a specific focus on learning and understanding Aboriginal content and pedagogies (Nardozi, Restoule, Broad, Steele, & James, 2014).

Post-presentation evaluations completed by teacher candidates routinely document frustration that the majority were not aware of much of the information provided in the workshop prior to attending it (Mashford-Pringle & Nardozi, 2013). Many teacher candidates call for the presentation to be extended into a full course mandatory for all teacher candidates, both in-person after the presentation and on the evaluations. At the time of writing in fall 2013, the author was informed via personal communication that the Faculty Council at Lakehead University had just taken this step and approved a mandatory 36-hour course in Aboriginal Education as well as a directive to include learning outcomes in all Curriculum and Instruction (C&I) courses that explicitly address the needs of Aboriginal learners (personal communication). According to Paul Berger, the council also voted to bring about a new 36-hour mandatory Social Difference in Education course, as well as a 36-hour Democracy in Education course, in order that “the new program will have great places to learn about teaching across difference and the broader goals of (and problems with) formal education—meaning the Aboriginal Education course can do its own work!” (personal communication, November 25, 2013).

Initial Teacher Education and Indigenous Education: The Prairies

First Nations and Métis are the diverse Indigenous peoples of Alberta, Saskatchewan, and Manitoba, located on the territories of treaties one to eight and ten. As with other treaty and constitutional rights, Indigenous rights to education have not transpired as originally intended. Rather, the Canadian government's residential school and Eurocentric education system has affected all Métis and First Nation peoples. Indeed, colonial power structures and discourses continue to complicate relations among Indigenous peoples and provincial education systems. On the Prairies, First Nations and Métis kindergarten to Grade 12 students are a fast growing population. Though decreased from previous generations, a gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Prairie high school completion and achievement rates remains prevalent as Indigenous K–12 students are overrepresented as “at risk,” with learning impairments, and as below grade level (Howe, 2013; Manitoba Association of School Superintendents, 2013; Saskatchewan Ministry of Education, 2010; Young, 2013). Research also indicates that Indigenous youth disproportionately experience social services, the justice and correctional systems, poverty, and violence (Monchalin & Marques, 2013; Sinclair & Grekul, 2012). Once theorized through a deficit lens positioning Indigenous peoples as inferior, Indigenous youth statistics are understood increasingly in relation to intergenerational colonial violence and racialization processes that shape the Prairie landscape and have silenced the resiliency, strengths, and rich, vibrant, diverse knowledge systems and cultures of Prairie Indigenous nations.

Responding to statistics and Indigenous calls for reform, Prairie provincial ministries of education have instituted policy urging K–12 teachers to include Indigenous content across subject areas. For example, the Saskatchewan Ministry of Education has mandated the integration of Indigenous perspectives across grade levels and subject areas since 1990 and Treaty Education as of 2007. Data, however, suggests inconsistency between ministry policy regarding Indigenous education and what occurs in schools. For example, Prairie teachers in general minimize or exclude Indigenous knowledges, rights, and racialized experiences from pedagogical approaches (Kanu, 2005; McCreary, 2011; Schick & St. Denis, 2005; Sterzuk 2008), fail to meet Treaty Education mandates (Couros, Montgomery, Tupper, Hildebrandt, Naytowhow, & Lewis, 2013; Tupper, 2011; Tupper & Capello, 2008), and are underprepared to teach in band-controlled schools (Wimmer, Legare, Arcand, & Cottrell, 2010). Such findings reflect an overwhelming white population of teachers, administrators, and superintendents throughout Canada (Ryan, Pollock, & Antonelli, 2009; Saskatchewan Ministry of Education, 2010) and Indigenous teacher candidates, teachers, and students who face low expectations, structural barriers, and cultural stereotypes in schools (Cherubini, Niemczyk, Hodson & McGean, 2010; Riley & Ungerleider, 2008; St. Denis, 2010).

Following a long history of Indigenous advocacy, many Prairie teacher education programs have thus integrated and foregrounded Indigenous education; particularly Indigenous governed programs such as Indigenous teacher education programs housed at the universities of Alberta, Saskatchewan, Regina, and Winnipeg that admit only Indigenous students. There are eleven teacher education programs including the First Nations University of Canada, open to all applicants, in operation throughout Alberta, Saskatchewan, and Manitoba and each program approaches Indigenous education in distinct ways (Universities Canada, 2015). For instance, the University of Saskatchewan requires prospective applicants to complete an introductory Native Studies course and the University of Calgary has made an Indigenous history and education course mandatory. Many Prairie teacher education programs also include an anti-oppressive education course where teacher candidates analyse white privilege, intersected oppressions, and identities. Such courses, however, have met with resistance from teacher candidates in some instances, particularly concerning matters of white privilege (Schick, 2000, 2002). This refusal to learn about and recognize white privilege, or

the structural advantages of white skin derived from a long history of on-going colonialism and racism in Canada, prevents meaningful engagement with Indigenous education. Furthermore, though Prairie teacher candidates, a majority of whom identify as white, may be introduced to the histories of local Indigenous peoples and anti-racist pedagogies through coursework, a review of college websites and research infers an absence of core courses with explicit focus on Indigenous education and its implementation. In addition, limited socialization and relations with Indigenous peoples compounds inabilities and apprehension to integrate Indigenous education as outlined by ministry policy (Deer, 2013).

Prairie teacher educators—who, like teachers and teacher candidates, identify overwhelmingly as White—are acutely aware of responsibilities to Indigenous education (den Heyer, 2009). Interestingly, a recent study indicated that education faculty who identify as Indigenous allies find anti-oppressive and anti-colonial education more comfortable than Indigenous knowledge systems (Kovach, Carriere, Montgomery, Barrett & Gillies, 2013). Aligning with teacher candidates' apprehensions (Deer, 2013), professors have expressed concern regarding knowledge appropriation and misrepresentation, as well as inadvertently essentializing Indigenous knowledges and peoples. Others have expressed frustration when attempting to teach Indigenous paradigms to teacher candidates (den Heyer, 2009). Consequently, according to limited data and my observations, Indigenous knowledge systems are often integrated to varying degrees through teacher educators' pedagogical approaches reflected in their syllabi, assignments, participation in community events, selection of guest speakers including elders and Indigenous educators, methods such as story-telling and sharing circles, and selection of course readings and resources with a focus on anti-colonial theory and Indigenous epistemologies.

Drawing from experience at the University of Saskatchewan with the College of Education and the Indian Teacher Education Program [ITEP], I have found flexibility in selecting readings and am supported in centering Indigenous perspectives and anti-colonial theory in my courses. That said, interpretations and integration of Indigenous education is determined largely by instructors' discretion and is not assessed through teacher candidate course evaluations. Teacher candidates do have opportunities to learn about Indigenous education through college sponsored workshops, lectures, and conferences, and campus-wide cultural events, activities, and ceremonies. Such opportunities are important for those not attending Indigenous teacher education programs as Indigenous and non-Indigenous teacher candidates have limited access to dialogue. Exceptions include professors who bring teacher candidates together across programs and teacher candidates who voluntarily participate in multi-program groups such as the Student Teachers Anti-Racism Society, founded by ITEP students. The College of Education's Beadwork Group, composed of faculty committed to Indigenous education, has also implemented the Indigenous Voices program featuring a series of Indigenous education workshops developed for faculty and staff. Additionally, the college has hired a Chair of Aboriginal Education and houses the Aboriginal Education Research Centre. A small percentage of self-identifying Indigenous professors have contributed tremendously to the college's advancements in Indigenous education, while non-Indigenous colleagues have collaborated with Indigenous communities providing teacher candidates land and community-based learning experiences modelling Indigenous pedagogies. Unlike in years past, posters, paintings, and a library collection make Indigenous education's presence felt in numerous affirming ways throughout the college.

Facing colonial power structures foundational to and interwoven within current education systems, various Prairie teacher education programs have worked towards and established Indigenous community partnerships, anti-racism/colonial education, and curriculum decolonization. In spite of progress, there is still an urgent need to move forward. A majority of teacher candidates continue to graduate from Prairie teacher education programs with perhaps awareness of how

colonialism and racism affect Indigenous peoples, but with limited knowledge and skills needed to foster learning spaces that uphold and validate the complex knowledge systems, experiences, and rights of First Nations and Métis peoples. Acting on dialogue with Indigenous peoples, governments, and practicing teachers committed to anti-racism education, decolonization and Indigenous K–12 student academic achievement, Prairie teacher education programs may better prepare teacher candidates in honouring the visions of those who worked tirelessly to uphold Indigenous education in its rightful place.

Indigenous Initial Teacher Education in British Columbia

The region of Canada that is known today as British Columbia (BC) is uniquely connected to Indigenous people and their knowledge. Many of the landmarks, towns, and places of interests carry those names based on Indigenous languages (Thornton, 1960). Martin (1978) identifies one of the names submitted for consideration of the British colony in 1858 was an “Anglicized Indian name” (p. 259). Before European contact, the Indigenous people in the BC region prevailed for over 10,000 years with an approximate population of 250,000. It was not until 1778 that Indigenous people of the Northwest Coast came into contact with Europeans and other settlers, which resulted in a drop in the population to 23,000 by 1929 (Muckle, 2007, p. 64).

Like other regions in Canada, the Indigenous experience in BC has been filled with the challenges that resulted from contact with Europeans and settlers in their territories. From an educational perspective, disease, disruption of traditions, and criminalization of ceremonial practices created many difficulties and burdens. Governments created much conflict as the focus on power and external control was ultimately pursuing assimilation (Kavanagh, 2006). External control without an opportunity for self-determination has had a devastating impact for generations of Indigenous people in BC and across Canada (Muckle, 2007). It has been the result of these assimilationist policies that the Indian residential school system in Canada evolved and education became an instrument of colonization and genocide disguised as a pleasant countenance (Truth and Reconciliation Commission, 2012)—a “countenance” being a superficial appearance, as the reality of Indian residential schools focused on assimilation. The historical roots of BC from the perspective of settlers, is connected to the Indigenous knowledge of understanding the land, how the settler encroachment impacted the Indigenous population, and the use of education as a colonizing mechanism and instrument of genocide. We walk forward in the region of BC to examine Indigenous teacher education.

Overview of Indigenous Initial Teacher Education in British Columbia

Today, there are approximately 200,000 Indigenous people in BC and over 1,500 reserve communities that have their own unique needs and issues in education (Muckle, 2007, p. 4). Legislation and policies have created these political groupings of Indigenous people across the country through the Indian Act (A Learning Bridge for Aboriginal Adults, 2011). Indigenous education in BC has continuously strived to meet the unique qualities and needs of First Nations and Aboriginal communities. There are Indigenous education institutes and provincial schools engaged in Indigenous teacher education programs (University of British Columbia, 2014).

We can look at the development of the Indigenous Higher Education Consortium (IHEC). IHEC consists of a membership of thirty-eight Indigenous education institutes. These Indigenous education institutes (IECs) provide a variety of vocational, technical, and educational programs uniquely controlled by Indigenous people. According to Kavanagh (1998), “A key aspect of the

effectiveness of First Nations schools is their ability to control their own operations, structures and activities according to their own visions and goals” (p. 47). This provides a greater opportunity for the successful implementation of educational programming.

There are many programs under the authority and jurisdiction of provincial entities that address Indigenous teacher education. First Nations in BC have focused their attention on developing their educational systems from a process that is within the provincial framework as opposed to an independent system. Communities have focused on adopting provincial standards rather than addressing their own needs that can then transfer to the province. Unfortunately, the historical policies of assimilation and external control create a diminished opportunity for self-determination (Kavanagh, 2006). It is difficult for communities, families, and students to trust educational systems after many generations attended residential schools (Richards & Scott, 2009).

Distinctively Indigenous Initial Teacher Education

First and foremost is the Native Indian Teacher Education Program (NITEP) at the University of British Columbia (UBC). NITEP is the first Indigenous teacher education program in the province, while UBC is the oldest university, established in 1908. UBC is also home to NITEP, which is the oldest teacher education program focused on certifying Aboriginal people to teach in the province’s public school system (University of British Columbia, 2014). NITEP started in 1974, when First Nations communities and Aboriginal people were seeking teachers from their own memberships.

Many NITEP graduates acquire employment as teachers on First Nations territories throughout British Columbia and across Canada. UBC NITEP provides access for a greater number of First Nations and Aboriginal people across British Columbia. UBC works in partnership with four field centres that are located in Kamloops, with Thompson Rivers University; Bella Bella, with the Heiltsuk College; Duncan, with Vancouver Island University; and in Vancouver, located at the UBC main campus at the First Nations Longhouse (Archibald & LaRochelle, 2013).

The University of British Columbia mainstream teacher education program is unique in that there is a required Aboriginal education course that all teacher education candidates must attend to get their certification. This is a result of the Association of Canadian Deans of Education’s *Accord on Indigenous Education* signed in 2010. In addition, UBC NITEP students attend field centres during their first two years and then attend the main campus in Vancouver to complete their programs within the mainstream courses (University of British Columbia, 2014). This system is similar to the Simon Fraser University teacher education program. Their program indicates that there is an Indigenous education module that is available for students that wish to register for it (Simon Fraser University, 2014).

Other Relevant Issues

British Columbia has 27 colleges and universities. Among the largest are the University of British Columbia in Vancouver, with a total enrollment of approximately 47,000; Simon Fraser University in Burnaby, with 25,000 students; and the University in Victoria, with 23,000 students. The focus of public education in British Columbia is on academics. An example of this is the Fraser Institute’s school report card on Aboriginal education. The majority of Aboriginal students attend provincial schools in BC. The Fraser Institute creates a rating system of public schools which has an effect on public policy and practice. The Fraser Institute report on Aboriginal education identifies key indicators of effective teaching (Cowley, Easton, & Thomas, 2011). Unfortunately, these

indicators are not objectives for success within Indigenous teacher education programs. There are dualities with regard to the approach and philosophy toward Indigenous teacher education.

When a school addresses or prioritizes academics, there is less of a reliance on pedagogical mechanisms such as culturally-based education (Lipka, 1991). Culturally-based education requires Indigenous control of the organization. Public school systems have relied on “culturally-relevant” pedagogy (Ladson-Billings, 1995). The difference between the two systems is that the Indigenous controlled, culturally-based systems have been observed to have a higher graduation rate with high school than the mainstream culturally relevant system. This is a concern as the focus of alternative education and special education programs has also been on serving Aboriginal children, parents, and communities (Smith et al., 2007).

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Chapter 3

INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION IN WESTERN CANADA

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This chapter describes and discusses certain issues linked to initial teacher education (ITE) in the four western Canadian provinces of British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, and Manitoba. This chapter makes only general references to Indigenous ITE programs offered in Western Canada, because Chapter 2 of this handbook discusses these programs in more details.

There are a number of publications that speak to different aspects of specific ITE programs offered in Western Canada. There are, for instance, publications on the field experience component of the ITE programs at the University of Alberta (Foster, Wimmer, Winter, & Snart, 2010), the University of Saskatchewan (Lemisko & Ward, 2010), the University of Regina (Mulholland, Nolan, & Salm, 2010), and the University of British Columbia (Clarke, 1998). There are publications on the newly developed ITE program at Mount Royal University in Alberta (O'Connor, Nickel, & Sterenberg, in press; Naested, Nickel, Sikora, & Vaughan, 2010; Naested et al., 2011), the former Master of Teaching ITE program at the University of Calgary (Lund, Panayotidis, Smits, & Towers, 2012), on the school-integrated and community-based ITE offered at the University of Victoria (Hopper & Sanford, 2004; McGregor, Sanford, & Hopper, 2010; Sanford, Hopper, & McGregor, 2010), on a collective approach to cohort-based ITE at the University of British Columbia in Vancouver (Farr Darling, Erickson, & Clarke, 2007), and on the role of seconded teachers as teacher educators at Simon Fraser University's ITE program (Dagenais & Wideen, 1999; Dawson, 1995; Wasserman, 2009). There is also available a review of ITE in British Columbia from normal schools to the early 1990s more generally (Bowman, Ellis, Smart, & Wiens, 1994; Sheenan & Wilson, 1994).

While these publications provide some insight into specific ITE programs in Western Canada, they generally describe and discuss certain aspects of the respective program rather than the design of the program as a whole, and in some cases—like the Master of Teaching ITE program or the description of ITE before the turn of the century in British Columbia—those discussions are not about current ITE programming in Western Canada. It is the role of this chapter to describe the designs of current ITE programs in Western Canada. The sources we drew from for the program descriptions were the websites of Western Canadian faculties of education, publically available print

documents by those faculties of education on their respective ITE programs, the information provided by the publically available Canadian ITE program database (www.teacheredcanada.ca) and our own knowledge of ITE programs in Western Canada.

The chapter is divided into three parts. In the first part we briefly describe the context within which western Canadian ITE programs are embedded. The second and main part describes the different ITE programs by province. Finally, the third part discusses commonalities and differences in ITE programs across Western Canada.

The Context

The four western Canadian provinces of British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, and Manitoba are often lumped together as *Western Canada* when discussing Canada's regions. This trend is also evident in educational scholarship as noted in Crocker and Dibbon's (2008) overview of teacher education in Canada. The term *Central Canada* typically refers to the provinces of Ontario and Quebec, although Manitoba is the geographical center of Canada. There might be two main reasons for this practice of grouping these provinces under the heading *Western Canada*. First, historically the western Canadian provinces were not part of Canada at Confederation in 1867 and only joined between 1870 and 1905. Second, demographically the three western provinces *combined* make up (only) 31.4% of the total population of Canada (Statistics Canada, 2014, p. 16), while the combined land area of these provinces is as large as the land area of all the other Canadian provinces together (Statistics Canada, n.d.-a).

Demographically, however, there are distinct characteristics relevant to ITE programs between Saskatchewan and Manitoba on one hand and British Columbia and Alberta on the other. First, Saskatchewan and Manitoba have only 3.2% and 3.6% of the Canadian population living in these provinces, respectively, while Alberta and British Columbia have 11.6% and 13% of the Canadian population, respectively (Statistics Canada, 2014, p. 16). Second, Saskatchewan and Manitoba have about 35% and 30% of their populations, respectively, living in rural areas—which is above the Canadian average of about 20%—while the proportions of Alberta and British Columbia's rural population are at about 17% and 14%, respectively (Statistics Canada, n.d.-b, p. 3). Saskatchewan and Manitoba are much more sparsely populated than Alberta and British Columbia, and the former provinces are much more rural than the latter two.

As far as higher education and ITE is concerned, there is institutional collaboration across the four western Canadian provinces. First, there is the Western Canadian Deans' Agreement, an agreement between western Canadian deans of graduate studies, which “provides an automatic tuition fee waiver for visiting students [from other western Canadian universities]. Graduate students paying normal required tuition fees to their home institution will not pay tuition fees to the host institution” (Western Canadian Deans' Agreement, n.d.). There is also an annual conference organized by the Western Canadian Deans of Graduate Studies group (<http://www.wcdgs.ca/annual-conference.html>).

This agreement does not concern ITE programs, since those are undergraduate programs, but there is also a long-standing institutionalized collaboration of faculties of education from across the four western provinces in the form of annual meetings of the Western Canadian deans of faculties of education. In addition, the Western Canadian Association of Student Teaching (WestCAST) organizes an annual conference that combines a formal meeting of directors of field experience offices of faculties of education with a formal conference for, and with presentations by, teacher candidates, faculty members, and others.

The next section will present core features of all ITE programs offered in each of the four provinces, with the exception of Indigenous ITE programs, which are discussed in a different chapter of this handbook. We have structured the presentation by province.

Initial Teacher Education in British Columbia

There are eight universities in the province of British Columbia that offer ITE programs: Simon Fraser University (SFU), Trinity Western University (TWU), Thompson Rivers University (TRU), University of the Fraser Valley (UFV), University of British Columbia (UBC), University of Northern British Columbia (UNBC), University of Victoria (UVic), and Vancouver Island University (VIU). The university programs generally range from one to two years and include both theoretical course work and practical experiences in schools as they prepare teachers to teach in the K-12 public school system.

Universities in British Columbia have varying requirements with respect to admissions to individual ITE programs. As noted in Tables 2 and 3 below, some programs require their applicants to have a degree before they enter. Others allow students to enter with 60+ credits. Some but not all ITE programs culminate in a bachelor of education degree, while others are designed to allow the student to earn two degrees simultaneously.

Certification

In British Columbia, those interested in teaching in public schools (K–12), independent schools, and First Nations band schools must hold a Ministry of Education certificate issued by the Teacher Regulation Branch (TRB). Approved ITE programs are permitted to recommend their graduates directly to the TRB.

The TRB, part of the Ministry of Education, was created to support the implementation of the Teachers Act (2011), which came into force on January 9, 2012. The TRB is responsible for ensuring that applicants for teaching certificates meet certain standards of qualification. The ITE programs must ensure that their graduates meet the Standards for the Education, Competence, and Professional Conduct of Educators. The TRB is the branch of the Ministry of Education that supports regulatory responsibility for

- assessing applicants for certification,
- evaluating teacher education programs,
- issuing teaching certificates, and
- enforcing standards for certificate holders.

Certificate holders include classroom teachers, vice-principals, principals, directors and superintendents in the public and independent school systems. Responsibilities of the TRB were formerly held by the British Columbia College of Teachers, which existed from January 1, 1988, to January 9, 2012.¹ The British Columbia Teachers' Council has the responsibility to approve any new ITE program proposed in the province.

¹ For a discussion of the historical and political context of the dissolution of the BCCT, see Chapter 8 of this handbook.

Field Experience

Teacher candidates must have completed a minimum of 10 weeks of student teaching experience within their ITE program to qualify for a Ministry of Education teacher certificate through the TRB.

The work of the TRB is guided by certain bylaws and policies. The bylaws are maintained in effect pursuant to section 90 of the Teachers Act (2011). With respect to field experience (i.e., practicum) the requirements are defined in P2.I.01.1:

An acceptable practicum as it applies to Bylaw 2.I.02(a)(ii) is defined as one which:

- (a) is normally of 12 weeks, but not less than 10 weeks in duration, and
- (b) is recognized by an accredited university and is supervised by that university's Faculty of Education, and
- (c) takes place under the supervision of one or more school advisors who are certificated in the jurisdiction in which the practicum takes place.

(Teachers Act, 2011)

As noted in Tables 2 and 3 below, the format and length of the field experiences vary according to the individual university ITE program. In general, most programs offer initial short 1-day-a-week, or 2–4 consecutive weeks, of field experience opportunities followed by a final extended field experience that ranges from 8 to 12 consecutive weeks.

Programs of Note

This section provides some examples of two emerging trends in British Columbia's eight university ITE programs. While researching each of the programs and their unique formats and delivery options, two collective areas of focus were found to appear as representative of the province's ITE programs. These areas of focus are: *Indigenous language and culture*, and *rural education*. The following two sections provide some examples of the aforementioned focus areas.

Indigenous language and culture.

- *Developmental Standard Term Certificate Programs in First Nation Language and Culture.*

There are also a number of Developmental Standard Term Certificate (DSTC) programs provided by ITE programs that are restricted to First Nation language and culture studies. Not all of these programs are offered every year. Table 1 below lists all of the DSTC programs in First Nation Language and Culture, their associated First Nations organizations and affiliated academic institutions.

Table 1
DSTC Programs in First Nation Language and Culture (as of January 2014)
(British Columbia Ministry of Education, 2015)

DSTC Program	Approved ITE Program / First Nations Organization
Carrier (Nak'azdli dialect)	University of Northern British Columbia / Carrier Linguistic Society
Gitksan	University of Northern British Columbia / Siwiixw'osxwim Wilnatahl Gitksan Society
Halq'emeylem	Simon Fraser University / Stò:lō Nation
Hul'qumi'num	Vancouver Island University / Chemanius First Nation
Interior Salish (Secwepemc, St'at'imc, Nlaka'pamux, Syilx)	Thompson Rivers University / Nicola Valley Institute of Technology
Campbell River First Nations Languages (Kwak'waka & Sliammon/Comox)	University of Victoria / Campbell River area First Nations
Okanagan	University of British Columbia-Okanagan / En'owkin Centre
Ts'msyen Sm'algyax	University of Northern British Columbia / Ts'msyen Sm'algyax Authority
Nisga'a	University of Northern British Columbia / Wilxo'oskwhl Nisga'a Nation

Rural education.

- *UBC's Community Field Experience (CFE)*

UBC-CFE is a three-week experience during which teacher candidates discover new sites of teaching and learning that are different from a traditional practicum school placement. These settings include alternative schools, galleries, museums, early childhood centres, Indigenous education centres, independent schools, cultural centres, recreation and outdoor education sites, youth detention centres, health and wellness organizations, etc. A significant focus of the UBC-CFE is rural sites around the province, as well as international locations around the world. The UBC-CFE provides teacher candidates with opportunities to expand their experiences in alternative learning sites and to explore ways in which they might engage as an educator in diverse contexts. (University of British Columbia, 2015a)

- *UBC—The West Kootenay Teacher Education Program (WKTEP)*

WKTEP is a specialized ITE program delivered through UBC's Columbia's Faculty of Education in Castlegar, British Columbia, and surrounding communities.

WKTEP has a strong focus on rural and small school settings, recognizing that they offer alternative educational opportunities for teachers. There is also an emphasis on place-based learning with strong ties to local communities and school districts. WKTEP offers the full complement of UBC's BEd course work, field experiences, and practica, with both a 2-week and a 10-week practicum hosted by the 4 local area school districts, as well as a 3-week community-based field experience in non-formal settings. Elementary and secondary teacher candidates are

together for some courses in both on-campus and in-school settings, and experienced tutors mentor secondary teacher candidates in selected specializations. Special features of WKTEP include the following (see University of British Columbia, 2015b):

- Small cohort size encourages a personalized learning environment with a focus on developing a strong community of learners.
- Practicum placements are individualized and support the unique strengths and areas of interest of each teacher candidate.
- WKTEP offers a variety of secondary school specializations including, but not limited to, mathematics, English, social studies, physics, biology, chemistry, home economics, French, physical education, theatre, and visual art.
- Elementary and secondary candidates will experience a wide array of learning environments including multi-age and alternate settings.
- Many WKTEP instructors are practicing educators who bring practical experience and current pedagogy to their courses.
- Strong links with four local school districts allow for shared professional learning opportunities alongside practicing teachers.
- A focus on place-based learning encourages a strong connection to the local communities and provides learning opportunities in the areas of social justice, outdoor education, and environmental education.

Tables 2 and 3 below list the main characteristics of the ITE programs offered in British Columbia at eight universities respectively. All programs have a separation into grade-levels of some kind, and most lead to a BEd degree. There are large differences across programs—across the integrated programs, across the after-degree programs—and there are significantly more options available for after-degree programs as compared to integrated programs.

Table 2

Overview of After Degree (or 90 credits) ITEs in British Columbia

	SFU	TRU	TWU	UBC	UNBC	UFV	UVic	VIU
Length	PDP-12 mths (3 semesters) PLP- 18 mths (4 semesters) B.Ed. After Degree 12 mths (3 semesters)	2 yrs (4 terms full-time) After 90 credits	2 yrs	12 mths (full-time)	2 yrs *Terrace-2 yrs concurrent & 2 yrs post-degree (Intake every 2 nd year)	1 yr (full-time)	16 mths- EY & MY PDPP 16 mths-SY PDPP (diploma) 24 mths-SY (BEd)	18 mths (full-time)
Streams	EY (K–7) SY (8–12)	Elementa ry Generalist s (K-7)	EY/MY /SY (K– 12)	EY (K–7) MY (5–8) SY (9–12)	<i>Prince George</i> EY (K–7) SY (8–12) <i>Terrace</i> EY (K–7)	EY/MY (K–8) SY (8-12)	EY (K–7) MY (5–8) SY (8–12)	EY (K–7) SY (8–12)
Degree	BEd 2 nd degree PDP & PLP	BEd BPE BEd in Trades & Technolo gy	BEd (K– 12)	BEd Dual Degrees (4+1): BSc/BEd BKIn/BEd	BEd Elementary Secondary	Post-Bac Professional Program Elementary/ Middle Secondary	BEd Elementary Middle Years Secondary	BEd Elementary BEd Secondary
Field experi- ences	Integrated with course 401/402 (1 st) School/Com munity- 1 wk Classroom- 5 wks 405 (2 nd) Classroom- 10 wks	Each semester Yr 1: 8 Weds & last 2 wks Yr 2: 3 wks & 10 wks	Yr 1: ½ days for 10 wks/ semester Yr 2: Fall-8 wks & Spring- 13 wks	Fall-1 day/wk Spring- 10 wks *EY-1 day/wk all year <i>Pre-Practicum</i> <i>Experience</i> - full- day course starting in September	Each semester Yr 1: Fall- directed observation practicum & Winter-3 wks Yr 2: Fall-4 wks & Winter- 10 wks	Fall: 5 wks- school experience Winter: 12 wks- practicum	Semester 2: 6 wks Semester 4: 9 wks	4 wks 8 wks (+1 wk planning)

Table 3
Overview of Integrated ITEs in British Columbia

	SFU	TRU	TWU	UBC	UNBC	UFV	UVic	VIU
Length	4 yrs BEd (after 60 credits) 4 yrs BGS & BGS Online	N/A	5 yrs	N/A *Dual Degrees (4+1) BSc/BEd BKin/BEd (See Table 2 above)	N/A	N/A	4 yrs- BEd EY 5 yrs- BEd SY	3 yrs BEd (after 60 credits)
Streams	EY (K-7) SY (8-12)	N/A	EY (K-7) SY (8-12)	N/A	N/A	N/A	EY (K-7) SY (8-12)	EY (K-7) SY (8-12)
Degree	BEd BGS BGS Online (No teaching certification)	N/A	BA/BEd BSc/BEd	N/A	N/A	N/A	BEd	BEd
Field experi- ences	Integrated with course 401/402 (1 st) School/Com munity- 1 wk Classroom- 5 wks 405 (2 nd) Classroom- 10 wks	N/A	Yr 2: 6 wks Observation Yrs 3 & 4: ½ days for 10 wks/semester Yr 5: Fall-8 wks & Spring- 13 wks	N/A	N/A	N/A	Yr 2: 3 wks Yr 3: 5 wks Yr 4: 8 wks	Yr 3: 6 half days Yr 4: Fall- 4 wks & Winter- 7 wks Yr 5: Fall- 4 wks & Winter- 8 wks

Initial Teacher Education in Alberta

Alberta has a growing number of initial teacher education (ITE) programs. For many years, ITE was led by the three major universities: University of Alberta, University of Calgary and University of Lethbridge. To meet the growing demand for post-secondary education in the province, the Alberta government began allowing public colleges and universities to offer university level degree programs. Initially, this included university transfer programs in which students could complete the first two years of a degree before transferring to a BEd program where they could complete their degrees. The province also provides partial funding to private faith-based universities and several of these are now offering BEd degrees as well.

Universities have made an effort to increase access to post-secondary education, especially in smaller centres, and to encourage teachers to remain in rural communities. University of Alberta offers an elementary program in Grande Prairie and a middle years program at Red Deer College. They also offer an Aboriginal Teacher Education program in collaboration with Northern Lakes College in Slave Lake and Portage Lake College in Cold Lake and Lac La Biche. Mount Royal University offers the last two years of a four-year elementary degree at Medicine Hat College; students are typically admitted into this program from the college's university transfer program. Grant MacEwan University in Edmonton offers a two year transfer program; students transfer these courses into other BEd programs. In fall 2015, the Werklund School of Education at the University of Calgary initiated a 4-year community based BEd program, where students take courses in their local communities or through online platforms and travel to Calgary for summer courses. Practica will be completed in rural communities with the supervision of local administrators and digital support from the university.

Campus Alberta Quality Council (CAQC) is an arms-length agency functioning under the Post-secondary Learning Act that provides quality assurance and recommends new degree programs to the Ministry of Innovation and Advanced Education. However, graduates of ITE programs must apply for certification with the Teacher Certification Branch, an arm of the provincial Ministry of Education responsible for K–12 education programs in the province. In some cases the jurisdiction of these ministries is not fully aligned. For example, CAQC requires graduates of BEd programs with an elementary specialization to complete a minor in a teachable subject area. However, the teacher certification branch does not require a minor for certification purposes. Educational requirements for teacher certification in Alberta include a minimum of sixteen years of schooling inclusive of 4 years of university education and a recognized degree which includes or is supplemented with a structured, pre-service teacher preparation program from an institution acceptable to the minister of education. The program must include at minimum 48 semester hour credits (1 and 3/5 years) in professional ITE course work, inclusive of a minimum of 10 weeks in supervised student teaching at the elementary or secondary level.

All applicants must meet the following requirements within their overall post-secondary studies:

- (a) *Elementary school teachers* are required to present a minimum of 24 semester hour credits in academic course work including:
 - 3 semester hour credits in Canadian Studies
 - 3 semester hour credits in Mathematics
 - 3 semester hour credits in Science
 - 6 semester hour credits in English/French Literature and Composition

- (b) *Secondary school teachers* are required to present a minimum of 24 semester hour credits in a teachable subject area, and 6 semester hour credits in English/French Literature and Composition (Alberta Education, n.d.)

Tables 4, 5, and 6 demonstrate the similarities and differences across the teacher education programs in Alberta. With the exception of University of Lethbridge, all the degree programs include grade level specializations (elementary, secondary, and one middle years program). The public universities base admission solely on GPA while the faith-based institutions include other admission criteria. Each program has distinctive features, particularly in their efforts to provide varied field experiences and access outside the major centres.

Table 4
Overview of After Degree ITEs in Alberta (Public Universities)

	Public universities		
	U. of Lethbridge	Werklund School of Ed. at U. of Calgary	U. of Alberta
Pre-requisites and admission	20 courses with minimum GPA 2.5 (GPA minimum for subject majors varies) Usually 8 courses in major Writing proficiency requirement Recommendation from professor in ED 2500 and practicum teacher associate	Academic degree from a recognized university with 1 course in English or French literature. Elementary: broad background in relevant disciplinary areas Secondary: an undergraduate degree with an academic major in subject s/he proposes to teach	A 3- or 4-year undergraduate degree, minimum GPA of 2.0 No specific course pre-requisites but completion time may vary depending upon prior course work
Streams	K-12 (no elementary or secondary stream)	Elementary Secondary	Elementary Secondary Middle Years at Red Deer College
Field experiences	20 mornings 5 weeks 6 weeks 15 weeks	Term 1: 2 weeks Term 2: 4 weeks Term 3: 5 weeks Term 4: 9 weeks	Term 1: 5 weeks Term 2: 7 weeks Term 3: 6 weeks Term 4: 7 weeks

Table 5
Overview of After Degree ITEs in Alberta (Faith Based Universities)

	Faith based institutions				
	Ambrose	St. Mary's	Kings	Concordia	CUC
Pre-requisites and admission	An undergraduate degree of at least 90 credits with strong liberal arts Minimum GPA 2.7 Documented work experience with children 3 reference letters Philosophy of education statement Interview	Undergraduate degree of at least 90 credits with strong liberal arts, minimum GPA 2.7 Philosophy of education statement Interview	3- or 4-year undergraduate degree Minimum 2.5 GPA Breadth requirement: 3 credits each in specified areas of study Secondary route requires minimum of 30 credits in a teachable major and 9 credits in a teachable minor Evidence of experience with children and/or adolescents Philosophy of education statement Personal recommendation form	3- or 4-year undergraduate degree, minimum GPA of 2.3 3 CHs in English language/literature 9 credits from at least two specified areas of study Philosophy of Teaching Statement Volunteer/Work Experience Record 2 Confidential Assessment Forms	Undergraduate degree with minimum of 90 CH and 2.5 GPA 3-6 credits in specified areas of study Secondary requires 36 CH in teachable specialization 3 references Security clearance "Orientation to Teaching" and "Theories of Development & Learning" courses 3 references
Streams	Elementary	Elementary	Elementary Secondary	Elementary	Elementary Secondary
Field experiences	3 credits 3 credits 6 credits (time not specified)	Term 1: 6 weeks volunteer role Term 3: 8 weeks Term 4: 10 weeks	10 half days 5-6 weeks 12 weeks	Year 1: Observation and classroom assistance + 5 week evaluated practicum Year 2: 9 week evaluated practicum	100 hours 16 weeks

Table 6
Overview of Integrated ITEs in Alberta

	U of L	U of C	Mount Royal	U of A
Pre-requisites	20 courses with minimum GPA 2.5 (GPA minimum for subject majors varies) Usually 8 courses in major Writing proficiency requirement Recommendation from professor in ED 2500	English 30-1 or equivalent	University entrance requirements plus English 30 (65%+) and Math 30-1 or 2 or a second language at 50% Minimum average 70%	English 30-1 Math 30 recommended University entrance requirements including 30 level courses in selected major or minor areas
Streams	K–12 stream	Elementary Secondary	Elementary	Elementary Secondary
Degree(s)	BA or BSc + BEd	BEd BA or BSc + BEd	BEd	BEd BA or BSc + BEd
Field experiences	20 mornings 5 weeks 6 weeks 15 weeks	2 weeks 4 weeks 5 weeks 9 weeks	Year 1 and 2 – 10 half days per semester Year 3 - 5 weeks Year 4 - 9 weeks or full semester practicum with course work integrated	3 days + 5 weeks 9 weeks
Features	Intended to prepare teachers for K–12 without elementary or secondary specialization, many field placements in rural settings	Community based pathway to launch in 2015 to promote teacher education in rural communities and retention of local teachers	Field experience in first 4 semesters Option to complete extended full semester practicum with course integration in schools Collaborative degree with Medicine Hat College	Large program with extensive choice in specializations Campus Saint Jean Francophone program Aboriginal Teacher Education offered in rural communities

Initial Teacher Education in Saskatchewan

Initial teacher education (ITE) in Saskatchewan is housed in the two major universities, University of Saskatchewan and University of Regina. Teacher candidates can choose between a 4-year Bachelor of Education, a 2-year after degree, or a 5-year combined degree program. All teacher candidates participate in a full semester practicum, usually 16 weeks from late August until school breaks in December. These extended practicum experiences are a longstanding and prized feature of ITE programs in Saskatchewan. University of Regina also includes a “three-day residential internship seminar for cooperating teachers and interns” (<http://www.uregina.ca/education/offices-centres/pdf.html>), a program that is unique in Canada, funded by the Ministry of Education, the Saskatchewan Teachers’ Federation, and universities in collaboration. Both universities offer 30 credit certificate programs which allow practicing teachers to move from Class 4 to Class 5. For example, University of Regina offers a certificate in inclusive education and University of Saskatchewan offers a certificate in practical and applied arts.

Both universities have strong collaborations with Aboriginal ITE programs in a variety of settings as summarized in Table 7 below. These programs are one way to increase access to ITE in rural communities, a task that is challenging due to the comparatively small population base in the province. Both universities also have mandated treaty education in undergraduate ITE programs.

Teacher certification is currently in a state of transition. The Teacher Education Classification and Certification Board is comprised of members from a variety of bodies including the Saskatchewan Teachers’ Federation, school board associations, and universities. This board is being phased out and a Teacher’s College is being constituted. Teachers (including pre-service teachers) are required to be members of the Saskatchewan Teachers’ Federation, a body that supports teachers under the Education Act.

Table 7 shows that the two universities in Saskatchewan have many similarities, especially when compared with the variety of teacher education programs in some other western provinces. Both have similar admissions requirements and similar routes requiring 2, 4, or 5 years to complete the BEd, including a full semester internship. Both universities have pursued varied collaborations to engage in Aboriginal teacher education.

Table 7

ITE Programs in Saskatchewan

	University of Regina	University of Saskatchewan
Pre-requisites and admissions	English Language Arts A30 & B30 One math or science course One 30 level language, social science or fine arts course One additional approved 30 level course Teacher Education Application (bio/resume and essay) Competitive entry program Bachelor of Education After Degree (BEAD): Must have an approved first degree with a minimum UGPA of 65%;	Grade point average calculated on the 60 credit units of pre-requisite courses (50%) An online interview (25%) 35 - 40 hours of experience working with children (paid or unpaid) (25%) English 110.6 or equivalent Native Studies 107.3 or equivalent Elementary: A minimum of three credit units in each of the other Required Areas of Study in the

	<p>a minimum of 39 credit hours in teaching areas supportive of provincial/territorial curricula.</p> <p>BEAD Secondary: major in their first degree in a teaching area with a minimum major GPA of 70%. A minor in a teaching area is recommended.</p>			<p>Saskatchewan school curriculum (math, science, social science, kinesiology, fine arts) and Teaching Area 1 (18 credits) and Teaching Area 2 (12 credits)</p> <p>Secondary: Teaching Area 1: Minimum of 24 credit units with a minimum average of 60% Teaching Area 2: Minimum of 15 credit units with a minimum average of 60%</p>		
Length	5 years	4 years	2 years	5 years	4 years	2 years
Streams	K-12 Arts Focus BEd/BKin Joint Degrees Program BEd/BSc Joint Degrees Programs (Math) BMusEd Program (134 CHs) Arts Education	Elementary Middle years Secondary Baccalauréat en éducation secondaire, française	Elementary Middle years Secondary Arts Education	Elementary Secondary	Elementary Secondary	Elementary Secondary
Degree(s)	BFA + BEd BSc + BEd BEd/BKin	BEd	BEd after degree	BEd or BA or BSc + Bed	BEd	BEd after degree
CHs	150 CHs	120 CHs	30 CHs	150 CHs	120 CHs	30 CHs
Field experiences	<p>ECS 100 – 7-8 half days (all programs)</p> <p>ECS 200 – 20 hours non-traditional community-based education site) (all programs)</p> <p>ELNG 200 – 20 hours in ESL classroom</p> <p>ECS 300 (secondary) – 7-8 days</p> <p>ECS 350 (secondary*) – 3 weeks</p> <p>ECS 301 – 7-8 days per semester</p> <p>ECS 311 (elementary*) – 3 weeks</p> <p>ECS 302/312 equivalent in Arts Ed. Pre-internship– 3 week block (all programs)</p> <p>Internship – 4 months</p>			<p>Pre-internship: 1-2 days per week for semester</p> <p>Internship: 16 weeks full semester</p>		

Collaborations for First Nations teacher education	Saskatchewan Urban Native Teacher Education Program (SUNTEP); Indigenous Education - First Nations University of Canada; Northern Teacher Education Program (NORTEP – based in LaRonge, Saskatchewan); Nunavut Teacher Education Program (NTEP); Yukon Native Teacher Education Program (YNTEP)	Saskatchewan Urban Native Teacher Education Program (SUNTEP); Northern Teacher Education Program (NORTEP – based in LaRonge, Saskatchewan); Aurora College Teacher Education Program (based in Fort Smith, Northwest Territories); Indian Teacher Education Program (ITEP)
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Initial Teacher Education in Manitoba

There are four universities and one university college offering initial teacher education (ITE) programs that lead to professional teaching certification in the province of Manitoba: University of Manitoba (UM), University of Winnipeg (UW), Brandon University (BU), Université de St. Boniface (francophone) (USB), and the University College of the North (UCN). In addition, Red River College (RRC) in Winnipeg offers an integrated 5-year certificate/degree program in conjunction with the UW, leading to a Special Vocational Teacher Certificate in technical vocation, business and information communication technology, and industrial arts and technology education, as well as a BA or BSc and BEd from the UW; the latter leading to a Professional Certificate, which allows graduates of the integrated program to teach all subjects in K–12 school education. Those holding a Special Vocational Teacher Certificate *only* would have the required certification to teach the specific vocation in the Manitoba public school system.

The most prominent type of ITE program is the 2-year after degree program, which is offered at all four universities and at UCN (see Table 9 below). In addition, UW and BU offer a 5-year integrated ITE program (see Table 8 below).

There are two types of specialist programs. First, programs for high school teachers in the areas of technical vocational education, industrial arts and business technology education are offered as joint ITE programs by RRC and UW. These programs are offered as after-degree and as integrated programs. The second specialist ITE program is the integrated, 5-year music teacher program offered at the UM. (For details on both specialist programs, see Tables 8 and 9).

Tables 8 and 9 below list the main characteristics of the ITE programs offered in Manitoba at the four universities and the university college, respectively. All programs have a separation into grade-levels of some kind and all lead to a BEd degree. Quite prominent differences can be found across programs—across the integrated programs, across the after-degree programs, as well as across the two different types of programs.

Certification

Unlike in some other provinces, there is no institutionalized ITE program accreditation process in place in Manitoba. However, the provincial minister of education does have generally two venues to influence those programs offered in faculties of education. The first venue is the legislative power of the minister to approve programs and courses for preservice ITE programs. While this gives the minister direct influence on ITE programs and is so powerful that it would not require any

other venue for influencing those programs, this power is actually not the most commonly used venue by the minister to influence ITE program, at least not in recent years.

The second and at least recently more commonly used venue to influence ITE program design is through the certification requirements. The ministry of education establishes the requirements for teacher certification. The ministry has established a number of requirements for certification, and provincial faculties of education do not have a choice but to design their program so that graduates of their BEd programs will have fulfilled those course-type requirements in order to automatically receive teaching certification with the successful completion of the BEd program. For instance, in order to achieve a BEd degree, programs must include a certain number of total practicum days (24 weeks), six credits of course work linked to diversity in teaching (including inclusive or special education), and three credits of course work linked to Indigenous education. Those requirements are built into their respective programs by the BEd programs at the different universities.

Table 8

Overview of Integrated ITE Programs in Manitoba

	UM	UW	BU	RRC/UW
Length	5 years	5 years	5 years	5 years
Streams	EY/MY (combined) SY	EY (K-4) EY/MY (K-8) MY (5-8) SY (9-12)	EY MY	n/a
Degree(s)	B. Music and B.Ed.	BA/BSc and BEd	BA and BEd	Business/Technology or Industrial Arts Teacher Education Diploma (RRC) AND BA or BSc AND BEd
Field experiences	Year 3: 6 weeks (April-June) Year 4: 6 weeks (April-June) Year 5: 1 week at the beginning of September plus a few single Mondays plus five weeks in Nov-Dec and five weeks in March-April (total of 12 weeks)	Year 1: 40 hours of supervised service learning for a community organization Year 2: full day/week for 10 weeks of course work in one semester in a resource/learning support setting Year 3: one day/week for 10 weeks of course work in both semesters Year 4 and 5: Same as for after degree ITE (see Table 9)	Four placements: 5 weeks 7 weeks 6 weeks 7 weeks	(see under UW)

Table 9
Overview of After Degree ITE Programs in Manitoba

	UM	UW	BU	USB	UCN	RRC/UW
Length	2 year	2 years	2 years	2 years	2 years	2 or 3 years
Streams	EY MY SY	EY (K-4) EY/MY (K-8) MY (5-8) SY (9-12)	EY MY SY	Elementary Secondary		
Degree	B.Ed.	B.Ed.	B.Ed.	B.Ed.	B.Ed.	B.Ed.
Field experiences	Each of the four terms; 6 weeks each term;	Each of the four terms; One-day a week for the 9 weeks of course work plus 5-weeks of block practicum	Term 1: 5 weeks Term 2: 7 weeks Term 3: 6 weeks Term 4: 7 weeks	Term 1: 2-week block in October; Term 2: 2-week block in February Year 2: 25 weeks of practicum	Term 1: 4 weeks (last 4 weeks of term) Term 2: 6 weeks (April – May) Term 3: 6 weeks (end of term and throughout term) Term 4: 8 weeks (April – June)	Technical Vocational Teacher Education: (see under UW in this table)

Selection of Applicants

Since generally the number of applicants exceeds the number of places available in the programs, each faculty of education has its own selection procedure. Not all are publically made available. To exemplify the type of criteria used, we present the selection criteria for the after-degree programs at the UM and the UW. According to UM's *Faculty of Education BEd Program Application Bulletin 2015–2016*, applicants will be selected separately by stream and with the senior stream separately by major and minor teachable subjects. With each such created category, applicants are selected solely on their so-called composite score. At the time of writing this chapter, the composite score is based on two components: applicants' GPA and their score on a writing skills assessment. The former contributes 45 and the later 20 points out of a total possible score of 65 points.

The selection criteria for applicants are more diverse for the programs at the UW: 40% of the overall score comes from applicants' GPA; another 40% of their score comes from their "experience and abilities", which are assessed based on applicants' autobiographies; 10% of their score comes from the assessment of their written expression in their autobiographies and from their written rationale for seeking entrance to the teaching profession; and another 10% of their overall score comes from their course assessment, which is an assessment of "the applicant's courses from the first degree[, which] will be assessed in relation to those required for the Faculty of Education" (Faculty of Education, University of Winnipeg, 2014, p. 17).

Part-Time/Full-Time Studies

Generally, all after-degree programs have to be attended as a full-time student, while the integrated programs can generally be attended as a part-time student. The UM offers with irregular

intake an after-degree program which is called “Weekend College,” because most of the course work is done on weekends, with some course work done in the evening, to accommodate students who work full-time. The Weekend College program is 3 years in length, compared to the day-time programs, which are 2 years in length.

Access for Members of Disadvantaged Groups

Both the UM and UW have for their respective BEd programs special admission consideration for members of disadvantaged groups. While the UW emphasizes in its rationale the affirmation of “values of equal opportunity, equity, and social justice” (Faculty of Education, University of Winnipeg, 2014, p. 29), the UM emphasizes in its rationale for having a “special consideration category” the recognition of the need for “a teaching force that is fully representative of the cultural, ethnic and racial diversity of the province” (Faculty of Education, University of Manitoba, n.d., p. 3). The groups given special consideration in both programs are Canadian Aboriginal peoples, visible minorities, persons with disabilities (UM), and persons whose “educational performance has been hindered by circumstances such as barriers resulting from person experiences related to ethnic identity, first language other than English,” etc. (Faculty of Education, University of Winnipeg, 2014, p. 31).

Internationally Educated Teachers²

Both the UM and the UW offer course work for internationally educated teachers. These are teachers who have been certified as teachers in another country, but now require the successful completion of additional course work at a Canadian university to qualify for certification with the Manitoba ministry of education. At the UM, internationally educated teachers would take additional courses as part of the Post-Baccalaureate Diploma in Education (PBDE) program. The number and kind of courses that internationally educated teachers have to take to qualify for certification is specified by the Manitoba ministry of education. At the UW internationally educated teachers would take required courses normally not as part of a degree program in the faculty of education but would rather be accepted to the UW on a special status that will allow them to take those courses.

Initial Teacher Education in the Western Provinces

In this section we want to briefly contrast and compare the ITE programs *across* the four western Canadian provinces. As the demographic picture of “the West” that we painted in the context section above is far more cross-provincially diverse than the single geographical term suggests, so is the landscape of ITE programs in Western Canada diverse to some degree. We will describe commonalities and differences across the provinces by aspect.

The first aspect for the comparison is the types of ITE programs offered. What all provinces have in common is that each of them offers and only offers two types of programs: the after-degree program, which is mostly 2 years in length, and the integrated or dual-degree program, which combines education course work and course work in other faculties and is usually four or five years in length, leading, in the case of a dual-degree program, to two undergraduate university degrees. With the exception of Mount Royal University in Alberta, which offers only an integrated ITE

² On the topic of internationally educated teachers, see also Chapter 17 of this handbook.

program, all universities in Western Canada offer after-degree program options, but many of these universities no longer offer an integrated program option.

What varies across provinces in terms of the program types offered is the level of uniformity of the two program types. On one end of the uniformity spectrum is Manitoba, where each program type (after-degree and integrated) is identical in terms of prerequisites and length across universities. On the other end is British Columbia, where program prerequisites and lengths vary noticeably across ITE programs for each of the two types of programs. In addition, the after-degree ITE programs at SFU and UFV, for instance, do not lead per se to a BEd degree.

There are also many similarities across provinces concerning the program streams. With only a few exceptions, all ITE programs in Western Canada offer an elementary and a secondary program stream, sometimes even further divided into early years, middle years, and senior years program streams. Among the very few exceptions to this commonality are the K–12 program at the University of Lethbridge, Alberta, and the K–12 thematic module cohorts in the ITE program at Simon Fraser University, British Columbia.

On the other hand, the practicum/field experience components of the ITE programs in Western Canada vary considerably across, as well as within, provinces in terms of block and total length, as well as distribution across the respective program (see Tables 2–9 above). The most common practicum structure can be found for the four-term after-degree programs, where each term consists of a block of course work and a practicum block. The practicum block is usually increasing in length, with the exception of the program at the University of Manitoba, where all four practicum blocks have the same length. In each province at least one program offers a term-long practicum block (at Mount Royal University in Alberta the term-long practicum is integrated with course work). The total length of practicum-based field experiences ranges from 12 weeks at Vancouver Island University to 27 weeks in the ITE program at the University of Lethbridge. The total length of the practicum/field experiences is clearly a function of the certification requirements, which vary substantially across provinces, from 10 weeks in British Columbia to 24 weeks of practicum time for ITE programs in Manitoba. One exception is the University of Lethbridge, which requires 27 weeks of practicum while the province only requires 12 weeks for certification.

Our last aspect in comparing and contrasting ITE programs across the four western provinces concerns the role of faith-based (private) universities in ITE in Western Canada. While in Manitoba and Saskatchewan only public universities offer ITE programs, there is one faith-based university in British Columbia (Trinity Western University) and five faith-based universities in Alberta which offer ITE programs. This selection of faith-based teacher education programs is consistent with Albertans' commitment to educational choice, which is also reflected in the ministry's endorsement of charter schools (the only province to do so) and a large number of private schools.

Conclusion

This chapter described the core program features of the current ITE programs in the four western Canadian provinces of British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, and Manitoba. In the context section at the beginning of this chapter as well as the previous section we have made the case that for historical and demographical reasons the four provinces have often been clustered together and that there are also a number of commonalities across the four provinces in terms of ITE programs offered. At the same time, the discussion and analyses in these two sections have also made clear that there are as many differences across the provinces in terms of demographics and the ITE programs they offer as there are commonalities. Considering that in Canada education at all levels is under provincial jurisdiction, the existence of both commonalities and differences will most

likely not change for a long time; and is something that even the Agreement on Internal Trade (AIT) has not changed.

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Chapter 4

INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION IN ONTARIO: ON THE CUSP OF CHANGE

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Initial teacher education in Ontario is on the cusp of change. In 2011, the Ontario government surprised the province's faculties of education when it made a platform commitment to double the time spent in initial teacher education programs. The rationale for extending initial teacher education was to "help more of our students succeed in school and take the next step in creating the world's best-educated workforce" (Ontario Premier's Office, 2011). After consultation with stakeholders, and considerable pushback from the Ontario Association of Deans of Education (OADE) regarding the initial and unrealistic 2014 implementation date, on June 5, 2013, the province announced the teacher education programs would double in length to four semesters, practice teaching would expand to a minimum of 80 days, and mandatory core content would increase for implementation in 2015. These reforms are expected to drastically change the structure and focus of teacher education in Ontario universities. As universities race to revise programs for the 2015 implementation, it is too early to describe or assess the future of teacher education in Ontario, let alone the impact of program changes on beginning teachers or student learning. It is a good time, however, for educators, policy-makers, and the general public to better understand teacher education in Ontario, past and present.

First, this chapter situates the present initial teacher education system within the broader history of teacher preparation in Ontario. Kitchen and Petrarca (2013) wrote,

As teacher education takes this dramatic turn, it is useful for educators, policy-makers and the general public to situate this change in the larger history of teacher preparation in the province. This history, beginning in the 19th century, tells the story of increasing professionalism over the years as Ontario adapted its system to meet a rising demand for elementary and secondary education. It is a story of authority over education, as teacher training under provincial direction became teacher education in universities, and as accreditation shifted to the Ontario College of Teachers. It is a story of reform, and the limits of reform, in the preparation of teachers for a diverse and changing world. By better understanding the history of teacher preparation, we may gain insight into the present situation and imagine a better future for teacher education in Ontario. (p. 56)

Second, this chapter provides an overview of initial teacher education in Ontario today. While reforms will change the focus and structure of teacher education, little is known about how teacher education is delivered across the province presently. We address this dearth of information by

providing snapshots of elements of teacher education in Ontario today. Specifically, we provide information on a) requirements for teacher education, (b) the structure of Ontario teacher education programs, and (c) applications, admissions, and graduates. We then offer snapshots of how teacher education program components—vision, curriculum, and field experience or practicum—are delivered by universities.

Until *Teacher Education in Canada* (Crocker & Dibbon, 2008) provided some baseline data on contemporary teacher education programs, there was “a certain patchiness of data” (Gambhir, Broad, Evans, & Gaskill, 2008) on teacher education in Canada. While this shortage of knowledge is being addressed nationally—for example, the work of Crocker and Dibbon (2008), the Teacher Ed Canada data base (www.teacheredcanada.ca), and this handbook—provincial-level data on teacher education in Ontario is largely lacking. For the broad policy framework, this chapter draws on documents from the Ontario College of Teachers (OCT) and Ontario’s Ministry of Education (OMOE). Data on teacher education programs in the province was derived mainly from web-based resources from March to June 2013:

- Common University Data Ontario, from the Council of Ontario Universities (COU);
- Ontario Universities’ Application Centre (OUAC);
- Teacher Education Application Service (TEAS); and
- university websites.

Data from these sources were compiled and cross-referenced for accuracy and discrepancies. When data regarding a particular variable differed among sources, additional web-based sources were consulted to resolve the inconsistencies. To enhance the reliability of the data, we collaboratively co-examined the content for accuracy. Given the purpose of this chapter, to provide a broad overview of the initial teacher education programs in Ontario, analysis included descriptive statistics of various variables. This chapter concludes by considering the likely impact of these reforms on the future of teacher education in Ontario.

Looking Back: A Historical Overview Teacher Education in Ontario

Teacher education in Ontario has changed dramatically since the 19th century. Teacher training, which was developed under provincial direction, was replaced in the 1970s by 1-year teacher education in universities. An understanding of this history offers insights into the present situation and the plans for four-semester education programs (often over two academic years) in Ontario.

Teacher preparation in Ontario began in 1847, when the first *normal school* was established by Egerton Ryerson. At the Ontario Normal School (in Toronto), prospective elementary teachers completed a 5-month program for a second class certificate and a 10-month program for a first class certificate. Rising demand for public education led to the establishment of county model schools as a quick alternative means to third class certification. At the turn of the century, the preparation of secondary school teachers took place in the Ontario College of Education (in Toronto), which was restricted to candidates possessing university degrees (mainly male). Elementary teacher education continued to grow, with the seven normal schools graduating close to 2,000 students a year (mainly female). Efforts to improve the qualifications and preparation of teachers, however, were undermined by the Great Depression and the Second World War. Shortages led to the establishment of emergency summer session leading to teaching certification from 1944 to 1953.

By the 1950s, Ontario had a well-structured and comprehensive system of teacher education run by the Department of Education (Fiorino, 1978). Elementary teachers were generally high school graduates and secondary teachers were expected to complete university. After a year of professional training and two years of successful practice, teachers earned professional certification.

By the 1970s, teacher preparation was transferred to universities as part of a shift away from centralization at the Department of Education to decentralization in universities, and from teacher training to teacher education. The Ontario College of Education's lock on secondary certification was broken in the 1960s and several universities soon began to offer secondary programs. More authority was handed over to the universities, with the understanding that the staff of teachers' colleges and the Ontario College of Education be absorbed into the universities. In addition to the liberal or academic studies in the university, prospective teachers were expected to (a) study foundations of education; (b) master curriculum and instruction, and (c) undertake practice teaching. In 1974, Regulation 269: Ontario Teachers Qualification divided teacher qualification into primary/junior, junior/intermediate, intermediate/senior, and technological studies (Fiorino, 1978). While the province still controlled teacher certification, in practice it simply accepted the graduates of universities that underwent cyclical programs reviews by the Department of Education. By 1990, there were ten faculties of education in Ontario.

The shift to universities "fundamentally changed views on teaching, from technical practice to theories related to teaching and learning" (Gannon, 2005, p. 112). Expectations for learning, teaching and teacher education rose, but there was also much criticism of universities for making "theory and research appear more important than practice" (Sheehan & Fullan, 1995, p. 90). Gannon (2005) attributes this tension to the struggle for control of professionalization between faculties of education, which characterize "professionalism as the relationship between scientific research and practice" (p. 110), and teacher unions, which focus on teacher autonomy and working conditions. The Royal Commission on Education in Ontario (1995), while praising teacher education, recommended that it be overseen by stakeholders. The Ontario College of Teachers, as the new self-regulating body for the profession, assumed responsibility for the accreditation of all teacher education programs and providers in 1998. The Ontario College of Teachers Implementation Committee (1995) wrote, "the College must have the authority to establish standards for teacher education and the power to ensure that the standards are met" (p. 7). The College regularly accredits teacher education programs through a very rigorous and complex process, but the focus is demonstrating evidence of compliance with the regulations for teacher education rather than guiding teacher education practice.

As a result of these changes, teaching was increasingly regarded as a respected profession with high standards of admission and competitive salaries and benefits. This was the case for university-educated women, who had fewer career options at the time, and for university-educated men, for whom teaching had often been regarded as a career of last resort.

The announcement of four-semester initial teacher education programs serves as a reminder that the government remains a major force in teacher education. Consultations for this reform were conducted by the Ministry of Education, which also guides the implementation process. The College then developed regulations based on the results of the ministry consultation. The knowledge expectations in regulations are not prescriptive, so universities will continue to design programs based on their philosophies of education. Understanding the history of teacher preparation helps us better understand perennial issues with a view to continually improving the preparation of teachers.

Snapshots of Initial Teacher Education in Ontario

This section provides an overview of initial teacher education in Ontario in 2013. The 2013 requirements for teacher education in Ontario for both teachers and initial teacher education programs are outlined. This is followed by a review of teacher education offerings. Data on applications, admissions, and graduates are then examined.

Requirements for Initial Teacher Education in Ontario

Professional certification. In order to be certified as a teacher in the province of Ontario, one must satisfy the requirements of the Ontario College of Teachers, the professional self-regulatory body for teachers in the province. Authority to accredit professional teacher education programs was granted in Section 1(3) of the Ontario College of Teachers Act (1996). Generally, one needs to have earned a postsecondary degree followed by completion of an accredited teacher education program upon completion.

Special provision is made for potential teachers of technological education. While some technological education teachers are university graduates, the minimum educational requirement is a secondary school diploma or equivalent followed by completion of an accredited teacher education program; graduates without previous postsecondary degrees receive diplomas. They must also provide proof of “an acceptable level of skill and knowledge in the technological area [they] want to teach” (OCT, 2013d, p.4), as well as evidence of work experience. There are modified requirements for teachers of students who are deaf, teachers of Native languages, and teachers with Aboriginal ancestry. Proof of English or French language proficiency must be provided by teachers who have not graduated from a Canadian teacher education program or from an acceptable program elsewhere.

Accreditation of initial teacher education programs. Under the same act, a teacher education program needs to include one year of full-time postsecondary study in education—a minimum of 30 credits—or the equivalent in order to be accredited. An acceptable program includes practice teaching, as well as courses in education foundations and teaching methods. The College also considers programs that combine academic and teacher education courses equivalent to at least four years of full-time study beyond the equivalent of the Ontario secondary school diploma.

The Ontario College of Teachers requires initial teacher education programs to be “academic, not employment-based” (2013b, p. 2), and include at least

- 40 per cent of one year focused on teaching methods—how to teach students in particular grades or subjects;
- 20 per cent of one year focused on education foundations—history, philosophy, and psychology of education;
- 20 per cent in any other area of education; and
- a minimum of 40 days of practicum supervised by the program provider (OCT, 2013b p. 2).

All Canadian teacher education programs meet these requirements. There are provisions for applicants from jurisdictions that do not meet these requirements to demonstrate that they either have professional standing or have completed a teacher education program that meets the Ontario College of Teachers standard.

Teacher education programs in Ontario generally prepare teachers for two consecutive teaching divisions:

- primary/junior divisions (kindergarten to Grade 6);
- junior/intermediate divisions (Grades 4 to 10); and
- intermediate/senior divisions (Grades 7 to 12).

Intermediate/senior division teachers must take methodology courses in two teachable subjects approved by the College. Junior/intermediate teachers need to be qualified in one teaching subject.

Regulation 347/02 (Accreditation of Teacher Education Programs, 2002) outlines a range of broad requirements that must be met by institutions seeking accreditation or re-accreditation. The program must have a “clearly delineated conceptual framework” that reflects the College’s standards of practice, current research, integration of theory and practice; include a range of theory, methods, and foundation courses; and require the completion of practica. Faculty members are “an appropriate combination of” academics, practitioners, and experts in the “divisions and components of the program.” The 40 days of minimum practicum experiences take place in schools using the Ontario curriculum and are supervised by qualified, experienced teachers. The College regularly reviews programs of professional education in Ontario to ensure that they meet regulatory requirements for accreditation.

The Structure of Ontario Initial Teacher Education Programs

Thirteen public universities in Ontario offer a wide array of initial professional certification options for potential teachers. The range of options is described below, while Table 1 lists these offerings by university. Also accredited, are several small private universities and programs run by off-shore universities; these are not included in this chapter. Although all of these programs require accreditation by the Ontario College of Teachers, there is still great diversity in the manner in which universities implement the various programs. While the College delineates a framework for teacher education, universities retain autonomy in the design and delivery of programs.

Consecutive and concurrent programs. Faculties of education in Ontario offer two types of initial teacher education programs: consecutive and concurrent. A *consecutive program* “is usually a one-year program leading to a Bachelor of Education pursued by a teacher candidate after they have completed an undergraduate degree” (OCT, 2013a, para. 8). In a *concurrent program*, students complete “a program leading to a Bachelor of Education while also completing an additional undergraduate degree in a discipline other than education” (OCT, 2013a, para. 9). Concurrent education programs admit students directly from secondary school, while consecutive program education programs admit students who have completed an undergraduate degree. As Table 1 illustrates, there are a wide range of consecutive and concurrent education programs, including French and part-time options.

Divisional offerings. For certification purposes, teacher candidates are grouped into three divisions: primary/junior (kindergarten to Grade 6), junior/intermediate (Grades 4-10), and intermediate/senior (Grades 7-12). As their curriculum includes a wide range of subjects, primary/junior teacher candidates are not required to have a subject specialty. Junior/intermediate teacher candidates must be qualified in one teachable subject (i.e., a minimum of three university credits in an approved teachable subject), and intermediate/senior teacher candidates must be qualified in two teachable subjects, generally with a minimum of five university credits in the first

approved teachable subject, and a minimum of three in the second teachable. Table 1 displays the three divisional program offerings by university. There is a detailed list of teachable subjects in Ontario schools. They include common subject taught in most universities, such as English, French, dramatic arts, geography, history, mathematics, health and physical education, and a range of sciences. Other subjects—such as business, computer studies, music, visual arts and international languages—are offered less frequently, whereas subjects such as classical studies, social studies-general, politics, and philosophy—are still listed but are seldom offered in initial programs; they are more likely to be taken as additional qualification courses by practicing teachers (OUAC, 2013b).

Some universities, in addition to offering the mainstream programs identified above, offer special programs in the areas of technological education and Aboriginal education. Some of the graduates of these programs possess undergraduate degrees, whereas others enter based on other experiences and are eligible to earn diplomas, not degrees. *Technological teacher education* programs provide teacher education for individuals with skills in a range of technological areas. Graduates of these programs are qualified to teach in areas such as communications technology, computer technology, construction, hairstyling, health care, hospitality, technological design and transportation. *Aboriginal teacher education programs* address the need for culturally proficient Aboriginal teachers through a combination of diploma programs for prospective teachers without university degrees and degree programs similar to conventional concurrent or consecutive programs for university students.

Table 1

Initial Teacher Education Program Offerings in Ontario, June 2013 (based on data from OCT, 2013c)

University	Locations	Concurrent program	Consecutive program	Primary/junior (K–6)	Junior/intermediate (4–10)	Intermediate/senior (7–12)
Brock University	St. Catharines, (Hamilton)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Lakehead University	Thunder Bay, (Orillia)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Nipissing University	North Bay, (Brantford)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Queen's University	Kingston	✓	✓	✓		✓
Trent University	Peter-borough		✓ (FT and PT)	✓		✓
Université Laurentienne (Laurentian University)	Sudbury	✓ English	✓ French (FT & PT)	✓	✓	✓
University of Ontario Institute of Technology	Oshawa	✓	✓	✓		✓
University of Ottawa	Ottawa, (Toronto) Windsor)		✓ FT in English & French; PT in French	✓	✓	✓

University of Toronto	Toronto	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
University of Windsor	Windsor	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Western University	London		✓	✓	✓	✓
Wilfrid Laurier University	Waterloo		✓	✓	✓	
York University	Toronto (Barrie)	✓	✓ FT and PT	✓	✓	✓
Totals		9 English FT	12 FT English programs 2 FT French programs 2 PT English programs 2 PT French program	13	10	12
FT – Full-time program, PT – Part-time program						

Applications, Admissions, and Graduates

Applicants and applications. Two application services centralize the application process for initial teacher education programs. The first is the Ontario University Application Centre (OUAC) which is “a central bureau whose key function is the processing of applications for admission to the province’s universities” (OUAC, 2013a). Prospective students seeking entry into Ontario concurrent education programs apply via OUAC. However, candidates applying to Ontario’s consecutive programs apply via the Teacher Education Application Service (TEAS), which is one of OUAC’s application services for professional programs.

The level of interest in teaching as a career is evident in the number of consecutive program applicants each year, as illustrated in Figure 1 below, which provides a ten-year historical overview of number of applicants and applications. As of June 2013, 9,368 applicants completed 27,342 applications to Ontario’s initial teacher education consecutive programs. The average number of applications per applicant is three. Although the number of applications and applicants is still quite large in number, data from June 2013 indicate there was a 44% decrease in applications and a 39% decrease in applicants with the last ten years. This is most likely due to the harsh realities of the poor job market for teachers in Ontario, where the unemployment rate for new teachers has risen for four consecutive years, one-third of teacher education graduates are unemployed, and many other graduates are either teaching as occasional (or supply) teachers or teaching outside the province (OCT, 2012).

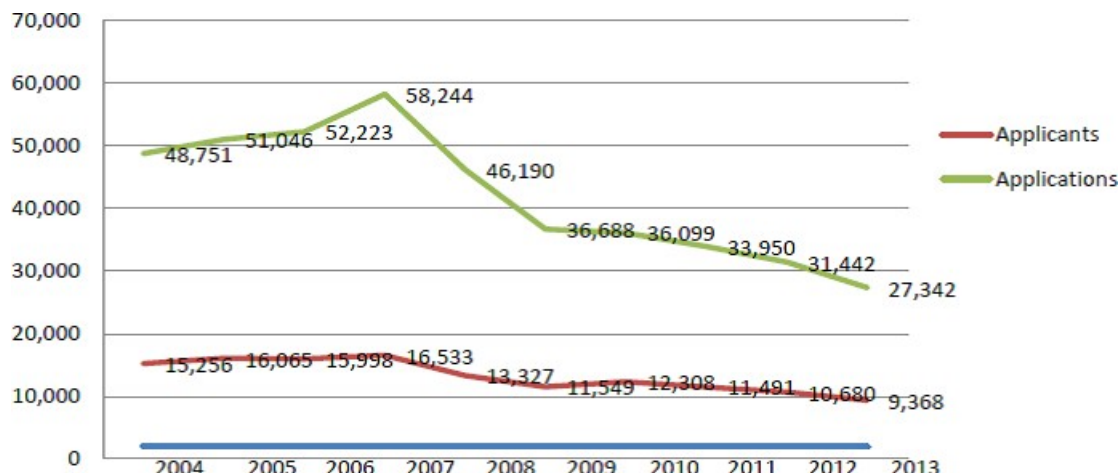


Figure 1. Consecutive teacher education applicants in Ontario as of June 2013 (based on data from OUAC, 2013c)

Admission requirements. Admission requirements for consecutive programs vary from university to university; however, there are some common elements. Firstly, as previously mentioned, all prospective consecutive teacher education students must apply electronically via TEAS, one of OUAC's services for professional programs. The application process requires all official academic documents (i.e., transcripts) to be sent directly from all the postsecondary institutions to the selected faculties of education. In addition, some universities will require additional information such as experience profiles, essays, or language facility tests as part of the admissions criteria (OUAC, 2013b). For the 2013–2014 academic year admissions, only one university (UOIT) required an admissions interview from applicants who met the initial admissions criteria.

Graduates. Each year approximately 9,000 teacher candidates graduate from initial teacher education programs in the province (Council of Ontario Universities, 2013). These numbers are based on Common University Data Ontario's publication of number of degrees conferred in 2012. This number also includes the graduates from bachelor of education consecutive and concurrent programs.

Snapshots of Initial Teacher Education Program Components

In anticipation of the extension of Ontario initial teacher education to four semesters, it is important to document and understand the nature of critical components of the current programs. Unfortunately, little information has been compiled on the main components of Ontario teacher education programs. The lack of baseline comparative evidence makes it difficult to characterize teacher education in Ontario, let alone make meaningful comparisons for the purpose of improving programs (Crocker & Dibbon, 2008). In selecting components for comparison, we drew on the seven components of highly effective teacher education programs identified by Darling-Hammond (2006). Three components stood out for their centrality to teacher education organization: (a) a common, clear vision, (b) a strong core curriculum, and (c) extended field experiences. For the

purpose of this chapter, we examined available information on university websites to identify characteristics across programs that might reasonably be compared. For comparison purposes, the research focused on consecutive English language primary/junior programs both because they were present in 12 of 13 faculties and because this unit of analysis allowed for broader comparisons than could be made with concurrent, secondary, or alternate programs. Information about teacher education programs was available via program websites, but varied in depth and breadth; finding information often required considerable clicking and digging.

Vision

Darling-Hammond (2006) found that effective initial teacher education programs are grounded in a “clear vision of good teaching [that] permeates all course-work and clinical experience” (p. 46). Such visions connects “important values and goals to concrete classroom practices and provide a basis for teachers to develop and assess their teaching and their students’ learning” (Darling-Hammond & Baratz-Snowden, 2007, p. 121).

Each of the 12 English-language consecutive primary/junior programs had published on its website some form of vision statement, mission statement, conceptual framework, or core principles. Based only on the website search, it is difficult to ascertain the degree to which these statements are enacted in courses and practice. Six of the programs delineated clearly articulated visions accompanied by specific strategies, while the “vision” of the other six institutions had to be inferred from mission or value statements, conceptual frameworks, and goals. Similar to the processes implemented by Crocker and Dibbon (2008), we also reviewed each statement in order to identify key words and phrases that emerged across programs. Consistent with Crocker and Dibbon (2008), we found that the “striking feature of the mission statements is that their greatest commonality is their diversity” (p.27).

Several key words or phrases presented themselves across most of the 12 faculty statements. Most common—present in all but two—was *professionalism*. Professionalism was explicitly identified as an intended outcome or employed as a descriptor of a process for reaching the intended outcome. For example, the graduate was envisioned as “a critically reflective professional” able to “construct and apply professional knowledge,” or demonstrate “professional excellence” or “professional competence in their teaching.” Some programs used the term professionalism to describe processes such as communication, collaboration, and learning. The inclusion of “professionalism” is not surprising, given that these are programs for entry into a profession and that programs must demonstrate that they reflect professional standards (OCT, 2006).

Another common element was a commitment to social justice. Six programs explicitly referenced the term *social justice* within their statements, while the other six programs indicated similar commitment through the use of terms such as democracy, inequality, aboriginal issues, and peace and justice that reflected understanding of the social justice context (Centre for Social Justice, 2013). For example, conceptual frameworks made reference to honouring diversity. The commitment to social justice is not surprising, given Ontario’s diverse population and the attention given to this issue in both academic discourse and in Ministry of Education documents (e.g., Ontario Ministry of Education, 2009). In addition, the College’s professional standards state that members must “model respect for spiritual and cultural values, social justice, confidentiality, freedom, democracy and the environment” (OCT, 2006).

The importance of research and scholarship was mentioned in all 12 statements. Statements reflected commitment to “scholarly activities,” to the “scholarly growth of teachers,” and to “excellence in research” within the context of teaching and learning.

Overall, however, there was little consistency across use of formats, location on website, and emphasis on vision, mission, and goals. Part of the problem is a lack of common language and reporting mechanisms (Crocker & Dibbon, 2008). For example, one faculty would include professionalism or social justice in its vision statement while another included them in its conceptual framework. Another dimension of the problem is the lack of consistency across documents. For example, a core principle contained in a program handbook might not figure prominently on the website.

The review of vision or mission statements, conceptual frameworks, and value or goal statements reveals that programs do indeed have clearly articulated statements regarding a faculty's vision or goals, even though there is very little consistency across institutions as to how these statements are named. It is also evident that professionalism, social justice, and the integration of teaching activities with research or scholarly work have been articulated as common themes across programs. What is less evident is the degree to which the visions or missions or conceptual frameworks are enacted in courses and practica to foster meaningful learning experiences.

Curriculum

Darling-Hammond and Baratz-Snowden (2007) describe exemplary programs with core curricula as programs that offer a curriculum that is “grounded in knowledge of development, learning, subject-matter pedagogy, and assessment, taught in the context of practice” (p.120). We attempted to discern the nature of curricula offered in Ontario teacher education programs and the organizing principles that guided program design. This proved to be quite challenging, as the language and level of detail varied considerably and there were many broad general descriptions (Crocker & Dibbon, 2008). Information ranged from a listing of course names to brief descriptions to course outlines. In addition, there was considerable variation in course names, how themes are described (e.g., diversity or instructional strategies), and how themes are clustered into courses. This made it difficult to determine the attention devoted to particular topics. While the nomenclature and structure of courses and content varied greatly, most curricula can be broadly categorized as focusing on either subject pedagogy or educational foundations.

Commitment to teacher candidates' knowledge of the curriculum and subject matter pedagogy is a common feature of most teacher education programs (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Crocker & Dibbon, 2008). Courses focused on subject matter pedagogy tended to employ the term *curriculum* or reference specific school subjects in their titles. Eleven programs listed course titles that reflected the curricular content areas in Ontario, such as language arts or mathematics. Even in these programs, however, it was difficult to determine how the topics were organized within the course, or the time devoted to key topics. For example, it was seldom evident whether courses were organized by modules or taught in a holistic and integrated manner. Some curricular subjects stood alone while others were combined with another. This is evident in the variety of courses related to the visual arts: *Teaching for the Arts*, *Visual Arts*, *Curriculum and Pedagogy in Elementary Art*, *Visual Arts Methodology*, *Visual Arts, Music and Dance*, *Integrated Arts in the Elementary Classroom*, *Arts*, *Art*, *Education in the Primary/Junior Division—Arts*, *Curriculum and Instruction in Visual Arts*, and *The Arts and Social Studies: Integrating Curriculum Primary Junior*. In addition to course credit (which ranged from 0.25 to 3 credits), many faculties offered other professional development workshops in the arts and other areas. For example, at the University of Ontario Institute of Technology (UOIT), primary/junior teacher candidates received an “arts booster” workshop during the first semester in an attempt to provide them with some theoretical foundation before taking *The Arts* in second semester.

While it is evident from course listings and descriptions that all programs give considerable attention to subject matter pedagogy, it is harder to identify the degree and nature of attention

devoted to understanding of teaching, learning, and children (Darling-Hammond & Baratz-Snowden, 2007). In particular, it was difficult to determine the attention given to how knowledge is developed and how individuals learn. After an initial review of course offerings, it appeared that not all programs had a course devoted to curriculum “grounded in knowledge of development, learning” (Darling-Hammond & Baratz-Snowden, 2007, p.120). Our initial search found such courses in only nine of the programs. Deeper exploration into course descriptions revealed that 11 programs listed courses specifically addressing learning processes within the context of development. Upon closer inspection of university academic calendars, the one faculty that appeared to not have a course devoted specifically to the psychology of learning, did indeed have a course that was organized around modules, one of which centred solely on psychology of learning and development. A few examples of the assorted course titles included *Educational Psychology*, *The Learning Process in the Educational Setting*, *Classroom Dynamics—Teaching and learning*, *Sociocultural Perspectives on Human Development*, and *Learning, Learning and Child Development*. Once again, this illustrates a lack of common terminology and the diversity of approaches across faculties of education.

Practicum

The third program component is the practicum. As Allen (2003) and Darling-Hammond, Hammermass, Grossman, Rust, and Shulman (2005) note, across North America there are major variations in practicum models, goals, structure, processes, and content. Examination of the faculty websites revealed there exists a wide variation among Ontario universities in the nature of practica and in the ways in which they were labelled and described. This is consistent with Crocker and Dibbon’s (2008) national findings.

Locating and accurately reporting the publically available information proved quite challenging, given the range of information that was publically accessible. Even though the College requires 40 days in approved settings, it was evident that most primary/junior programs easily exceeded this requirement. Practicum experiences in Ontario ranged in length from 40 to 76 days, depending upon how practica were described by each faculty. One faculty website listed a total of 60 days spread between two practicum placements, combined with a 14-day alternative practicum. Overall, based on published information, we calculated the average number of practicum days to be 63. Days were typically arranged around two to four blocks within schools, with at least one in primary and another in junior. The structure of these blocks varied considerably, a reflection of the unique nature and foci of each programs.

The three *close-ups* below illustrate how some characteristics of exemplary practicum programs are employed in Ontario initial teacher education programs.

Early start in the field. Six of the primary/junior programs, provided teacher candidates with opportunities to begin the school year in a classroom or school, primarily through opportunities to observe and become immersed in classrooms and schools from the onset of the academic year. At both Brock University and UOIT, teacher candidates began the program one week prior to the school year in order to be introduced to the program, professional standards, and theoretical orientations of their programs. They were assigned observational tasks to be completed during early visits to classrooms and schools. At UOIT, “guided observations” required teacher candidates to observe specific school and classroom practices related to classroom management, instructional strategies, and other topics, which they will later explore in their university classes. At Brock, early “internship” experiences in schools included opportunities to teach a short lesson to a group of students. These examples reflect “purposeful design and use of field experiences” (Feiman-Nemser, 2001, p. 1024) through guided observation and practice.

Collaborative partnerships. Exemplary programs develop and support collaborative relationships between the schools or classrooms and the initial program (Levine, 2006; Feiman-Nemser, 2001). All 12 primary/junior programs explain their programs to partner teachers and schools through handbooks and website information. Handbooks reflected efforts to articulate goals and guiding standards; roles of the associate teacher, faculty advisor, and teacher candidate; and the critical importance of the relationship amongst the three parties. Although handbooks and additional resources varied widely, most institutions explained their practicum principles and practices.

It is important to note, however, that good resource documents are only one part of the communications process. The manner in which they are shared with field partners may vary, as may the willingness and time of associate teachers to review the materials (Petrarca, 2010). This was evident in Crocker and Dibbon's (2008) review of teacher education in Canada, which noted discrepancies in perceived level of collaboration between faculty and school. Faculties tended to report strong collaborations, while schools reported the collaborations as weak. Levine (2006) had similar findings in his review of American initial teacher education, where school partners felt isolated from the programs.

Varied practicum settings. Several primary/junior programs provide teacher candidates with opportunities to experience the practicum in settings specific to the teacher candidate's particular program option, such as the specialized early childhood and educational technology program options offered at Brock University. Six of the programs offered practicum placements in alternative settings upon meeting the mandatory requirements. Such alternative placements ranged from international schools to alternative public school settings, such as outdoor education centres, to non-school educational opportunities in zoos, museums, and art galleries. Such placements provide teacher candidates with opportunities to broaden their experience.

Overall, Ontario teacher education programs offer a wide array of practicum experiences. It would be easier to appreciate and understand these programs, however, if there were more consistency in the language used to describe these placements.

Researching Initial Teacher Education in Ontario

Our hope when we began this chapter was to paint a portrait of the Ontario teacher education system on the cusp of the four-semester program. While we knew that information on these programs had not been compiled, we expected that an examination of documents (particularly on websites) would enable us to draw meaningful comparisons between programs. We explored the volumes of information located on websites of Ontario faculties of education, in an effort to provide baseline data regarding how teacher education is delivered in Ontario. Information regarding the program offerings (i.e., divisional offerings, consecutive or concurrent), application, and graduation is readily available from several organizations including the Ontario College of Teachers, individual faculty websites, Common University Data Ontario, and TEAS. Information about specific elements of teacher education programs, however, is difficult to obtain from some universities. When information is available, it is articulated in terms that are particular to that institution. As a result, it is challenging to decipher information and use it for comparative purposes across 13 institutions, as was evident from the snapshots taken of guiding visions, curricula, and practicum programs.

Comparison across initial teacher education programs in Ontario both raises public awareness about teacher education and benefits all institutions by gathering baseline information that would convey the range and complexity of programs in the province. Such baseline information—in the form of in-depth documentation of program visions, course offerings, hours, practica, and other

elements—would enable faculties of education to understand how their programs are consistent with and distinct from other programs, while enabling applicants to make informed selections. It would enable researchers to draw comparisons of program characteristics and identify patterns provincially and nationally. Such information, which is now being collected in the Teacher Ed Canada data base (www.teacheredcanada.ca), would allow institutions to learn from one another and make more informed decisions.

This exercise proved to be extremely enlightening for two reasons. Firstly, it is evident that the diversity and variety of programs in Ontario need to be documented. As the nature and depth of the diversity in programs and offerings is challenging to determine by perusing publically accessible documents, more needs to be done to ensure that such information is collected and then organized in a manner that allows for the identification of patterns of practice across programs. More in-depth documentation of course offerings, hours, and practica, would serve the academic field of education well. For example, questions regarding how site-based programs offer courses, or a description of how assessment or education law is addressed within programs would be extremely useful for descriptive and interpretative purposes. By no means are we suggesting that we homogenize our programs. Rather, we believe our diversity should be celebrated and communicated. A central repository of information located on a central and neutral website with similar fields and nomenclature simply for information (and non-evaluative) purposes could provide clarity for those seeking to understand and draw lessons from teacher education programs. Perhaps it could be collected under the direction of a body such as the Ontario Association of Dean's of Education or the Ontario College of Teachers. It would be useful to build on the survey developed by Mark Hirschhorn and his collaborators for the Teacher Ed Canada data base (www.teacheredcanada.ca), perhaps with supplementary questions to address issues of particular concern to provincial stakeholders.

Secondly, based on our examination of publically accessible information, it appears that faculties in Ontario are implementing programs that offer varied learning experiences for teacher candidates. While we are unable to, and do not seek to comment on individual programs in an evaluative manner, it is clearly evident that based on information provided by faculty of education websites, many programs list features described in the literature on quality programs. Darling-Hammond and Baratz-Snowden (2007) describe exemplary programs based on their research in American programs:

What these programs do is consistent with research indicating that new teachers learn best in a community which enables them to develop a vision for their practice; knowledge about teaching, learning, and children; dispositions about how to use this knowledge; practices that allow them to act on their intentions and beliefs; and tools that support their efforts. (Darling-Hammond & Baratz-Snowden, 2007, p. 120)

The collection of reliable information would permit researchers to identify exemplary practices and programs with a view to acknowledging them. It would also allow for comparisons to be made across programs in the 13 faculties of education in Ontario universities.

Looking Forward

Teacher preparation in Ontario has a rich history that extends back to 1847, when the first normal school was established. While teacher education program content and pedagogy has changed over time, the structure of initial teacher education programs has changed little since the shift in the 1960s and 1970s from provincial control of teacher training to university-based teacher education in 1-year consecutive programs and 5-year concurrent programs. Since then, the autonomy of universities has been largely unchallenged, even though the College of Teachers accredits programs. As our snapshots of teacher education components reveal, programs seem to vary widely in terms of vision, curriculum, and practicum. Unfortunately, as information about teacher education programs is not readily available and easily accessible, it is difficult to make general claims about teacher education in Ontario or make comparisons across programs.

The shift to a four-semester program (over two years) will change initial teacher education in Ontario, as faculties of education lengthen programs and address specific program requirements. How will programs change? How will the doubling of time devoted to teacher preparation broaden and deepen the professional competency and expertise of teachers? Will faculties of education simply extend their existing programs or will they dramatically re-imagine the teacher education experience? As the timelines for extending programs were very tight, many faculties were unable to take the time to engage in extensive consultation or elaborate re-visioning exercises. Also, a reduction in overall funding further constrained institutions in the programmatic choices they could make. As a result, the opportunity for profound change may have been missed.

As academics, we believe that the educational research community can contribute to documenting and understanding the extended programs being launched in 2015. Such research can guide institutional program improvement and deepen understandings of teacher education provincially and nationally. Thus, we exhort Ontario faculties of education to individually and collectively compile information on their programs. Unless an effort is made soon to compile information about the final years of the 1-year program, the opportunity to make meaningful comparisons with the upcoming 2-year program may be lost. By sharing descriptive information about 2-year programs, Ontario faculties of education can both learn from each other and contribute to a richer dialogue on teacher education in Canada.

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Chapter 5

INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION IN QUEBEC

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The Context of Teacher Education Programs in Quebec

In order to understand the current context of teacher education in Quebec, including its structure and organization, it is necessary to understand the stages of its evolution that explain the choices that have been made through the years in response to diverse problems. It should also be noted that the social movements that have marked Quebec since the beginning of the 1960s, as well as the pedagogical and political movements of the past few decades, have contributed to creating the teacher education system that is currently in place.

First of all, this chapter retraces the pivotal moments in the recent history of teacher education in Quebec since 1960 by indicating how each of these moments has left its mark on teacher preparation as we know it today. Next, we present the current context of teacher education by describing the official framework as well as the roles and responsibilities given to the different organizations that take part in the process of educating future teachers. An overview of all of the programs offered in Quebec is then given, with a brief comparison of the structures and contents of these programs. Finally, we present some of the major preoccupations that have been at the heart of debates on teacher education in Quebec over the past few years.

The Recent History of Teacher Education

In a general sense, three moments have particularly marked the system of teacher education in Quebec in its recent history: the upheaval of the 1960s with the release of the Parent Report; the turning point of the 1990s with the publication of a brief by the *Conseil supérieur de l'éducation* (CSE) on the teaching profession (1991); and the solidification of the direction of teacher education as the result of the adoption in 2001 of new ministerial orientations, as well as a framework of competencies for teacher education.

The Quiet Revolution and the Parent Report. The first turning point in teacher education corresponds to the 1963-1965 appearance of the imposing report of the Royal Commission on Education in the province of Quebec, commonly referred to as the Parent Report, after the president of the commission, Monsignor Alphonse-Marie Parent. Published in five volumes, the Parent Report is representative of the socio-political context of the times, the so-called “Quiet Revolution”, which consisted of a movement towards the democratization and secularisation of public institutions. Due

to space constraints, it is impossible to provide a detailed background to the Quiet Revolution in this chapter, but it is important to note that this period in the history of Quebec marks the determination of the majority French-speaking population to gain control over the economic and cultural direction of their province. For further analysis of the changes that took place in Quebec society and its educational institutions, see Lenoir 2005; Lessard and Tardif, 1996; Mathurin, 1991; and Tardif, Lessard, and Gauthier, 1998. The Parent Report sets the stage for a major reform of the entire education system in Quebec: the creation of the Ministry of Education, the creation of the *Université du Québec* network of campuses,¹ the creation of the CEGEPs,² and the creation of the polyvalent model of secondary schools.³ On the footsteps of this report, elementary schools also faced a major reform in terms of structure and curriculum content, and, not surprisingly, teacher education was similarly reviewed.

The majority French Catholic normal schools up until 1960 were run by religious orders and the vast majority of the teachers were, in fact, members of these orders, although the numbers of lay teachers gradually began to increase during the 1950s (Gauthier, Bédard, & Tardif, 1994; Henchey & Burgess, 1987).

It should be noted that teacher education in the English language community faced a slightly different evolution. The School for Teachers of Macdonald College became the Institute of Education of McGill University in 1955. It was the only establishment to prepare English language (and Protestant) teachers, with the exception of Bishop's University, which was limited to secondary education (Thomas & Kane, 2015; Henchey & Burgess, 1987).

The Parent commission recommended that all teacher education take place in universities, and that there be a certain level of standardization around the number of years required for certification, the number of days of practice teaching, and the overall requirements for a permanent teaching permit. This commission was hugely influential, and between 1968 and 1971 the normal schools completely disappeared. Initial teacher education became the sole prerogative of the newly created faculties of education. These changes bear witness, then, to the first wave of professionalization of teachers and teacher education, which was based on the idea that quality teaching must be anchored in solid scientific principles. The acquisition of a knowledge base related to disciplines contributing to education (psychology, philosophy, sociology, linguistics, etc.) therefore occupies an important place in teacher education programs.

As Claude Lessard summarizes: “Québec in the 1960's, as in the rest of Canada, opted for the American model of Faculties of Education, responsible, in partnership with other faculties and disciplinary departments as well as the school milieu for the preparation of teachers (disciplinary, pedagogical and practical)” (Portelance, 2008, p. 7).⁴ Teacher education for elementary school teachers consisted of a three year bachelor of education degree. For secondary school teachers, the preparation consisted of a degree or a major of 60 credits in a disciplinary subject followed by a minor of 30 credits in education. These two types of program led to a teaching certificate that was a

¹ In 1959 there were only three francophone universities in Quebec. The democratization of education movement led to the 1968 creation of the Université du Québec network, a public state-run university where each institution was run autonomously, but which was an integral part of a single university. Since its inception, the Université du Québec has had a triple mandate: to promote accessibility to higher education, to *prepare new teachers* and to contribute to scientific development, particularly in the regions (Université du Québec, 2009).

² The CEGEPs are colleges of general and technical education, providing grades 12 and 13 pre-university programs as well as three year vocational and technical diplomas.

³ The polyvalent secondary schools replaced the “classical colleges”, an elite system that provided a quality secondary education to a very small percentage of students.

⁴ All translations are provided by the authors.

temporary qualification requiring two years successful teaching to obtain a permanent teaching license. This model was in place up until the mid-1990s.

In this curve of the quiet revolution it was considered that placing teacher education in the universities was sign of modernization and, in particular, an improvement in the quality of teachers. According to Lessard (in Portelance, 2008, p. 6), “this belief explains the very large freedom given to universities and university professors in organising teacher education as they saw fit.”

The 1990s: Major reform in teacher education. In 1991, the Conseil supérieur de l'éducation (CSE)⁵ (an advisory committee that counsels the Minister of Education) published its annual report on the state and the needs of education that prepared the ground for an important reform in the organization of teacher education in Quebec. This report stated that a uniquely university-based approach to teacher education was not professional enough, and that it appeared to be poorly conceived to prepare teachers for the real conditions that teachers face. It was described as too theoretical, too specialized, and too fragmented, and the different elements of the programs were not taken into account to provide a coherent whole. In addition, secondary school teachers were not provided with a broad enough range of information about teaching different subjects and the development of a professional identity was too closely tied to their subject areas. The amount of time spent on practicum in schools was also judged insufficient (Lessard, 2008; MEQ, 2003).

Following these directives, the Ministry of Education reconsidered the requirements for teacher education (MEQ, 1992, 1993, 1994a, 1994b, 1994c, 1996), and proposed a single approach to teacher preparation for all regular programs: a 4-year, 120-credit bachelor of education, which integrates disciplinary and pedagogical dimensions, as well as a minimal requirement of 700 hours on practicum. For secondary teachers and the elementary level specialists the reforms of the 1990s were major because they eliminated the possibility of following a degree in a subject area with a year of qualifying courses. From that point, all persons wishing to enter the teaching profession were required to register in a concurrent program of 4 years duration. For elementary level teachers, the program changed from 3 years to 4 years. A part of the program was devoted to the subject areas, which may be taken in other faculties or entirely in the faculty of education, depending on the university. These changes are still in place today.

It should be noted that this single route to teacher qualification was brought into question in 2007 when the Ministry of Education authorized the creation of graduate level master of teaching programs to fill teaching vacancies in certain subject areas, such as mathematics, sciences, and second languages. In a letter sent to the president of the Association of Deans of Education in Quebec universities on July 10th 2007, the Ministry of Education (MELS) indicated that it was “forced to admit that this model [4-year bachelor of education degrees] did not entirely meet the needs for teachers of certain subject areas in the workforce.” For the minister,

it would seem that a graduate level programme in teaching would permit candidates with undergraduate degrees to become qualified while offering a valid response to certain

⁵ This committee, which only functions in French, and whose title can translate as The superior council on education “comprises 22 members representing the field of education and other sectors of Québec society. These members are appointed by the Government following consultation with associations or organizations that are most representative of students, parents, teachers, school administrators and socio-economic groups.” The role of this committee is “to propose guidelines and draw up recommendations to the Minister on issues related to a level or sector of education or on the state and needs of education. (...) The work of the Conseil is the result of consideration among its members. This is founded on published studies, consultation with experts, as well as dialogue with players directly involved in the education field. Hereafter this committee will be referred to by its initials in French, the CSE.

preoccupations with regards to the current teacher shortage . . . and considering that a certain number of graduates in mathematics, sciences and French first language had entered the teaching profession. A graduate level diploma would permit, on the one hand, a high quality teacher education programme . . . and, on the other hand, attract excellent students without having a negative effect on undergraduate programmes, which, for the Minister, remain the best approach for preparing teachers. Therefore, these graduate programmes should not, in any way be seen as superior to the undergraduate programmes, but should permit, by using integrated, professional and innovative approaches, help to meet the needs of the workforce with rigorous and high quality programmes.

Following this invitation to the universities, several qualifying master's programs were developed in Quebec (Thomas & Riches, 2014), opening the door to an alternative type of teacher preparation that was initially intended to be temporary, that is, until the large number of unqualified teachers was reduced and the teacher shortage in some subject areas was addressed.

Aside from the structural rearrangement of the programs, as pointed out by Lenoir (2010), “the reform in initial teacher education in 1994 put professionalization at the centre of teaching and imposed a competency-based approach to learning to teach” (p. 42).

This first appearance of the concept of competencies for teachers marks the desire to reform teacher education by focusing on the development of an ability to act professionally in complex situations in order to respond to weaknesses identified by the CSE as being present in a university-based education. We are therefore beginning to see the outlines of a second wave of professionalization, which no longer refers to the idea of an act based on scientific knowledge, but as a contextualized act taking into account the complexity of the practical reality. This translates into the need to offer a preparation centered on the practical in order to better prepare future teachers for the complex realities of the classroom. This is the origin of the lengthening of the practicum, which permits a significant increase in the amount of time spent in classrooms and the abolition of the probation system in place until that time, with the addition of a 4th year of preparation (30 credits).

The reflexive dimension was also highly valued in the changes proposed during the 1990s, because it was considered to be the means to support the connection of theoretical and practical knowledge that a teacher must consider in his or her practice. To this end, the work of Schön (1983, 1987) was highly influential in Quebec, along with the rest of the world, and gave impetus to a considerable amount of research and the development of numerous reflective approaches to learning to teach (Conseil supérieur de l'éducation, 1991; Desjardins, 1999; Hensler & Desjardins, 2006; Hensler, Garant, & Dumoulin, 2001; Martin, Garant, Gervais, & St-Jarre, 2000; Tardif, Borges, & Malo, 2012).

It was also at this time that the Ministry of Education required that the faculties of education take full responsibility for and control of the programs of teacher education within the university.

Over the decade of the 1990s a reconfiguration of all teacher education programs took place. At the same time, admission to the majority of the certificates in pedagogy, which constituted an indirect way to teacher certification, was discontinued in 1995.

In 2001, Bousquet and Martel commented on the fact that the reforms of the 1990s led to a change in the portrait of newly qualified teachers, because 4-year undergraduate degrees are far less attractive to those holding disciplinary degrees or others who turn to teaching as a second career. There is now a greater homogeneity of teachers, as well as a change in the demographic characteristics of these graduates: “those people who sought qualifications through a certificate of teaching were often in their early thirties. Now, newly qualified teachers are, on average, in their mid-twenties” (p. 4).

2001: Creation of a new framework of professional competencies and re-centering on the knowledge of how to act in a specific context. At the turn of the century, the framework for teacher education in Quebec was reformulated. As a part of a large-scale reform in education at the elementary and secondary level, which in itself engendered a large consultation through a process entitled the Estates General on Education⁶, the MEQ published a new framework of competencies for teacher education in 2001 (MEQ, 2001a).

The orientations and the requirements for pre-service teacher education for all levels and programs including elementary, secondary, specialisations in the arts, second languages, physical education, and special education were placed in a single document, regardless of the differences to be found in the different programs and the particulars of the different teaching contexts

The framework of competencies referred to in this document (see Appendix) is similar to many such frameworks found worldwide that were published within a similar time frame (Perrenoud, 1999; Ministerio de educacion [Chile], 2003; Lenoir & Bru, 2010), etc.

The reform that took place in the 2000s is directly in line with that which took place in the 1990s. The intentions of developing professional competencies are still at the heart of teacher education, but these notions have been refined since the 1990s. The notion of a program-based approach to teacher preparation begins to appear in ministry documents, meaning that teacher education programs must pull together the various elements in a coherent, cohesive, and collaborative way:

A ‘program-based’ approach avoids program fragmentation and facilitates the integration of all activities. It is based on concerted action and the establishment of a network bringing together teacher training instructors, student teachers and leaders within a ‘program team.’ (MEQ, 2001a, p. 202)

In conclusion to the first part of this chapter, it is possible to see how teacher education in Quebec has passed through several phases and been influenced by social movements as well as by current ideas and theories of education. In the space of 50 years, teacher education in Quebec has gone from normal schools run by religious congregations to university level coursework supported by scientific knowledge as a means to ensure teaching quality, to the adoption of a framework that re-centers teacher education on the acquisition of knowledge of how to act in context and the development of professional competencies within a program-based approach.

In the following section the legal framework for teacher education, as well as the control mechanisms for ensuring the quality of education that are currently in place, will be described.

⁶ This ad hoc committee organised by the Ministry of Education spent several months holding open, province-wide consultations with both educational professionals and the general public. At the end of this consultation a report was tabled, entitled *The Estates General on Education 1995–1996: Renewing Our Education System: Ten Priority Actions: Final Report of the Commission for the Estates General on Education*.

The Legal Framework of Teacher Education Today

The Ministry of Education

In Quebec, the rules concerning the preparation of teachers are established by the Ministry of Education, Leisure, and Sports (MEESR⁷), as is written in the Education Act (article 438) by a “Rules for the Authorisation of Teaching.”⁸ The list of teacher education programs approved and authorized by the MEESR can be found in that document.

The MEESR has also played a central role in the development of a rule governing the sanction of the language of instruction for teacher candidates. After many years of discussion and negotiation with the deans of education faculties, the choice of a test was made and conditions for taking the test and consequences following failure were determined in 2009. In fact there are two tests, one in French (Test de certification en français écrit pour l'enseignement—TECFÉE) and one in English (the English Exam for Teaching Certification—EETC). Passing these tests is not a condition for admission, but is required in order to be eligible for a teaching permit as authorised by the MELS at the end of the university program.

The Ministry of Education also establishes the provincial budget for teacher education, given that financing of university programs is based on a calculation of the equivalent of the numbers of students registered full time. In 1994, the MEESR established a quota system, determining and then informing universities of their particular quotas for admission into their different teacher education programs. This quota system has been discontinued since 2011, and admissions are determined entirely by the universities based on their internal capacities.

The Comité d'agrément des programmes de formation à l'enseignement (CAPFE)⁹

Since the mid 1990s, an approbation committee, the CAPFE, has been established by the Education Act (art. 477.13). This committee

1. examines and authorizes teacher education programs at the K–12 levels;
2. recommends to the Ministry those programs that meet the required standards so that graduates will obtain their teaching licenses; and
3. advises the ministry of the definition of expected competencies of the professional associations of teachers.

A further mandate of this committee is to support the collective reflection on teacher education through the organisation of presentations and conferences.

The CAPFE is composed of nine members: three of them represent professional associations of elementary and secondary teachers, one represents non-teaching professional associations, and the

⁷ It should be noted that as a result of a ministerial decision on February 18, 2005, the Ministry of Education of Quebec (MEQ) became the Ministry of Education, Leisure, and Sports, and it therefore changed its acronym (MELS). In 2014 further changes to the name of the ministry were made and it should now be referred to as le Ministère d'éducation, enseignement supérieur et recherche (MEESR). There is no official English translation for the name of the ministry, but it roughly translates to Ministry of Education, Higher Education and Research.

⁸ “*Règlement sur les autorisations d'enseigner*”.

⁹ This committee does not exist in English so it does not have an English equivalent for the title. The translation would read “The committee for approbation of teacher education programs.”

remaining four members are professors from faculties of education, at least one of which must have had prior experience in teaching K–12. At least two of these nine committee members must have connections with the English-language school milieu.

The evaluation of teacher education programs for the purpose of approbation rests on the analysis of how well the programs conform to ministerial orientations. These orientations are laid out in two documents, the first covering the framework of professional competencies (described in the previous section) (Ministère de l'éducation du Québec, 2001a), and the second, which covers the practicum in the school milieu (Ministère de l'éducation du loisir et du sport, 2008). This last document recommends a diversity of experiences during the program and specifies that the programs must include a minimum of 700 hours of fieldwork with a placement in each of the four years. International practica are recognized as pertinent, but it is suggested that this type of experience should not take place before the third year.

The process for official accreditation includes the submission of a report by each university, followed by a two days' visit by the committee, wherein a wide variety of players are met, including professors, students, sessional instructors, supervisors, associate teachers, and school principals in the region. This process takes place once every six years and the stakes are high. Although a program has never seen its accreditation withdrawn, it has happened that significant adjustments were required by the CAPFE as a condition for maintaining accreditation. In all cases, the universities accepted the demands and made the required adjustments, which can be seen in the annual reports.

The School Milieu

Associate teachers. The ministerial document on the practicum sets the criteria of eligibility to become a cooperating or associate teacher, including "Section 22, paragraph 6.1 of the Education Act [which] stipulates that teachers must collaborate in the training of future teachers and in the mentoring of newly qualified teachers" (p.13).¹⁰ Teachers must

- have the choice to volunteer to mentor student teachers;
- have significant experience in teaching (preferably at least 5 years);
- have developed "competencies recognized by their institution, in pedagogy, in the teaching content and in the instructional skills related to that content";
- have the appropriate training (that is why the minister provides funding to enable cooperating teachers to provide student teachers with the appropriate support and supervision) (p. 14–15);¹¹
- have reflective analysis skills and openness to change; and
- have the ability to collaborate.

¹⁰ The province-wide collective agreement, however, has introduced a nuanced interpretation of this law, by indicating that this is a collective obligation but not an individual one, meaning that each teacher is free to contribute or not to supporting future or new teachers, and this contribution should be voluntary.

¹¹ The school milieu, receives an amount of \$660 per student teacher per year, regardless of how long the practicum is. This amount, of which an important part must go to the professional development of associate teachers (translation of MELS 2008, p. 15), also serves to recognise the contribution of teachers to teacher education. The management of these funds varies from school board to school board. In some cases, the amount, or part of it, goes into a central fund that is then available to teachers to cover the costs of professional development. In other school boards the total amount can be given directly to the associate teacher. The total annual Ministry budget for this measure is approximately \$10 million.

School principals. The ministerial document also stresses the importance for the practical training of teachers to be based on a close collaboration of the partners. School principals are being recognized for their pedagogical and organizational leadership roles. “They also encourage cooperating teachers to engage in a professional development process, in particular with respect to their role as mentors for student teachers” (p. 17). In addition, it is the school principal who is responsible for selecting the associate teachers to work with student teachers (MELS, 2008, p. 18).

The universities. The universities, on the other hand, are recognized to have an important role in coordinating the partnerships with the school milieu, as well as in the preparation of the associate teachers and the supervisors who work with student teachers while on practicum. The university has the obligation to offer associate teachers a preparation for accompanying student teachers, although this preparation is not compulsory for the cooperating teacher unless there is a specific requirement made by the school principal or the school district.

The universities are also required to take a leadership role in terms of developing a partnership with other faculties and departments that offer courses to students in the bachelor of education degree programs. On paper this appears to be relatively straightforward, but in practice there are a number of issues that make this difficult to undertake. In the BEd programs for secondary teachers, approximately one half of the 120 credits are taken in faculties and departments other than education. The choice of courses offered and the contents of these courses often rest with the individual departments, and there is not always a mechanism that forces these departments to consult or even inform the faculty of education of their curricular decisions. This issue will be further discussed in the section on “Major Issues across the Models.”

Regional and Provincial Representational Boards

At the regional level, representational boards were created, bringing together universities and the school boards of the same region with the Ministry of Education to discuss issues related to teacher education. The ministry–universities board acts as the provincial platform, uniting deans of faculties of education along with representatives of the Ministry of Education and the president of the CAPFE.

We conclude this section on roles and responsibilities with a reminder that Quebec, unlike other provinces such as Ontario, does not have a professional association of teachers, despite an interest in creating one in the early 2000s. The request for a college of teachers led to a vast consultation by the Office of Professional Associations of Quebec that concluded in 2002 that, considering that the education system is already equipped with appropriate mechanisms to insure the quality of services and the protection of the public, it did not recommend the creation of a professional order of teachers at this time (Office des professions, 2002).

The Programs

In order to permit bachelor of education graduates to receive a teaching permit, the university programs must be approved by the Ministry of Education based on a recommendation by the CAPFE. As was previously explained, the rules governing the certification to teach relate to two types of programs, the bachelor of education of 120 credits (4 years) and the master of teaching programs of 60 credits, with 15 of these credits making up the practicum.

Table 1 presents all of the programs approved by the Minister of Education according to information provided by the CAPFE as of June 19, 2013.

Table 1

List of Teacher Education Programs Offered in the Different Quebec Universities

	Elementary teaching	Secondary teaching	Fine arts	Music	Dance	Drama	Physical education and health	English as a second language	French as a second language	Special education ¹²	Vocational teaching	Master of teaching
Bishop's University	X							X	X			
Concordia University	X	X	X					X				
McGill University	X	X		X			X	X	X			X
Université de Montréal	X	X					X		X	X		X
Université de Sherbrooke	X	X					X	X		X	X	X
Université Laval	X	X	X	X			X	X	X		X	
Université du Québec à Chicoutimi	X	X	X				X	X		X	X	
Université du Québec à Montréal	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Université du Québec à Rimouski	X	X								X	X	
Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières	X	X	X					X		X		X
Université du Québec en Abitibi-Témiscamingue	X	X						X			X	
Université du Québec en Outaouais	X	X								X		

¹² In the English-language institutions this program is offered at the graduate level.

General Overview of the Structure and Contents of the Programs

In Quebec, teacher education programs, regardless of which university offers them, are very similar in structure, number of credits, practical requirements, etc., as was shown by Desjardins and Dezutter (2009), who analysed the content, structure, and activities found in elementary teaching programs in 12 Quebec universities. They discovered that in all universities the courses were found to be mostly one semester in length, almost all compulsory, and of three credits, which corresponds to 45 hours of class time, although there were a few courses of one, two, or four credits.

In terms of the course content, these authors observed that in all of the universities, the programs were made up of activities that fall into the following categories:

1. Courses focusing on the acquisition of a knowledge base
 - 1.1. Related to subject area
 - 1.2. Related to education and contributive disciplines (psychology, sociology, etc.)
 - 1.3. Related to the educational system
2. Courses focusing on classroom intervention
 - 2.1. General pedagogy
 - 2.2. Methods
 - 2.3. Evaluation
 - 2.4. Information technology and communication (ICT)
 - 2.5. Handicaps, learning disabilities, and behavioural disorders
 - 2.6. Diversity and multiculturalism
3. Practicum and related activities
4. Courses related to professional development (portfolio, integration seminars)
5. Courses related to learning about teacher research

According to the analysis of Desjardins and Dezutter (2009), the number of credits related to these different types of activities varies quite substantially from one university to another, although the courses related to classroom intervention play an important role in the overall programs. In some universities these courses make up 30% of the program while in other universities 67% of the program is composed of this category of courses.

The number of credits for the practicum (including associated activities such as seminars) varies from 16% to 25% of the total credits in the programs. Programs leading to qualification for teaching the secondary level are considerably different. Future secondary teachers must choose one subject area as a specialty, such as mathematics, French first language, English second language (or the inverse for English language schools), social studies, or sciences and technologies, although future social studies or science teachers are required to take courses in several different fields such as history, geography, biology, chemistry, and physics. Future teachers in the areas considered to be a specialization, such as second languages, music, fine arts, and physical education, must prepare to teach both elementary and secondary levels. The other credits are divided between courses in general pedagogy, methods, foundations, working with students with handicaps or learning disabilities, and courses in diversity and multiculturalism, as well as the practicum, of which there is one per year during each of the four years of the program.

Admission and Selection Criteria

Admission criteria are determined by the universities. In most cases, students are selected on the basis of their academic results. The CEGEP diploma constitutes the basis for entrance into

teacher education programs. Certain secondary teaching programs and specializations require specific prerequisite courses for entrance. Applicants who have not completed CEGEP may be considered for admission if they are over 21 and have pertinent life experiences. To be admitted into the master of teaching program, candidates must have completed a bachelor degree with 45 credits in the subject area they plan to teach. They must also have an academic average of 2.7/4.3 in their university studies. While admission rates vary, several programs do not fill their allocated spaces and must actively recruit to keep their programs viable.

Major Issues across the Models

Aside from the factual description of the programs as presented above, this last section will allow the reader to get a deeper sense of the teacher education system through the presentation of some of the major issues that preoccupy groups of teacher educators and researchers in teacher education in Quebec universities: the aim of professionalization, the requirements of a competency-based approach (including issues regarding structure and outline of programs, progression of learning, and pedagogical approaches and the evaluation of competencies); and the particular challenges for the different teaching profiles.

Professionalization

The professionalization of teaching and of teacher education is a recurrent theme that has provided the impetus for all of the changes that have taken place since the 1960s. This concept has come to mean different things at different times, as we have shown earlier in the chapter. Currently, this issue remains central to the debate around the definition of a competency-based program for learning to teach, and the expectations that such a program has for preparing teachers who are able to act in appropriate ways in varied and complex contexts using their judgment and taking responsibility for their choices and actions. Interestingly, the latest wave of professionalization is part of a movement of decentralization of powers by the revision of the Education Act, which accords more responsibility to schools and, by extension, to teachers, with regards to school organization.

Requirements of a Competency-Based Approach

The shift to programs based on the development of professional competencies has brought to light new challenges and given rise to new questions for universities, particularly the following.

Structure and outline of programs. A competency-based approach presupposes the development of knowledge of action rather than an approach that is based on types of theoretical knowledge to acquire. Certain authors estimate that such an approach should drive substantial transformation of the structures of programs for learning to teach in order to consider professional practice and its requirements, not the subject area knowledge, as the principle organiser of the teacher education curriculum (Bourdoncle & Lessard, 2003, p. 134). According to Desjardins (2012), the competency-based approach recommends a holistic and systemic vision of teacher education, where the structure that is traditionally broken down into small unconnected pieces is changed to new curricular forms that promote a better internal coherence and the professional development of teachers. In reality, the structure of programs, the types of courses offered, and the logistics of the elements included have changed very little over the course of the last 15 years, meaning that a logical

connection between the contents of programs and the opportunities to learn how to act in professional ways remains an important challenge (Gauthier & Mellouki, 2006).

Progression of learning. Teacher education programs in Quebec have the distinction of being spread over a relatively long period of time in that the majority of the programs are bachelor of education degrees of 4 years in length. This model is based on the desire to resolve some of the problems identified before the reform of the 1990s:

- a. failure to prepare the candidates for the complexity of practice;
- b. failure to prepare the candidates to be competent in a diversity of contexts;
- c. failure to transform enduring conceptions about teaching and learning—teachers are perpetuating models of teaching; and
- d. disregard of the knowledge base from the field of education.

The presence of the students in a teacher preparation program for a long period of time allows a rich experience in the field of practice, in terms of diversity of contexts. Spreading the program out over four years also allows for planned progressive learning opportunities such as gradually increasing the load of responsibility and the level of competence expected in each practicum. It allows the enlargement of the scope of expectations (in class, out of class, relation to the parents, colleagues, etc.), giving more time and opportunities to challenge or debate conceptions. A 4-year program also gives more space for a process of maturation to occur, allowing the development of an identity as a teacher.

The 4-year program in Quebec is a potentially interesting way to plan a progression of learning, but it is not always clear as to how to fully exploit this potential. At this time much of the potential remains unexploited, as, despite mandated competency-based programs, most still adopt content-based formats. A program based on a logical progression of learning implies not only the revision of the curricular structure, but also the development of a shared vision among a group of teacher educators as to how this progression should unfold. This is an enormous challenge, considering the number of educators who are involved in the programs over the 4 years, along with the prevailing culture of isolated activities and the piecemeal approach to coursework that is still current in universities and in the school milieu.

To this end, the concept of a program-based approach has been favored by the MEESR since 2001, and universities have been invited to reconsider their fragmented programs, where each instructor takes on a specific aspect without considering the other aspects of the program, in favour of a concerted approach where the different aspects of learning to teach are offered in a complementary, continuous, and coherent way. Introduced into the Quebec literature in the 1990s during a major reform in college level teaching (Dorais 1991; Forcier, 1991; Goulet, 1990), this concept was adopted in 2001 by the MEQ as it was then known. However, the concept remains poorly defined, despite efforts to conceptualize and implement it in a university context that have been made recently (CAPFE, 2007; Desjardins, 2012; Desjardins, Altet, Étienne, Paquay, & Perrenoud, 2012; Prigent, Bernard, & Kozanitis, 2009).

The implementation of a program-based approach relates particularly to the connections between coursework and the practicum, which is a perpetual challenge that is not limited to Quebec. Nevertheless, considering that almost a quarter of the time in a teacher education program takes place in the school milieu, there is definitely an underused potential for universities to promote significant and ongoing learning by combining theoretical with practical knowledge. Some programs have been able to put course-embedded practica into place, which permits a greater connection and exchange around the knowledge gained in the field and that gained in coursework (Gagnon,

Mazalon, & Balleux, 2012). However, for the most part, for administrative rather than pedagogical reasons, the practica are located in a separate block and are not connected with coursework.

Pedagogical approaches and the evaluation of competencies. It is important to point out the development of a competency-based program has an effect on the pedagogical approaches used as well as on the way students are evaluated, at least in theory. Because it is not possible to transmit a competency, the instructor must transform his or her role, as he or she must create learning conditions that will permit students to develop competencies through action and contextualization (Dolz & Ollagnier, 2002).

In the same way, evaluation situations cannot be limited to the measure of content mastery, but must permit a demonstration of the capacity to act in a certain context (Bélair, Laveault, & Lebel 2007; Louis, Jutras, & Hensler, 1996; Scallon, 2004).

By adopting competency development as the new target for teacher education, we should, on principle, have seen an alignment of teaching and evaluation practices in line with this concept. However, as was pointed out by Legendre (2007), a competency is “unobservable,” it is “related to the activity of the subject,” it is “unique,” it has a “meta-cognitive dimension” and it evolves over time. A competency has an “individual dimension,” but it is also “collective” in some sense. Such characteristics raise new and complex questions from a docimological point of view, particularly with regard to reliability and validity of the assessment situations, and evaluation tools we use to assess competence (Bélair, 2007; Laveault, 2007; Legendre, 2007).

In terms of pedagogical approaches and the evaluation of competencies, we observe that there is still a great distance between the theoretical implications and current practices.

Particular Challenges in Terms of Different Teaching Profiles

Although the ministerial orientations and the list of competencies is the same for all types of teacher education programs, there are specific challenges related to each type of program. Teacher education programs for the secondary level and for specialists, such as the arts, second languages, physical education, etc., contain a great number of courses offered by other faculties in specific subject areas. This requires coordination and a high level of communication with faculties and departments that are not education in terms of course content, but also in terms of such administrative details as scheduling. This can be difficult and is not always possible to do smoothly. Each faculty has its own culture, and students can be faced with a form of culture shock when moving from one faculty to another. Each faculty may have a particular vision as to how future teachers should be educated, and sometimes these visions clash. Regular dialogue is essential, but it requires effort and is also very time consuming.

The same type of situation can take place with elementary teaching programs, but the education component is clearly more important in these programs, to the point that the control of the programs by the faculty of education is much easier to organize. However, it is precisely the quality of the disciplinary components that can be challenging for instructors. Elementary level teachers must gain knowledge of all of the school subjects offered at that level, namely social studies, sciences, language arts, mathematics, arts, and, in Quebec, ethics and religious culture. It is a very broad range of knowledge and weaknesses are often present, notably in such basic subjects as language of instruction and mathematics.

Programs for teachers in special education can face the same challenges with regards to disciplinary knowledge, and, in addition, these teachers must have background knowledge of a wide range of difficulties that affect learning in students (learning disabilities, behavioural disorders, handicaps, generalised developmental delays, etc.), without taking into account the fact that these

teachers must be prepared to teach both elementary and secondary levels. The demands of such a program are very high, and the necessity of requiring such teachers to complete a master's degree has been discussed for years.

In the vocational sector teacher education is faced with two specific challenges. On the one hand, this program is intended for people whose first training was in the trades, most often done at the secondary school level, and for whom a university level education is rather foreign as it requires reading and writing academic texts. The other challenge is that the ministry requirements of 2001 are such that even instructors of many years of experience are required to become students again in order to obtain their certification and teaching permits. As these people work full time, they must attend courses part time until they are fully qualified. As the certification for vocational teachers is also 120 credits, this can take a considerable time, and the programs must be offered in such a way that students are able to combine their studies with full time work. This reality has important repercussions on the conditions under which the programs can be offered.

Of course this is just an overview of the principal challenges facing teacher education in Quebec. One must also consider the particular challenge of mastery of the languages of instruction, even though there is now a language test, because despite passing the test, some students still appear to have poor language skills. The integration of technologies into teacher education has become an important issue, given the speed of the development of technological tools and the potential that they offer to transform teaching and learning experiences in classrooms. Finally, as in most other provinces and jurisdictions worldwide, the financing of teacher education programs is a major preoccupation. The MEESR has given a lot of responsibilities to the universities, but there is no corresponding financial support. For example, the professional development of associate teachers and the management of the practicum placements are all taken care of by university personnel.

Conclusion

From the historical and contextual elements discussed in this chapter, some of the essential features of teacher education in Quebec can be identified. First, in the early 1990s, Quebec chose a unique way of access to the profession: the 4-year bachelor degree, integrating disciplinary studies with pedagogy, to promote the development of a strong professional identity of teachers from the start of the program. This choice also permitted an increased amount of time for practice teaching in the school milieu (700 hours over the 4 years), which is considered essential to the development of the ability to act with competence in complex contexts. The bachelor is now the main route to the profession, but in recent years, Quebec has reopened the door to an alternative route that allows individuals to first acquire a degree in a subject that is taught in schools, and then continue to teaching qualifications with a master's of teaching program.

Quebec has also integrated, in 2001, a framework of twelve professional competencies and the requirement to offer a program-based approach, which constitutes the basis for accreditation purposes. In practice, the implementation of such a framework continues to pose challenges to institutions and observable differences remain between the prescribed approach and what actually takes place. Nevertheless, the accreditation committee (CAPFE) plays an important and effective role in regulating the programs in order to ensure maximum compliance with provincial guidelines.

We hope that the present information will permit the reader to better understand the context of teacher education in Quebec.

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*Appendix***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 programs of study.
4. To pilot teaching/learning situations that are appropriate to the students concerned and the subject content with a view to developing the competencies targeted in the programs 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 student 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 communication 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 evaluation 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.

Chapter 6

INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION IN ATLANTIC CANADA

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The Initial Teacher Education Programs in Atlantic Canada

There are 12 universities in Atlantic Canada which offer B.Ed. programs which result in certification to teach in the region. They are:

- *New Brunswick*—University of New Brunswick, St. Thomas University, Université de Moncton, Crandall University
- *Prince Edward Island*—University of Prince Edward Island
- *Nova Scotia*—Acadia University, Cape Breton University, St. Francis Xavier University, Saint Mary's University in collaboration with the University of Maine at Presque Isle, Mount Saint Vincent, Université Ste-Anne
- *Newfoundland and Labrador*—Memorial University of Newfoundland

The information presented in this summarized comparison of the initial teacher education was obtained from publically available documents such as program calendars and faculty websites, from teacher education databases like www.teacheredcanada.ca, and through the authors' experience working and living within the region.

Type of Program and Duration

All 12 universities have their programs broken into elementary streams (focused on Grades K–5/6) and secondary streams (focused on 6/7–12). There are usually optional specializations made available within the programs to students, such as second language or early childhood education.

All 12 universities offer a consecutive, post-degree program. Five institutions also offer a concurrent program. Consecutive programs range from 11 months to 2 years, with 60 credit units acquired through coursework and practica being the standard, although some longer programs require more credits. Concurrent programs are typically completed in either 4 or 5 years.

Tuition Cost to Students

The universities in the Atlantic region vary significantly in their tuition costs, ranging from:

- low range: approximately \$5,000 per year;
- high range: approximately \$15,000 per year.

Annual Student Intake

Annual student intake is sporadically reported by sources, but seems to range from 75 to 250, with many between 100 and 150 in their annual intake.

Practicum

Practica periods and timings vary from institution to institution, but most follow a “Big Block” model: that is, the practicum follows the completion of the on-campus coursework and ranges from 7 to 20 weeks in duration. This sometimes happens in each semester of the program; at other locations it is a single long internship that caps the program. Only one university in Atlantic Canada seems to follow the “early and often” model, characterized by presence in the schools at the beginning of the program followed by weekly presence, and by longer blocks at the end of each semester.

Admission Requirements

All 12 programs have the following requirements:

- a previous degree with a required minimum GPA, if applying to the consecutive program; or maintenance of minimum GPA throughout the program, if in concurrent program (required minimum GPA ranges from 2.5 to 3.0 [out of 4.0], although many institutions state entrance is competitive and, thus, these listed minimums are not usually enough);
- a certain number of credits in specified disciplinary courses from a previous degree (e.g., a specified number of math courses);
- a letter of interest/rationale written by the candidate; and
- references (two or three).

One institution requires a portfolio and the students to write the Praxis I entrance exam. One institution has a mandatory interview. Three institutions list that they may require students to be interviewed, what we have labelled as “optional interviews.”

Other Options

Every institution offers unique program features. Examples include international practica, an Aboriginal education focus, certification to teach in Maine, ESL certification or other disciplinary specializations, etc.

The Atlantic Canada Region

In order to understand initial teacher education in the Atlantic Canada region, a description of the geographic and demographic features of the area is necessary. Garlick, Davies, Polese, and Kitigawa (2006) paint a representative geographic and demographic picture of Atlantic Canada, stating that

few regions in the industrialized world face challenges equal to those of Atlantic Canada. Atlantic Canada's natural landscape is spectacular in its rugged and scenic beauty and its wildlife a wonderful attribute. However, this landscape and the climate can be harsh and daunting.

Atlantic Canada covers a land area (539,101 km²), more than twice that of the United Kingdom, yet its total population of 2.3 million (about 7.5% of the Canadian total) is half that of Metropolitan Toronto, Canada's largest city. The region's largest urban area, Halifax, is a sophisticated, pleasant and well equipped city, but small by world standards with a population of 360,000 (2001 census). The population of the next largest urban area, St. John's, the capital of Newfoundland and Labrador, is 173,000. Below that, only two other urban areas have populations over 100,000: Moncton and Saint John, both located in the Province of New Brunswick. A sense of the immensity of the territory is brought home by the simple fact that more than a thousand kilometers separate Halifax and St. John's, with no land link. One must either travel by car and ferry, about a day's travel, or travel by airplane, about a one-and-half hour flight. The two cities lie in different time zones.

Much of Atlantic Canada is made up of small towns and villages, whose economies have historically depended on fishing, forestry, farming or mining. Almost half of Atlantic Canada is classified as rural, compared to 20% for all of Canada. Some "outports," the name Newfoundlanders use to designate isolated fishing villages, can only be reached by the sea. Three of the region's provinces are islands in whole or in part: Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland—"The Rock", as it is affectionately called by its inhabitants—conveys the lack of fertility of the land. Growing seasons are short and the climate often harsh. Communication remains a major problem. There is no land link between the island of Newfoundland and Labrador. Cape Breton, part of the Province of Nova Scotia, is an island, connected to the mainland by a causeway, while the province itself is a peninsula connected to the rest of Canada by a small neck of land. (Garlick et al., 2006, p. 18)

The Atlantic Canadian provinces are often grouped together as a region of Canada. Sometimes there is delineation between the Maritime provinces (New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and PEI) and Newfoundland and Labrador, particularly by the people who live in the region, but nationally we are painted with the same brush despite regional differences. So, what commonalities make Atlantic Canada a distinct region of Canada?

More than any other region of Canada, our communities, our practices, and our culture are influenced by our relatively small, rural population and by our proximity to the Atlantic Ocean. Historically, this has resulted in our population centres being predominantly coastal, our economies being tied to industries that utilize our geographic location, like fishing, mining, canning, tourism, shipping, and ship building, and the development of cultural traditions associated with the rhythm of the tides and ocean. However, in the last 30 years, with the decline of fish stocks and some shift of the population to urban centres, the economies of, and future outlook for, the Atlantic region has taken on a different emphasis. Governments in the region openly court outside investment and the development of other resource industries like oil and shale gas (quite successfully in cases like

Newfoundland and Labrador); it is common for youth from the Atlantic region to move to employment rich sectors like the oil sands areas of Alberta in order to find initial employment, even when the employment they seek is in the fields of education and health care; tourism has shifted its emphasis to presenting the ocean industries and way of life as a historical, cultural artifact more than as a thriving entity; and schooling has taken on a much more inclusive urban orientation as disparate populations from around the Atlantic region come together in the major cities of the region.

Atlantic Canada, although heavily influenced by contextual realities such as declining populations and limited economic options, prepares teachers in much the same manner as initial teacher education institutions in the rest of Canada, with alternations of on-campus course work and in-school practica. In the sections that follow, we provide rich descriptions of the Atlantic Canadian context in light of initial teacher education programs within the area and, by doing so, present the reader with the some of the impact of Atlantic Canadian context and history on the preparation of teachers in the region.

Population

Size and Loyalty to the Region

Statistics Canada (2013) reports that on July 01, 2012, the populations of the Atlantic provinces were as follows:

- Newfoundland and Labrador—513,000;
- Prince Edward Island—146,000;
- Nova Scotia—949,000; and
- New Brunswick—756,000.

Compared to the total Canadian population reported—34,880,500—Atlantic Canada makes up just 6.8% of the national population. This has many implications for the region, not the least of which is the influence it has on teachers and initial teacher education.

According to the Maritime Provinces Higher Education Commission (2009), the universities in Atlantic Canada have a history of attracting a larger percentage of its populace than the national average. This is reported to be due to tuition freezes and financial incentives. These incentives and the relatively low cost of post-secondary education in the region are reported to have enticed a number of students from outside these provinces as well, since the number of students from outside of the region who attend these universities is also above the averages reported for the country; 28% in Newfoundland and Labrador, PEI, and Nova Scotia, and 26% in New Brunswick—compared to 23% nationally (Human Resources and Skills Development Canada, 2009). This is significant because it is one of the indicators of well being used by the HRSDC. It is also significant because in Newfoundland and Labrador and in PEI there is only a single university that serves each province: Memorial University in Newfoundland and Labrador, and the University of Prince Edward Island in PEI. Thus, despite a relative monopoly on post-secondary education in those provinces, they remain competitive with the rest of Canada, even drawing students from other provinces to their institutions. However, there is a debate in the region regarding whether this tendency for potential teachers to attend local universities and then eventually seek employment back in the region is a positive phenomenon or whether it is a demonstration of how unaware prospective Atlantic Canadian teachers are of an education job market that is highly competitive. Skinner, Garreton, and

Schultz (2011), using case studies from the Chicago areas as evidence, state that it is wise for initial teacher education programs to recruit potential teachers from their immediate locale, and then utilize and emphasize local context in the preparation of these teachers. They believe that teachers who fundamentally understand and live within a local context are best equipped to teach students who live within that context. This is an assertion made by Darling-Hammond (2006) and the Boston Teacher Residency Program (2015, September 02) Retrieved from <http://www.bostonteacherresidency.org/> as well. However, declining enrolments in Atlantic Canada and the challenge for recent teacher graduates to find work locally has motivated initial teacher education programs in the area to be less parochial, building in courses and program features such as international practica, so that they attract more students and so that their graduates are equipped to move out of province to begin their teaching careers if necessary. Both UNB and UPEI, for example, offer international practica with one of the goals being to increase the hiring options for their graduates. If the recommendations made by Garlick et al. (2006) on how higher education institutions can contribute to Atlantic Canada regional development are accurate, however, this trend toward increasing the capability of initial teacher education graduates to leave the region and work elsewhere is actually a form of “brain drain” (p. 10) and it is hurting the long-term economic viability of the region.

Shifting, Aging, Increasingly Diverse, and Historically Rural Population

As mentioned above, there are 2.4 million people in Atlantic Canada, which represents 6.8% of Canada’s approximately 35 million inhabitants.

In terms of demographics, Atlantic Canada is highly decentralized, with only around 35% of the population in the larger cities and the remainder spread among many small communities and towns as a result of early settlement patterns predicated on exploiting the key natural resources of fishing, forestry, mining, and farming more generally. Many of the small rural communities struggle to maintain their viability today in the face of diminishing natural resources or markets for them. There is a drift of younger people to the largest centers of Halifax, St. John’s, Moncton and Saint John or outside Atlantic Canada, to the rapidly developing western provinces. (Garlick et al., 2006, p. 14)

Between 2008 and 2012, the population of the Atlantic Canadian provinces increased marginally: Nova Scotia (1.2% increase); Newfoundland and Labrador (1.2% increase); New Brunswick (1.2% increase), and PEI (4.7% increase). The average reported for the rest of Canada by the Maritime Provinces Higher Education Commission is 4.7% (excluding the Northwest Territories).

While the population of the region has been increasing marginally overall, the university enrolment in the education field (including Education, Physical Education, and Recreation and Leisure) has been declining in the region at a rate of -9.5% between 2007 and 2012 (see Table 1 below).

What these values indicate is that although the population in the region as a whole is increasing, albeit at a rate below the national average, the numbers of young working teachers are in fact declining. In short, the Atlantic Canadian provinces population is getting older. In fact, the Atlantic region’s provinces are the only ones in Canada with a decline in the population of younger people (-0.83% fewer 0–14 year olds, and 0.7% fewer people between the ages of 14 and 65) as well as increases in the number of people over 65 years of age (4.2% more people 65 or over). (MPHEC, 2009)

Table 1

Total Enrolment in Education, Physical Education, Recreation and Leisure by Province

Province	2007–08	2008–09	2009–10	2010–11	2011–12	% change
NB	3,189	2,930	2,786	2,722	2,463	-22.80
NS	4,243	4,353	4,429	4,210	4,194	-1.20
PEI	366	375	336	429	402	9.80
NF	7,798	7,658	7,551	7,361	7,059	-9.50
<i>Atlantic (Totals)</i>	15,596	15,316	15,102	14,722	14,118	-9.50*

* Represents Atlantic Regional Average Change

Note: Data derived from http://www.mphec.ca/resources/Enr_Table6_2011_2012E.pdf

What does the shrinking population of people under the age of 65 in Atlantic Canada mean for initial teacher education in the region? A decline in the population of younger people translates into fewer children in schools and therefore fewer teachers needed in these schools. This population decline together with the surplus of teachers in the region contributes to a decline in the number of initial teacher education applications across Atlantic Canadian institutions. This decline is not unique to Atlantic Canada, however. Josh Dehaas in a January 2012 Macleans magazine article reported that applications to education programs are down across the country, with specific reference to Ontario, Nova Scotia, and British Columbia, and that one of the additional reasons for this decline beyond what has already been discussed is higher tuition rates (Dehaas, 2012). It is not surprising then, that many initial teacher education programs are struggling to meet their enrolment targets without compromising the quality of the applicants they admit to their programs. Teacher educators and administrators in faculties of education are trying to find the balance between, on the one hand, needing to maintain enrolments in order to ensure the quality of the programs being offered, as well as to be viable financially, and, on the other hand, recognizing that there is currently a surplus of teachers in the region and fewer teachers required to serve the shifting population. Another response to declining applications and subsequent enrolment in initial teacher education seems to be a shift away from undergraduate teacher education toward graduate programs. UPEI, for example, has increased its graduate intake by 300% over the past academic year. Whether this shift in priority has an effect on initial teacher education is yet to be determined.

Historically, the education faculties in the region have had many more applications to their programs than their enrolment caps would allow them to take, applications from primarily local sources. Now, with this decline in applications, faculties are re-engaging with their core purpose and what they can offer students that reaches beyond the traditional pathway of preparing teachers for the K–12 classrooms of the region. There is an “Education Spring” at work in Atlantic Canada; the creativity, innovation, and entrepreneurship evident in the faculties is impressive. For example, programs like Saint Thomas University and Memorial University of Newfoundland have begun national marketing campaigns, no longer content to wait for students to become aware of what they offer and to attend their programs. Many faculties in the region have created and provide educational opportunities in other parts of the world; programs such as the Primary Teacher BEd upgrading programs offered by the University of New Brunswick and Memorial University in Trinidad and Tobago. Saint Mary’s University in collaboration with the University of Maine at Presque Isle has developed a program that enables its graduates to be certified to teach in both Maine and Nova Scotia. The University of Prince Edward Island and the University of New Brunswick, for example,

have international teaching coursework and practica which give some of their graduates international teaching experience and often result in them pursuing and finding work overseas. These initiatives are in line with reports from An Chomhairle Mhúinteoireachta/The Teaching Council (2011), and Valli and Johnson (2007) which describe a teacher shortage in Europe and Asia, particularly in areas like secondary math and science. More recently, many programs are re-engaging with the potential of education degrees to be used for more than classroom teaching, and are conveying that to prospective students in recruitment campaigns directed at high school students and students in faculties other than education. For example, Cape Breton University lists many other career options available to graduates of their bachelor of education program: curriculum development; working with cultural organizations; corporate training; working in Museums; working with historical societies and education publishing, to name a few. Other programs, as at Mount St. Vincent and Saint Francis Xavier, develop this capacity by offering alternative practica in which students are required to work in non-classroom environments such as those listed by CBU.

Atlantic Canada lags behind the rest of the country in its ability to attract immigrants to the region, with estimates at one quarter the rate of the rest of Canada (Atlantic Institute for Market Studies, 1998). However, this marginal increase, coupled with the tendency of the immigrants to live in urban settings and the out-migration of residents born in Atlantic Canada, has resulted in a demographic shift in the urban schools and universities of the region. Additionally, First Nations populations are growing faster than any other identified group surveyed by Statistics Canada. According to a Statistics Canada National Household survey (2011), the population of aboriginal peoples is increasing more quickly (20.1%) than non-aboriginals (5.2%). Although this phenomenon is not unique to Atlantic Canada, the result is that teachers are increasingly working with students of different cultural backgrounds and this has implications for initial teacher education in the region. Shawn Atleo, then National Chief of the Assembly of First Nations, and Paul Martin, former Prime Minister of Canada, at a convocation address given in New Brunswick jointly stressed the importance of First Nations education and supporting aboriginal people through increased federal funding and better preparing teachers to work with these students (Stewart, 2013). This shift in the cultural demographic within the region places pressure on initial teacher education programs to provide coursework and experiences that prepare prospective teachers to work with an increasingly culturally diverse student body (Causey, Thomas, & Armento, 2000).

Another important demographic consideration affecting initial teacher education in the Atlantic Region is the relatively high proportion of people who live in rural areas. The Canadian average percentage of people living in rural areas is 19%, while in the Atlantic Provinces there is a range from 41% in Newfoundland and Labrador to 53% of the population living in rural areas in Nova Scotia (Statistics Canada, 2011). Some of the implications for initial teacher education programming are

1. the distance people need to travel to get to the university, which may hinder enrolment or at the least greatly increase the cost of going to university;
2. the costs involved in travelling to rural schools for practica;
3. the challenge of responding to initial teacher education needs amidst the tension between rural-generated identities and accompanying curricula and urban-generated identities and imposed curricula (Barter, 2007);
4. the challenge of online educational needs for rural locations with limited or reduced access to current technologies (Barter, 2007); and
5. the challenge to understand and value diversity in education and society when the communities from which the students originate are predominantly mono-ethnic (deFreitas & McAuley, 2008).

The impacts on initial teacher education in the implications list above are not idiosyncratic or recent and would be evident in any province in which part of the population lives distantly from an urban center. However, the population distribution in the Atlantic Canadian region has always been predominantly rural, has a higher percentage of rural people than any other region of Canada, and there is no indication that this is going to change (Garlick et al., 2006). Thus, although urbanization is resulting in some shift to the cities, particularly in Francophone populations (Jean-François Richard, personal communication, July 2013), where people live in Atlantic Canada will continue to be a challenge for initial teacher education programs in the region.

Education Program Size and Options

Initial teacher education programs in Atlantic Canada are relatively small, with even the largest programs in the region being a small fraction of the programs at institutions in other regions of Canada. The result is that the smaller numbers of students and faculty at these institutions reduce the number of options that can reasonably be provided for students, as well as increase the emphasis of these programs on K–12 schooling. There are just not enough faculty and students to offer many BEd programs with an emphasis other than on teacher certification and classroom practice. However, if statements like “small class sizes, personalized attention and a huge variety of programs is what you'll find at UNB Fredericton” (UNB Homepage, 2013) are indicative of initial teacher education in the region, the silver lining of these small programs is that potentially the students receive more individual attention both during and outside of the smaller classes that result. Additionally, in recent years, through re-structuring and program revision, many program options have disappeared as faculties of education in the region seek to define and operationalize a clear, core emphasis in their programs. The University of New Brunswick is just one example in which the education programs were revised and the result was the removal of their concurrent education program, a reduction in enrolment goals, and a refocusing of the teaching loads of its professors and instructors on the three education programs which remained and the mission statements which guide them (Hirschhorn, 2009). The result has been more coherent and well-defined programs offered by the university, but this has also resulted in an increased focus in the workloads of the faculty who teach within the program on the program options that remain and a decline in the number of contract instructors hired from outside of the faculty to teach within the programs. This is counter to the assertion by MacDonald (2013), that Canadian universities are seeing an increase in the number of sessional instructors due to the reluctance of universities to commit to long-term, expensive, tenure-track professors. She contends that contract instructors give universities financial flexibility in uncertain and austere times. At the University of New Brunswick, at least, even more money is saved by not hiring as many contract instructors, not replacing all of the tenure-track faculty who leave, and shifting professor teaching assignments to the more stream-lined program offerings that remain. This, however, has been further troubled by other recent university initiatives (e.g., at UPEI) in which the number of sessional instructors allotted to faculties has been cut to as little as 30% of previous years. This has resulted in some courses no longer being offered, as well as faculty teaching larger classes, which may have an effect on teaching quality.

Curricula

Pan-Canadian Influence

In 1995, the Council of Ministers of Education in Canada adopted the Pan-Canadian Protocol for Collaboration on School Curriculum. This was significant for the Atlantic region of Canada because the individual provinces in the region were too small and the financial cost too high to develop curricula of their own, independent of other provinces, as had been done in Ontario, Alberta, and Quebec for example. Thus, under the auspices of the Atlantic Provinces Education Foundation (now known as the Council of Atlantic Ministers of Education and Training—CAMET), development of core curricula for mathematics, science, language arts, and social studies was begun which would become the core document driving the specific curricula in each of the four Atlantic Canada provinces (DeMarco & George, 2009). This had additional benefits for schooling and for teachers in the region, as it motivated school textbook publishers like Pearson Canada to create classroom resources for Atlantic Canadian schools with context drawn from the region, and with an emphasis originating from the Pan-Canadian foundation documents. Collectively, the Atlantic provinces have influence on publishers and resource providers that individually they do not wield, but it requires the region to portray itself as a cohesive whole.

These shared core curricular documents have implications for initial teacher education in a number of ways. First, they enable teachers prepared at institutions in Atlantic Canada to gain familiarity with curricula documents and teaching resources that are essentially utilized in four different provinces, and thus shorten their learning curve and increase their mobility within the region. Second, they increase the chances that professors collaborate in research projects and teacher preparation initiatives across Atlantic provincial boundaries. For example, science education cohorts from UPEI and UNB have collaborated on teaching projects using the core curricular documents as a framework. Third, they have implications for the assessment practices the new teachers learn and employ. For example, scientific literacy and inquiry based learning are an emphasis in the science foundation's documents of Atlantic Canada derived from the Pan-Canadian protocol for collaboration on school curriculum (1997), and this is reflected in the assessment emphasis of the Atlantic provinces and thus also in the science teacher preparation prospective teachers experience during their education programs. Fourth, with the passing of the Chapter 7 amendment to Canadian labour mobility legislation in 2009 allowing teachers to "be certified in the same occupation in another province or territory without having to undergo significant additional training" ([Agreement on International Trade](#)), the shared pan-Canadian curricular origins for teachers prepared in Atlantic Canada conceivably increases the chances they will find the schools they begin teaching within, to be curricularly familiar.

Bilingual Versus Dual Language

There is a curricular anomaly unique to Atlantic Canada that influences initial teacher education in the region. New Brunswick is the only province in Canada which operates a dual language education system, in which the language *and content* of the curricula are different. In every other province, the curricula are offered bilingually, that is, identical curricular content is offered in both French and English. These distinct curricula are used by the Anglophone and Francophone schools in the province; Anglophone schools which offer French immersion continue to use an English curriculum that has been translated into French. This has implications for the two Francophone initial teacher education programs offered in the region at Université de Moncton and Université Ste-Anne, as they use the Francophone curricula in their initial teacher education program

as compared to the Anglophone curricula being used by the remaining 10 English language education programs in the region. It also influences teachers who are fluent in both French and English, since the curricula they may have used in their initial teacher education studies may not be the same as what they are required to use when they begin their teaching careers, depending on whether they find work in the Anglophone or Francophone school systems.

Omnipresent Financial Limitations

The Canadian Federation of Independent Business (2009) states that in order to overcome the small, aging, and shrinking population in the Atlantic region of Canada the people there must “do more with less.” This has become the mantra of small business owners as well as publically funded institutions throughout the region, and is reflected in the policies of these institutions and the actions of the people who work within them. The following quote from Garlick et al. (2006) summarizes how the Atlantic Canadian region is not new to poverty:

For most of the past 100 years, the Atlantic Provinces have been poorer than the rest of Canada, although the gap has closed in recent decades. While there are significant differences in the economic performance of the individual provinces, overall the region has had difficulty sustaining economic growth, per capita income, employment rates and R & D investments. (p. 9)

It is perhaps not surprising then that universities across the region are struggling financially, with constant tension between the government and post-secondary institutions regarding transfer payments, tuition amounts, and debt/deficit. Garlick et al. (2006) claim that, although there are limited financial alternatives for provincial governments in the region, universities and trade colleges need to be a higher financial priority for governments, with additional incentives ensuring that graduates stay in the region, as it is these graduates that ultimately go on provide the economic drive for Atlantic Canada. This is an assertion maintained by the Canadian Federation of Independent Business (2009), as well as faculty members such as Todd Pettigrew (2013) at Cape Breton University who are quick to point out that the described economic “reality” driving cuts, is not a reality at all but is a function of government priority.

Regardless of the long-term recommendations from these pundits, provincial governments in the region have many financial commitments and limited economic options, and the result is that universities in Atlantic Canada are in a constant state of financial limitation and, in some cases, exigency. Like all other faculties in their institutions, faculties of education across the region are seeking to define their mandate, purpose, and viability in light of financial pressures on top of the enrolment/demographic changes detailed earlier. Expressions such as *core purpose* and *prioritization exercise* are becoming commonplace at faculty meetings. Universities remain viable by not replacing expensive tenure-track professors, requiring deans to out-compete the other deans at the same institution for fewer and fewer tenure-track positions, increasing class sizes, hiring more sessional instructors, increasing enrolments, and shutting down programs (Hirschhorn 2010; Capaldi 2011). This quote from the editor for UPEI’s faculty association publication *The Fabric* is indicative of a pattern at many institutions in that, despite the necessity of the financial limitations being imposed and the rallying cry of “striving for excellence,” there is an impact on faculty members and the students with which they work:

We have had a rough year with budget cuts at UPEI. Meanwhile, the UPEI president stresses UPEI's excellence. Have the budget cuts affected your ability to contribute to the university's excellence? If so, how? Have the budget cuts otherwise diminished (or potentially diminished) the university's excellence? (Jeffrey, 2013, p.1)

Ironically, some faculty and administrators in education from the Atlantic region, when discussing financial limitations, describe a “culture of limited resources” (Anderson, K. personal conversation, 2011), which suggests these ever-present financial pressures are the norm and not the exception, as might be the case in other provinces in which financial cut-backs are described as “unprecedented,” such as was the case in an August 2013 critique of the PC government in Alberta by the New Democratic opposition party. It is a sad commentary that an entire region can get used to living with limited finances being the primary and ever-present consideration when making decisions regarding education and not need, opportunity, best practice, or student learning.

Becoming a Teacher in the Region—Supply Teaching Protocol

Like the post-secondary institutions in the region, K–12 schools in Atlantic Canada are seeking to do more with less. Coupled with declining enrolments, Atlantic Canadian school districts are seeking ways to remain viable and this has an impact on the need for teachers in the region. Actions such as amalgamation of school districts, not replacing teachers who retire, creative scheduling, reluctance to give permanent contracts, and larger class sizes have enabled school districts to save money by reducing their teacher costs (“Teacher Cuts Would,” 2013). Needless to say, this is not an easy climate for recent graduates from education programs to find work soon after graduating. For example, Betts (2006) discusses how it takes longer for beginning teachers in New Brunswick to move to full pay teaching positions than any other province in Canada; but this is not a hardship unique to the Atlantic region. Duggleby and Badali (2007) and Buchanan (2011) describe long-term, identity-altering periods of supply teaching time for beginners in other parts of Canada as well. This leaves newly certified teachers with two options—move to an area where there is work, or enter the realm of the substitute teacher in an attempt to make connections and build relationships, so that they are favourably considered when the longer term probationary contracts are staffed. Garlick et al. (2006) would label the teachers who leave the area as an example of “brain drain” (p.10) and describe them as ultimately undermining the economic development of the region. However, even the teachers who stay pay a price; their future is typified by years spent on supply lists, making subsistence wages, and taking any longer term teaching contract that is offered to them regardless of disciplinary and regional background.

Ingersoll (1998) cautions that, when these new teachers, who will be desperate for permanent teaching work, accept any teaching position that becomes available, disciplinary implications are incurred. For example, teachers tend to teach closer to the information in their textbooks, unable to provide broad and robust examples during instruction. These misplaced teachers are required to do extra work to gain competence in a new subject, above and beyond an already prohibitively hectic period in their development. It is tough enough to be a great teacher without adding to it being hired at the last minute to teach something you have no background within, and not knowing if you even have the job again next year. Additionally, this also creates a short-term mentality, as these teachers are typically hired in regions that are distant from their homes and families and they adopt a short-term mentality as they wait for work to open up in an area closer to home. This influences the willingness of these new teachers to buy into the school and community in which they are hired, as well as jeopardizes the stability and coherence of who is teaching in the school from year to year.

This phenomenon is particularly prevalent, rather paradoxically, in communities that are undergoing a decline in their population. Who can blame teachers for not wanting to stay in schools in which they do not know if they will be brought back to teach the following year?

This may have implications for the quality of the teacher once he/she is finally hired. For this teacher, living the life of a substitute or even short-term contract teacher will likely result in a shift in their professional development toward short-term survivability and away from long-term sustainability. How does an initial teacher education program prepare students for this potential eventuality? More and more, initial teacher education is shifting toward a model which places the university teacher preparation program along the trajectory of a lifelong teacher development model (Hirschhorn et al., 2011). Should an interim supply teaching period be a part of this model? Provincial departments of education and their constituent school boards also have to pay attention to this supply teaching period. Teacher induction programs need to accommodate an older teacher who has shifted away from the competencies they leave their initial teacher education programs with (and were certified on the basis of) toward teaching in ways that are more pragmatic for day-to-day survival as a substitute. This is a recurring problem for induction programs in the area as they seek to support beginning teachers. The new contract teachers are typically not new at all, having worked for years in the system in short-term capacities and, after years of surviving the trials of supply teaching, have changed from the teachers they set-out to be when going through their teacher preparation programs. The induction programs in New Brunswick (Early Career Teacher Learning Program—ECTLP), Prince Edward Island (Beginning Teacher Induction Program—BTIP), and Newfoundland and Nova Scotia (both supported by the provincial teacher federations) have no provision for supply teachers because they are difficult to define and support consistently. In short, how do initial teacher education programs prepare teachers for a potential lengthy period of time working as a supply teacher, while also preparing them for the rigours of full-time teaching of their own classrooms?

Student Achievement in Atlantic Canada

When student achievement, as measured by external standardized assessments like the internationally administered PISA test (Programme for International Student Assessment), indicates that a geographic region is weaker than another, people notice. Such was the case with the PISA test administered in 2009 to 74 countries, and assessing students on their math, science, and reading ability. Canada as a country did quite well in comparison to the other nations who participated (being in the top ten in all three categories assessed). However, the results also showed that all four Atlantic provinces consistently scored lower than the Canadian average on this standardized test in reading, math, and science (Statistics Canada, 2010). This supports the assertion of Garlick et al. (2006), who claim adult literacy is a problem in Atlantic Canada:

Adult literacy is a significant problem through Atlantic Canada. About 40% of the population aged 16 and above is challenged by materials equivalent to those used in the modern workplace. In one province, 55% scored below level three in prose literacy on the International Adult Literacy and Skills Survey (IALSS), and 65% scored below level three in numeracy. (Level three is the desired threshold for coping with the increasing skill demands of a knowledge economy and society.) (p. 38)

This is a concern for initial teacher education in the region, because when students do relatively poorly on a standardized assessment, teachers are often considered part of the problem, and if teachers are doing poorly, then the next step is to ask how they were prepared and how they

are being supported through professional development initiatives. Education faculties around the Atlantic region, both at the pre-service and in-service teacher levels, are developing programs to address the problems that may be resulting in the poor showing of Atlantic Canada in relation to the rest of Canada on these standardized assessments—a dilemma particularly difficult given the current climate of fiscal restraint. Two common areas that are being addressed are literacy and numeracy. For example, Mount Saint Vincent and UPEI have graduate programs specifically designed to address literacy in schools, and the Early Childhood Centre at UNB has been instrumental in creating a national curriculum on early literacy. At Memorial University, addressing students' low PISA scores in math and science has resulted in their creation of a STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math) Primary/Elementary initial teacher education program, anticipated to be in place in 2016.

Conclusions and Recommendations: The Future of Atlantic Initial Teacher Education

In this chapter we have sought to characterize initial teacher education in Atlantic Canada. Atlantic Canadian initial teacher education is heavily influenced by ever-present financial limitations; a small, largely rural population with a tendency to leave the region to find work elsewhere, but who also eventually return later in life; increasing diversity in our schools; a job market characterized by a surplus of teachers who are prepared to spend lengthy periods of time getting into the school system and will teach just about anything to accomplish that goal; and program developments in response to relatively low standardized test scores.

We would like to conclude this chapter with some recommendations for initial teacher education in the region. These are not “fixes,” but we believe that as these programs continue their quest to prepare excellent teachers for this and other parts of the world, they would benefit from considering how these suggestions might be integrated into their programs.

First, initial teacher education programs need to get better at preparing teachers to work and thrive within the interim period between when they graduate and when they find permanent work—a period characterized by supply teaching. Without this ongoing support, skills and understandings gained through a teacher preparation program will be at risk of being lost, or new, less desirable survival-type behaviors may be learned which may be incongruent with initial teacher development and negatively impact teachers and the students they teach as they move forward in their careers.

Second, initial teacher education programs need to recognize how much of the region is rural and to offer options that allow teachers to seek out and thrive within that environment. The challenges there extend beyond education to the economic and social sustainability of new teachers in rural contexts, but education programs can benefit from initiatives developed in places like Australia (Green and Reid, 2004) and Newfoundland and Labrador (Barter, 2007) when considering how to meet these challenges.

Third, initial teacher education programs need to create program features that immerse students within culturally diverse contexts and to prepare them for an increasingly diverse school system and society. The number of First Nations students and immigrant students in Atlantic Canada schools are increasing. Additionally, many of the teacher graduates are seeking employment in other parts of the country and the world, and the ability to work effectively in diverse classrooms is an absolute must for these teachers.

Fourth, counter to the economically influenced caution regarding young professionals leaving the region made by Garlick et al. (2006), initial teacher education programs need to nurture and support the willingness of some students to venture outside of the Atlantic region to work in other

parts of Canada or the world. With the current global teacher shortage in much of Europe and Asia (An Chomhairle Mhúinteoireachta/The Teaching Council, 2011) students from the region could use their newfound skills and understandings immediately upon graduation. Practicing and honing their teaching in these international contexts will bring with it new challenges, like finding ways to cross cultural boundaries without assumptions of cultural superiority, but the result is increased adaptability, respect, confidence, and value for reflection in their own professional development (Pence & MacGillivray, 2008; Willard-Holt, 2001).

Finally, initial teacher education needs to become even more regionally collaborative than it already is. Education programs need to work together to provide program opportunities and to not replicate niches. As Garlick et al. (2006) state,

Begin discussions around the creation of human capital to meet regional needs that encapsulate all education sectors and include areas such as: pathways between schools, vocational education, community colleges and universities; reduction of duplication and overlap in programme offerings; a focus on the international student as a migration policy instrument; and strong enterprising connections to regional priority areas through initiatives like work-integrated learning. (p. 10)

How Atlantic Canada universities could operationalize this call for regional collaboration is unknown due to the specific pressures and contexts of each university and the province it serves. Almost certainly it would begin with the will of the deans of education in the region. However, if these faculties of education do not find ways to work together to identify the strengths each program has, and what niches it is best suited to fill and provide to the public, they run the risk of continuing to compete for a diminishing number of students in an era in which this type of redundancy cannot be afforded. In 2013 the New Brunswick provincial government amalgamated its school districts under the banner of streamlining and fiscal responsibility. Can the university system be far behind? In the last 15 years the Nova Scotia government collapsed education programs together in a similarly motivated consolidation of the province's education offerings. Given that they currently have seven programs serving a population of less than a million people and provinces like Saskatchewan (population in excess of a million) have begun consultations regarding the consolidation of its *two* programs—can change in Nova Scotia or New Brunswick (which has four programs) be far behind?

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PART 2

ASPECTS OF INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION IN CANADA

Chapter 7

THE HISTORY OF INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION IN CANADA: QUÉBEC AND ONTARIO

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The history of teacher education in Canada is both simple and complex. It is the history of how the preparation of new teachers moved from a model based on training to one based on education; from an apprenticeship model to one of university-based education for a profession. As with the history of the development of teaching as a profession, the history of teacher education is at the same time a tale of inclusion and exclusion; of intransigence and compromise; of disputes concerning power and influence played out at a local, provincial, and national level. Like the history of Canada itself, it is marked by conflicts of gender, religion, power, class, race, language, and ethnicity as teacher education struggled to claim a space for itself in the academy.

Unlike many other countries, Canada does not have a national office of education. The 1867 British North America Act established education as a provincial responsibility. Thus each of the ten provinces and three territories regulate all aspects of primary school through to post-secondary education. This chapter explores how teachers were educated in two provinces of Canada, namely Ontario and Quebec. These provinces were chosen for analysis because within their histories one finds both parallels and convergences. In each, the provincial government came to regulate where teacher education was delivered; to inform and frame decision making in admission (who presented themselves as teacher candidates) and in curriculum (what was taught in the program and by whom); and to determine the exit credential awarded. In both, the history of teacher education is not a triumphalist tale. In both, there is a history of how education in general and teacher education specifically, attempted to secure status as an academic discipline and to exercise its authority within the ivory tower. There are lessons to be learned here that can inform and cause critical reflection on current practice. While the focus of this chapter is teacher education in the period after the establishment of publicly funded schooling, it will begin by examining the state of teacher education before that.

Teacher Education Prior to Publicly Funded Schooling

The goal of teacher education is to effectively prepare those who deliver content to learners and to prepare the future generations of a society. As is the case with all settler societies in the imperial age, European immigrants brought with them a system of knowledge and values that was

communicated to children through both private and state-sponsored schools. In New France, the state and the church were integrated to the extent that the first paid teachers were in fact members of the clergy and the religious life, whose prime objective was the conversion of the First Nations people, an objective that fit in clearly with the goals of economic and cultural domination. Marie Battiste (2002) has argued that although teachers, whom she classifies as knowledge workers, were a central part of First Nations society, they and the education they delivered were generally dismissed by the European immigrants.

The first formally educated teachers, the male Recollets Friars Minor (the Recollets) and the Society of Jesus (the Jesuits), and the female Order of St. Ursula (the Ursulines) were members of religious orders that had teaching as a key work. The Ursulines took a vow of teaching as well as the traditional vows of poverty, chastity, and obedience. Members of all three congregations lived under constitutions that defined their roles in community, outlined their governance structures, and regulated, often in minute detail, how they were to conduct their lives, including the pedagogical practices that they were to use. Religious orders were communities of teachers in which initial teacher education and ongoing teacher development were features of an educator's life. Within these orders, teaching was seen as a vocation and education a vehicle for evangelization. Yet, not all sisters, priests, and brothers who were prepared as teachers within such closed communities became model instructors.

As part of their novitiate, that is the first stage in the formation of a religious, men and women received both formal classroom instruction and opportunities for on-the-job training while they were being inducted into religious life. The calibre and effectiveness of that training varied greatly. In some cases, when there was demand from priests and bishops for religious to staff the rapidly expanding school systems, novice teachers were sometimes thrust into the classroom with no or minimal preparation. In other cases, teacher preparation program for the novices became the foundation of a post-secondary institution, as evidenced by the Sisters of Charity of Halifax, whose teacher education novitiate was the foundation of Mount St. Vincent University. To ensure consistency across schools and distances, (and in some instances to address the wide variance in teacher preparation), religious orders undertook the development of instructional materials that served as texts for teacher education programs, or, in other cases, were substitutes for teacher education. The work of Paul Aubin (2006) and Monique Lebrun (2007) clearly document these trends.

Initial Teacher Education in Québec

Throughout its history, both lay and religious teachers operated schools in New France and later in the province of Quebec. In their analysis of local newspapers, Claude Galarneau (1990) and Andrée Dufour (1993, 1998), have documented how prior to publicly funded schooling, there were many instances of educational entrepreneurship by men and women in the city of Québec and Montréal. Michel Verette (2004) traces these schools as agencies of literacy throughout the colonies of British North America. Bruce Curtis (2012) has demonstrated that in the Lancasterian system, assigning some pupils the role of pupil teachers was used as an instructional strategy.

With the rise of publicly funded schools, teacher education became, to some degree, regulated and one might select from several paths to become a teacher. For members of religious orders, no preparation was required as instruction in the novitiate was considered sufficient. Yet, even without obligation to do so, religious congregations established *scolasticats-écoles normales* in the 1930s in order to more effectively prepare their members to become competent future teachers. The second path was through the normal schools. Québec's normal schools had a shaky and short-lived beginning in

1836. It was not until 1857 that three schools were established on firm footing. They were state funded and denominationally segregated. Montréal was the location of two: the Protestant McGill Normal School and the Catholic Jacques Cartier Normal School. Québec City was the location of a third, Laval's Normal School for the Catholics. It was not until 1939, with the foundation of Montréal's St. Joseph's Teachers' College, that anglophone Catholic teacher candidates had their own normal school.

The first state-controlled normal schools in Québec were state funded and, while they enrolled both men and women, the classes were segregated. Women pupils were taught by women religious. The Ursulines taught at the École normale Laval from 1857, and the Québec-founded Congregation of Notre Dame at École normale Jacques-Cartier from 1899 onward. Tensions between church and state characterized the history of teacher education, reaching a high point in 1881 with the Verreau–Laflèche struggle. Bishop Louis-François Laflèche of Trois Rivières and the principal of Laval Normal School, Hospice-Anthelme Jean Baptiste Verreau, had competing views of where teacher candidates should be educated. Verreau advocated a centralized model aimed at attracting the best candidates, whereas Bishop Laflèche sought to make teacher education accessible even in the most remote area of the Québec province by supporting a number of small normal schools. The vision of Laflèche prevailed and the province of Québec devolved teacher education from a central state-operated model, where normal schools were located in central cities, to an array of small, decentralized model schools, operated by religious orders and located in small towns throughout Québec. These schools were for women only and used an apprenticeship model, wherein future teachers taught alongside experienced teachers and in close proximity (both in terms of chronological age and working conditions) to those they instructed. In the larger institutions, there were laboratory schools (called *écoles d'application*) where the teacher candidates could practice in actual classrooms. A large number of religious orders took charge of this important segment of teacher preparation until the Quiet Revolution of the 1960s.

Admission qualifications to Québec's teacher preparation programs varied throughout the centuries. Between 1888 and 1940, the number of years of schooling required for admission ranged from a low of 7 years to a high of 13 years, not significantly more than the oldest of their pupils. During this period, the focus of instruction was on preparing student teachers to deliver the curriculum, with little attention paid to gaining (or honing) pedagogical skills. Before 1939, the year when the Bureau central des examinateurs was abolished, anyone wishing to become a teacher could simply apply to the Bureau to sit a simple written test. Between 1898 and 1939, half of the 19,136 girls who had attended normal schools operated by religious orders received a diploma, while some 80,000 of the 106,216 persons who sat the Bureau des examinateurs, obtained teaching certificates (Hamel, 1995, p. 71). Other than those women who were members of religious orders, teaching was a temporary job for single women. Attrition rates for new teachers were very high as the conditions of living and teaching were hard, the salaries were low, and the majority of teachers taught in isolated one-room schools. Once a woman married, she was frequently forced to leave the profession.

Compared to the Catholic teacher education sector, classes at the Protestant normal schools were co-educational. Further, unlike their Catholic counterparts, women had access to higher education through McGill University and thus were eligible to teach in secondary schools. Drummond (1990) has argued:

The establishment of the Québec Protestant secondary school system took place in the same decade—the 1880s—in which women were admitted to the arts faculty of McGill University. This conjuncture of events produced a temporary discrepancy between the formal education of Montréal women and the teaching opportunities for women in Québec Protestant schools. In 1878, a handful of women graduated *from* the McGill

Normal School with the Academy Diploma. Since the requirements for this Diploma included an introduction to the classics (a course of study not available to women anywhere else in Montréal) these women were qualified for entrance to the Bachelor of Arts program when McGill opened its doors to women in 1884. They received their degrees in 1888 and from that moment were among the best-qualified candidates for teaching in the Protestant public schools. (p. 63)

Yet Drummond further observes that, as late as the 1890s, only 25% of protestant elementary teachers had received any type of formal teacher education (p. 67). It should also be noted that the Protestant secondary education sector was more developed than the Catholic sector, where the college classiques were the only option available to enter in the university, and one reserved for the well-to-do.

The McGill Normal School was distinct from the other educational institutions in English Protestant Québec in three respects. From its founding until 1875, it was the only school with an established course of study—one which progressed from the elementary to the model school, to the academy diploma. It was also the only one to offer a course in the “Art of Teaching” as well as codes of behaviour for female and male English-speaking public school teachers; and, in proportion to the English Protestant population of Québec, its annual grant exceeded that of any English Protestant school including McGill College.

Normal schools in Québec evolved in the course of the twentieth century. As noted earlier, in Québec, with the exception of the first three normal schools founded by the state in 1857, normal schools were administered and staffed by religious orders, some of whom received their own professional education within *scolasticats-écoles normales* and later within their own normal schools, open to lay pupils. From the beginning of the twentieth century onward, more and more religious were acquiring university degrees, at the bachelors, masters, and doctorate levels.

In an attempt to raise the standard of education delivered in the province, by mid-twentieth century, an 11th grade education was required for admission. This is an important development in the strengthening of teacher education. Teacher candidates seeking the highest level of certification enrolled in a 4-year program of study, the *Brevet A*. In 1957, those individuals possessing a *Brevet A* were eligible to receive a *Baccalauréat en pédagogie*, to be awarded by new institutions, thus elevating teacher education credentials closer to a university level. This was a significant development because, unlike the anglophone sector that had offered teacher education at McGill University since 1907, on the Catholic francophone side, normal schools were the standard.

In the early twentieth century, some quasi-university-level teacher education programs began. In 1926 l’Institut Pédagogique de la Congrégation de Notre-Dame was established and 3 years later, in 1929, l’Institut pédagogique St-Georges was founded by the Frères des écoles chrétiennes and was affiliated with the University of Montréal (Hamel, 1995). Other institutions soon grew, based on a model inspired in part on the French normal schools. In 1921 L’École normale supérieure de l’Université Laval was founded. In 1942 the University of Montréal established l’École normale secondaire. The year after, in 1943, l’École de Pédagogie et d’Orientation de l’Université Laval opened its door. Finally, in 1960, l’École normale supérieure de l’Université Laval reorganized itself and the École normale supérieure de l’Université de Montréal was founded (Hamel, 1991). The aim of all these institutions was to raise the level of preparation for different kinds of teachers, including developing teachers for normal schools and for secondary education, while leaving the preparation of elementary teachers to the religious normal schools. Because of their movement towards a university level, they were called École universitaires de pédagogie (Hamel, 1991). During the same period, in the middle of the 1950s, the Québec sector expanded, with an increase in enrolment at the existing state normal schools of Jacques-Cartier and Laval, and with the creation of several new state

normal schools situated in Chicoutimi, Trois-Rivières, Rimouski, Hull, and Rouyn-Noranda (Hamel, 1991). Those simultaneous movements show a tendency to elevate the level of teacher training and, in certain institutions, to give it a university varnish. In the case of the École de Pédagogie et d'Orientation de l'Université Laval, the institution already began to develop a research agenda, supported by research grants. In the mid-1960s, three faculties of education were founded at Laval University, the University of Montréal, and the University of Sherbrooke. Even as normal schools were raising the level of teacher education, Québec society was on the eve of a tremendous transformation in all aspects of social and economic life.

A fundamental shift in Québec teacher education resulted from the recommendations of the Commission royale d'enquête sur l'enseignement dans la province de Québec (1963). The *Rapport Parent* was highly critical of the teacher education delivered in the normal schools. In 1962–63, there were 13,000 students educated in 106 normal schools: 11 state normal schools, 70 girls' normal schools, and 25 scolasticats écoles normales (Hamel, 1991, p. 33). The *Rapport Parent* recommended that both elementary and secondary teacher education be delivered in the universities. The criticisms of the normal schools were severe, with the female normal schools singled out for the harshest assessments. They were described as offering a level of teacher preparation that was minimal; they were criticized as being too geographically isolated, too numerous serving too few students, and singularly lacking in innovation, as they were too much under the control of the Comité Catholique which approved all programs, textbooks, and examinations (Hamel, 1991, p. 44).

The Écoles universitaires de pédagogies were also criticized by the *Rapport Parent* as being too isolated from the field and too autonomous from the Ministry of Education. Even the recently established faculties of education in Québec, Montréal, and Sherbrooke were assessed as not sufficiently research-oriented and not sufficiently grounded in “les sciences de l'éducation.” In 1969 the government of Québec decided to transfer teacher education to the universities, and in 1974 the last cohort of normal school students finished their course. In order to be able to accomplish the new mission devolved to universities, the network of the Université du Québec was created in 1968, with satellite campuses in regional centres throughout the province. Interestingly, the state normal schools created in the mid-1950s served as a base for the new *constituantes* of the university du Québec: for example, in Chicoutimi, Trois-Rivières, Rimouski, Abitibi-Témiscamingue, and Hull. In Montréal, they were integrated with several other institutions to form the Université du Québec à Montréal (UQAM). Finally, the Écoles universitaires de pédagogie and the École de Pédagogie et d'orientation were more fully integrated into universities. The *Rapport Parent* also recommended that applicants to teacher education programs have a minimum of 13 years of schooling before beginning a university degree of 3 years. Following that, the university-based teacher education program should include a specialized program with more practice teaching. Finally, the report concluded that teacher education should be informed by research—a primary reason to deliver teacher education inside a university setting.

Reaction to the proposed recommendations was swift and fierce. The prospect of the abolition of the normal schools led their staffs to create the Fédération des écoles normales (FEN) in order to defend normal schools—a movement which illustrates a little known element of the Quiet Revolution. Created to defend, and in a certain sense protect, the normal schools, this federation found itself at the intersection of several movements that were competing for control over teacher education: lay and religious; state and church; autonomous normal schools and universities (Hamel 1993). Further, the movement itself was divided. One part agreed that there should be a rationalization of services that would result in the closure of some normal schools. This group proposed to the Commission Parent that several institutions should be clustered and transformed into the *centre de formation des maîtres*. In fact they agreed with the elimination of both the small girls' normal schools and the *scolasticats-écoles normales*. Not only did they propose these changes, but they

began to organize a consortium wherein several institutions pooled their resources and their students in a survival strategy to enhance the level of instruction. Another group within FEN proposed a different solution than that suggested by *Rapport Parent*. This group wanted teacher education to be at university level but located *outside* of the existing universities, arguing,

L'université comme telle, si elle peut fournir l'enseignement, n'a pas prouvé qu'elle réussit à suivre ses élèves, à leur procurer des contacts humains avec les professeurs, à les guider et à les équilibrer. Dans le grand tout il deviennent des numéros. (Hamel, 1991, p. 78)

For FEN, it was imperative that the pedagogical education be delivered by normal schools teachers.

In spite of opposition, the integration of teacher education into the universities was mandated. Across every region of Québec, many of the smaller normal schools decided on their own to close their doors. Others decided to remain open and to fight for survival. Schools such as those located in Pont-rouge and St-Damien refused to abolish the Brevet B certificate program (even though it was considered too low by the reformers who wished to abolish it), arguing that their presence was necessary in their region. Others, such as the École normale Notre-Dame de Foy in Cap Rouge or the Institut pédagogique de Montréal, attempted to obtain under Article 58 of the Université du Québec Act, the status of Superior Normal School or Institute. The latter was attempting to refuse to integrate into the Université de Montréal, arguing that its expertise in teacher education for preschool and elementary school entitled it to a privileged position. Many of the state normal schools created in the 1950s wanted to participate in the reform, and they cooperated to found the university centers (later the constituents of the Université de Québec in the regions). Other institutions such as the École normale Laval and the École normale Mérici, both located in Québec city, reorganized themselves into coeducational institutions comprised of both lay and religious students in order to offer a more specialized program and to enrol sufficient high quality students. One short-lived experiment that stands as a testament to exploring alternative means of delivering teacher education was the creation of a campus in Cap Rouge, on the outskirts of Québec. Established by several religious orders, it offered teacher education outside the university. Even before the implementation of the findings of the *Rapport Parent* was mandated, universities began to organize faculties of education, sometimes using as a base the École de type universitaire such as the École normale supérieure and École normale secondaire in Montréal and later l'Institut pédagogique St- Georges.

Oral history interviews on the closure of the normal schools reveal much about this complex period in Québec educational history (Hamel, 1991). Reflecting on the reform of the normal schools elicited many different reactions from former masters. Some realized that the *Rapport Parent* was suggesting the worst: the complete elimination of the normal schools. Others recalled that the *Rapport Parent* failed to take into account the reforms that normal schools themselves were undertaking in order to raise the level of teacher education. Some agreed that normal schools should be closed, while others wanted to protect some of them, especially those in the most remote areas of the province, in order to both recruit and retain good potential teachers. Some normal school masters viewed this reform as the ultimate struggle between the church and the laity for control over Québec education, and viewed the elimination of the normal schools as an important step in the separation of state and church.

The university perspective provides another interesting view on the impact of the reform of teacher education. Some professors in the faculty of education feared the impact of the invasion of the normal school spirit inside the academy. Even the authors of the *Rapport Parent* warned of the danger of placing teacher education within the university, as they viewed the university as a dangerous place, given its tendency to either overly theorize pedagogical practice or to ignore it. Further, locating teacher education within the university threatened the prominence of teacher

education: Would its students, faculty, and programs be lost within a large institution? What would happen to the career paths of the normal school masters during the reform? Many normal school masters from religious orders did not integrate within the university. Some ceased working as the small normal schools closed. Others sought employment in private institutions, in secondary schools or, as of the late 1960s, in the Cégep system (Collège d'enseignement général et professionnel). Others retired or sought alternative employment in other enterprises of their orders, as they assessed a university career as too onerous. Masters teaching in the Écoles normales d'états fared better, as their unions negotiated terms favourable to their future employment, including opportunities for further study to gain additional credentials or employment within the public service. The transfer of teacher education into the university completely changed the credentials needed to become a teacher educator. Previously, experience as a teacher was a prime criterion; now higher degrees were essential. Some former normal school masters, in spite of their overseas studies, never did acquire a masters or a doctorate. Further, former normal school masters did not rise in university administrative ranks. As well, promotion was challenging, as the university norms for research did not privilege field engagement and publishing norms devalued activities such as textbook writing.

In the middle of the 1990s, Quebec instituted significant reforms in teacher education with the dual goals of becoming more selective with respect to applicants and responding to demographic shifts. The program of study was lengthened from 3 to 4 years, with an increased emphasis on the practicum experience—sometimes at the expense of formal instruction in pedagogy and curriculum. As a result of these reforms, some universities built strong bonds with the schools associated with the practicum, thus enabling teacher candidates to become more engaged with the realities of schooling.

Teacher Education in Ontario: From Apprenticeships to Normal Schools

As was the case in Quebec, prior to the mid-nineteenth century, providing education to children scattered throughout an expansive geographic area characterized by a sparse and far-flung population was a challenge. Teaching was unregulated and the domain of entrepreneurs whose personal and professional characteristics were as diverse as the students they gathered around them. E. Jane Errington (1995) demonstrates through an analysis of colonial newspapers the extent to which women entrepreneurs established private schools as economic ventures to provide basic education and to carve out employment for themselves. These schools were unregulated and staffed primarily by women who relied on their own educational experience for the knowledge and skills to equip them to teach children. Community-based, apprenticeship oriented models of preparing individuals to teach existed well after the establishment of institutions specifically dedicated to teacher preparation (Gidney & Millar, 2012).

Once a state-regulated public education system was established, a state-regulated institution for the instruction of teachers began. In Ontario (Upper Canada), the first teacher education institution, the Toronto Normal School, opened in November 1847. The origins and significance of the name “Normal” appeared annually in the teachers’ colleges calendars:

The word Normal signifies according to the rule or principle and is employed to express the systematic teaching of the rudiments of learning. . . . A Normal School . . . is a school in which the principles and practices of teaching according to the rule are taught and exemplified. (Ontario Department of Education, 1968, p. 9)

Unlike their British counterparts, Canadian normal schools were coeducational, designed for day (not residential) pupils, and, outside of Québec, were not denominationally affiliated. As was the case elsewhere across Canada, the state regulated normal schools adapted to local conditions with admission, length of program, and engagement with students in a practicum setting, whose length varied over time. In Ontario, until the early twentieth century, when it was terminated, some teachers who may have achieved junior matriculation (Grade 10) would have begun their preparation in model schools and served as untrained apprentices to teachers who were frequently not much older than themselves. They may have followed up that initial preparation through attendance at a normal school program. By 1950, for those who completed 4 or 5 years of high school, the program length at the seven normal schools varied from 1 (including summer studies) to 2 calendar years, depending on the credentials presented by the candidate.

By mid-twentieth century, normal schools were renamed teachers' colleges. Regardless of the name, these institutions were characterized by a division of labour based on gender: a predominantly male staff teaching a student body that was overwhelmingly female. The teaching staff, significantly called masters, were principals who had previously served as classroom teachers. By joining the teachers colleges, they became civil servants. The few women who held positions were those in female-dominated subjects such as domestic science, women's physical education, and primary learning. While the majority of masters had acquired an initial post-secondary degree, some had master's degrees, and a few had doctorates. In addition to teaching the student teachers, the teaching masters worked through the summer delivering professional development courses to practicing teachers. They frequently relocated during the summer months to deliver courses at other colleges throughout the province. Some masters engaged in textbook writing and research in the areas of child development, although scholarship as defined by research and publication was not a part of their job description.

The history of preparing students to teach in secondary or high schools brings into focus the question of the relationship between academic preparation and pedagogical practice. Looking at the case of Ontario, two of the nineteenth-century experiments—one in Hamilton and the other in Toronto—failed because of a lack of support from the academy and the field. The Toronto School of Pedagogy, established by the Department of Education in 1890, failed because of lack of support from both the university and the field. The University of Toronto faculty assessed the school as both unnecessary and redundant, as the university asserted that students received adequate preparation within their discipline-based study. In the field, the Toronto Board of Education did not support the use of its secondary school teachers and their classrooms as hosts for the student teachers.

Hamilton was the location of the short-lived Ontario Normal School, which attempted to address the latter problem. The normal school was a partnership between the Board of Education and the Department of Education. Located within a building that also housed the Hamilton Collegiate, the *Hamilton Spectator* (1895) celebrated its creation in an article entitled "A Good Thing for Hamilton":

The presence in the city of say 100 intelligent and highly educated teachers in training, many of whom will be university graduates from all over the province for nearly the whole year [term is 1 October–31 May] cannot fail to leave its impression on the whole city. The students of the Collegiate will strive to reach the same height of learning as those teachers in training with whom they come daily into contact. The teachers of the collegiate will have to be more watchful as they will be constantly observed by those sent here to be trained. When a teacher is wanted on the staff of the city schools the board will have the pick of the best of the teachers in training. (p.3)

Students would work with a “critic teacher,” an experienced classroom teacher whom the students would observe and from whom they would learn classroom management and curriculum.

The Ontario Normal School experiment was terminated in 1907 when the Royal Commission on the University of Toronto recommended that two faculties of education be established to educate teachers for secondary schools: one at Queen's University, Kingston, and one at the University of Toronto. Yet these experiments were also short lived. By the 1920s, the faculty of education at Queen's was closed and the faculty of education at the University of Toronto became the Ontario College of Education, an institution for educating secondary school teachers, co-managed by the university and the Department of Education (Smyth, 2003). It was not until the mid-twentieth century that widespread changes in teacher education occurred and Ontario adopted the model of university-based teacher education for all its teacher candidates, a model that had existed in Alberta since the 1940s.

As Gidney (1999) has meticulously analyzed, the 1960s saw calls for reform in education in general and teacher education specifically. Two ministerial committees were launched. One was the 1961 Committee on the Training of Secondary School Teachers, which was mandated to explore the complex academic and non-academic relationships among the provincial teachers colleges, the provincial universities, and the Department of Education. The second explored elementary teacher education through a committee chaired by C. R. MacLeod, Superintendent of Public Schools and Assistant Director of Education of the city of Windsor. The Report of the McLeod Commission (1966) found,

Ontario has so far continued to prepare its teachers in a one-year program following secondary school graduation. It is not surprising, therefore, that elementary teachers in Ontario have not won the professional status achieved by teachers in some other jurisdictions. There appears a growing conviction among thoughtful parents and the public at large that most graduates from our Teachers' Colleges are too young, too immature and less well prepared academically than they should. (p. 11)

In order to produce “a scholar and an educated person” (p. 56) the McLeod Report recommended that all teacher education programs be delivered within a university setting, offering students two options: concurrent (education subjects taken alongside of a degree in another academic discipline) or consecutive (an education program taken at the completion of a degree). At the heart of both options was an internship. Finally, the McLeod commission recommended an end to segregation of preparation based on the level of pupils to be taught. They concluded that elementary and secondary teacher candidates should be educated together in a program that resulted in a university degree and professional certification. Premier William Davis, who also held the office of Minister of Education, announced on March 29, 1966, his “agreement with the program suggested and it will be the policy of my department to implement the plans to this end as quickly as possible” (Ontario Legislative Assembly, 1966). Universities formed a coalition to ensure that admission qualifications for students, program standards, faculty qualifications, and financial issues would be based on the same standards across the province. Several years of debate and struggle ensued as teachers colleges were transitioned into faculties of education. The universities were concerned about standards, maintaining their autonomy, and the academic credentials of the teachers colleges' masters. The records of debates within the Senate of Lakehead University (1969) in Thunder Bay detail these challenges:

To Civil Servants who are on the staff of Lakehead Teachers' College on June 30 1969, and transfer to Lakehead University, the University may grant tenure at any time, but

where the University does not wish to offer tenure to any such member of the staff transferred to Lakehead University, the University shall give such member one year's notice of intention not to grant tenure, the separation to become effective June 30, 1973, provided that where tenure has not been offered by June 30, 1973, the Department of Education and the University will offer assistance to the person concerned in obtaining other employment and where no notice of intention not to grant tenure is given to any such member within these three years next following June 30, 1969, the University agrees to grant tenure to such member. (p. 7)

In spite of such rhetoric, the majority of teachers college masters did find their ways into the universities. Yet, they found themselves working under different conditions. Lakehead University's founding Dean, Jim Angus (1970) described their changing work life. Previously, it was:

relatively peaceful and unharried ... There has been no compulsion on Teachers' College Masters as there is on Professors in Faculties of Education in other jurisdictions to take advanced degrees, conduct research, publish, assume leadership in professional organizations, serve on academic committees, or deliver scholarly activity on which promotion, tenure, or merit increases in salary are normally based. This is not to suggest that some Teachers' College Masters have not done these things. Rather the point is being made that there has been no endemic need to do them. (p. 3)

As university professors, their jobs were to teach, do research, and engage in service, following a 12-month calendar—much different from their previous world. Their students were of a different ilk: they must meet the same admission standards as all other students. No longer was education a course for those who did not qualify for university education. Education students entered the classroom with one or two university degrees, demanding higher salaries and indeed, greater respect.

In the 40-plus years since the closure of the teachers' colleges, Ontario's university based teacher education expanded, changed, and diversified, shaped by forces both within and outside of its control (Fleming, 1971). As a result of the implementation of the recommendations of the Royal Commission on Learning (Ontario Ministry of Education, 1995), the course of teacher education changed once again. In 1997, the College of Teachers was created, transforming teaching into a self-regulated profession. The College of Teachers was given the power to accredit faculties of education and through its standards exert influence over many components of a teacher education program. Beginning in 2015, teacher education in Ontario is now a 2-year program, which includes extended practicums.

Thirteen Ontario universities offer concurrent or consecutive teacher education programs—on a full-time or, in one instance, a part-time basis. The programs offer a variety of options: courses offered in English or French, specialized programs for teachers of Aboriginal students, programs preparing teachers of physically and intellectually exceptional pupils, programs focusing on meeting the needs of diverse religious populations, and programs preparing teachers of technology studies (Kitchen & Petrarca, 2013/14).

The History of Teacher Education Across the Two Provinces—and Beyond

Reviewing this history of teacher education in Quebec and Ontario, one can clearly observe the tensions inherent in professional education. This is not unexpected as teacher education sits at the nexus of the profession, the external credentialing agencies, the university, the state, and the larger academic discipline of education.

In both contexts, despite differences in rhythm and types of reform, teacher education changed from an apprenticeship type to a university-based model, where multiple (and sometimes competing and contradictory) forces attempted to regulate the profession. In Ontario, universities prepare teachers within programs credentialed by the College of Teachers and regulated by the Ministry of Training, Colleges, and Universities, offering a curriculum heavily influenced by the Ministry of Education. Quebec relies on the work of committees within the Ministry of Education (mainly the CAPFE—Comité d'agrément des programmes de formation à l'enseignement) and teacher union structures to regulate the profession.

Faculty in both provinces confront pressures from without and within. They must prepare well educated teachers for schools while at the same time producing research and publications that will enable them to meet the criteria for tenure and promotion. Further, in-class instruction competes with field-based practica, often with challenging results. In addition, the chronic underfunding of post-secondary education places additional pressures, as retiring faculty are frequently not replaced. These examples illustrate a dialectic of inclusion and exclusion, not to speak of delicate relations between the different faculties contributing to teacher training in the university.

Lakehead University Dean Jim Angus (1970) described teacher education in Ontario as

a foster child in the Ontario educational family. It came late into the family—after the institution of the public school system, after the creation of the Department of Education, after the provision for inspectorial and supervisory services . . . [a] foster child [who by the mid-twentieth century] had become a pretty ragged Cinderella. A Prince Charming was needed to rescue it from the ashes of public neglect and intrinsic apathy. The question was where to find one. (p. 3)

This description can also be applied to Quebec—and indeed, to teacher education across Canada. For well over a century, university-based teacher education was seen as the solution for all of teacher education's problems. For, as future rector of Queen's University, Kingston, S. W. Dyde (1904–1905) observed:

Wherever a profession is thoroughly organized, the professional training is carried on side by side with the liberal training of "Arts." Teachers are the only exception. Only those who look forward to positions in high schools are found in college. The others never spend an hour within the walls of a university. It is obviously not possible yet to demand an Arts degree of all teachers in the province and yet that is an ideal towards which we should move. . . . At last teaching may become a real profession, the aloofness of the university may disappear, something approaching to educational solidarity and brotherhood be established and every schoolhouse even in the remotest settlement reap the advantage. (p.177)

Yet, as even Ontario ventured into the domain of university-based teacher education, the architect of this initiative, Deputy Minister of Education J. R. McCarthy (1970), warned:

It will be the task of the faculty of education to justify its position in the total university context. . . . They will attempt to win academic respectability with the university by attempting to meet the criteria of academicians who know little or nothing about professional education. If they succumb to such blandishments, they will eventually lose their reason for being; first because they will be a poor shadow of arts or science faculties; and second because they will be useless in terms of the school system. (p.7)

As teacher education in Canada enters into its fourth century, the warnings issued by McCarthy still ring true, along with a growing laundry list of challenges as teacher education attempts to serve its multiple masters. This chapter began with a reference to educating First Nations pupils. This is perhaps one of the most pressing challenges that Canada as a nation faces. As Battiste (2002) asserted, “All teachers have been educated in Eurocentric systems that have dismissed Indigenous knowledge and pedagogy” (p. 25). While universities across the country have attempted to use a number of models to address this issue, success is, at best, mixed (Barman, Hebert, & McCaskill, 1987; Archibald, 2008; Bell, 2004),

Teacher education has been caught within the pulls of supply and demand. While ministries of education imposed caps on enrolment, individuals seeking to gain teacher education have sought venues outside the publicly funded education system to do so. In some provinces, ministries of education have approved—but not funded—teacher education programs at denominational universities, such as Ontario’s Redeemer University and Tyndale University. In more recent years, as globalization influenced higher education, international universities have colonized Canada, with schools such as Australia’s Charles Stuart University, which until 2015 offered teacher education programs at satellite Canadian campuses. The other side of this coin is the treatment of foreign trained teachers who seek recognition of their credentials. While it is the regulatory agencies (such as the Ontario College of Teachers) that approve credentials, faculties of education have partnered with these agencies to offer transitional programs to enable credentials to be recognized.

Among the contemporary challenges facing faculties of education that have historical roots, one of the most persistent is the lack of diversity within the ranks. The gender gap among pupils persists. University-based teacher education was seen as a means to attract male students. Almost a century after some form of university-based teacher education was initiated (and, indeed, half century after it was mandated in most provinces), teaching remains a highly feminized profession. Further, most provinces have attempted to diversify the application pool and have encouraged applicants to self-identify as members of underrepresented populations, but with little success. As well, retention of new teachers beyond the first 5 years is a problem that still persists. New teachers still experience isolation, lack of support, difficulties in classroom management, and challenges in negotiating the politics that lie at the intersection of the classroom and the community. Experiments have been undertaken by faculties of education across the country to employ strategies to mentor their graduates during the initial phase of their careers.

In the absence of a federal agency and a national policy regulating teacher education, the informal Association of Canadian Deans of Education serves as a professional organization within the Canadian Society for the Study of Education. While it does not have the power of the American National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education to set professional standards for program accreditation, since 2005, it has developed a number of accords on such topics as Initial Teacher Education, Indigenous Education, Educational Research, Early Learning and Early Childhood Education, and the Internationalization of Education (ACDE, 2014). This group does have the potential to influence the history of teacher education as it enters into its fourth century.

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Chapter 8

CANADIAN RESEARCH ON THE GOVERNANCE OF INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION

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The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview and analysis of Canadian research and scholarship on the governance of initial teacher preparation published over the last three decades. The primary sources of research and scholarship are drawn from theses, articles published in refereed education journals, and conference proceedings. Also included are research reports, books and book chapters, and some government documents including the reports of several provincial commissions on education. Our focus is on initial (i.e., pre-service) teacher education, although we recognize the importance of seeing teacher education as an integrated sequence of pre-service programming, induction, and ongoing professional learning.

By the early 1980s, in all provinces, initial teacher preparation programs were, with very few exceptions, housed within universities, degree based, funded by a combination of government grants and student tuition, and led relatively unproblematically to provincial certification (Gregor, 1993; Kitchen & Petrarca, 2013; Sheehan & Wilson, 1994)¹. The last thirty years have seen a variety of modifications to this “institutional” mode of governance (Young, Hall, & Clarke, 2007). Provincial governments have, to varying degrees, become more prescriptive in the requirements of teacher certification, and in the provinces of Ontario and British Columbia the establishment of a College of Teachers gave, at least the appearance of, new authority to the profession over both teacher certification and the accreditation of teacher preparation programs.² In addition, universities and university governance itself has undergone significant change. The research reviewed in this chapter is framed primarily by an analysis of the interplay among these three sets of educational partners—governments, the profession, and universities—and, within the context of the rise of neo-liberalism as a global educational policy discourse, the emergence of new influential participants in these

¹ Sorensen, Young, and Mandzuk (2005) add to this list of characteristics of initial teacher education that they were predominantly based in urban centres, incorporated a standard Eurocentric curriculum with little or no accommodation of prior learning, and had admission requirements that reflected the traditional academic expectations of the university. They suggest that a variety of different Native/First-Nations teacher education programs established at Canadian universities across Canada in the second half of the twentieth century constituted the primary “alternative program” initiative in Canadian teacher education, distinct from the many “alternative routes” developed in the USA and England.

² The British Columbia College of Teachers was established by the provincial government in 1987 and dissolved by them in 2011. The Ontario College of Teachers was established in 1996 and remains active.

governance practices including the federal government (Doern & MacDonald, 1999) and for-profit business interests (Davidson-Harden, 2005).

The Path to University-Based Initial Teacher Education

There is an extensive literature, usually province-specific, that documents the history of teacher education in Canada (e.g., Clark, 2005; Gregor, 1993; Kitchen & Petrarca, 2013; Perry, 2013; Sheehan & Wilson, 1994; Stamp, 2004) and the changing ways in which provincial government and territories have exercised, or delegated, their authority over teacher preparation through the various levers of certification, program delivery, program accreditation, and funding. A detailed consideration of this literature lies outside the scope of this chapter. However, because this chapter takes as its starting point a moment in time when a significant governance shift had been completed in terms of the influence that individual universities had over the preparation of teachers, some brief account of the path to fully university-based initial teacher education is warranted. In this regard, Sheehan and Wilson (1994) offer the following summary of the changes in Canadian teacher education that occurred during the third quarter of the twentieth century:

By the end of World War II, the normal pattern of teacher education across Canada was as follows. Secondary school teachers were expected to have a bachelor's degree followed by a 1-year post-baccalaureate course leading to certification. Elementary school teachers, for the most part, took a one-year course following high school graduation in what was called a normal school. Following US practice, in some provinces the name "teachers' college" came to replace the latter. Also following the lead of the US, in one province after another responsibility for the training of elementary school teachers was assumed by universities: in Alberta in 1945, in Newfoundland in 1946, in British Columbia in 1956, in Saskatchewan in 1964, and in Manitoba in 1965. By 1970 the transfer to universities either had been accomplished or was about to be accomplished in all other provinces with Quebec and Ontario being the last to make the change. Most elementary teachers were by then receiving at least two years of university education and the goal of a BA or a BED for all teachers was within sight. (pp. 27–28)

Two things are important to note of this transition: (i) that a fully university-based system separated authority for two major levers of control of teacher preparation—*certification*, which remained the domain of the provincial government, and *program design and delivery* (admissions, program and course content, instructors etc.), which shifted to the university with its tradition of institutional autonomy; and (ii) that, despite the fact that fully university-based preparation for both elementary and secondary school teachers significantly added to the professional status of teaching, the governance of initial teacher education continued to see little formal involvement of the profession.³ With regard to the matter of certification Sheehan and Wilson (1994) state that

³ Indicative of the changes in the status of teaching that were occurring in the third quarter of the twentieth century are the following quotes describing teaching in the 1960s and 1970s. Sheehan and Wilson (1994, p. 27) quote political scientist Frank MacKinnon in his book *The Politics of Education* as describing the teaching profession as "a kind of low-drawer civil service, trained, licensed, hired, inspected and directed by the state." Kitchen and Petrarca (2013) describing the status of teaching in Ontario write, "in the 1970s teaching shifted from being a career of last resort to a respected profession with high standards of admission and competitive salaries and benefits" (p. 7).

for the greater part of this century in BC and in most other jurisdictions the legal authority for teacher education and certification has been with the government of the particular province. When teacher education was transferred to the university that legal authority did not change. However, in practice governments accepted the recommendations of the universities without question. Faculties of Education, in making curriculum and/or program changes were bound by the regulations of the Senate of the University. The government, at least in British Columbia, did not review such changes and did not establish a mechanism to approve program requirements. De facto, the universities controlled who received certification in the province. (pp. 33-4)

The next sentence that they wrote in their 1994 article that documents the establishment of the British Columbia College of Teachers in 1987 begins “clearly that has changed” (p. 34).

In attempting to review and synthesize the Canadian scholarship that addresses some of these changes in teacher education governance the remainder of this chapter is divided into two main sections. First, the chapter outlines two conceptual models, each of which offers a framework for analyzing patterns of governance. Second, the chapter presents three significant recent developments: (i) the establishment of colleges of teachers in British Columbia and Ontario; (ii) the implementation of the Mobility Chapter of the *Agreement on Internal Trade*; and (iii) attempts in several provinces to better align (or “right-size”) bachelor of education program enrolments with the employment demands of the K–12 school system. The chapter concludes with a series of summary observations and some suggested directions for future research.

Conceptual Frameworks for Analyzing Governance Structures in Initial Teacher Education

In much of the literature reviewed in this chapter the terms *government* and *governance* are used interchangeably to signify a general interest in the how jurisdictional authority is assigned and exercised over decision-making related to the funding, regulation, and implementation of initial teacher education. However, some authors draw a clear distinction between the two concepts, tying the concept of governance to changes in the way in which governments have come to operate in the context of globalization and the rise of neo-liberalism as a dominant global political and economic policy discourse.⁴ In this section of our review two sets of conceptual lenses are presented with Davidson-Harden’s (2005) work linking the notion of governance more explicitly to neo-liberalism.

⁴ Davidson-Harden (2005), in his analysis of the restructuring of teacher education in Ontario at the turn of the twenty-first century, defines neo-liberalism as an umbrella term for a set of hegemonic policy trends comprised of various overlapping constituent trends that include *marketization*—the introduction of market forms and processes such as competition, incentives, and choice into different social spheres; *commodification*—the transformation of formerly non-traded entities and services into buyable and profit-orientated activities; and *deregulation*—the removal of public regulation and control of services and a shift towards increased private sector roles (p. 26). He also includes *privatization* as a constituent trend of neoliberalism (p. 144). In this regard British scholars Whitty and Power’s (2000) discussion of privatization and marketization is helpful. For Whitty and Power privatization, in addition to the simple transfer of services such as education from the public sector to the private sector, may also take on other forms such as the decline in state provision, reductions in state subsidies, and increased deregulation (i.e., contracting out educational services—either ancillary or core—to private providers; increased requirements for parents to pay for services such as music tuition that had previously been provided at no cost to students). Whitty and Power argue that in most countries it is difficult to argue that education has been privatized on any significant scale (p. 94) and that marketization is a better metaphor for what has been happening.

The Governance of Initial Teacher Education as the Interplay of Government, University, and Professional Interests, Core Values and Authority

This framework, developed by Young and his colleagues (Young, 2004; Young, Hall, & Clarke, 2007; Young & Boyd, 2010; Falkenberg & Young, 2010), takes as its starting point both Gideonse's (1993) distinction between three "ideal" types of teacher education governance—*political*, *institutional*, and *professional*—and Dale's (1997) discussion of governance that makes the distinction between *matters of focus*—the substance of the activities involved, which he groups as issues of funding, regulation, and delivery—and *matters of jurisdiction*—on whose authority these activities are carried out. This basic framework is shown in Figure 1.

This model is further developed by (i) elaborating on key dimensions of each area of focus specific to initial teacher education and the interests, core values, and legitimacy claims associated with government, university, and professional involvement (Young & Boyd, 2010); (ii) distinguishing between the different levels and layers of government (e.g., provincial and local), university (e.g., senate and faculty councils), and professional involvement (e.g., institutional and individual), and between formal and informal participation (Falkenberg & Young, 2010); and (iii) comparing modes of governance across Canadian provinces and internationally (Grimmett & Young, 2012; Young, 2004; Young, Hall, & Clarke, 2007). Missing from this analysis, to date, is a discussion of the applicability of this framework to First Nations teacher education (Anderson, Horton, & Orwick, 2004).

Figure 1

A Simplified Representation of the Governance of Initial Teacher Education—The Interplay of Government, University, and the Profession

Governance activity/ focus	Jurisdiction/mode of governance		
	Government	University	Profession
Funding			
Regulation			
Delivery			

Neo-Liberal Restructuring of the Governance of Initial Teacher Education—Marketization and Privatization

Adam Davidson-Harden (2005) in his doctoral dissertation, *Restructuring and Governance of Teacher Education in Ontario, 1995–2003: Exploring Global Policy Discourses and Local Practice*, and in other writings (Davidson-Harden, 2004; Davidson & Majhanovich, 2004) drawing on the work of Dale (1997), Whitty and Power (2000), and Foucault (1983, 1991), proposes three frames, or models, that centre attention on the neo-liberal restructuring of the governance of initial teacher education “across the public/private divide” (2005, p. 53), and the increased impact of international discourses on commodification, marketization, deregulation, and privatization on education and teacher education.

The first frame that Davidson-Harden (2005) outlines constitutes a more elaborated treatment of Dale's critical sociology perspective on educational restructuring rooted in “conformity with capitalist principles of organizing aspects of social life and policy according to market models and

imperatives, that is, according to neoliberal themes” (p. 55). In this governance model the financing, regulation, and delivery of education is examined in relation to the roles of the state, the market, and community—the latter, Dale (1997) notes, “is always a residual category to the state and market” (p. 274; see Figure 2).

Figure 2

A Simplified Representation of the Governance of Initial Teacher Education—The Interplay of State, Markets, and Community

Governance activities	Coordinating institutions		
	State	Market	Community
Funding			
Regulation			
Provision/delivery			

Note. Source: Dale, 1997, p. 275.

The second analytical frame that Davidson-Harden provides comes from the work of Whitty and Power (2000). Complementary to Dale’s work, the Whitty and Power model employs a framework that shows “the potential splits between different types of public and private provision and finance in education systems” (Davidson-Harden, 2005, p. 57–8) and focuses on how the mode of provision and finance of services might be variously differentiated between different public or private actors (see Figure 3 below.) Elaborating on the Whitty and Power model shown in Figure 3, Davidson-Harden explains:

This model provides a useful expansion of the notion of where “decision” lies in terms of structures for governance of education. Where the inner circle (“a”) concentric circle on the diagram represents areas where states remain involved in terms of decisions, the outer (“b”) concentric circle delineates spheres of governance where private actors retain the powers of decision with respect to finance and provision of education. Such a framework suggests a broad array of possibilities whereby the arrangements of governance in education may be structured so that privatization and marketization in education may be manifested in several different and varying forms and different extents. (p. 60)

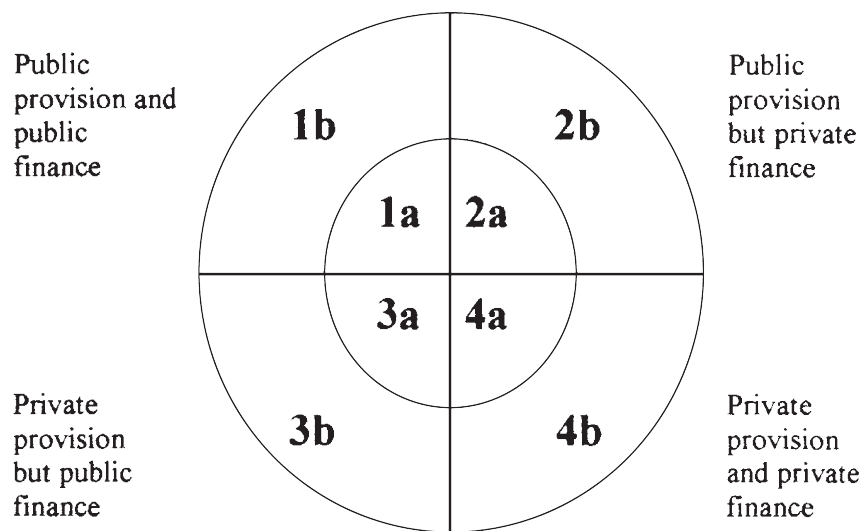
Davidson-Harden’s (2005) third analytical frame introduces Foucault’s discussion of *governmentality* as a form of *governing at a distance* and “a rationality and technique of control whereby individuals are implicated in societal webs of control and co-ordination through their own liberty and self-regulation” (p. 61).

Recent Developments in the Governance of Canadian Teacher Education

As Gambhir, Broad, Evans, and Gaskell (2008) note, “initial teacher education is embedded in a complex network of regulatory bodies” (p. 6) that include provincial government, accreditation bodies, and universities, as well as, on occasion, the courts (Ursel, 2002; Young, Hall, & Clarke, 2007) and national and international trade agreements (Doern & MacDonald, 1999; Henley & Young, 2009). The remainder of this chapter gives attention to three significant developments in the

governance of teacher education that have been taken up in the Canadian literature and which reflect something of the complexity and changing character this network of participants. These developments are (i) the appearance of Colleges of Teachers as new institutions involved in teacher preparation and certification; (ii) the signing of the Labour Mobility Chapter of the Agreement on Internal Trade (AIT); and (iii) provincial government initiatives directed at managing the supply of new teachers, including both the approval of new “service providers” and the “downsizing” of existing programs.

Figure 3.
A Model of Private and Public Provision in State Education Systems



KEY

Inner Circle – public decision

- 1a eg ‘pure public’ services
- 2a eg publicly provided services paid for by user charges
- 3a eg contracted-out services purchased by the state
- 4a eg contracted-out services paid for by consumer

Outer Circle – private decision

- 1b eg publicly provided services bought with vouchers
- 2b eg publicly provided services bought by individuals
- 3b eg privately provided services bought with vouchers, tax reliefs or grants
- 4b eg ‘free market’ services

Note: Reprint from Whitty and Power, 2000, p. 96 (with permission).

Colleges of Teachers

Associated with the increased status of teaching in Canada during the third quarter of the twentieth century were two broad features: 1) there was a degree of public disenchantment with how faculties of education in public universities were perceived to be exploiting the structure of institutional governance, largely to pursue their own self-interests rather than having an assiduous focus on the preparation of teachers (Cole, 1999); and concomitantly 2) there was a renewed interest in professional self-regulation—the idea that teachers, like other “true professions” should be given a new professional organization with the authority to regulate qualifications, certification and discipline (Gidney, 1999; Provincial Committee on Aims and Objectives of Education in the Schools of Ontario, 1968; Young, Levin, & Wallin, 2007).

The establishment of the British Columbia College of Teachers (BCCT) in 1987 and the Ontario College of Teachers (OCT) in 1997 appeared to grant this self-regulating authority to the teaching profession in those two provinces. However, the realities of regulation and of professionalization, as evidenced by the history of these bodies, has proven to be more complex. Each college of teachers has had its own unique character and history framed by its specific provincial context—including the dissolution of the BCCT by the British Columbia government in 2011—but common themes running through the literature on both include (i) tensions between the colleges’ aspirations of autonomy and self-regulation and the actions of provincial governments to constrain, steer, and at times override such aspirations (Baghel, 2007; Davidson-Harden, 2005; Gannon, 2005); (ii) tensions between the colleges’ authority to approve or accredit faculty of education programs and the tradition of institutional autonomy associated with universities (Glegg, 2013; Gannon, 2005; Manley-Casimir, 2001; Young & Boyd, 2012); and (iii) tensions within the profession related to membership (i.e., the place of principals, directors, and university professors within the college and on governing councils) and representation (i.e., the relationships between the college and provincial teacher federations) (Gannon, 2005).

Tensions between colleges of teachers and provincial governments. Discussions about the merits of a professional self-regulating body for teachers have a long history in Canada (Smaller, 1995), and colleges of teachers have at various times been advocated for by teacher unions. However, in both British Columbia and Ontario the legislation that established colleges of teachers, in 1987 and 1996 respectively, was introduced by the provincial government without consultation with teacher federations and during periods of considerable conflict between teachers and government. They were, in Smaller’s (1995) words, “not something that teachers asked for, but rather an institution imposed on them by state officials for their own purposes” (p. 128). In such a climate, rather than being taken as evidence of professional maturity, the governments’ actions were seen as an attempt to undermine the power of teacher unions, as well as a cost reducing move that saw teachers paying for a certification service that had previously been supplied by government (Sheehan & Wilson, 1994).

Gannon (2005) notes that one of the two main controversies that have existed since the creation of the Ontario College of Teachers (OCT) has been the perception of many teachers that the OCT has never operated as an independent body and instead “the Ontario College of Teachers came to be viewed by teachers as one of the several vehicles through which the government intended to impose its reform mandate” (p. 37). Davidson-Harden’s (2005) study of the neo-liberal restructuring of teacher education governance, specifically with reference to the implementation of the Conservative government’s Professional Learning Plan between 1995 and 2003, supports this view. Describing what he refers to as a legacy of deliberate government action, he concludes:

In a sense, a key feature of the story of the OCT and restructuring initiatives funneled through it . . . is that of central government direction and “steering” of teacher governance restructuring efforts. The amount to which governments have steered and directed the process of a “self-regulating” professional college for teachers has perhaps been the source of most criticism of the fledgling College. (p. 142)

Tensions between colleges of teachers and faculties of education. The mandate given to the colleges of teachers in British Columbia and Ontario granted them substantial legislated authority to review and approve initial teacher education programs in their respective provinces—a development that would inevitably rub up against the tradition of, and legislated provisions for, university autonomy (Manley-Casimir, 2001). Gannon (2005) commenting on this new relationship in Ontario notes,

the condition under which the OCT was imposed on the faculties of education could be described as less than ideal. The faculties of education had limited opportunity to consult on the design and implementation of the *Accreditation Regulation* (Reg 347/02). (p. 170)

Nevertheless she concludes that accreditation reviews by the OCT have generally been seen as helpful by at least some faculty of education deans, and that the staffs of faculties of education and the college have been able to work together to forge effective working relationships (p.171). While Grimmitt and Echols (2006) in an OCT commissioned study found a similar phenomenon at a surface level, their in-depth evaluation of the Accreditation of Teacher Education Programs regulation (2002, O. Reg. 347/02) suggested that many faculties experienced considerable discontent and difficulty with the burdensome and repetitious procedures enacted by the college.

In British Columbia the tensions between the mandate and reach of the BCCT and faculties of education expectations of institutional autonomy took on a considerably higher profile (Avison, 2010; Glegg, 2013; Manley-Casimir, 2001; Young, Hall, & Clarke, 2007). These tensions found expression in a lengthy legal dispute between the College of Teachers and Trinity Western University (TWU) that led to a Supreme Court of Canada ruling in 2001 overturning the college’s decision not to approve TWU’s teacher education program (*Trinity Western University v. British Columbia College of Teachers*, 2001), and a second court case between the college and the University of British Columbia (*University of British Columbia v. British Columbia College of Teachers*, 2002) where the college declined to approve a new bachelor of education program developed by the university. Summarizing the UBC case, Manley-Casimir (2001) notes,

UBC challenged the reach of the BCCT into what it considered its own statutory role and jurisdiction and argued that the setting and administration of its budget, the organization of its faculty structures, the staffing of committees, and the provisions of its collective agreements were ultra vires the BCCT. Effectively, UBC argued that the jurisdiction of the BCCT should extend to scrutinizing the content—the “what” of teacher education programs—but that the “how”—the delivery of approved programs—fell within the statutory responsibility and institutional discretion of the university. (pp. 3–4)

In 2002 the BC Supreme Court recognized that, while the university had the right to grant degrees as it saw fit, the BCCT had the right to decide whether or not that degree would be an acceptable qualification for certification. The BC Supreme Court directed the BCCT and the Association of British Columbia Deans of Education to get beyond this impasse, and in 2003 negotiations began that led to a Letter of Agreement, signed in 2004, agreeing to a process whereby the college would establish standards and competencies required for certification in BC and

individual universities would implement programs that would meet these standards as well as their own academic requirements (Young, 2004; Young & Boyd, 2010).

Tensions between colleges of teachers, teachers, and teacher unions. Central to the viability of a professional self-regulating body is its credibility among its own members and the ability to establish working relationships with provincial teacher unions. The fact that, in both British Columbia and Ontario, colleges of teachers were created by provincial legislation without consultation with teacher unions, and that they took over activities previously carried out by the unions, effectively ensured that relationships between the teacher unions and the colleges would be, at best, difficult. In Clegg's (2013) words the BCCT was viewed by the British Columbia Teachers Federation (BCTF) as "an unnecessary creation of a hostile government, and one whose duties could very well be carried out by the teachers union" (pp. 47-8).

Smaller (1995), writing prior to the actual establishment of the Ontario College of Teachers, identified several practical concerns raised by teachers in discussions of the planned college. These included the financial cost of the college that would have to be carried by teachers at a time of significant salary freezes and cutbacks; concerns about the creation of "yet another bureaucracy" within the Ontario school system without any clear benefit to teaching and schools; and the concern that the college with its "professional" mandate would have a negative impact on teacher unions' ability to represent teachers on matters of job security and working conditions (pp. 123-4).

A further source of ongoing tension between teachers, teacher unions, and the colleges of teachers focused on boundary issues related to defining membership in "the teaching profession"—whether it was to be limited to teachers who are members of a provincial teachers union, or whether it is more broadly defined to include principals and vice-principals, supervisory officers, and faculty of education instructors. If teaching was to be self-regulating, how that definition was to find recognition in the election processes related to the governing council of a college of teachers came to take on considerable importance in both provinces (Gannon, 2005; Clegg, 2013). Both colleges of teachers have governing councils made up of council members elected by the membership and of members appointed by government, reflective of the requirement that the college "act in the public interest." The relative balance of these two groups of council members (particularly in relation to policies and by-laws related to the ability to amend college by-laws) was a central and issue related to autonomy and self-regulation in British Columbia in 2003 (Clegg, 2013; Young, Hall & Clarke, 2007).

This issue came to a head in British Columbia in 2003 when the newly elected Liberal government introduced an amendment to the Teaching Profession Act changing the make-up of the BCCT Governing Council from 15 elected members and 5 appointed members to 8 elected and 12 appointed. This move, seen as essentially removing any notion of self-government from the college, was strongly opposed by the BCTF and its membership who voted to withhold their annual dues to the college in protest. In the face of this level of opposition and the potential threat that it posed to the staffing of BC schools, since only members of the BCCT were permitted to teach in BC public schools, the government modified its legislation raising to 12 the number of elected members of the

BCCT Governing Council—albeit elected by all members of the college, which included independent school teachers, principals, and superintendents, in addition to public school teachers (Clegg, 2013).

The 25-year existence of the British Columbia College of Teachers—described by Clegg (2013) as "pockmarked by political wrangling, power struggles, and protracted lawsuits" (p. 46) was ended in 2011 when it was dissolved by the provincial government. While the Ontario College of Teachers continues to operate within the Ontario educational governance structure, no other province has chosen to establish a College of Teachers, and the Canadian literature on colleges of teachers points to the complexities associated with a professional model of governance for teacher education.

The Agreement on Internal Trade (AIT): Labour Mobility

Lessard (2012), discussing the forces of globalization and neo-liberalism over the last several decades, observes that “this movement has only one ruling force—the market—and a single horizon—a world in which economic and financial integration are maximized to eliminate all regulations, barriers and restraints, and national distinctions” (p. 113). A central element of this movement, he notes, has been a variety of supranational, national, and regional agreements to open up borders and markets to allow goods, services, labour, and investment to flow freely. The watchwords of these agreements, he notes, are “flexibility, mobility, efficacy, efficiency, and convergence” (p. 114).

For Canada, international agreements include the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) and the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS), and the pending Canada Europe Trade Agreement (CETA), but the focus here is the national/inter-provincial Agreement on Internal Trade (AIT). Political scientists Doern and Macdonald (1999) highlight the significance of such agreements as follows:

How then does one view Canadian free-trade federalism as a new century emerges? One way is to have clearly in mind a picture of what the bedrock institutions of Canada’s constitution and political system currently are. At its core, since 1982, are three familiar pillars: cabinet-parliamentary government; federalism, centred on a division of legislative powers but also on important fiscal principals; and the Charter of Rights and Freedoms, which defines both individual and group rights. But fourth and fifth pillars are also present now—namely the quasi constitutional international trade deals and the AIT. (pp. 151–2)

The Agreement on Internal Trade signed on behalf of the Government of Canada and each of the provinces and territories in 1994 has as its primary purpose the development and implementation of actions to “reduce and eliminate to the extent possible, barriers to the free movement of persons, good, services and investments within Canada” in order to “promote an open, efficient and stable domestic market for long-term job creation, economic growth and stability” (Agreement on Internal Trade, 1994, p.1).

It is the Labour Mobility Chapter of the AIT that has attracted attention in the literature on the governance of teacher education (Grimmett, 2009; Grimmett & Young, 2012; Henley & Young, 2009; Lessard, 2012; Van Nuland, 2011). Negotiations on this chapter were brought to a conclusion in 2008 with an amendment to the Agreement on Internal Trade designed to achieve full inter-provincial labour mobility by April of the following year. The amendment was to require that:

Any worker certified for an occupation by a regulatory authority of one province or territory shall be recognized as qualified to practice that occupation by all other provinces and territories; and, such recognition shall be granted expeditiously without further material training, examinations or assessments ... and exceptions to full labour mobility ... be clearly identified and justified as required to meet a legitimate objective such as the protection of health or public safety (The Council on the Confederation, 2008). (Cited in Henley & Young, 2009, p. 10.)

As provinces and territories adjusted their legislation, regulations, and practices to come into compliance with this mutual recognition model of labour mobility a number of issues and implications for teacher certification and preparation came to the fore and found expression in the education literature. These include (i) the surrender of provincial autonomy—what Lessard (2012)

refers to as “nothing less than a renunciation of full and complete provincial jurisdiction over education” (p. 124); (ii) the potential that the unconditional recognition of any province or territory’s certification provisions has to lead to the de-qualification (Lessard, 2012) or de-professionalization (Grimmett, 2009; Grimmer & Young, 2012) of teaching, and a “race-to-the bottom” in terms of teacher preparation programs (Van Nuland, 2011); (iii) the use of *mutual recognition* as the mechanism for evaluating out-of-province teaching qualifications—what Doern and MacDonald (1999) refer to as a “driver’s license approach”—as opposed to other approaches such as *equivalency* or *harmonization* (Young, 2009; Grimmer & Young, 2012); (iv) the particular implications that this agreement has for the certification of internationally educated teachers; and (v) that the competency-based approach to certification embedded in the agreement calls into question the university location of initial teacher preparation (Henley & Young, 2009).

To date, it might be difficult to argue that the Agreement on Internal Trade has brought about radical changes in Canadian teacher education. Teachers, at least since 1999, have been able to move with relative ease from province to province to work. Grimmer and Young (2012) provide some data on the scope of this movement, but there would seem to be little evidence, as yet, that the Agreement on Internal Trade has significantly altered teacher mobility. Perhaps the most significant recent provincial change in certification requirements has been Ontario’s move from a one year to a two year bachelor of education as of September 2015 (Ontario, Regulation 347/02; Ontario College of Teachers, n.d). Little has been written, as yet, by way of analysis of this policy development, but it might appear to offer an alternative, more positive, impact than the predicted “race-to-the-bottom” cited above.

Changing Universities/Changing Faculties of Education: New “Service Providers” and “Right-Sizing” Enrollments

Crocker and Dibbon (2008) in their 2007 survey of Canadian teacher education institutions identified a total of 56 universities and university colleges across the country housing initial teacher preparation programs. This total number, they suggest, has not altered much in recent years. However, this is not to say that within the umbrella of university-based programming and authority there have not been significant governance developments discussed—sometimes briefly—in the education literature. Within the context of degree-based professional preparation, provincial governments, through a variety of funding, program approval, and accreditation mechanisms, exercise substantial influence and authority over the size, location, and type of university teacher preparation programs. Across Canada the last three decades have seen legislation and regulation leading to an expansion of degree-granting authority and university status in some provinces, and the closure of faculties of education in others. It has also seen an expanded role of “off-shore” and “border colleges” that operate, to some extent at least, outside the direct control of provincial governments. Each of these developments is illustrated and discussed briefly in this section.

The expansion of teacher education programs in British Columbia and Alberta. Fowler (1994) documents the political impetus in British Columbia in the 1980s for decentralizing bachelor of education programs as a way of both increasing accessibility across the province and increasing the status of the various colleges that were expected to partner with BC universities in offering these outreach programs. The initial outcome of this initiative was university–college partnerships between the University of British Columbia and Caribou College (1989), the University of Victoria and both Okanagan College and Malaspina College (1989), and Simon Fraser University and Fraser Valley Community College (1991).

The rapid changes in BC that have occurred in the delivery of initial teacher education programs is illustrated by the data, taken from Grimmatt and Young (2012), that shows by 2008 these university–college partnership programs had largely developed into independent programs in a substantially expanded university sector that included the original partner colleges as well as one private institution, Trinity Western University (see Table 1).

A further development in BC since the publication of Grimmatt and Young's (2012) book has been the Clark Liberal government's enactment of a plan to cut teacher education programs in the province. Having created six new universities in 2006 on the basis of "accessibility," and seen each institution begin to mount their own teacher education program, the government has now concluded that there are too many teacher education programs in the province given the available teaching positions in the BC K–12 public system. Hence, a core review has been instituted to assess the effectiveness of teacher education programs using the measure of the number of each program's graduates that have found teaching positions in the provincial K–12 public school system. As of April 30, 2014, the first faculty of education (UBC–Okanagan) is in the process of being dissolved and others are experiencing stringent cut backs. The ground is suddenly shifting, with no evident sign of stability for the next few years.

Table 1
New Members of the BCCT by University Program (2008)

Institution	New members of the BC College of Teachers
British Columbia public universities	
University of British Columbia	761 (37.7%)
Simon Fraser University	554 (27.4%)
University of Victoria	302 (15.0%)
University of Northern British Columbia	51 (2.5%)
Thompson Rivers University	50 (2.5%)
Vancouver Island University	118 (5.8%)
University of the Fraser Valley	30 (1.5%)
University of British Columbia, Okanagan	133 (6.6%)
British Columbia private universities	
Trinity Western University	30 (1.5%)
COMBINED TOTAL	2,019 (100%)

Note. Source: Grimmatt and Young, 2012, p. 145.

The decentralization of teacher preparation programs in Alberta, which took the form of an expansion of bachelor of education degree-granting authority to private colleges, is analyzed in some detail by Bischoff (1999, 2001). Bischoff's work examines the impact of both international pressures of neo-liberalism and local political pressures on postsecondary policy change in Alberta and the processes by which one private college—the King's University College—attained BEd degree conferring authority in 1995. Using an Advocacy Coalition Framework (Sabatier & Jenkins-Smith, 1993), Bischoff (2001, p. 47) suggests that the stakeholders involved in this policy debate can be aggregated into two opposing advocacy coalitions: (i) those supporting private college bachelor of education programs—consisting of advocates of private postsecondary institutions, advocates of the

public colleges, government MLAs, civil servants in the Alberta Department of Advanced Education and Career Development, and members of the Private Colleges Accreditation Board; and (ii) those opposed—consisting of the leadership of the Alberta Teachers Association, faculty of education staff at the public universities, and Alberta Education personnel. While the advocates of private college bachelor of education programs were seen to reflect an emerging government commitment to increased decentralization, privatization, consumer choice, and competition in public policy spheres, those opposed articulated positions protective of the professional status and aspirations of teachers. Commenting on the outcome of this policy struggle, Bischoff (2001) concludes, “It would appear that the effects of the emerging neoliberal ideology in the Klein government were more persuasive in the policy debate than was the apparent consensus of the educational community” (p. 55). Table 2 below, from Grimmert and Young (2012), documents the small but not insignificant role that private colleges in Alberta now play in the preparation of teachers.

Table 2

New Alberta Teacher Certificate Holders by University and University-College Programs (2008)

Institutions	New certificate holders granted by Alberta Education
Alberta public universities	
University of Alberta	1,322 (60.1%)
University of Alberta, Faculté Saint Jean	92 (4.2%)
University of Calgary	475 (21.6%)
University of Lethbridge	216 (10.1%)
SUB-TOTAL	2,105 (95.8%)
Alberta private university colleges	
Canadian University College	17 (0.8%)
Concordia University College	47 (2.1%)
King's University College	29 (1.3%)
SUB-TOTAL	93 (4.2%)
COMBINED TOTAL	2,198 (100.0%)

Note. Source: Grimmert & Young (2012, p. 139)

The rationalization of teacher education in Nova Scotia. The delivery of teacher education programs in Nova Scotia, and for Nova Scotians seeking to become teachers, has seen substantial changes since the mid-1990s, driven in large part by the recommendations of a 1994 review committee report entitled *Teacher Education in Nova Scotia: An Honorable Past, An Alternative Future (The Shapiro Report)* (Nova Scotia Council on Higher Education, 1994). In addition to calling for having a 60 credit hour bachelor of education degree as the basic requirements for teacher certification, the *Shapiro Report* called for a more careful management of the supply of teachers through government set quotas and funding arrangements or “enrollment corridors” with a reduced number of provincial universities.

The “rationalization framework” provided by these recommendations led to the closing of the Nova Scotia Teachers College and the termination of education programs at Dalhousie University and Saint Mary's University. It also saw the establishment of enrollment quotas for the four provincial universities remaining with bachelor of education programs—Acadia, Mount St. Vincent,

St. Francis Xavier, and Université Ste. Anne—designed to fund sufficient places to serve the needs of the province’s public schools.

However, as a more recent review panel report (Nova Scotia Education, 2007) documents, efforts to gain control over the supply of teachers in the province has been complicated by two factors: (i) the practice of Nova Scotian universities without bachelor of education programs developing partnership agreements with out-of-province universities; and (ii) the lack of provincial jurisdiction in regulating non-Nova Scotian teacher education programs and the increase in the number of Nova Scotians enrolling in border colleges/universities such as the University of Maine.

With an annual demand for new teachers in the province calculated to be in the 300–400 range (Nova Scotia Education, 2007) the figures shown in Table 3 below document a substantial general oversupply of teachers, and unlike the previous provincial examples local provincial university graduates now constitute a substantial minority of new teachers in Nova Scotia.

Table 3

Nova Scotian Teacher Certificates Issued, by Location of Educational Institution (2006)

Institution	Number of certificates
Nova Scotia institutions (public universities)	
Acadia University	128
Mount Saint Vincent University	120
Saint Francis Xavier University	98
Université Sainte Anne	24
SUB-TOTAL	370
Other Atlantic institutions	
University of New Brunswick	109
Memorial (Newfoundland)	88
University of Prince Edward Island	27
SUB-TOTAL	224
Institutions outside of Atlantic Canada	
Other Canadian institutions	135
University of Maine	230
Other US institutions	24
Other countries	46
SUB-TOTAL	435
COMBINED TOTAL	1,029

Note. Source: Nova Scotia Education, 2007.

“Off-shore” and “border college” bachelor of education programs in Ontario. Diversification and competition in the delivery of bachelor of education programs targeted at the preparation of teachers qualified to be certified and work in Ontario schools has occurred through legislation that expanded the range of institutions with degree-granting authority operating in the province as well as through the growth of “border colleges.” These colleges, located primarily in the state of New York, have developed programs that are designed to meet the certification

requirements of the Ontario College of Teachers and their recruitment programs are targeted to Ontario residents (Grimmett & Echols, 2006; Grimmer & Young, 2012; Ontario College of Teachers, 2013).

The passing of Post-secondary Education Choice and Excellence Act in Ontario in 2000 with a stated goal increasing institutional choices for Ontarians seeking degrees (Cudmore, 2005), along with the establishment of the Post-secondary Education Quality Assessment Board (PEQAB), created a mechanism by which a variety of different, local or out-of-province, public and private post-secondary institutions (e.g., private religious colleges and seminaries, colleges of applied arts and technology) could obtain “Consent Holder” status, meaning that they were approved to deliver specific degree programs, including bachelor of education programs, in the province. To date this mechanism has seen four such programs approved by the PEQAB and accredited by the Ontario College of Teachers—two Ontario faith based institutions—Redeemer University College and Tyndale University College and Seminary—and two private international universities—American Niagara University and Australian Charles Sturt University. In 2012 some 595 graduates from these consent holders were certified by the OCT.

Border colleges in the USA have become in recent years another “service provider” of initial teacher education programming for Ontario residents, and in 2012 New York border colleges accounted for 603 newly certified members of the Ontario College of Teachers. These college programs expanded at a time when the job market for teachers in the late 1990s and early years of the twentieth century was open and when there was strong competition for places within programs in Ontario’s public universities but have generally become less popular as the Ontario job market for new teachers has become very tight and graduates from these colleges have been shown to do less well in this tight market compared to graduates from Ontario universities (Ontario College of Teachers, 2013). It remains to be seen what impact the revised Ontario certification requirements of a two-year bachelor of education program, coming into effect in 2015, will have on border college enrollments and the supply and demand for teachers in the province.

While each of the provincial descriptions discussed above may be seen as an example of university-based delivery modes, framed with existing provincial certification requirements, they also highlight something of the increased complexity of institutional governance in Canadian teacher education where neither individual universities nor provincial governments can act independently of external, sometimes contradictory, pressures that they may have little or no control over.

Conclusion and Directions for Future Research

The analytical focus for much of the research reviewed in this chapter has been an examination of the ways in which an international policy discourse of neo-liberalism has been evidenced in particular developments in teacher education governance in different provinces over the last 30 years. One of the most striking aspects of this review is the fact that Canadian teacher education governance has avoided much of the political interest, controversy, and reform that has occurred in some other countries—most notably in England and the USA (Walker & von Bergmann, 2013). Canadian provinces have not, for example, experienced the level of government intervention seen in England (Furlong, 2005), nor have they shown any appetite to move away from exclusively university- or degree-based entry into the profession as has occurred in the USA through “alternative routes into teaching” (Feistritzer & Haar, 2008; Grossman & Loeb, 2008). This is not to say that the changes in governance that have occurred in Canadian provinces are unimportant, nor that they don’t often reflect a shift in alignment with neo-liberal pressures of commodification, marketization

and privatization, but these pressures to date have been considerably more constrained than in the USA and England.

Perhaps as a consequence of the lack of political interest, the governance of initial teacher education remains an under-developed area of research (Walker & von Bergmann, 2013). By far the largest amount of scholarship on teacher education governance in Canada during this time has been devoted to analyses of the establishment and roles of Colleges of Teachers in British Columbia and Ontario. Of central interest in much of this research are the contested concepts and discourses of teacher professionalism/professional autonomy associated with their creation and development within a neo-liberal policy context. Many other areas of research are largely uncharted. For example, we could find no research on different funding mechanisms for initial teacher education, little scholarly analysis of issues of program size, capacity, or “right-sizing” in bachelor of education programs, and while there is now a very large literature analyzing the changing role of universities in the twenty-first century (e.g., Clark, Moran, Skolnik, & Trick, 2009) there seems to be little or no literature that examines the ways in which some of these changes (e.g., internationalization, reduced government funding and increased private and commercial funding, strategic enrollment planning, etc.) have reshaped teacher education in recent years.

Given the central role that certification/accreditation plays in the shaping of teacher education and the teaching profession, another potentially fruitful area for future research might be an exploration of the impact of professional accreditation on governance across professions in Canada. While this chapter does report on a few inter-provincial and international comparative studies, this too seems an important area for future research. Perhaps the most important gap appears to us to be the lack of attention given to governance issues in Aboriginal teacher education. While (as laid out in chapter 2 in this Handbook) there is a growing literature on Aboriginal, primarily First Nations, teacher education, little of this pays attention to matters of the control of the preparation and certification of teachers of Aboriginal students generally (Cherubini, 2011) and in First Nations schools in particular (Anderson, Horton, & Orwick, 2004; Paquette & Fallon, 2008).

The governance—regulation, funding, and delivery—of the recruitment and preparation of teachers represents a central part of any education system and yet in Canada it could be considered something of a policy and research backwater. Currently there are important pressures—political, economic, social, cultural—requiring provinces and individual faculties of education to substantially rethink the provision and practices of initial teacher education. A comprehensive Canadian research base that is grounded in the specifics of Canada’s various provincial, territorial, and national realities (as well as in international comparisons) could make a valuable contribution to this task.

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Chapter 9

THE DESIGN OF CANADIAN TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

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Teacher education programs are designed to initiate and support the development of teacher candidates' professional practice and thinking in ways that will lead to productive learning by their pupils. By *design* we understand the matter of how programs are constructed, structured, and organized in order to achieve their goals. Our purpose in this chapter is to offer one interpretation of the current state of program design in preservice teacher education in Canada.

Darling-Hammond (2006) distinguishes between the *what* or content and the *how* or design of teacher education programs. The *what* includes such familiar elements as foundations, subject area methods, and some generic aspects of teaching (e.g., behaviour management and assessment), as well as more recently introduced topics (e.g., diverse learners, inclusive education, and differentiated instruction). The *what* may also include issues such as the sequencing of courses and practicum experiences and coherence across courses. Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005) discuss three aspects of program design for teacher education: (1) the content of the program, including key issues of vision and coherence, (2) the learning process, especially the enactment of practice in classrooms, and (3) the learning context for developing practice, especially in the context of a learning community of practitioners. These last two features are the *how* of teacher education programs. Our focus in this chapter is on the *how*—the ways in which programs are structured and organized. Darling-Hammond contends that the *how* of teacher education is the greater challenge in trying to make programs effective.

While program design principles, even if unstated, can be inferred from the structure of existing programs, design principles may be exposed more explicitly during program reform efforts, assuming that the reform effort goes beyond minor adjustments to an existing program. Such reform efforts may generate extensive discussion about basic principles of teacher education and may reveal teacher educators' basic beliefs about how candidates learn to teach. There have been many attempts at reform of teacher education programs in Canada. If there is a central and common issue within reform efforts targeting the design of programs, it is the issue of the integration of theory and practice within a program, often seen as the integration of campus-based course work and school-based practicum placements. Tension between theory and practice tends to be one of the most commonly identified shortcomings of teacher education programs and thus one of the top priorities for reform efforts. Hirschhorn, Sears, and Rich (2009) describe this tension as “the perpetual struggle to integrate theory and practice” (p. 7).

We see the theory-practice tension as an enduring question for teacher education and it is the central focus of this review of the design of Canadian teacher education programs. We focus particularly on the place of the practicum in teacher education programs and on the relationship of the practicum to accompanying course work. A review of scholarship on the design of Canadian teacher education programs (aided by a nationwide call for references by the Canadian Association for Teacher Education) revealed few studies on this topic. Those studies that were identified usually addressed program design within the broader topic of program reform and varied considerably in their attention to principles of program design. To supplement this small base of scholarship, we surveyed program structure and design in Canada by reviewing information available on the websites of approximately 50 universities offering teacher education programs. This survey allowed us to infer program design from the information provided.

Following the report of our survey of program websites, we provide examples of recent scholarship on program design from five Canadian teacher education programs. Then we offer two conceptual frameworks for program design in teacher education. In a concluding discussion of enduring questions and issues, we consider the predominance of theory-into-practice assumptions, the limited role for practicum experiences in learning to teach, and the lack of scholarship focused on the issue of program design in teacher education in Canada.

Survey of On-Line Information about Program Design

Information about teacher education programs available on websites varies widely in the amount and kind of information. Thus the following survey is not rigorous because of the lack of comparability of available information. We used a grounded theory approach to identify trends and patterns.

In regard to the *structure* of programs, virtually all sites provide detailed information, allowing us to summarize program structures across the country. However, in regard to the *design* of programs, the sites vary enormously in the kind and amount of information provided. Some sites provide detailed information about program design (required courses and practicums, sequence of courses and practicum, etc.), while others provide very little. Despite the significant variations in available data, some clear trends were evident.

The most common structure of Canadian programs is a two-step process of an initial academic degree followed by a shorter professional teacher education program. Many universities offer the option of doing the two programs concurrently, usually over a five-year period, although most of the teacher education work tends to be reserved for the last two years. The alternative is doing the two programs consecutively, completing a post-baccalaureate teacher education program after first completing an undergraduate degree. The time period of these consecutive programs ranges from a 1-year program of 8 or 12 months to a 2-year program consisting of two 8-month academic years. Thus most Canadian teacher education programs build from a base of earlier academic background. The major exception to this national trend of program structure appears in the province of Quebec, where the government mandated a 4-year B.Ed. program as the basic route to teacher certification, although the government has recently allowed a few 2-year Master of Arts in Teaching and Learning programs as an alternate route to certification.

Several common patterns in program design are clear from the information available about a majority of the programs we reviewed:

- The basic building blocks of course work and practicum make up the structure of virtually every teacher education program. Simon Fraser University appeared to be one exception, offering integrated modules in each of the three semesters of its Professional Development Program year, with course work and practicum placements integrated in each semester and staffed by a team of teacher educators.
- Course work dominates in most programs, at the expense of practicum experiences. The margin of predominance, as measured by credits, ranged from a proportion of 2 to 1 to a proportion of 5 to 1.
- Course work tends to predominate in the earlier stages of programs and the practicum tends to be introduced gradually, with longer periods later in the program.
- Practicum experiences tend to begin with shorter time periods and with limited responsibilities (such as observation) and gradually increase in length and responsibility. Also, many practicums, especially earlier ones, tend to be relatively short (2 or 3 weeks). Even the later and longer practicum periods tend to be only 6 to 8 weeks, with some up to 10 weeks. Major practicum placements tend to occur near the end of a program, although some conclude with a semester of course work (often in the summer of a 12-month program) after all practicum experiences have been completed. There are some exceptions to these trends. The Universities of Regina and Saskatchewan both have a full-semester practicum of 15 or 16 weeks. St. Boniface University has a 4-week practicum early in the first year and concludes its two-year program with a practicum of 22 weeks, making practicum almost half of its program.
- Most practicum placements seem to occur as separate experiences in a teacher education program, with little information available about explicit analysis of experiences or links to course work.

Other trends were less clear from the program information available:

- The primary influence on the amount of practicum within some programs appeared to be the minimum requirements set by the provincial government. For example, Manitoba requires a minimum of 24 weeks of practicum and programs in that province tend to have that amount of practicum time. Quebec requires 700 hours of classroom time for teacher candidates, or approximately 20 full-time weeks. Our survey of Quebec teacher education programs revealed totals of 19 to 24 weeks of practicum. On the other hand, Ontario requires a minimum of 40 days, but most programs offer 50 to 60 days of practicum. The Ontario minimum increases to 80 days in September 2015 when the requirements for a 4-term teacher education program come into effect (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2013).
- While most practicum periods still occur in uninterrupted blocks of time for a certain number of weeks separate from course work, a more recent and emerging trend involves the use of practicum experiences of one to two days per week that occur concurrently with course work on campus. Some website information indicates that a particular course or seminar is deliberately linked with a practicum experience, ostensibly for the purpose of fostering integration of theory and practice. However, it is usually impossible to tell how that course or seminar is designed to foster such integration, raising the important question of the kind of pedagogy used to help candidates learn from their teaching experience.

In sum, our survey of information about Canadian teacher education programs available online reveals several common patterns. First, there appears to be a significant degree of similarity across Canadian programs in how they are designed, particularly in terms of the relationship between course work and practicum experiences. Second, while almost no website articulated this conclusion, we infer from the above information that a theory-into-practice design for teacher education is widespread in Canada, accounting for the conceptual underpinning of almost all Canadian teacher education programs. In fact, the teacher education program at the University of British Columbia (n.d.) states explicitly on its website that the practicum is “the time when teacher candidates put theory into practice.”

Recent Canadian Scholarship on Program Design

Against the backdrop of our survey of programs, a small body of Canadian scholarship provides a more specific and revealing glimpse into issues of program design within particular programs, usually within a larger framework of program reform. One of the major driving forces behind these examples of program reform is the need to achieve greater integration of theory and practice (usually viewed as course work and practicum) within a program. This scholarship examines program reform in a broad way, especially describing and analyzing the process of reform (that is, steps in the process, collaboration with stakeholders, sources of information used, and problematic issues such as resistance). These studies also report decisions about how to improve teacher education through program design, and this aspect of the scholarship of program reform is the focus of the following description and analysis. The key features of the following studies provide insights into leading-edge issues of program design in Canadian teacher education. Because of the small number of studies and the complexity of each situation, we present our review of this scholarship as a series of brief case-study illustrations.

Memorial University

Goodnough (2010) describes the reform of Memorial University’s intermediate/secondary program, a 12-month, 3-semester (fall to summer), 51-credit program that was implemented in the fall of 2012. Her major focus is on the lengthy process of reform in that situation, with particular attention to the kinds of evidence used to make decisions about a new program design. Initial prompts for reform stemmed from program reviews that identified shortcomings in the existing program and highlighted the need for greater coherence, particularly between course work and practicum. During the process of reform, that focus remained central and became even more central.

The results of the reform process fell into two categories. In terms of the *what* of the program, the sequence of course work was revised for greater coherence and several new courses were added to address specific issues in schools (e.g., diverse learners and inclusive education). In terms of the *how* of the program, two changes were made. First, a 3-week practicum was added early in the fall term to complement the existing 12-week practicum in the winter term, providing for more extensive and diverse teaching experience. In addition, a new course spanning all three semesters, named the Teacher Development Seminar, was created with the express purpose of helping to provide program coherence for candidates, both across courses and between courses and practicums. Little information is provided about how that course is designed to achieve that purpose, but a general sense of direction about a learner-centered pedagogy and the role of those teaching the course is indicated:

All three elements [theory, practice, and reflection] need to interact and teacher candidates need to be supported in making connections among the three. Hence, having an early field experience and an online reflective experience that allows students to make explicit connections among theory and experience provide context to foster the development of practical wisdom. The ability to make these explicit connections between theory and experience through reflection should be a focus of the practicum, according to Donald Schön (1987) in *Educating the Reflective Practitioner*. Reflective coaching and the relationship between the mentor and teacher candidate become critical in providing “a setting designed for the task of learning a practice . . . learn[ing] by doing” (Schön, 1987, p. 37). (Goodnough, 2010, p. 119)

Thus Memorial’s reform of program design focused primarily on more extensive practicum experience and more explicit attempts, through structure and pedagogy, to help candidates integrate theory and practice.

University of New Brunswick

Hirschhorn, Sears, and Rich (2009) report on the reform of teacher education programs that was implemented at UNB in the fall of 2008. The prompt for the reform was general dissatisfaction with the existing 2-year, 60-credit program (both concurrent and consecutive) that included one practicum of 15 weeks, a practicum that many students took only in their last semester of the program, making impossible any linkage with course work in the program. The Faculty of Education also faced a need to streamline course offerings in the light of declining staff numbers. Finally, reform was prompted by recommendations for improvement of teacher education in recent literature. The results of the reform process led to a change in the structure of the program to a 12-month, three-semester (fall to summer) program. However, the major changes occurred within the design of the program and these were based on two major principles.

The first principle embeds practicums within the program over the entire school year; practicums occur continuously throughout the school year and are linked with accompanying courses in each semester. In addition, practicum experiences are designed to increase gradually in responsibility and expectations. Table 1 indicates how the practicums are embedded within the program.

Table 1

Practicum periods in the reformed program at the University of New Brunswick

<i>Fall term</i>	<i>Winter term</i>	<i>Spring term</i>
Novice practicum, 2 weeks, beginning of school year	Monday practicum, Tuesday–Friday course work	Advanced practicum, 7 weeks, April and May
Monday practicum, Tuesday–Friday course work, including three required core courses		
Intermediate practicum, 3 weeks, mid-November to early December		

Practicum experiences total approximately 16 weeks. However, what seems equally important is the attempt to link candidates' teaching experiences with course work by linking course topics with candidates' teaching experiences and asking candidates to analyze their teaching experiences. It is also notable that candidates have a two-month period of education studies in June and July when they can consider issues in light of their 16 weeks of practicum experiences.

The second principle bases the organization of the program on the notion of communities of practice (Wenger, 1998), also referred to as professional learning communities. The program envisions a set of overlapping and intersecting learning communities both within the cohorts of teacher candidates placed in one school and across the university research community and the local school network. Thus UNB has made a major shift in program design and pedagogy in order to better integrate theory and practice for candidates. As well, they have broadened and made more complex the possible learning relationships across various communities associated with the program, the university, and the local professional community.

Ontario Institute for Studies in Education/University of Toronto

Unlike the preceding examples, Beck and Kosnik (2006) do not explore program design within the context of program reform. Rather, they explore the key characteristics of seven effective teacher education programs in the USA and Australia, as well as their own Mid-town cohort at OISE/UT, all characterized by socio-constructivist learning approaches. We include their scholarship here in order to analyze the well-established program design in which they work, and because they focus primarily on the all-important question of a pedagogy designed to foster integration of theory and practice, namely, a socio-constructivist learning process.

Beck and Kosnik work in a 9-month post-baccalaureate teacher education program (concurrent and consecutive) built around cohorts of approximately 65 teacher candidates. Each semester involves both course work and practicum and is staffed by a team of teacher educators: two cohort coordinators seconded from the school system, two tenured faculty members, and two or three part-time instructors who vary from year to year. Attempts are made to integrate theory and practice in all aspects of the cohort, including the overlapping of roles among team members.

While the design of each semester of the program is essential to their work, the strength of Beck and Kosnik's scholarship is their description and analysis of their fostering of a socio-constructivist learning process as teacher candidates move back and forth between practicum and course work in the cohort.

On our understanding, social constructivism is an approach that encourages all members of a learning community to present their ideas strongly, while remaining open to the ideas of others. It is a passionate approach, involving the whole person: thought, emotion, and action. It is not a relativistic outlook, where any position will do. Like Nuthall (2002) we believe that teacher input has a major role within a social constructivist framework. However, we also stress that students too must have a major role, with greater opportunity than they commonly have to give input, discuss, and reflect in class. (Beck & Kosnik, 2006, pp. 7–8)

They go on to elaborate some of the key characteristics of this process:

- Knowledge is constructed by learners.
- Knowledge is experience-based.
- Learning is social.

- All aspects of a person are connected.
- Learning communities should be inclusive and equitable. (pp. 9–14)

They present this approach of practice-and-theory in contrast to traditional approaches of transmission of information to teacher candidates for later application in practicum experiences.

Simon Fraser University

Within the context of program reform at SFU, MacKinnon (1993) proposes addressing policy problems by pursuing new practices in teacher education, particularly those that address the issue of the separation of theory and practice. In his analysis, the heart of that problem involves (1) a lack of understanding of the concept of reflective practice for teacher education and (2) institutional policies that divide practical experiences and academic study by dividing candidates' learning into courses and practicum experiences, conducting them at different times and in different places, assigning different staff to them, and so on.

At that time, the larger focus of program reform was how a 12-month, 3-semester, practice-based Professional Development Program (PDP) could better integrate with academic study within the rest of the 5-year B.Ed. degree at SFU. However, MacKinnon also examines the same issues of practice and theory within the PDP itself, which is structured as follows:

- The fall semester involves a 6-week immersion in schools of observation and practice teaching, which is complemented by seminars, workshops, and lectures on campus.
- The winter semester is composed largely of a 10-week extended immersion in schools, with phase-in and phase-out periods. Candidates take on increased teaching responsibility and expectations during the practicum.
- The summer semester is devoted to course work in both education and other disciplines.

Each module of the PDP is staffed by a team of teacher educators who work closely and flexibly together: associate teachers, faculty associates, coordinator, and a permanent faculty member. The result of that particular reform was to create a pre-PDP seminar and a post-PDP seminar to better integrate the PDP year within the rest of the B.Ed. program.

MacKinnon goes on to describe his experiences and efforts within his own PDP module as an example of developing practices in order to address the conceptual and policy problems that he had identified. In essence, he embedded the analysis and reflection of course work within the practical teaching experiences of candidates (even during the summer semester), contending that the major, foundational questions usually associated with course work can arise in this practice-based context as well. The difference, he contends, is the situated nature of the discussion, which allows for exploration of thought and action in a highly integrated fashion. Such approaches, he adds, often require radically different structures and working relationships among members of the module team.

As one approach to solving the policy problem of institutionally separating teaching practice from courses in education, my mind conjures images of groups of student teachers and their mentors working at each other's elbows in schools. To me, reflective practice is inherent in the expression and exchange of "knowledge-in-action" (Schön, 1983), or "craft knowledge in teaching" (Grimmett and MacKinnon, 1992). I see the education of teachers as an apprenticeship in practice, and I imagine a serious discussion

of education emerging in courses from a set of studio-like experiences. (MacKinnon, 1993, p. 261)

As a means of addressing the theory-practice gap in teacher education, MacKinnon proposes a more creative structuring and integration of teaching experiences and reflective analysis, as well as a unique kind of pedagogy to help candidates learn from their experiences. We include this 1993 study in our review of literature as a way of highlighting the enduring nature of this central question of the integration of theory and practice in teacher education and the attempts to address it through program design. In fact, MacKinnon's work still sounds not only contemporary but also progressive.

Queen's University

Thus far we have focused on the tension between theory and practice in teacher education program design and have reported examples from four universities where program design has changed in the direction of practice-and-theory as a means of addressing traditional ineffectiveness in teacher education programs. Program reform is complex and we believe it is also important to acknowledge examples of the failure of program reform so that those who attempt reform may be better prepared for its many challenges. We present here the attempt at reform at Queen's University in the late 1990s as a significant example of a practice-and-theory program design for teacher education, but also as an illustration of the difficulties of changing traditional teacher education practices.

After a pilot project with 60 teacher candidates in 1996–1997, the Queen's University B.Ed. program attempted a radically different program design for two years, 1997–1999. Candidates arrived a week before Labour Day, registered, paid fees, met professors and classmates, quickly explored ideas about lesson planning and classroom management, and then began their practicum placements on the first day of the school year. They felt like teachers, not guests, on that first day, and their students saw them as teachers, not short-term visitors. They remained at their school for the 16 weeks of the fall term, leaving only for a 2-week return to Queen's in October/November for intensive classes focused on their practicum experiences. Over the 4 months of the winter term they completed their courses as well as a short practicum placement and an alternate practicum in a non-school educational environment linked to one of their elective courses. In May, they consolidated their program experiences with 4 more weeks of teaching.

The major difference in this unusual design was the length and timing of first-hand teaching experience within the program. To introduce the new design and to receive suggestions, extensive consultations were conducted with associate teachers, principals, and teacher federations. Candidates were assigned in groups (at least 4, up to 15 or more) to associate schools where they were expected to meet as a group for 3 hours each week to explore assigned topics as well as issues arising from their school experiences. A new role of faculty liaison was created as a link between the university and each school. Faculty liaisons supervised the practicum and also taught a 36-hour course that included an action research project as a required assignment.

Gaining teaching experience for an extended period of time at the start of the program appeared to shift candidates from their familiar student identity to a strong sense of identity as a teacher. Associate teachers and associate schools varied in their responses to candidates beginning the practicum on the opening day of school. Some teachers were reluctant to have another adult present on the first day of the school year, while others welcomed the new structure for the obvious benefit of enabling candidates to see what happens on the first day of school as teachers introduce themselves to students and set up classroom routines.

While it appeared initially that most faculty members were enthusiastic about the new design, when the end of the first year arrived, some requested an opportunity to discuss their experiences of the new structure. By the end of an all-day retreat, it was clear that most did not want to continue the first-day-of-school start to the practicum. The new design continued for a second year as candidates had already been admitted for that design. While no data were collected from teacher candidates about their reactions to the innovative program structure, most seemed quite positive about beginning with teaching experience (Russell, 1998; Upitis, 2000).

When the innovative design was abandoned, program features such as placing candidates in schools in groups and having the faculty liaison teach a practicum-related course were retained. There was also an emphasis on earlier practicum experience, although not on the first day of school. In a return to a traditional approach to beginning a preservice program, education classes in 1999–2000 filled the month of September. The remainder of the first term provided a significant practicum period of 10 weeks, punctuated by 2-week return for classes. By 2012–2013, the length of the practicum in the first half of the program had been reduced first to 8 weeks and then to 6 weeks as practicum experience was apparently judged to be less important in the overall issue of program design.

The innovative program design enacted in 1997–1999 generated major tensions among faculty and those tensions were not easily resolved. Over time, retirements and hiring of new faculty and a new dean made it possible for the tensions to fade. Research and publication are major priorities, as is the graduate program, to which a Ph.D. program was added in the late 1990s. Some 15 years after that bold re-design, there is little discussion of research on preservice teacher education program design.

These experiences suggest that teacher educators have diverse and complex views of the nature and importance of learning from experience, the role of such learning in the development of a new teacher's professional identity and the importance of creating strong links between practicum experiences and the content of each and every education course. Teacher educators are naturally committed to the importance of the courses they teach, yet it is not an issue of one or the other; both courses and practicum experiences are essential and their relationship needs to be dynamic and carefully constructed and supported. Like those they teach, teacher educators have experience of many years as a student, learning how to teach by watching what teachers do. We learn more fully and deeply by observing than by reading and listening; changing what we have learned tacitly by watching tends to be challenged only by powerful first-hand experiences. Efforts to improve preservice teacher education program design need to heed these lessons.

Trends

Several general trends emerge from the preceding analysis of Canadian efforts to better integrate theory and practice with new program designs.

- Practicum experiences in these programs are extended somewhat and in various ways. Course work still predominates in these programs, at the expense of practicum, but by a relatively small proportion compared to most teacher education programs.
- Practicum experiences start early in a program and occur regularly throughout. Thus these programs edge a bit closer to a conceptual framework of practice-and-theory for program design. However, in a more traditional fashion, the responsibilities and expectations still grow gradually from practicum to practicum, as the length of the

practicums increases from fairly short to extended. Thus course work still tends to be front-end-loaded in relation to practicum placements.

- Course work tends to be scheduled in some concurrent fashion during semesters in which practicum experiences occur.
- Particular courses or seminars tend to be deliberately linked with practicum experiences, with the express purpose of helping candidates integrate theory and practice, though it is often not clear how that purpose is to be achieved.
- Less clear is the approach, or pedagogy, to be used in these targeted courses and seminars to help candidates learn from their teaching experiences and begin to integrate theory and practice. Those scholars who have addressed the issue propose a socio-constructivist or reflective-analytical approach, thus distinguishing their efforts from the offering of a typical course.

Conceptual Frameworks for Teacher Education Program Design

Frameworks for the design of teacher education programs and for professional programs generally fall into two major categories. Broadly speaking, programs can be grounded in technical rationality and a theory-into-practice perspective, or they can be based on reflective practice and a practice-and-theory perspective. Both familiar and common, technical rationality (critiqued in Schön, 1983) provides theories and maxims to apply in subsequent practicum placements. In contrast, reflective practice focuses on learning from experience, using theories to analyze practice in order to improve it. Korthagen (2001) provides a detailed discussion of a practice-and-theory program, in terms of both design and pedagogy. Schön's (1983) naming of reflective practice has led to the word *reflection* figuring prominently in many aspects of teacher education, yet the tradition of technical rationality that was the foundation of teacher education decades ago remains the foundation of most teacher education programs in Canada. We refer to these two sets of assumptions as *theory-into-practice* and *practice-and-theory*. These two approaches are based on very different assumptions about what those learning to teach already know and about the role of experience in the professional development of new teachers. The issue of purposes and sequencing of the practicum continues to be central in program design. Schön (1987) spoke directly to the issue of how the practicum is viewed in the development of professional learning:

Our view of the work of the practicum and the conditions and processes appropriate to it depends in part on our view of the kinds of knowing essential to professional competence. . . .

If we see professional knowledge in terms of facts, rules, and procedures applied nonproblematically to instrumental problems, we will see the practicum in its entirety as a form of technical training. It will be the business of the instructor to communicate and demonstrate the application of rules and operations to the facts of practice. . . .

If we see professional knowing in terms of "thinking like a" teacher, students will still learn relevant facts and operations but will also learn the forms of inquiry by which competent practitioners reason their way, in problematic instances, to clear connections between general knowledge and particular cases. . . .

If we focus on the kinds of reflection-in-action through which practitioners sometimes make new sense of uncertain, unique or conflicted situations of practice, then we will assume neither that existing professional knowledge fits every case nor that every problem has a right answer. We will see students as having to learn a kind of reflection-in-action that goes beyond storable rules—not only by devising new methods of reasoning, . .

. but also by constructing and testing new categories of understanding, strategies of action, and ways of framing problems. (Schön, 1987, pp. 38–39)

Table 2 summarizes our efforts to compare theory-into-practice and practice-and-theory in terms of underlying assumptions. These assumptions reveal differing perspectives on a view of professional practice (practical wisdom versus the application of scientific guidelines) and learning theory (Interpretation versus Transmission in the terminology of Barnes, 1976.)

Table 2
Comparing Perspectives on Teacher Education Design

	<i>Theory-into-practice perspective</i>	<i>Practice-and-theory perspective</i>
<i>What is the nature of teachers' knowledge?</i>	The knowledge candidates need in order to teach is propositional and its meaning can be comprehended without teaching experience.	A teacher's practical knowledge involves images, emotions, values, and experiences, as well as knowledge expressed in propositions. Theory cannot be fully understood without personal practicum experiences.
<i>What do teacher candidates already know about teaching?</i>	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.
<i>How strong are teacher candidates' educational values?</i>	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.
<i>How much experience does a new teacher require?</i>	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.
<i>Can candidates learn from their own experiences?</i>	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 mentor teachers, faculty, and other candidates.
<i>How does a new teacher improve as she or he gains experience?</i>	Candidates improve with experience as their mentor teachers provide practical tips for them to accumulate. (Some teachers view what is taught in education courses as impractical or unrealistic.)	As mentor 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.

While the practice-and-theory model of program design may sound unusual because few examples exist, it is receiving increasing attention, largely due to the limited effectiveness and continuing criticism of theory-into-practice designs. In the American context, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (2010) has issued a call to base reform of teacher education squarely on clinical experiences, or practicums. In so doing, the Council acknowledges that a major change of direction would be involved in such reform, referring to such a change as turning teacher education upside down.

The education of teachers in the United States needs to be turned upside down. To prepare effective teachers for 21st century classrooms, teacher education must shift away from a norm which emphasizes academic preparation and course work loosely linked to school-based experiences. Rather, it must move to programs that are fully grounded in clinical practice and interwoven with academic content and professional courses. (National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, 2010, p. ii)

Such arguments appear not to have attracted serious discussion among those working in Canadian teacher education programs.

Discussion of Enduring Questions and Issues

As we conclude, we highlight the enduring questions associated with program design in Canadian teacher education, particularly issues associated with theory and practice. By enduring questions we mean longstanding issues that remain open to debate today. For example, Allen's (1976) article, "Extending the Practicum: Problems in Integrating Theory and Practice," is eerily relevant to contemporary discussions about theory and practice in teacher education today.

Several aspects of changing contexts are directly related to the theory-practice issue. First, reduced public funding for universities has resulted in larger class sizes. Second, there is greater pressure on declining numbers of faculty to engage in research and publication, particularly with links to graduate programs. Finally, tenure-track faculty are playing reduced roles in teacher education programs, particularly by being withdrawn from supervision of practicum experiences, a change that seems likely to increase the separation of course work from practicum experiences.

Predominance of Theory-into-Practice Program Designs

Perhaps the most fundamental issue is the almost uniform use of a theory-into-practice design for Canadian teacher education programs. Many programs conclude with a major practicum experience, thereby avoiding opportunities to use such teaching experience for further analysis and development of candidates' theories-in-use. The designs of most Canadian teacher education programs appear to be historical rather than deliberate, driven by tradition rather than decision. Across Canada, with few exceptions, the similarities outweigh the differences, and most designs appear to involve assumptions similar to those that were embedded in teachers college programs decades ago. This observation raises the question of whether or not the various Canadian program revisions in recent years have dealt deliberately with the basic question of program design.

The uniformity of theory-into-practice design is problematic, given the extensive body of research that has documented the general ineffectiveness of such a design. Teacher candidates appear unable to use the theory-driven guidelines offered in their course work when they later engage in practicum experiences. Instead, candidates begin to teach as they were taught or they become

socialized into the typical practices of schools (Cole, 1997; Tigchelaar & Korthagen, 2004; Tillema, 1998). The evidence of these limitations to candidates' development in practicum experiences is longstanding (Zeichner & Tabachnik, 1981) and widespread (Clift & Brady, 2005; Wideen, Meyer-Smith, & Moon, 1998). The only exceptions to this general trend appear to be programs that can provide a high degree of coherence between the content of course work and the models provided by associate or cooperating teachers in their practice (Darling-Hammond, 2006). Clift and Brady's (2005) review of recent research on the extent to which teacher candidates actually implement in their student teaching the content of their on-campus methods courses reveals this challenging situation. They note that on-campus courses can influence students' thinking about practice, "but implementing practice based on beliefs is neither linear nor simple" (p. 15). The research they reviewed provided considerable evidence of the difficulty of moving from intention to action. Students resisted adopting teaching practices recommended by their programs if they found them difficult to implement or if the practices contradicted their existing beliefs and practices, even when their student teaching situation modeled the recommended practices.

Given the evidence of the general ineffectiveness of theory-into-practice designs, it seems imperative that such designs be questioned and that alternative designs, such as practice-and-theory, be considered carefully and deliberately in program reform. Such reform attempts would require extensive preparation and professional development on the part of teacher educators for implementation as well as evaluation of their outcomes. It is noteworthy that there is research evidence that indicates that course work in a teacher education program is generally more effective for students if they have had student teaching experience prior to or concurrently with course work (e.g., Baumgartner, Koerner, & Rust, 2002). It seems ironic that Canadian teacher education programs have liberally adopted the terms *reflection* and *reflective practitioner* (Schön, 1983), but decades later there is little evidence of attempts to create a *reflective practicum* (Schön, 1987, pp. 157–172).

Limited Role for the Practicum in Preservice Programs

Program design in Canadian teacher education programs seems not to recognize and acknowledge that, in addition to the familiar learning from research and experienced mentor teachers, learning from personal experience also plays a powerful role in learning to teach (Munby & Russell, 1994). Even for those programs that have increased the amount of practicum time, including earlier practicum experiences, course work still dominates the learning of teacher candidates during their preservice programs. Darling-Hammond's (2006) survey of exemplary teacher education programs in the USA led her to conclude that 30 weeks of practicum are minimal for an effective teacher education program, largely because of the complexity of learning to teach and the lengthy period of learning and unlearning involved in that process. Most Canadian programs offer 15 to 20 weeks of practicum, although some provide as little as 10 weeks; the Ontario minimum requirement of 8 weeks increased to 16 weeks in 2015 when a four-term program replaced the previous two-term requirement. Furthermore, many practicum placements are short (2 to 3 weeks up to 5 to 6 weeks at most). We found no Canadian program that met Darling-Hammond's recommendation of at least 30 weeks of practicum experience. The minimum practicum requirements mandated by ministries of education also tend to serve as maximum requirements. Not only does it seem important for programs to consider more extensive practicum placements, but also it seems equally important to develop strategies for helping candidates learn in a transformative way from their teaching experiences.

Lack of Scholarship on Program Design

One of the worrisome findings of this review concerns the limited amount of Canadian scholarship on the design of teacher education programs. Given that few other factors have a more significant influence on the development of teacher candidates' practice, it seems important that this topic be given more attention in research on Canadian teacher education. The scholarship of program design could investigate the conceptual frameworks of program design and the associated assumptions about learning to teach. It could also extend to issues of pedagogy designed to foster theory-practice integration, as well as the effectiveness and sustainability of alternative designs based on alternative perspectives such as practice-and-theory. A number of key questions about program design continue to endure and suggest a significant research agenda for Canadian teacher education.

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Chapter 10

FIELD EXPERIENCE IN CANADIAN INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION

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In Canada education is, beyond a school system, a provincial or territorial responsibility (Gambhir, Broad, Evans, & Gaskell, 2008). Ministries or departments of education make decisions, in consultation with all concerned parties (teacher regulatory and representation bodies, school boards and districts, faculties of education), concerning goals and standards for provincial or territorial teacher education programs. According to Hirschhorn, Kristmanson, and Sears (2013), this regional division of responsibilities in the education and teacher education domain is a specifically Canadian characteristic which results in a lack of discussion of these topics at the national level.

The multiplicity of responsibilities for teacher education in Canada is, without doubt, responsible for the fact that there are teacher education programs all across the country built on a range of different configurations (e.g., consecutive, concurrent, graduate, or sole degree models) and whose lengths may vary from 8 to 60 months (Van Nuland, 2011).

However, irrespective of differences in terms of orientations and configurations, all programs provide for a more or less extended period of practical teaching experience in a school setting (Falkenberg & Young, 2010). These supervised practical experiences, ranging in length from 8 to 24 weeks (Falkenberg & Young, 2010; Gambhir et al., 2008; Van Nuland, 2011), are locally organized by the responsible faculties of education with varying degrees of collaboration with local school systems and along varying notions of professional knowledge development necessary for the achievement of practical competence. Despite these disparities, a more deeply anchored conviction is emerging that the ability of student teachers to effectively respond as teachers is built gradually through interactions with pupils (Cusset, 2011). The quality of practical experience in an authentic school context has a direct impact on the quality of initial teacher education. Finally, the supervised practicum is an excellent way to help future teachers to become familiar with the functioning of schools and classrooms, as well as to mitigate the shock resulting from the daily reality of schools (OECD, 2005).

Based on an extensive body of Canadian, but also international, written documentation in both French and English, this chapter addresses the issue of the practicum in teacher education in Canada. Firstly, it proposes a critical perspective on the place, the function, and the trends of the supervised practicum in learning to become a teacher. Secondly, it explores how program coherence is realized,

despite the constraints imposed by the institutional and geographic distances of practicums and the shared responsibilities for the practicum among different categories of mentors, more or less involved in teacher education programs. Finally, in addition to describing the reality of placement and the supervision of student teachers, it highlights the main challenges linked to it.

The Place and Function of the Practicum in Learning How to Teach

Where does practical experience fit into teacher education? Basically, it has been acknowledged by many researchers (Gervais & Desrosiers, 2005; Malo, 2011; Martin & Russell, 2011; Smits, 2010; Tardif & Lessard, 1999) that the practicum represents the experience whose contribution is the most important to the development of teaching competency. This educational activity provides, above all, first-hand contact with meaningful dimensions of professional practice. It is believed that it is through this channel that the candidate develops his or her capacity to mobilize, to combine, and to adapt a variety of resources to properly respond to situations that he or she may face in teaching contexts.

Pepel (1989) proposes to imagine the practicum as a transitional area because it consists, on the one hand, of an intermediate experience zone between the world of ideas and the world of work and, on the other hand, of an opportunity to confront the reality of daily work with all its requirements and constraints without being entirely subject to it, and also because it allows the student teacher to progressively adopt an updated perspective of the teaching profession. McGregor, Sanford, and Hopper (2010, p. 302) even present teaching practicum “as a disruptive rather than normalizing strategy for learning about the processes of teaching.” Therefore practicum should be seen as an opportunity to alter even the more firmly anchored conceptions and as a set of experiments which holds significant potential for transformation, providing the student teacher is open to it. However, the student teacher’s engagement in this transitional area sometimes seems to be a test far more than a personal and professional learning time (Dobbins, 1996). Indeed, it has consistently been observed that some student teaching experiences cause discomfort, fatigue, and confusion, as candidates struggle to reconcile different perceptions between the school context and the university context (Bullock & Russell, 2010; Desbiens, Borges, & Spallanzani 2012; Kosnik, 2009; Le Cornu & Ewing, 2008). For that matter, some studies (Mayen, 2007) invite teacher training program designers to think carefully about the fact that skills acquisition does not automatically follow extensive exposure to work-related situations, and that confrontation with these latter carries important constraints for student teachers. They even suggest that simulation-based training is more appropriate for developing a mastery of certain classes of work-related situations than authentic teaching-learning situations.

However, it is only in the manner that the practicum is conceptually aligned and positioned within a teacher education program that different visions of its role in teacher education are revealed. One vision involves first learning theory, and thereafter applying it in practice. In this way the practicum is a place to apply knowledge and theories acquired outside of the school working environment. This approach corresponds to what Schön (1994) calls “technical rationality” or to what Martinet, Gauthier, and Raymond (2001) name “scientistic utopia” transposed to teaching. This conception of teacher education occurs against a backdrop of education’s place within a hierarchy of prestige of scientific disciplines, as well as the pressure on faculties of education to establish their cognitive legitimacy with other university faculties that provide knowledge used in education sciences (Young & Boyd, 2010). It also reflects important and irreducible differences in culture between universities and schools that strongly mark the relationships among research on teaching, teacher education, and teaching in a school context. Practicum experiences stemming from such a

conception are characterized by a number of problems (see Foster, Wimmer, Winter & Snart, 2009; Ralph, 2010):

1. Field experiences are planned and carried out with no apparent link to other components of the teacher education program.
2. Practicum experiences are not always contextualized or built upon empirical research findings.
3. A large gap exists between what is currently being done in university courses and the daily routines of schools where practicums take place.
4. There is a lack of appropriate communication and cooperation among the various partners responsible for the implementation of practicums.
5. There are not always clear, explicit, and consistent supervision models to guide mentorship of practicums.

How can one consider the viability of the approach "theory first and then practice" when future teachers see theory as unnecessary (MacDonald, 2010; Martin & Russell, 2005)? In the current context of teacher education being incorporated into the university and of the trend toward the professionalization of teaching, renouncing our attempts to enhance our theoretical explanation of teaching seems neither feasible nor desirable. On the contrary, it would, without a doubt, be appropriate to review the way theoretical knowledge is brought up and staged with a view to give more concrete meaning to it and facilitating its transfer into action (Perrenoud, 2004; Piot, 2008).

An alternative way to embed the practicum in a teacher education program has taken shape notably with the advent of the competency-based approach and the trend towards the professionalization of teaching, both of which have promoted the dynamic and iterative nature of the development of teaching competency. This conception of initial teacher education claims that field experience is also involved in the acquisition and construction of professional knowledge and therefore proposes to engage students earlier in practicum in their programs. It proves necessary to reframe teacher education practices in university in such a way that they focus more on student teachers' professional learning during practicum, and on how they give sense to that experience (Martin & Russell, 2005). Within this framework, ways of articulating and connecting courses and practical training, as well as their position and sequence within the teaching program, need to be revisited. In the logic of what can best be called an alternation between practicum and courses, there is evidence of a real concern for linking the dynamics of skills development, of sustainable integration of professional learning experiences, and of identity development. This conception has been increasingly promoted through numerous teaching program reforms over the past two decades in North America and in the rest of the world.

However, alternation is not free of tensions, since the future teacher faces various requirements, sometimes even contradictory, posed by a diversity of educators maintaining more or less close links with the teacher education program (Kaddouri & Vandroz, 2008). Alternation doesn't represent an insurance against the adoption, on the part of teacher educators, of a fragmented vision of the process of knowledge and identity building in teachers, as each one acts in only one area of the teacher education process. It is also unclear how alternation has helped base professional identity on research-based evidence and education guidelines rather than on an array of personal qualities corresponding to an idealized or romantic or traditional representation of the profession.

These few reservations about teaching practice and the manner in which it is embedded in initial teacher training should continuously stimulate reflection on this process, its effectiveness and limits but we believe these reservations do not negate the favorable aspects of a professional program rooted in the practice of the profession. A thorough knowledge of this practice and of its

numerous variations on the basis of the diversity of the contexts covered remains essential when it comes to offer learning conditions oriented towards the attainment of initial teacher practice output profiles that are properly targeted, realistic, and acknowledged by all trainers.

Fragmentation, Sharing of Responsibility, and Quest for Coherence in Pre-service Teacher Education and Evaluation

An increasing proportion of credits and, hence, of professional training time devoted to practical experiences in contact with senior practitioners during the practicum periods distributed throughout a program is one of the most striking features in any professional education (Falkenberg, 2010). A prerequisite for the success of such education is that education institutions, instructors, and school environments work in close collaboration when it comes to achieving meaningful learning, and take better account of the component of professional identity.

Collaboration among mentors of varied educational settings and identification of key guidelines are central conditions to the effectiveness of teacher education programs (Desjardins, 2012; Hirschhorn & Kristmanson, 2009; Woloshyn, Chalmers, & Bosack, 2005). These conditions contribute to build a sense of continuity in training, so crucial to the quality of a learning experience (Dewey, 1968). In this regard, however, researchers' results, such as Falkenberg's (2010), are mixed and rather suggest that continuity and coherence still need to be built within teacher education.

First, it turns out that the very mission of initial teacher education itself has been a bone of contention: for practitioners, it should greatly facilitate integration into school practices, while university educators instead aim for the transformation of educational practices (Field, 2008; Grimmett, 1995; Solomon, Manoukian, & Clarke, 2007). Furthermore, classroom practices have little influence on university courses and, conversely, there are limited academic contributions to student teachers' integration into the school milieu and to their teaching practices.

Second, university instructors are nearly absent from practicum supervision (Bullock & Russell, 2010; Foster et al., 2010; Mulholland, Nolan, & Salm, 2009). Would it be different if they were more involved? Maybe, but this would not completely erase the fact that "courses and practicums obey different logics, rarely reconciled; practicum focuses on a context-sensitive logic, but courses on a conceptual logic" (Desjardins, 2012, p. 33).

Given these problems, different ways to meet the challenges of establishing a greater sense of continuity and coherence would require including school partners within teacher education programs in order to fulfill specific missions linked to the education of future teachers, as is the case, for instance, at Simon Fraser University. There, the people responsible for teacher training have managed to incorporate in their program a professional development plan for active teachers since they are directly involved, as faculty associates, not only in the accompaniment and supervision of student teachers in class, but also in the organization of training courses and the conducting of seminars (Wassermann, 2009). Closer links can also be developed with preferred school partners and professional development schools. In this regard, experiments conducted by research teams active in school environments (Buzza, Kotsopoulos, Mueller, & Johnston, 2010; Cody, Gagnon, Laperrière, & Marchand, 2009; Lemisko & Ward, 2009) seem to have been successful among student teachers and cooperative teachers. These programs sought to promote an extended immersion of trainees in schools and fostered linkages between theory and practice through a constant dialogue between university administrators and school staff.

In the wake of initiatives aimed at bringing universities and training environments together, MacDonald (2010), professor at Prince Edward Island University, has explored the spin-offs of the

relocation of his on-campus science methods class to a high school in the vicinity. He points out that this two-semester course, outside practical training hours, has sought to weaken the divide between theory and practice. This training experience, carried out with a small number of volunteer student teachers and teachers, has allowed the former to more fully benefit from the expertise and practical resources of the latter, as well as to quickly notice the effects of planned lessons given to real pupils in real classrooms. It has also underlined the need to take greater account of logistical issues, especially those related to travel, as well as the need for planning a more formal collaboration between trainees and teachers. And it has brought forward that the period elapsed between the university training and the practical training may impede the full integration of theoretical knowledge.

Findings from this study assert that the time-lag between when university course work is conducted and pre-service teacher practicum is experienced may not support theoretically-based coursework learnings and experiences. The pressure for pre-service teachers to conform to the practicum norms and procedures may be too dominant, and therefore result in coursework learning and practices being lost. (MacDonald, 2010, p. 273)

In spite of their respective merits, all these measures intended to increase coherence in initial teacher training are not panaceas, since experience shows that the challenge these measures face is to survive the departure of their idea man or the end of their funding period. To build a sense of continuity and coherence requires constantly returning to certain factors likely to generate effective collaborative educational practices (Elliott & Woloshyn, 1997; Richards, Elliott, Woloshyn, & Mitchell, 2001; Woloshyn et al., 2005;), such as the building of good inter-professional relationships, the identification of common objectives leading to the establishment of a common vision of the nature of learning that should be acquired (Martin & Russell, 2011), the negotiation of tasks, the support to the permanence of commitment, and the satisfaction of partners in regard to the collaborative process.

Assessing student teachers' competencies is a particularly sensitive aspect of professional education, marked by various mentoring roles and the distribution of responsibilities. This sensitivity is further heightened in the absence of a common frame of reference, especially when this latter is not sufficiently cohesive, institutionalized, or inter-subjectively shared and, as shown by Jobin (2010), when this framework meets strong resistance from various categories of mentors in practicum.

That search for coherence challenges, first and foremost, university instructors who find it difficult to agree on content for teacher education programs. For instance, reflective practice, although currently one of the dominant paradigms in teacher education, does not have unanimous support. Some authors (Boudreau, 1999; Calderhead, 1989; Russell, 1988) question the importance granted to it during teacher education, arguing that not all students are ready for such a demanding endeavour. Others, such as Guillemette and Gauthier (2008), rather stress that education can only be worthwhile if it is conducted within the context of an integrative approach of reflective practice while, in the same vein, Pastré (quoted in Mayen, 2007) believes that one learns less by the actual exercise of the activity than through its analysis.

The issue of coherence also pertains, in various ways, to associate teachers' choices and practices in schools. For example, certain competencies whose development is explicitly targeted in a teacher education program are not evaluated by associate teachers. Caron and Portelance (2012) have notably observed that some teachers place emphasis on the development of skills linked to the teaching act to the detriment of other skills, such as reflective practice. Associate teachers, unaccustomed to formalizing the knowledge of their practice and to connecting it to knowledge arising from research, are reluctant to help student teachers to do so. Likewise, Rowe and Kenny

(2010) have noticed that despite a great amount of time devoted to learning how to plan lessons, student teachers participating in their study demonstrated very poor skills in performing this task during their practicum. For their part, Borges and Séguin (2013) have found a low use of reference material provided by universities to assist associate teachers with the assessment of student teachers, and an insufficient taking on of criteria and indicators used to evaluate student teachers' teaching. This finding, in turn, raises important questions concerning what supports associate teachers' judgment about the actual abilities of student teachers.

Not surprisingly, the evaluation of the degree of development of student teachers' professional competencies during practicum is emerging as one of the most sensitive issues, given the fact that programs exercise a very limited degree of control over the nature of experiences during practicum. There is no strong consensus on what constitutes good teaching, nor on the indicators which would allow us to objectify it (Clarke & Jarvis-Selinger, 2005; Hinchey, 2010). Hence, there is, for the associate teacher, an irreducible conflict between formative evaluation in which, through his general observations, feedback, and support, he seeks to help the student teacher to grow professionally; and summative evaluation where, according to the policies of training institutions, he must make both a final and prospective judgment as to the degree of attainment of training objectives and as to the student teacher's potential to successfully address the identified challenges. The guidance process is not really formalized and varies considerably according to the contexts and the people involved.

Realities and Challenges of the Choice of Practicum Placements and of the Supervision¹ of Student Teachers

In Canada, universities are responsible for designing teacher education programs in accordance with provincial laws and requirements of accreditation bodies. Despite a broad acceptance across universities of a discourse surrounding the professionalization of teaching—either its hard version founded on the learning of scientific knowledge and the so-called “evidence-based practice” (Bissonnette, Gauthier, & Péladeau, 2010) or one of its softer versions, in particular that of the “reflective practitioner” (Malo, 2008) or that of professional learning within a community of practice (Wenger, 2002)—and despite the adoption, at least in some provinces such as Québec, of a competency-based approach, the organization of teacher education through a practicum in a school setting has changed little in thirty years (Rivard, Beaulieu, & Caspani, 2009). It almost always adopts the same pattern in which short or long episodes of actual teaching practice follow periods of theoretical education. It involves the same actors: a student teacher, an associate teacher who welcomes him or her into the classroom, a university supervisor who visits him or her at school for a classroom observation, feedback on teaching performance, and evaluation (Falkenberg, 2010;

¹ Note that in French, the notion of “*accompagnement*” has been added gradually to that of supervision. According to Lafortune and Deaudelin (2001): “*accompagnement* is a new word that expands the concept of ‘training’ or ‘coaching’ to encompass support that individuals receive in learning situations so that they may progress in the construction of their knowledge” (p. 199). Lafortune, Lepage, Persechini, and Aitken (2009) add,

In a socio-constructivist theoretical context, it includes the notion of interaction with one's peers and has as its aim to activate prior experiences, give rise to socio-cognitive conflict, make the most of any such conflict that arises in discussion, construct in action, track down erroneous conceptions, and profit from self-awareness arising from certain constructions. (p. 1)

Gervais & Desrosiers, 2005; Mulholland et al., 2009). Some programs might request that the school principal participates in the evaluation process. Sometimes meetings in the form of seminars, works of reflection, or other assignments can be added to this list.

If a careful selection of the persons accompanying student teachers in their first steps as teachers seems essential (Buzza et al., 2010; Caron & Portelance, 2012; Desjardins, 2012; Lepage & Gervais, 2013), a confrontation with the daily reality of practicum management forces the persons in charge to constantly negotiate the criteria used to select practicum supervisors and cooperative teachers. For example, it may not always be possible to find at precisely the right moment a sufficient number of cooperative teachers with enough experience in teaching (usually five years of experience) to take in all student teachers. Thus the practicum team sometimes has to choose to place trainees with less experienced teachers even if that means greater support from a university supervisor. It may also be necessary to cope with associate teachers who don't work full-time or don't have a full teaching load within a given discipline (i.e. a 60% load in physical education supplemented by a 40% load in second language). These particularities require changes within the intended initial framework of the practicum. As shown by Clarke and Jarvis-Selinger (2005), some programs support specific views on teaching. These can bring training placement personnel to primarily identify and select associate teachers whose perspectives on learning the profession correspond to those promoted by their program, a practice which substantially reduces the pool of available resources.

The placement of student teachers in pairs is frequently used to compensate for the unavailability of productive and supportive practicum settings, but it can also be a deliberate pedagogical choice. Indeed, Grierson, Cantalini-Williams, Wideman-Johnston, and Tedesco (2011), drawing on results of numerous studies, propose that student teachers should work in dyads with one associate teacher in order to develop their ability to collaborate and to foster mutual learning. Researchers claim that the total benefits of the formula proposed clearly outweigh any inconvenience such as incompatibility or competition between the two student teachers. Goodnough, Osmond, Dibbon, Glassman, and Stevens (2009) rely, for their part, on the concept of *legitimate peripheral participation*, developed by Wenger (2002) to bring out the advantages of placing student teachers in dyads so as to foster their professional growth and their understanding of the educational environment.

Practicum, for functional reasons, is often carried out in the vicinity of the university. There are different reasons for that, but the study of Ralph, Walker, and Wimmer (2010) points out that many teacher education programs don't offer suitable learning conditions, or at least sufficiently diversified conditions, to enable future teachers to be well prepared to intervene in contexts made even more demanding because of pupils specific needs, heterogeneous cultural and linguistic characteristics of the clientele, or quite simply the remoteness of the schools. This fact and the consequences thereof may penalize student teachers from rural or remote areas or those who may be interested in experiencing a different teaching context. It can also work against concerned communities who, therefore, do not have the opportunity to develop expertise in student teachers supervision, and which, in addition, generally have difficulty recruiting candidates.

Wishing to recognize the needs of rural or remote regions, some programs have attempted to address this problem by relocating university courses and university instructors to rural areas, or by developing the use of information and communication technologies (ICT) if the practicum is carried out in a remote area (Falkenberg, 2010; Pellerin, 2010). Greater access to ICT and the flexibility of their use are certainly major assets still underexploited. For example, on-line communication platforms can be used to supervise student teachers, conduct virtual synchronous or asynchronous group discussions, give practicum seminars (Pellerin & Araujo-Olivera, 2012), or provide specific feedback to a student teacher after having watched a digital video-file electronically transmitted a few hours earlier. Research carried out by Karsenti and Collin (2011) with trainees shows the positive

impact of viewing video excerpts about classroom management as a modality for distance self-directed learning on the sense of personal efficacy of student teachers.

The importance of the role that associate teachers play in the practicum is unanimously acknowledged. Some research findings reaffirm their “pivotal role” (Broad & Tessaro, 2010; Roland, 2010), whereas others have dubbed them “the most significant other” (Funk, Long, Keithley, & Hoffman, 1982).

The model of supervision of student teachers by well-rounded professional teachers seems entirely appropriate. However, it contains some pitfalls, most often reported by the actors themselves (Caron & Portelance, 2012; Desbiens, Borges, & Spallanzani, 2009). They are well aware of the heavy responsibility placed on their shoulders, since they become for the student teacher a model, a mentor, even an idealized version of the profession. Ill-equipped to undertake this support work, left on their own, and relying on their intuitions to provide guidance to student teachers and to manage the day-to-day operations of the practicum, many even redefine the practicum according to their own criteria (Gosselin, 2005). If some supervising teachers contribute substantially to the development of student teachers’ pedagogical reflection, others may go as far as restricting them in their pedagogical initiatives and their willingness to undertake critical reflection.

Portelance’s research (2010) confirms certain findings, showing that many associate teachers do not consider themselves as teacher educators, but feel they are on the same level as their student teachers, providing assistance each in their own way according to their own criteria and their personal frame of reference. This results in a field experience where modeling and imitation become paths for learning, regardless of the theoretical education previously received and, sometimes, even without openness to experimenting with new models of teaching, thus fostering the status quo rather than innovation. Feedback may be limited to technical elements, related to day-to-day class management questions, or related to other matters of an administrative nature (Cherian, 2007; Gervais & Correa Molina, 2005). This model, which values associate teachers’ experiential knowledge, can, and often will, cause a washing out of the theoretical education deemed more cumbersome than useful by the student teacher.

In light of the above, the practicum is conceived as an area for professional development, not only for student teachers, but also for the associate teachers who accompany them during their stay in school (Correa Molina, 2011). Moreover, the dynamics created between the student teacher and his or her professional community—made up of the associate teacher, of other members of the school team, and of the university supervisor—carries great potential for a real pooling of professional development opportunities (Correa Molina & Gervais, 2011).

As other players in the practicum, university supervisors are often recruited from a pool of retired teachers, doctoral students, or school administrators. Familiar with school practices, they have, however, a limited understanding of what is undertaken and conveyed within the program (Bullock & Russell, 2010). It is even more paradoxical that these supervisors are supposed to be the guardians of the orthodoxy of the teacher education program. Acting at the interface between theoretical and practical learning (Gervais & Desrosiers, 2005), they assume variable roles of observers, resource persons, and mediators. They look critically at the practicum experience and participate in the final evaluation (Cherian, 2007; MÉLS, 2008; Ralph, 2000). The real contribution of the university supervisor varies according to his or her ability to help the student teacher link together various knowledge. He or she can play a complementary or rupturing role, depending on the extent of the gap between the associate teacher’s and the student teacher’s perception of practice (Gervais & Desrosiers, 2005).

The viability of this dual supervision, by a field teacher and a university supervisor, requires an agreement, some coordination, and collaboration among all partners (Martin & Russell, 2011; MÉLS, 2008). The absence of a shared vision regarding goals and means of the practicum runs counter to

the spirit of co-mentoring among the members of the triad. This is especially counterproductive when the student teacher experiences difficulties or runs the risk of failing (Chudleigh & Gibson-Gates, 2010; Desbiens & Spallanzani, 2013; Lepage & Gervais, 2013). The ultimate viability of this collaborative effort further asks that first- and second-line mentors for the practicum share a common view of teacher education in several key areas.

The wide variety of settings and clientele in the school context, as well as the diversity of pedagogical projects, add further complexity to the task of the accompanying mentor, whether associate teacher or university supervisor (Gervais & Desrosiers, 2005). The supervision of an adult in the context of professional development is a very different task than teaching children or teenagers. It requires specific skills (Desbiens et al., 2009; Falkenberg, 2010): extensive knowledge of university programs and of the goals of the practicum; observation, feedback, and evaluation techniques; ability to promote reflective practice; establishment of a helping relationship supportive of risk-taking; demonstration of an ethical attitude; etc. These skills are among the many areas in which the supervising mentor must develop new professional competencies, since a good teacher isn't necessarily a good teacher educator (Portelance, 2009; Volante, 2006). Chosen for his or her expertise in teaching, mastery of professional competencies, and openness to others (MÉLS, 2008; Roland, 2010), he or she must assume a brand new identity, that of teacher educator.

As a result, a number of diverse approaches to professional development for associate teachers or university supervisors have arisen. This trend could include formal university courses related to the supervision of novices (Foster et al., 2009) or targeted activities within the context of professional development schools (Buzza et al., 2010) or of professional development centers (Falkenberg, 2010). This trend also applies to the program contextual supervision (Ralph, 2000), which targets a systematic learning of skill sets required to be a mentor, whether a practising teacher or a faculty-based educator. These initiatives reveal the significance of valuing the task of supervision, through the sharing of expertise among all professionals who help define the teaching profession.

In Québec, the management of educating practicum mentors is left to the universities which are directly involved "in the ever-increasing professional culture of teaching" (MÉLS, 2008, p. 21). Development programs for associate teachers on major topics regarding supervision are proposed by university officials and offered to school boards. More recently, an inter-university working group presented a frame of reference for the education of mentors of student teachers (Portelance, Gervais, Lessard & Beaulieu, 2009), which delineates competencies considered desirable for associate teachers and university supervisors. Born out of consultations in various contexts, this document sets forth concrete proposals that can serve as a guide for harmonization of different educational programs for the supervision of student teachers.

Conclusion

Canadians expect a lot from their teachers, maybe more than ever before. As the OECD (2005) has pointed out, the range of expectations that they are called upon to fulfill has grown dramatically. Based on the assumption that professional situations constitute conditions for professional development, experiencing supervised practicums emerges as a way to better prepare future teachers.

The design of this activity and its wide implications was, and still is, greatly influenced by the university's dominant epistemology. It is only fairly recently that, driven by a movement of the

professionalization of teaching and the advent of third-generation² competency-based-approaches in the same field, other means of conceptualizing the contribution and place of the practicum have been considered. None of these changes have come about without creating tensions within initial teacher education programs that must, at times, meet both the university's requirements and the school's concrete demands (Young & Boyd, 2010). This is doubtlessly the fate of a majority of professional programs.

Due to this momentum, the center of gravity of initial teacher education programs is tending to gradually reposition itself in favor of a greater share of supervised practical experiences in school settings. These movements affect not only the configuration of these programs, but also their very epistemological foundations. Small-scale discernible trends based on isolated initiatives accentuate this repositioning by proposing to re-examine the traditionally accepted sequence of educational experiences and to reinforce even more teacher education repositioning towards the school environment.

These repositioning movements, however, represent tremendous challenges in terms of the coherence of teacher education programs and the sequence of learning within them. Among other examples, one challenge, within the context of an increasing diversity of roles in teacher education (such as professors, lecturers, university supervisors, associate teachers) who sometimes find themselves on the outskirts of the program, is the difficulty of creating a shared vision of initial teacher education and a clear profile of the kind of teacher to be developed. Another example is the challenge of the sharing of frames of reference and of a knowledge base on teacher education, as well as on teacher know-how.

The challenges identified above testify to the difficulty that, even some twenty-odd years after the onset of the last reformist wave in initial teacher education, the different actors involved encounter in initiating and nurturing a renewed community dialogue on the work of teaching, the teaching career, and the conditions of its professionalization. Furthermore, despite the wishes expressed, the requirements laid down, and the praiseworthy efforts made, the distance between universities and school environments does not seem to have diminished over the years. Two solitudes? How is it that student teachers and associate teachers still view theoretical teacher education as useless? Why do not, still today, regular professors involve themselves in the practicum, whether it be in supervision or in research? Why is the recognition of the importance and the continuous professional development of those charged with the practical development of student teachers within school settings so difficult to achieve?

As mentioned previously in this chapter, some up-front work remains to be done in program design, as well as in pedagogical approaches, in order to make theoretical education more relevant to teaching candidates. The practicum itself must be reassessed, as much in its claims and its effective range as for the development of teacher identity and teaching skills. It must also be reassessed in its form as well as in the closeness of its links with other aspects of teacher education programs. To what do we aspire in terms of initial teacher education? How and under what conditions can

² In the third-generation competency-based approach, it is assumed that competencies will develop in the course of working experience rather than on the fringes of it. This explains, amongst other things, why a heavy emphasis is put on practical training in authentic contexts. Furthermore, this version of the skills approach expresses the need to look at the fact that any professional practice mobilizes representation and conceptualization, judgment, values, knowledge, decision-making in a context of uncertainty, confrontation with existing theories, and the use of scientific research results. As we understand it, the teacher becomes competent through knowledge and reference frameworks acquisition, but mainly through the exercise of the profession, whether in practical training or in the world of work (Guillemette & Gauthier, 2011).

supervised practicums significantly contribute to the professional development of candidates? What role can research play for the practicum?

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Chapter 11

THE PEDAGOGY OF CANADIAN INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION

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To become a teacher in K–12 schools in Canada, individuals must complete a teacher preparation program, earning an education degree, followed by certification by a provincial body. While this may seem like a straightforward process, it is not, considering the many complexities associated with learning to teach. Several challenges have been identified in the literature for those who are learning to teach, namely, teacher candidates (e.g., Darling-Hammond, 2006a). One of these challenges is the “apprenticeship of observation” (Lortie, 1975). After many years of schooling as students themselves, teacher candidates often bring preconceptions about K–12 teaching and learning that may hinder their development of new ideas and concepts related to teaching and learning in classrooms. Another challenge, described by Kennedy (1999), involves the enactment gap. New teachers need to be able to take their beliefs, intentions, and new understandings and translate them into classroom practice. However, intentions and what is desired may not match what teacher candidates can actually do in classrooms. A third challenge in learning to teach involves the ability to integrate many kinds of knowledge and skills in order to design inclusive learning environments for all students (see Jackson, 1974). The challenges associated with learning to teach have implications for teacher candidates, teacher educators, and all those involved in teacher preparation, and hence for the design and pedagogy of teacher preparation programs.

To reflect a growing body of evidence about how people learn (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000; Lave & Wenger, 1998) and how to best prepare teachers for the complexities of today’s classrooms (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Crocker & Dibbon, 2008; Darling-Hammond & Bransford 2005), many teacher preparation programs nationally and internationally are undergoing renewal or reform. This renewal/reform reflects a perspective that learning to teach cannot be addressed by solely adopting a theory-into-practice approach. In other words, teacher candidates cannot be expected to develop the necessary knowledge, skills, and dispositions to be effective teachers by learning about theories and concepts in university courses and then transferring this knowledge to the practical settings of classrooms (Ben-Peretz, 1995; Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006). In a traditional approach to teacher preparation, the propositional knowledge or knowing-that and knowing-why (Fenstermacher, 1986) generated in academic disciplines is transmitted through academic theories in course work (theory) and teacher candidates are then expected to apply those theories and routines appropriately in practice. Recent research has shown that the theory first and application to practice later has not been effective in preparing teacher

candidates (Grossman, 2008; Veenman, 1984; Wideen, Mayer-Smith, & Moon, 1998). Reform and renewal efforts are moving towards adopting teacher preparation practices that allow teacher candidates to consider knowledge (theory) and acting in an integrated manner (Cook & Brown, 1999; Grossman, Hammerness, & McDonald, 2009; McDonald, Kazemi, & Kavanaugh, 2013; Zeichner, 2012) such that there is a focus on understanding how teacher candidates learn, what they learn, and the conditions under which optimal learning can occur as they learn to teach.

This new emphasis is reflected in literature and research of several scholars. For example, Korthagen et al. (2006) identified the effective features of teacher preparation in Australia, Canada, and the Netherlands, generating a set of principles to guide the development of “responsive teacher preparation programs that make a difference” (p. 1020). These principles suggest that in designing teacher preparation programs, teacher candidates need to understand their roles as both learners of learning and learners of teaching; become knowledge-creators and not just users of others’ knowledge; have opportunities to “experience teaching practice being constructed and deconstructed” (p. 1029); engage in student teacher research; work closely with peers in their teacher preparation programs; work in a context in which schools, universities, and teacher candidates are closely connected; and be exposed to effective modelling of teaching and learning approaches by their professors.

Korthagen and his colleagues (Korthagen, 2001; Lunenberg & Korthagen, 2009) used the notions of practical wisdom and realistic teacher education in conceptualizing teacher education. They view practical wisdom as “perceptual knowledge” where “knowledge” is not understood as propositional knowledge that can be written down and told, but as knowledge that underlies a teacher’s responding with practical wisdom in concrete teaching situations (Kessels & Korthagen, 1996, p. 20). Practical wisdom is informed by rules and generalizations (theory), but not as something to be applied or enacted, but as a guide for making decisions in the actual act of perceiving the relevant particularities of a concrete situation and connecting those to past experiences. In this view of teacher candidate knowledge and practice, realistic teacher education is built on the problems teacher candidates “experience and the concerns they develop through the practical experiences” (Korthagen, 2001, p. 38). Hence, program courses and experiences are not designed to teach formal theory, but rather to work with the specific concerns, questions, and problems teacher candidates bring from their school-based and life experiences.

Another practice-oriented approach is reflected in the work of teacher educators/researchers who are advocating that a set of core practices for K–12 teaching guide teacher preparation (Grossman et al., 2009; Reid, 2011). While a set of core practices is still being developed and negotiated (Franke, Grossman, Hatch, Richert, & Schultz, 2006; Kazemi & Hintz, 2008; Kazemi, Lampert, & Ghouseini, 2007; Sleep, Boerst, & Ball, 2007), some of the criteria for establishing core practices include:

- practices that occur with high frequency in teaching;
- practices that novices can enact in classrooms across different curricula or instructional approaches;
- practices that novices can actually begin to master;
- practices that allow novices to learn more about students and about teaching;
- practices that preserve the integrity and complexity of teaching; and
- practices that are research based and have the potential to improve student achievement.

The intent of this “core practices” approach is not to prescribe a lock-step approach to teacher education. Instead, these authors argue that “as a field we would benefit from a simple framework, applicable across contexts, that would allow us to learn with and from one another.” According to McDonald et al. (2013, p. 381), the “core-practices” approach is premised on notions of situated learning, collective participation, learning as process, and guided support. Appropriate scaffolding is provided as teacher candidates move from controlled settings of learning (e.g., examining videos of teaching), to designed settings (e.g., methods courses offered in schools), to authentic settings (e.g., co-teaching and sharing among teachers, teacher educators, and teacher candidates).

Establishing newer visions for teacher education and how to best support teacher candidates as they learn to teach (as described above) has implications for the policies and practices that eventually are adopted and enacted in teacher preparation programs. Korthagen (2004) stated that in developing holistic approaches to teacher education, we need to be concerned with two questions: “What are the essential qualities of good teachers?” and “How can we help people to become good teachers?” This chapter will examine ideas and practices as they relate to the pedagogy of teacher education, the second question posed by Korthagen. Initially, we consider the concept of pedagogy generally and then discuss our conceptualization of it as it relates to teacher preparation. The concepts/practices of reflection and reflective practice and self-study are also unpacked, as they can inform, and in some cases are integral components of, particular pedagogical practices in teacher education. Then, we highlight specific pedagogical approaches that have been reported in the literature by Canadian teacher educators in their work with teacher candidates and discuss the implications of this work for teacher education.

What Is a Pedagogy of Teacher Education?

The term pedagogy is not easily defined and has been interpreted in different ways. According to the Merriam-Webster dictionary, pedagogy is “the art, science, or profession of teaching” (Merriam-Webster, 2014). Alexander (2003) refers to pedagogy as “the observable act of teaching together with its attendant discourse of educational theories, values, evidence and justifications. It is what one needs to know, and the skills one needs to command, in order to make and justify the many different kinds of decisions of which teaching is constituted” (p. 3). Watkins and Mortimore (1999) describe pedagogy as “any conscious activity by one person designed to enhance learning in another” (p. 3). In this chapter, we conceptualize pedagogy broadly, aligning with the notion of Watkins and Moritmore that pedagogy moves beyond what the teacher does. While it includes what the teacher does (acting), it also includes deliberate, considered actions of the teacher in relation to learners and the context of learning. For example, in acting, teachers must choose appropriate pedagogies to ensure that particular goals and outcomes are targeted. Simply choosing pedagogy without considering goals, objectives, and outcomes in relation to student learning is not sufficient. Moreover, every pedagogical approach has strengths and limitations, thus it behooves teachers to beware of these when choosing particular approaches and strategies. In our conception of the “pedagogy of teacher education,” we include these ideas as they relate to pedagogy and two other areas: learning about teaching and teaching about teaching. These facets of the pedagogy of teacher education are discussed in detail by Loughran (2006) in *Developing a Pedagogy of Teacher Education: Understanding Teaching and Learning About Teaching*. In learning about teaching, teacher candidates have to contend with competing agendas. They need to be

conscious of their own learning so that they can overtly develop their understanding of the teaching practices they experience in order to purposely link the manner in which they learn in a given situation with the nature of teaching itself . . . Their learning agenda includes learning about the specific content being taught, learning about learning and learning about teaching. (p. 5)

Likewise, as Loughran (2006) goes on to note, those teaching teacher candidates (teaching about teaching) face similar challenges. Teacher educators need to learn about how to teach about teaching such that teacher candidates experience the modelling of K–12 teaching approaches that they might choose to use in their future teaching. Moreover, teacher educators, more importantly, need to help their students of teaching to unpack “teaching in ways that gives [*sic*] . . . [them] access to the pedagogical reasoning, uncertainties, and dilemmas of practice that are inherent in understanding teaching as being problematic” (p. 6).

Before examining some of the specific pedagogies of Canadian teacher preparation programs, we discuss reflective practice and self-study, as we view these as important areas that inform or underpin the pedagogy of teacher preparation. The methodology of self-study is one productive way of framing a pedagogy of teacher education, while the proliferation of pedagogies to engage reflective practice has been a result of a pedagogical shift from training teachers to adopt certain behaviours and comply with external directives to preparing teacher candidates to understand the reasons and rationales associated with teaching practices (Zeichner & Liu, 2010).

Reflective Practice in Teacher Education

The idea of reflective practice dates back to the times of Plato, Aristotle, Confucius, Lao Tzu, Solomon, and Buddha (Houston, 1988), whose ideas provided a foundation for Dewey’s (1933) seminal articulation of reflective thought as “active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it tends” (p. 9). Other influential scholars include Freire (1973), Habermas (1971), and van Manen (1977); however, Zeichner and Liu (2010) claim that it was with the publication of Donald Schön’s book, *The Reflective Practitioner* (1983), that reflection re-emerged as a fundamental focus of teacher education in North America. Since then, there has been a proliferation of teacher education programs that have adopted reflective practice as a basic guiding principle for helping teacher candidates. In adopting practices that foster reflective practice, programs help teacher candidates develop an understanding of both teaching and learning, while simultaneously internalizing the dispositions and skills needed to learn from their experiences and become more adept reflectors as they move through their careers (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Loughran, 2002). Several academics (e.g., Calderhead, 1989; Zeichner and Liu, 2010) assert that it is difficult to agree upon a precise definition of what reflection is or might be in teacher education due to the wide range of theoretical, axiological, and practical underpinnings that various influential scholars ascribe to its meaning. Despite this lack of consensus, it has not impeded teacher educators from incorporating their own particular notions of reflection into their instruction. Zeichner and Liu (2010) suggested that the proliferation of pedagogies to support reflective practice resulted from a pedagogical shift of training teachers to adopt certain behaviours and comply with external directives to fully educating teachers to understand the reasons and rationales associated with teaching practices. Reflection helps teacher candidates both on the means and ends of teaching and learning by emphasizing reflection as a social practice that requires attention to the unique social and political contexts in which they work. Furthermore, reflective practice is seen as a way for developing teachers’ capacities to make

intelligent and deliberate decisions that meet the constantly shifting needs of their students (Zeichner & Liu, 2010). From Schön's (1983) perspective, viewing teacher candidates as reflective practitioners acknowledges the need for teachers to learn from their own experiences, since knowledge derived only from others is seen as insufficient preparation for the complexities of teaching.

A number of pedagogical approaches and strategies utilize teacher candidate reflection. The list is extensive. However, the most notable strategies include action research (Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Dinkelman, 1997), teaching portfolios (Brandes & Boskic, 2008; Kitchenham & Chasteauneuf, 2009), case studies (Ross, 1989), and microteaching and practicum experiences (Sparks-Langer & Colton 1991; Zeichner, 1987). Reflection can also be stimulated through interviews or reflective discussions (Husu, Toom, & Patrikainen, 2008) and various writing tasks, such as maintaining a journal (Spalding & Wilson, 2002) or weblog (Shoffner, 2008). Research also suggests that teacher educators should model the kinds of thoughtfulness and praxis that they expect from their students (Loughran, 1996), and, in actual fact, this view has spawned an extensive literature base on self-study as a means for teacher educators to formulate inquiry into how they, themselves, can improve their own teaching.

Self-Study in Teacher Education

Self-study of teacher education practices (S-STEP) is a research methodology that uses a variety of methods to analyze critically the characteristics of a teacher educator's pedagogy. Loughran (2004) states that it is an orientation that researches personal practice "in order to better understand: oneself; teaching; learning; and the development of knowledge about these" (p. 9). It is one thing to articulate a particular pedagogical approach; it is quite another to develop a warranted basis for these articulations and engage in a process where one determines the extent to which intended pedagogy matches enacted practice. Self-study is grounded in an epistemology of learning from experience that is distinct from kinds of knowledge used by technical rationalist orientations that were critiqued by Schön (1983). Loughran (2005) made it clear that there is no one correct way to engage in self-study; however, LaBoskey's (2004) influential chapter from the *International Handbook of Self-Study* does list five criteria that are germane to self-study research: it is self-initiated and focused; is improvement aimed; focuses on interactivity; uses multiple, primarily qualitative, methods; and makes use of exemplar-based validation. Clandinin and Connelly (2004) caution that self-study should not stop with self-knowledge because it has so much "potential to reveal knowledge of the educational landscape" (p. 597). Moreover, Pinnegar and Hamilton (2009) argued that self-study methodology requires an ontological, rather than a solely epistemological commitment to research and went as far as to say that "ontology, rather than epistemology, . . . [is] the orienting stance in S-STEP research" (p. 7–8).

Many Canadian teacher educators have made use of self-study methodology to describe and interpret their pedagogy of teacher education. It is beyond the scope of this article to provide a comprehensive overview of all of the self-study research that has been conducted by Canadian scholars. A useful touchstone for this work is the second CATE polygraph that collects and reprints a number of articles from many leaders in the field (Kitchen & Russell, 2011a). In particular, Kitchen and Russell (2011b) provided a concise history of the development of the methodology with a particular focus on the contributions of Canadian scholars such as Clandinin, Cole, Connelly, Knowles, and Munby and Russell.

It is, however, instructive to examine a few examples of the ways in which self-study has been used in a Canadian context to examine and enhance the pedagogy of teacher education. Tom Russell, for example, was one of the originators of the movement (Loughran, 2004) and has contributed many book chapters and articles devoted to unpacking both his practice and self-study methodology.

One key theme in his work is articulating how he came to view his practice differently as a result of engaging in self-study. In Russell (2005), he stated “I now believe that reflective practice can and should be taught—explicitly, directly, thoughtfully, and patiently—using personal reflection-in-action to interpret and improve one’s teaching of reflective practice to others” (p. 203–204). Cole and Knowles (1995) offered a framework for self-study informed by a perspective developed in life-history methods. Their chapter highlights many important questions that self-study researchers would do well to consider in their work and concludes with this provocative statement: “We think that teacher educators who engage in self-study through personal history explorations stand to benefit in the same ways that pre-service and experienced teachers benefit from reflexive inquiry on their practice” (p. 148). Kitchen’s (2005a, 2005b) early work in self-study offered insight into what he refers to as a relational approach to teacher education, which foregrounds the relationship between teacher candidates and their teacher educator in developing a pedagogy of teacher education. The work of Kosnik and Beck (2008) is well-known in both self-study circles and in teacher education research more broadly (see <http://literacyteaching.net> for information on their current research programs). They offered considerable insight into “the shadows” of non-tenure line teacher educators. The result is an important piece of work that demonstrates the value of teacher educators in positions of responsibility (in this case, a director) engaging in self-study of their practice to support other teacher educators as they work to develop their pedagogies of teacher education within institutional constraints and opportunities. Hopper and Sanford (2008a) demonstrated the possibility of using poetic representation as a method for engaging teacher candidates in a study of their process of learning to teach, concluding that poetry allowed participants to “recognize a shared, situated, and social experience of learning to teach and to articulate a complex understanding of teacher knowledge” (p. 41). Weber and Mitchell (2004) provided a detailed review of the use of arts-based methods in self-study methodology. They argued “not only do these varied uses of the visual generate data useful to self-study, but the theoretical stances and methods of inquiry that underlie some of these approaches offer particular advantages and vantage points” (p. 981). Finally, a number of other Canadian scholars have written about their transition from teacher to teacher educator (Bullock, 2007; Casey & Fletcher, 2012; Grierson, 2010; Kitchen 2005a, 2005b; Kosnik, Cleovoulou, Fletcher, Harris, McGlynn-Stewart, & Beck, 2011; Ramirez, Allison-Roan, Peterson, & Elliott-Johns, 2012) and highlighted the problematic assumption that knowledge of teaching is quickly and easily translated into knowledge of teaching future teachers, as well as the identity issues that arise during the process of becoming a teacher educator. A recent review by Williams, Ritter, and Bullock (2012) provided a useful discussion of these issues using the framework of communities of practice as a theoretical lens.

Canadian Teacher Education and Pedagogical Approaches

In the next section, we report on pedagogies that are being adopted in teacher education in a Canadian context. We acknowledge that many Canadian teacher educators may indeed be using the approaches (and others) described below in practice, but have not disseminated information or publications about their work. Hence, our review is based on a selection of *published* work from the last 15 years. The approaches described are not the common or the typical ones (lecture, readings, and small group discussions, for example) used in undergraduate courses. Rather, they are approaches that are student-centred and that have the potential to promote “learning in and from practice” (Ball & Cohen, 1999). This includes learning from teaching in K–12 classrooms, as well as learning from the artifacts of teaching. As Ball and Cohen suggest, “although the bustle of immediacy [teaching in classrooms] lends authenticity, it also interferes with opportunities to learn. . .

. Being so situated confines learning to the rush of minute-to-minute practice. Better opportunities can be created by using the strategic documentation of practice” (p. 14).

This documentation or artifacts can be created by teacher candidates themselves in teaching or planning for teaching or may be artifacts created by other teachers (lesson plans, videos of teaching sessions, K–12 student assessments, etc.). Central to using this documentation effectively is having teacher candidates reflect on the meaning of these artifacts and develop insight into how they can inform teaching and learning. It is also recognized that each pedagogical approach has strengths and limitations and particular goals and purposes. The pedagogies described below reflect the scholarship of Canadian teacher education, reporting research that has been published by Canadian teacher educators in Canadian and international journals on their work in teaching about teaching. In each section, we exclude research that uses teacher candidates as participants to better understand teacher candidates as learners and, instead, focus on research that examines the ways in which strategies and approaches might be used pedagogically in a teacher education program.

Cases and Case Studies

Yin (2009) captured the challenge of articulating how cases and case studies are used in pre-service teacher education programs. Of course, the first challenge is to differentiate between the case study as a research tool and the case study as a teaching tool. From a research perspective, case studies are used “to understand a real-life phenomenon in depth” (p. 16) given that there are certain contextual differences that are extremely important for understanding the phenomenon. Case studies that are used for teaching purposes ostensibly have the same goal, although Yin notes that case studies developed for teaching “may be deliberately altered to demonstrate a particular point more effectively” (p. 14). They may even be works of fiction. Cases are narratives or representations of real situations, problems, or dilemmas as they relate to teaching and learning. Levin (1995) noted that cases should be “sufficiently substantive and complex to allow for multiple levels of analysis and interpretation” (p. 63). Case study, or case methods, is a pedagogical approach, guided by particular goals and learning objectives, that utilizes cases as part of a set of student learning activities. A review of the literature reveals that there are a considerable number of research articles using case studies for research purposes on teacher candidates. There are relatively few examples in the Canadian literature, however, about using case studies with teacher candidates for pedagogical purposes.

An important line of work on the pedagogical use of case studies has come from a number of science and technology education researchers at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto. Bencze, Hewitt, and Pedretti (2001) offered several important suggestions for developing case-based approaches to teacher education. In particular, they recommend that teacher candidates be introduced to a specific analytical framework (Lock, 1990) with which to approach the case and to provide considerable time for teacher candidates to “express, learn, and judge ideas” (p. 205). They also caution that teacher candidates tend to focus on the perspective of the teacher in case studies, rather than the perspective of students. Yoon, Pedretti, Bencze, Hewitt, Perris, and Van Oostveen (2006) investigated the pedagogical uses of case studies with elementary science teacher candidates. Their conclusions were promising: “While viewing the case and in their postcase reflections, there was ample evidence suggesting that participants were striving to make links between previously acquired theoretical information and personal experience and the case scenarios presented” (p. 32). Pedretti, Bencze, Hewitt, Romkey, and Jivraj (2008) used a multimedia case study approach to engage science teacher candidates in thinking about the role of science, technology, society, and environment (STSE) in science education. In part, they suggest that multimedia cases allowed future science teachers to see what Shulman (1987) referred to as “images of the possible” in

STSE approaches to education: “Through interactions with ‘authentic’ classrooms, beginning teachers can witness first-hand, possibilities for practice beyond conventional science teaching” (Pedretti et al., p. 956).

Digital Technologies

The phrase “digital technology in teacher education” is an amorphous term, in part because the nature and ubiquity of digital devices change rapidly. The last decade alone has seen the rise of the smartphone and the tablet, the expectation of university-wide WiFi access to the Internet, the proliferation of streaming video and social media, and, most recently, increased concerns about Internet privacy. Kay (2006), a Canadian researcher who has done extensive work on the role of digital technologies in education, provided a useful and sobering review of how technologies are incorporated in teacher education programs. He concluded, “Although some solid, thoughtful, technology-based [teacher education] programs have been developed, only a handful of studies have carefully and rigorously pursued the evaluation process” (p. 395). Examining the full role of digital technologies in teacher education is outside the scope of this chapter. Instead, we aim to highlight a few of the many Canadian contributions to the field, with a specific focus on research conducted into the pedagogical use of digital technologies (hardware and software) in coursework of teacher education programs.

One digital technology that is familiar to many university students inside and outside teacher education programs is the use of asynchronous discussion forums. Bowen, Farmer, and Arsenault (2012) used cultural-historical activity theory (CHAT) to theorize about how blended approaches might be viewed by teacher candidates. They used a partially anonymous (posts were anonymous to other students but the instructor was able to view students’ names) asynchronous discussion environment to ameliorate their perception that teacher candidates were sometimes unwilling to engage critically in discussions because they were worried about offending their peers. The researchers concluded that many participants were now “able to express their honest thoughts about material in ways that they felt unable to do in face-to-face settings and in the traditional manner in which discussion forums are used in classrooms” (p. 20).

Towers (2007) described the pedagogical use of video clips of her own K–12 teaching in her work with teacher candidates. One significant finding of this work was the ability of Towers to “refocus” conversations in the teacher education classroom on the nature of the elementary school students’ learning that was being portrayed in the video. Similar to Russell & Bullock’s (2010) conclusions, Towers pointed out that teacher candidates’ first response to analyzing a learning situation was to critique the teaching strategies, rather than to focus on the quality of the learning. Towers concluded that video extracts of a teacher educator teaching K–12 students has enormous potential to enable teacher candidates to attend to the complexity of classroom teaching, particularly when the candidates have the opportunity to question their teacher educator after viewing the video.

Bullock (2013) described how he made self-directed learning a feature of his pedagogy of teacher education in order to provide teacher candidates with the opportunity to learn about teaching with digital technologies. Candidates in his “Learning with ICT” course were required to plan and follow a self-directed learning project that featured a piece of software or hardware that they wished to use in their teaching practice. He highlighted the importance of candidates having the opportunity to select a technology that seemed personally relevant and meaningful and the problems associated with trying to use digital technologies on practicum placement, where assessments by associate teachers are of overarching concern. These realizations underscored the importance of making space in a course to unpack and interpret the nature of the self-directed learning experience with

technology.

Robertson and Hughes (2012) presented a synthesis of four years of research into the pedagogical use of a variety of digital technologies in their English Language Arts (ELA) courses grounded in multi-literacy theory. Their pedagogical approaches included requiring teacher candidates to use digital stories, present a “social justice digital book talk,” and engage with an open source e-book authored by Hughes. In part, Robertson and Hughes (2012) concluded that the use of digital technologies in their ELA courses enabled candidates to engage in “meaningful practice,” but offered some words of caution about the extent to which these technologies enable and encourage candidates to engage in “critical framing” (p. 86–87).

Microteaching and Peer Interventions

The pedagogical use of microteaching has a long lineage in pre-service teacher education, dating back to at least the mid-1960s. In a report claiming that microteaching was created at Stanford School of Education in 1963, Allen (1967) stated “the technique allows teachers to apply clearly defined teaching skills to carefully prepared lessons in a planned series of five- to ten-minute encounters with a small group of real students, often with an opportunity to observe the results on videotape. Its distinction lies in the opportunity it provides teachers for immediate and individual diagnostic evaluation of teacher performance by colleagues, supervisors and participating students and for measuring progress in specific teaching techniques” (p. 5). There was some debate about whether or not video recording was a requirement for a microteaching experience, as some researchers believed that the salient feature of microteaching is the immediate and explicit feedback on a manageable part of the lesson. Despite considerable enthusiasm in the 1960s and 1970s, literature on the pedagogical use of microteaching in teacher education has waned quite a bit. The situation in Canada appears to be no different. One study, Russell and Bullock (2010), used a microteaching experience involving Japanese Lesson Study (Lewis & Tsuchida, 1997) in a pre-service physics methods course. The teacher educator in the study required teacher candidates to plan and enact short physics lessons in a methods course. After receiving feedback from peers, teacher candidates were then required to revise and re-teach the lessons. Russell and Bullock (2010) concluded, in part, that it was difficult to focus teacher candidates’ attention on the difference between critiquing the teaching strategies used by their peers and the effects those strategies had on the learning environment.

Portfolios and E-Portfolios

Teaching portfolios have been used widely in teacher education programs for more than two decades. According to the Education Resources Information Center (ERIC), educational portfolio research has been ongoing since 1975 and the concept of a “teaching portfolio” was first used in 1986 under the auspices of the Canadian Association of University Teachers (Morishita, Niimura, & Kunimune, 2010). Traditionally, a portfolio is defined as a collection of artifacts that can be used to represent one’s work; however, Barrett and Carney (2005) note that not all portfolios are the same and that the purposes of each are founded on different paradigms and result in portfolios that are characteristically quite different. Although the original rationale for teaching portfolios was to encourage teacher reflection on practice, differing views on their purposes has led to their adoption in teacher education programs for a variety of reasons (Berrill & Addison, 2010). For instance, Wolf

(1999) notes that they can be used to assess student achievement; to encourage student reflection, growth, and learning; or to showcase students' best work and highlight competencies.

Up until the 1990s portfolios were mainly paper-based. However, with the development of information and communication technologies (ICT), a transition towards the use of electronic portfolios (e-portfolios) has occurred. While definitions of *e-portfolio* vary as well, it can be defined as "a digitized collection of artifacts, including demonstrations, resources, and accomplishments that represent an individual, group, community, organization or institution. This collection can be comprised of text-based, graphic, or multimedia elements archived on a web site or other electronic media" (Lorenzo & Ittelson, 2005, p. 3). It has been noted that the transition to e-portfolios permits authentic and meaningful technology integration into teacher education programs (Crichton & Kopp, 2008; Peters, Chevrier, LeBlanc, Fortin, & Malette, 2006). Furthermore, the digitized nature of e-portfolios means they are more easily modified and sharable, which according to Crichton, Franks, Hodges, O' Rourke, and Kopp (2008) allows for regular collaboration within teacher education programs.

Canadian-based research has evaluated the use of e-portfolios in teacher education programs from a number of perspectives. Hopper and Sanford (2007, 2008b, 2010) have reported on the process of introducing an e-portfolio component into a teacher education program, how the e-portfolio process affects teacher candidate learning, how an e-portfolio practice supports the renewal of teacher education programs, and how e-portfolio learning experiences help shape teaching identity. These authors argue that e-portfolios address program fragmentation by providing an infrastructure to connect the pedagogical practices of teacher education programs. The authors also reported that as students develop their e-portfolios through the lens of assessment-as-learning, they became better able to reflect on where they need to grow to enhance their abilities and how to explicitly identify their sense of self as "becoming" teachers. Similarly, Chitpin and Simon (2009) considered how pre-service teachers perceive the role of professional portfolios in promoting reflection and contributing to their own development and identity as learners and educators. The authors reported a shift in the teacher candidates' perceptions of viewing professional e-portfolios as instruments for showcasing teaching skills to that of providing affirmations and insights into their identity as teachers. In general, the portfolios challenged the teacher candidates to cyclically reflect on "taken-for-granted" assumptions, articulate growth, and gain perspectives.

As previously mentioned, portfolios can serve multiple purposes, yet the literature suggests that teacher candidates are often confused as to whether portfolios should be used as a learning portfolio that mediates self-reflection, growth, and identity formation as teachers or serve as an assessment portfolio that provides evidence of their teaching competence. Other Canadian teacher educators have examined this issue as well. In response to this confusion, Berrill and Addison (2010) examined how reframing portfolios in terms of *repertoires of practice*, a socio-cultural, historical phrase referring to shared-competencies within a given community of practice (Wenger, 1998), could ameliorate this issue. The authors maintain that this reframing could enable portfolios to serve the dual purposes of supporting reflection on practice for learning purposes, while also operating as an assessment tool for credentialing purposes. Crichton and Kopp's (2008) research also supported a dual role for portfolios. They reported that the integration of e-journals into the e-portfolio environment allows for a robust formative and summative assessment of pre-service teachers while simultaneously cultivating a community of practice. Crichton and Kopp stress that the e-journals helped the teacher candidates value the e-portfolio process over the product and that the e-journals themselves become rich personal learning object repositories.

Kitchenham's research (2006, 2008, 2009) reported on the process and results of establishing frameworks for the analysis of teacher reflection through standards-based e-portfolios. In general, Kitchenham explored how teacher candidates demonstrate that they meet the British Columbia

College of Teacher's Standards for education professionals (British Columbia College of Teachers, 2004, 2008) through their e-portfolios. Central to Kitchenham's e-portfolio frameworks is the use of critical reflection and critical self-reflection for selecting artifacts and writing rationales for their inclusion within their portfolios. Kitchenham (2008) argued that the e-portfolio process allows pre-service teachers ample opportunity to engage in reflective learning and for them to not only develop a better understanding of what they are learning, but also to gain insight into the importance of why they are learning it. Kitchenham (2009) and Kitchenham and Chasteauneuf (2009) further argued that Mezirow's (1998) taxonomy of critical reflection provides a solid model for evaluating pre-service teachers' e-portfolio reflections.

Portfolios and e-portfolios are seeing fairly widespread adoption in Canadian faculties of education. Documented benefits for teacher candidates include increased technology competencies (Crichton et al., 2008; Crichton & Kopp, 2008; Hopper & Sanford, 2010; Kitchenham, 2006, 2008; Peters et al., 2006), enhanced self-esteem and confidence (Hopper & Sanford, 2007, 2010; Peters et al., 2006), enhanced identity development (Sanford & Hopper, 2010; Hopper, Sanford, & Bonsor-Kurki, 2012), enhanced organizational skills (Peters et al., 2006), improved interviewing skills (Hopper & Sanford, 2007, 2008b; Kitchenham & Chasteauneuf, 2009), and increased employment opportunities (Kitchenham, 2008; Peters et al., 2006). Others have also emphasized that, since e-portfolios provide a foundation to connect pedagogical practices (Krawetz, Hopper, & Sanford, 2008), they provide teacher educators with an alternative method for assessing teacher candidate learning and a framework for generating a better understanding of their development (Hopper & Sanford, 2008b).

Practitioner Inquiry

School or classroom-based forms of research among and by teachers have been in existence for several decades (Corey, 1953; Elliot, 1991; Stenhouse, 1975). Over time, research by teachers has evolved into varying genres with different epistemological underpinnings and purposes. Often, terms such as action research, classroom research, self-study, teacher inquiry, and teacher research are used synonymously to describe research that is conducted by practitioners themselves. It involves collaboration among colleagues, occurs at the professional site of the practitioner, focuses on issues and problems that emerge from professional practice, and results in practitioner-generated knowledge that is valuable (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009). For the purpose of this chapter, we will use the term practitioner inquiry to refer to these genres collectively, where teacher candidates engage in systematic inquiry of their own classroom practice.

In the last 25 years, practitioner inquiry has become a pedagogical approach used in initial teacher education at both course and program levels for a range of purposes. For example, many teacher educators have adopted practitioner inquiry to enable teacher candidates to integrate theory and practice (Chant, Heafner, & Bennett, 2004; Deemer, 2009; Husebo, 2012), while others have adopted it as an approach to foster teacher candidate critical reflection about their own learning and how to support K–12 student learning (Burbank, 2003; El-Dib, 2007; Hagevik, Aydeniz, & Rowell, 2012). Many reports of teacher candidates and their engagement in and learning through practitioner inquiry are a result of teacher educators engaging in self-study, a form of practitioner inquiry taken up primarily by academics in higher education to improve practices in teacher education (Loughran & Russell, 2002; Samaras, 2002). Self-study, then, has become a pedagogy to foster teacher educator learning and practice, but it has also become a means to support and enhance the learning of teacher candidates. As Russell and Loughran (2007) note, in making teacher education a site for inquiry, “students of teaching might see into practice . . . in such a way as to gain a genuine appreciation of

the knowledge, skills, and abilities that shape practice” (p. 1).

In a Canadian context, teacher educators have adopted practitioner inquiry as a pedagogy of teacher education. Bencze (2010) described a study in which elementary teacher candidates facilitated student-led projects in science as the focus of action research projects they completed during their practicum. Kitchen and Stevens (2008) engaged in action research to improve their own practice as teacher educators while introducing their teacher candidates to action research. In this dual action research project, the authors focused on how they could engage their students in action research to empower them professionally. At the University of Manitoba, Schulz and Mandzuk (2005) explored teacher candidates’ understanding of and experiences with inquiry. Examples such as these foster a view of the teacher candidate researcher as both a user and generator of knowledge, while simultaneously valuing this pedagogy as a means for teacher candidates to gain insight into their own development as teachers (Loughran, 2006).

Problem-Based Learning

Problem-based learning (PBL) was pioneered in the medical school at McMaster University by Howard Barrows and colleagues in the 1960s (Barrows & Tamblyn, 1980). Since this time, it has gained prominence in many professional schools, especially in health care professions (Alavi, 1995), as well as in K–12 settings. As a result of proliferation of the approach, theoretical foundations for PBL and its enactment in practice have varied (Newman, 2005). For example, Hardin and Davis (1998) proposed a continuum for PBL that involves 11 types, while Savin-Badin (2000) offered a model that focuses on six dimensions. Bereiter and Scardamalia (2000) stated that there are a range of educational approaches that involve problems; however, PBL moves far beyond a focus on problems only. Most variations of PBL reflect many of the structures and principles first adopted by Barrows (1986), including student-centred learning, small collaborative groups, teachers acting as facilitators or guides, problems being an organizing theme for learning and the development of problem-solving skills, and the development of new understanding through self-directed learning (Barrows, 1996). While definitions of PBL vary, many conceptions view it as a curricular or instructional approach that is driven by open-ended, messy, real-world problems in which groups of student work collaboratively to find feasible solutions to the problems (Hmelo-Silver, 2004; Savery, 2006).

In teacher preparation, PBL has been adopted for various purposes. Lambe (2007) adopted PBL and a blended e-pedagogy to help pre-service teachers develop critical reflection skills in the areas of special education and inclusion. Edwards and Hammer (2006) adopted PBL with pre-service teachers in early childhood education and reported that the approach helped them make strong connections between theory and practice. Siegel and Lee (2001) used PBL in the context of an educational psychology course to examine pre-service teachers’ understanding of scientific concepts (e.g. electricity, atomic structure) and how this knowledge may be used to effectively redesign lessons to promote student learning. Yeh (2010) integrated PBL with blended learning to examine the development of online learning communities.

In a Canadian context in initial teacher preparation, PBL has been studied by De Simone (2008, 2009) as a means to enhance teacher candidates’ pedagogical problem-solving. Using a quasi-experimental design in the context of a psychology course, she found that the PBL experimental group of prospective teachers, when compared to the control group, demonstrated a much stronger ability to identify problems, provide problem definitions, relate potential solutions to the problems, and use appropriate resources. Goodnough (2003a, 2003b, 2005, 2006) reported on design and implementation issues (problem design, group functioning, facilitation issues, and assessment) in

adopting PBL in the context of science education pre-service classes, as well as on how the use of PBL as an instructional approach enhanced her pedagogical content knowledge. Porath and Jordan (2004) described their approach to the adoption of PBL in a required special education course in teacher preparation. They suggested that more research is needed to determine the processes that are best for fostering self-directed learning and group problem-solving, what constitutes a good problem, and the role of the facilitator in meeting the goals of PBL. While PBL has become well-established in many professional schools as an instructional approach, its uptake by teacher educators in Canada has been modest.

Discussion

Although the research on the pedagogy (or pedagogies) of teacher education is still growing, it is obvious, as described above, that Canadian teacher educators are adopting a range of pedagogical approaches and strategies in their teaching. Based on the research reported, these pedagogies are showing promise in helping teacher candidates develop the necessary understandings, dispositions, and skills to begin their first years of teaching. For example, case study pedagogy seems to be valuable for encouraging teacher candidates to attend to the possibilities of non-traditional approaches to teaching science and to make connections between theoretical literature and personal experiences. Teacher educators offer a cautionary note, however. The studies reported that teacher candidates tended to focus on the perspectives of teachers rather than students when working with case studies.

There is some overlap between the pedagogical use of digital technologies in teacher education coursework and other pedagogical approaches and tools. Research published indicates that digital technologies can be used to both enhance other pedagogical approaches (e.g., e-portfolios, extending in-class discussions) and as tools for pedagogical development in their own right. Video case studies can be used effectively to stimulate classroom discussions. Researchers do caution that requiring candidates to create digital artifacts does not necessarily encourage deep engagement with critical pedagogy, although it can stimulate significant thinking about practice. The use of e-portfolios is a good example of the way in which many teacher educators seek to use new technological affordances as a way to encourage teacher candidates to examine their practice.

The increased uptake of e-portfolios as an educational tool within Canadian teacher preparation programs over the past decade is not surprising given the numerous purposes they serve and benefits they afford both teacher candidates and teacher educators. Despite their increasing usage, research suggests that resistance to new technologies and applications by both teacher candidates and teacher educators poses a significant obstacle to constructive implementation (Berrill & Addison, 2010; Hopper & Sanford, 2007, 2010). For e-portfolios to become an effective tool, both faculty and teacher candidates need on-going technical support, whereby resistance can gradually be replaced by an awareness of the potential for e-portfolios to represent a new and valuable way of learning for both teacher candidates and teacher educators alike.

Practitioner inquiry has been used in Canadian teacher preparation to connect program components and the practicum experience, to provide a means to empower teacher candidates, to promote a perspective that teacher candidates are both users and creators of knowledge, and to enhance teacher candidates' own professional development. Likewise, PBL has been adopted for a variety of purposes from promoting teacher candidates' pedagogical problem-solving abilities, to understanding how to design and implement PBL appropriately, to fostering self-directed learning.

In considering the design of any teacher preparation program, pedagogies should not be considered in isolation. Many factors have to be examined in adopting pedagogical approaches and

strategies, including the size of the program, the context of the program (e.g., rural versus urban school settings), the structure and frequency of field experiences, the content or “the what” of the program, and the learning context (e.g., a focus on nurturing communities of practice). The latter also includes a focus on gradually introducing teacher candidates to the pedagogies and practices of teacher education, providing opportunities for them to enact practices in safe learning environments and to start with simpler practices before engaging with more complex approaches. Grossman, Hammerness, and McDonald (2009) refer to this as “approximations of practice” or “opportunities [for teacher candidates] to rehearse and enact discrete components of complex practice in settings of reduced complexity” (p. 283). For example, in the context of a university course, teacher candidates may examine student assessment artifacts to gain insight into their thinking. Or, teacher candidates might plan and implement a lesson with their peers (microteaching) prior to implementing it with students in classrooms.

Many teacher educators have argued that having strong teacher preparation programs involves establishing a shared vision for teaching and learning (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005; Kennedy, 2006; Shulman & Shulman, 2004). While studies of strong, coherent programs have not been numerous, a few do exist. Beck and Kosnik (2006) surveyed seven effective teacher education programs, concluding that each is premised on social-constructivist principles with an emphasis on integration, inquiry, and community. In another study of successful teacher education programs, Darling-Hammond (2006a, 2006b) selected seven exemplary programs based on data from a range of sources, such as review of the literature, a nationwide reputational survey, interviews with local employers, previous data from surveys of graduates, a survey of more than 900 beginning teachers, a survey of principals of program graduates, and observations of graduates’ classroom practices. Although the programs varied in design, Darling-Hammond reported that all programs shared some common elements: a focus on coherence and integration, well-supervised school-based experiences that link theory and practice, and strong partnerships with schools.

While this chapter does not address all possible pedagogies and approaches that are being used in teacher education, one area worthy of mention that has not been well-researched in a Canadian context or otherwise is modelling (Murray & Male, 2005). This involves the teacher educator adopting certain overt behaviours when teaching, with the intent of helping teacher candidates enhance their ability to teach (Lunenberg, Korthagen, & Swennen, 2007). In other words, if teacher educators want teacher candidates to consider adopting particular teaching practices and ways of thinking about teaching and learning, they themselves need to “walk the talk.” Russell (1997) refers to this principle in the catchphrase “How I teach IS the message.” Based on the modest literature that does exist about modelling, it can take different forms. For example, Lunenberg et al. (2007) conclude, based on a review of the literature, that there are four types of modelling: a) implicit, b) explicit, c) explicit modelling and facilitating the translation into the student teachers’ own practice, and d) connecting exemplary behaviour with theory (p. 597).

This chapter has focused on pedagogical approaches used in teacher education classrooms that have been reported in the research literature, but it is clear that some pedagogical coherence is necessary between approaches used by teacher educators in practicum placements and those used by teacher educators in on-campus coursework. Kroll et al. (2005) refer to this coherence as principled practice in teacher education. They advise teacher educators to collaboratively develop and adopt a set of principles “about what to teach and how to teach it” that “operate as guidelines or criteria for developing the means for attaining [personal] goals, for making decisions about curriculum, pedagogy, and even institutional structures” but that are not prescriptive or reductionist (p. 144). For Kroll et al., “teaching guided by principles allows for a flexible and adaptable approach while at the same time requiring (and assuming) contextual sensitivity and responsiveness” (p. 144).

Conclusions

Like modelling, many of the pedagogies used by Canadian teacher educators could benefit from more published research, as well as research that is broadly situated, considering program design, context, and structure. For example, in less researched pedagogies such as modelling, research questions might ask What types of modelling are teacher educators adopting? and In what ways do they promote learning by teacher candidates? Or, as another example, consideration might be given to how video case studies and practitioner inquiry in tandem might impact teacher candidate classroom practice. In any case, the pedagogy of teacher education involves enabling teacher candidates to either learn directly from their own experiences or learn from representations of others' practices (Grossman, 2005). Kosnik and Beck (2009) point out that teacher education programs can often overwhelm teacher candidates to the extent that they are unable to consider what they are learning in deep ways, and so they call on teacher educators to clarify the purposes and content of teacher education programs.

Furthermore, teacher educators and those involved in the design of teacher preparation programs need to consider program orientations and visions, and personal orientations and beliefs about how to best prepare teacher candidates for the complexities of classrooms and schools. It also involves considering the relationships among pedagogies, the purposes for using particular pedagogies or groups of pedagogies, how they get enacted in practice, and the impact on different types of teacher candidate learning. Moreover, more long-term research is needed to examine how pedagogies adopted in teacher preparation have impacted new teachers' thinking and classroom practice in their beginning years.

This chapter has provided a review of the literature on the pedagogy of teacher education in a Canadian context, describing particular student-centred approaches and how they are impacting teacher candidate learning and practice. The pedagogy of teacher education is ripe for development and further study as we continue the task of developing insight into how to enable teacher candidates to be well-positioned to begin their teaching careers.

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Chapter 12

THE EDUCATION OF TEACHER EDUCATORS

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Simply put, it is reasonable to assume that quality teacher preparation depends on quality teacher educators. Yet, almost nowhere is attention being paid to what teacher educators should know and be able to do.

(Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013, p. 334)

Teacher education is a complex and multi-faceted endeavor with teacher educators playing a key role in the design, presentation, and evaluation of programs. Cochran-Smith (2003, p. 5) calls teacher educators the linch-pin in teacher education. Yet teacher educators are an under-researched group (Martinez, 2008; Murray & Male, 2005); much attention is given to the design of the program or the exit outcomes, but a key element of the process, those who must deliver the program, is often overlooked. It is encouraging that, slowly, the international community is increasing attention to the transition from classroom teacher to university faculty (Dinkelman, Margolis, & Sikkenga, 2006; Williams, Ritter, & Bullock, 2012), with many Canadians at the forefront of this work.

The organization of this chapter is as follows: first, data on teacher educators in Canada is provided, followed by a description of some studies of teacher educators. This leads to a discussion of self-study research, which has been a key form of professional development; there is discussion of individual studies and teacher educator inquiry groups. The chapter concludes with some suggestions for further research and suggestions for professional development.

Teacher Educators: A Heterogeneous Group

Part of the challenge in understanding teacher educators is that they are not a homogenous group. They may be tenure line (e.g., tenure stream or tenured), on contract (e.g., renewed yearly), seconded from a local school district (e.g., “borrowed” from the district for a number of years), or be graduate students (e.g., as part of their funding package). Determining the exact numbers of teacher educators is challenging because appointments change yearly. And each faculty of education has a different composition.

For consistency specific terminology was used in this chapter. The term teacher educator was used to describe those who teach courses in teacher certification programs, regardless of their designation (tenure-line, contract, or seconded). Those who only practice teaching supervision, on a temporary contract, were not included in this review of the literature. The term student teacher was used for students in the program regardless of the type of program (consecutive or concurrent).

Crocker and Dibbon (2008) were some of the first researchers to gather data on Canadian teacher educators. We applaud their efforts; however, it is important to recognize that these figures are quite general because they do not reflect institutions individually. For example, the University of Windsor does not second from local school districts, whereas York University has a long history of using many seconded professionals in their programs. The highly transient nature of work in teacher education (e.g., doctoral students who may only be involved for two years) makes quantifying the number of teacher educators and their backgrounds very difficult. Nevertheless, the baseline numbers are a beginning that we hope others will build upon.

Gender :

- male 43%
- female 57% (Crocker & Dibbon, 2008, p. 17)

Teacher educators come to their position with varying backgrounds. Some have had extensive work as classroom teachers while others have not been teachers. In some faculties of education experience as a classroom teacher is required, while others do not demand it.

Background of teacher educators in Canada:

- experience teaching in K–12 schools—71%
- doctoral degree—94% (Crocker & Dibbon, 2008, p. 17)

The simple “yes or no” response to classroom teaching experience although useful does not breakdown number of years as a classroom teacher, which is important. There is a significant difference between a teacher educator who was a classroom teacher for 20 years and someone with only 2 years experience. Further, what one does with the experiences rather than the years themselves makes the difference.

Years experience as faculty members:

- fewer than 10—41%
- 10–19—34%
- 20–29—18%
- 30 or more—7% (Crocker & Dibbon, 2008, p. 17)

Academic rank:

- assistant professor—26%
- associate professor—26%
- professor—35%
- other—13% (Crocker & Dibbon, 2008, p. 17)

In some ways the figures above are misleading because teaching responsibilities (teacher education programs versus graduate programs) are not decoupled. For example, at the Ontario

Institute for Studies in Education at the University of Toronto (OISE/UT) the involvement of tenure-line faculty in the teacher education programs is only around 10% (usually teaching an elective course) while at other institutions such as Brock University the percentage is around 50%. There needs to be much finer-grain collection and analysis of the data.

Being such a heterogeneous group makes professional development for teacher educators complicated, because their work and needs vary widely. Some come to the enterprise with completed doctorates while others are completing a PhD. Some have a master's degree with no intention of pursuing further formal study. Some have been classroom teachers for many years while others have spent minimal years teaching pupils. The type of professional development they need or want varies: for example, new tenure-line faculty may need assistance developing a research agenda, while contract instructors often have to cobble together an array of small contracts at a number of universities teaching courses not in their area of specialization, and thus they need help with course planning.

Research on Teacher Educators

One of the earliest studies of Canadian teacher educators was Ardra Cole's (1999) 3-year study of pre-tenure professors of teacher education. She examined their work activities, context, and influences on practice including reform efforts to improve teacher education. Using a life-history methodology she uncovered the obstacles they face showing the "intersection between individuals' commitments to reform and institutional realities that often militate against or obstruct these efforts" (Cole, 1999, p. 281). She gave voice to mainly female teacher educators who found the transition to higher education challenging:

The women spoke repeatedly about the difficulties associated with becoming familiar with the norms of the faculty culture and with gaining access to important information. One described her experience as 'being on the outside . . . not having access to the different [information] loops.' It is difficult to influence a culture without even having access to it. (p. 291)

Cole recognized the inequities in universities, the marginalization of faculties of education, and the contradictory messages sent to teacher educators—work hard at your teaching, reform teacher education, but publish. In many cases it was impossible to do substantial service work and build a thriving academic career as a pre-tenure faculty.

Like Cole, Sandra Martin and Claudia Mitchell studied female teachers and teacher educators. They adopted a sociological perspective (Weber & Mitchell, 1995; Mitchell & Weber, 1999) that led to them studying the images of teachers in popular culture. Sandra Acker's work also focused on gender education, looking at issues related to equity. The project *Doing Good and Feeling Bad: The Work of Women University Teachers* (Acker & Feuerverger, 2006) was an in-depth study of women in faculties of education across Canada. Acker's research highlighted experiences of women who worked exceptionally hard and assumed nurturing roles; however, felt unrewarded as a result of the unfair division of labour. Acker's most recent study of faculty, *Gendered Games in Academic Leadership* (2010), explored the experiences of women in academic leadership positions in higher education. Acker unpacked the metaphor of "the game" which women used to describe their experiences when assuming academic leadership positions. This international study called attention to the difficulties of 31 women from faculties of education who tried to build satisfying academic careers inclusive of leadership positions (Acker, 2010, p. 129). The circumstances under which women assumed

leadership positions were considered and expressions such as “fish in water” or demonstrating a “feel for the game” were noted.

Clare Kosnik and Clive Beck have systematically studied many aspects of the work of teacher educators. They argued in the paper, *Who Should Perish, You or Your Students? Dilemmas of Research in Teacher Education* (Kosnik & Beck, 2000) that faculty need to study their own teacher education program in order to understand the process of becoming a teacher. They provided ample evidence that faculties of education do not support faculty studying their own work (e.g., problems with IRB granting approval to study their own practice). When they examined the work of faculty doing practice teaching supervision, they showed that, although time-intensive, supervision helped them remain current with school district initiatives and develop a strong collegial relationship with students and associate teachers (Beck & Kosnik, 2002). In their examination of the role of faculty in building community in a cohort-based program, they showed that faculty need to take the lead in building a vibrant community. Being cohort-based does not necessarily guarantee that a community will develop (Kosnik & Beck, 2003). They showed that senior administration does not highlight the importance of developing community; therefore, faculty have no direction or guidelines to achieve it. A theme that emerged across these studies was that faculty have little preparation for the multi-faceted aspects of their work.

Non-tenure line faculty are increasingly delivering teacher education courses (Kosnik & Beck, 2003, 2008). Kosnik and Beck gave voice to those teacher educators who were hired on contract in two papers: *Contract Staff in Preservice Teacher Education* (2003) and *In the Shadows: Non-tenure-line Instructors in Preservice Teacher Education* (2008). Similarly, Billie Housego and Sal Badali (2000) and Andrea Reupert and Jane Wilkinson (2011) conducted studies of seconded teacher educators. Across these four studies certain themes emerged: non-permanent teacher educators face marginalization within faculties of education; they had mixed feelings about the place of research in their courses; they had varying degrees of knowledge; and the development and delivery of their courses varied wildly.

In 2009 Kosnik received a large-scale SSHRC grant to study literacy teacher educators in four countries: Canada, United States, United Kingdom, and Australia. This was pioneering research because of its international scope, sample size, and focus on literacy teacher educators. The first set of findings from this study revealed that teacher educators had a range of classroom teaching experience which they drew on in many ways. Most went far beyond simply telling stories about their previous work. Many felt that they needed to hold dual identities—teacher and academic—because they were still heavily involved in schools through their research and in-service activities. Several felt that there was a hierarchy in their department with those most removed from schooling at the highest tier. Most saw themselves in the field of literacy not teacher education and gravitated towards literacy-focused conferences and journals rather than teacher education (Kosnik, Menna, Dharmashi, Miyata, & Beck 2013; Kosnik, Dharmashi, Miyata, Cleovoulou, & Beck 2014). Beck and Kosnik built on the SSHRC-funded research by co-editing the text *Literacy Teacher Educators: Preparing Student Teachers for a Changing World*, which profiled the work and challenges of literacy teacher educators in four countries (Kosnik, Rowsell, Williamson, Simon, & Beck, 2013). This text is one of the first to ever specifically examine literacy teacher educators.

Returning to the topic of professional development of teacher educators, Kosnik co-authored with Lin Goodwin the article *Quality Teacher Educators = Quality Teachers? Conceptualizing Essential Domains of Knowledge for Those Who Teach Teachers* (Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013). Like many others, they argued that induction programs for new teacher educators are a necessity; the transition from classroom teacher to teacher educator is not seamless; and teacher educators require a specific knowledge base (e.g., of their discipline, context of schools) and they need a repertoire of pedagogies for working with adults (e.g., leading debriefing sessions after practice teaching).

Peter Grimmer's research interests focused on how educators construct their professional knowledge, practice, and sense of identity (Grimmett, 2007, 2009). His early work examined how teachers used reflective processes, such as action research and inquiry groups to inform their professional learning and pedagogical practice (Grimmett, 1981; Grimmer & Erickson, 1988; Grimmer, 1996). A persistent theme throughout much of Grimmer's work has been the consideration of how socio-political dynamics shape teachers' and teacher educators' work environments and their process of professional identification (Grimmett et al., 2008; Grimmer, Fleming, Trotter, 2009). For instance, in a recent book *Teacher Certification and the Professional Status of Teaching in North America: The New Battleground for Public Education*, Grimmer and Young (2012) explored how current developments in teacher certification in North America have been steadily influenced by a larger international policy of "hegemonic neo-liberalism."

Over three decades of research has revealed the systemic barriers that teacher educators face. The issues identified by Cole, Mitchell, Weber, and Mitchell persist as was shown in the later work of Kosnik, Beck, and Grimmer.

Self-Study by Teacher Educators

Self-study research which emerged in the 1990s has been actively used by a number of Canadian teacher educators. It is worthwhile to consider a number of pivotal moments in the development of self-study methodology and community. Firstly, in 1993 the Self-Study of Teacher Education Practices (S-STEP) was granted status as a Special Interest Group at the American Educational Research Association. This SIG, which attracted teacher educators from a number of countries, has grown to over 300 members. Secondly, in 1996 a conference was organized specifically for self-study researchers at Herstmonceux Castle in East Sussex, England. This biennial gathering affectionately known as the Castle Conference has been a productive space for teacher educators to share their research, make personal and professional connections, and form international research partnerships. The Castle Conference has grown from 50 attendees in 1996 to over 150 in 2012. Thirdly, the self-study community firmly established itself as a research community by starting a journal *Studying Teacher Education* and producing the *International Handbook of Self-Study of Teaching and Teacher Education Practices* (Loughran et. al., 2004). These efforts solidified the place of S-STEP in the education community. An important point in its development was the move to standardize research methodology for self-study. Laboskey (2004) identified five principles for self-study:

- self-initiated;
- improvement-aimed;
- interactive;
- multiple, primarily qualitative, methods; and
- exemplar-based validation. (pp. 842–852)

As self-study emerged there were some lingering doubts about methodology. In response to this criticism Lasonde, Galman, and Kosnik co-edited the text *Self-Study Research Methodologies for Teacher Educators* (2009). The edited volume profiled a number of methodologies (e.g., interviews) with examples of how they were actually done and the impact of the self-study on the researchers. Across the chapters they portrayed self-study as a very powerful form of professional development. Self-study research is not simply reflection but systematic study, following all of the conventions of

qualitative research (Lassonde, Galman, & Kosnik, 2009) focused on understanding and improving practice.

The self-study movement has had a significant effect on the broader teacher education community with Zeichner calling it the most important development in research on teacher education (Zeichner, 1999, p. 8). It was spearheaded by a number of Canadian teacher educators including Ardra Cole, Gary Knowles, and Tom Russell along with John Loughran (Monash University), Mary Lynn Hamilton (University of Kansas), and Vicky LaBoskey (Mills College). Many Canadians have been highly active in this group: for example, Clare Kosnik has had a number of key leadership roles in the self-study community. As a result of the active involvement of Canadians in the international self-study community there is now a self-study SIG in the Canadian Association of Teacher Education which was started by Julian Kitchen. Kitchen and Russell (2012) recognized the contribution of Canadians to self-study: “As Canadian scholars often publish in American and international journals, their work may not be easily identifiable as Canadian or readily accessible to Canadian teacher educators” (p.3). Self-study research with its emphasis on critical friends has led a number of collaborations between Canadian and international scholars.

Ardra Cole and Gary Knowles were some of the first researchers to study their work as teacher educators and to articulate the importance of personal reflection. Kitchen and Russell (2012) described the importance of their work:

They analyze critical incidents in their work to make explicit the ways in which beliefs, values and personal experiences inform their practice. At the same time, they are conscious of the impact of their reflexive process on their practice and their relationship with their classes. (p. 5)

One of Knowles and Cole’s noteworthy publications (1994) was based on a series of letters they exchanged—Cole at OISE and Knowles at University of Michigan—while they were both tenure-stream. This work was pivotal because they identified challenges faced by teacher educators that were quite distinct from those faced by non-teacher education professors:

In many ways, as new professors, we have relived elements of our own first years as teachers in elementary and secondary schools, both through our own experiences as neophytes in the world of higher education and, vicariously, through the experiences of those we study. (p. 27)

Given the wide variability and heterogeneity of Canadian teacher educators’ professional landscapes and the contextual differences, many have taken to studying their own practice to illuminate the complexities of teaching about teaching (Loughran, 2006). While there is evidence of Canadian researchers employing diverse methodological approaches to studying their teacher education practice, self-study features prominently.

Tom Russell, currently at Queens’ University, has contributed significantly to the advancement of our knowledge about teacher educators in Canada over his thirty-year career. His early works focused on reflective practice, which was due to his career taking a “reflective turn” after reading the work of Schön (1983) in the mid 1980s (Russell, 2011). Russell collaborated with Hugh Munby on a number of research grants and formed a construct they coined the “authority of experience.” This construct recognized that student teachers needed to reflect on their own teaching to learn with authority (Munby & Russell, 1994, 1995). Another pivotal experience for Russell was his returning to the classroom to teach Grade 12 physics for two semesters from 1991 to 1993. Russell’s in-depth reflection on this experience resulted in several scholarly articles (Russell, 1995a, 1995b, 1995c). At

this time Russell defined the study of his work as “action research conducted with a special reference to the significance of *self*” (Russell, 2004). His involvement in S-STEP had a significant impact on his work and began his collaborations with John Loughran. Russell and Loughran edited a number of texts: *Teaching About Teaching* (Loughran & Russell, 1997); *Improving Teacher Education Practices Through Self-study* (Loughran & Russell, 2002); and *Enacting a Pedagogy of Teacher Education: Values, Relationships and Practices* (Russell & Loughran, 2007). All of these works focused on self-study as a means of understanding the work of teacher educators enhancing teacher education. Andrea Martin also worked with Russell for many years. In one of their collaborations they looked at learning to teach science in teacher education (Russell & Martin, 2007), while another considered the collaborations between faculty and field practitioners (Russell & Martin, 2001).

In a clearly articulated program of research, Shawn Bullock has used self-study to systematically explore the development of his pedagogy of teacher education. Over the course of several years, Bullock conducted self-study both independently and collaboratively, questioning his own assumptions about teaching and learning, highlighting the challenges he faced. He documented his insights into being a teacher educator, and considered how his practices supported the development of student teachers’ professional knowledge (Bullock, 2009, 2012a, 2012b, 2013; Bullock & Ritter, 2011).

In his efforts to disrupt his assumptions about teaching and learning, Bullock (2007) set himself the seemingly simple task of “developing principles of practice that [he] can enact as a new teacher educator” (p. 77). However, as most who are intimately involved in teaching teachers understand, this task was far from simple. As has been shown by others using self-study, Bullock (2007, 2009, 2012b; Bullock & Ritter, 2011) highlighted the inadequacy of his school teaching experiences to prepare him to be a teacher educator. One central concept that Bullock has returned to throughout his research concerns the extent to which he has been able to make his tacit knowledge of teaching explicit to his student teachers (Bullock, 2007, 2009, 2012; Bullock & Christou, 2009; Bullock & Ritter, 2011). He asserted that making his knowledge of teaching and learning explicit allowed him to develop principles of teacher education that enabled powerful learning for both him and his student teachers (Bullock, 2012a). Bullock consistently showed how useful self-study can be to develop deep, rich, complex understandings of teaching and learning. Across this impressive body of research, Bullock was perhaps one of the few researchers who might legitimately claim to have responded to Zeichner’s (2007) challenge to those in the S-STEP community to make greater efforts to situate self-studies into broader programs of research on teacher education and to link studies.

In the work of Tim Hopper and Kathy Sanford (University of Victoria), a recurring theme has been the importance of situating teacher education programs or courses in schools. They examined the impact of school-based programs on both student teachers and teacher educators. In a three year action research project using multiple data sources including the student teachers’ voices, they examined their “own assumptions about the value of the knowledge we offer and the ways in which we offer this knowledge to student teachers [we reviewed] our practices, assumptions, and values as teacher educators in an attempt to broaden the pool of resources and understandings from which student teachers might draw” (2004, p. 71).

Tim Fletcher (Casey & Fletcher, 2012; Fletcher, 2012; Fletcher & Bullock, 2012) has used his experiences in the Becoming a Teacher Educator (BTE) group (see Kosnik et al., 2011) as a springboard to systematically study his socializing experiences as a beginning teacher educator. Like Bullock (and often in collaboration with him), he documented how self-study enabled him to understand the relationship between these experiences and his teacher education practices. Fletcher has identified how he came to view his previous physical education teaching practices in secondary schools as an insufficient basis to design his teacher education courses for student teachers. As such,

a key feature of his independent and collaborative work has been an increased understanding of physical education content and pedagogies (Fletcher & Bullock, 2012). Moreover, in teaching (generalist) elementary student teachers about teaching physical education, he has had to learn how to present the ideas behind physical education theory and practice in new ways (Fletcher, 2012). These processes reflect Loughran's (2006) assertion that developing a pedagogy of teacher education involves seeing teaching about teaching and learning about teaching as inextricably linked elements. Teachers of teaching *need* to simultaneously be learners of teaching in order to understand the complexity of learning to teach through student teachers' eyes.

Although Cheryl Craig has been working at the University of Houston for a number of years, she has maintained a presence in the Canadian teacher education community. In 2011 she was inducted as Fellow of the American Educational Research Association, a highly prestigious award, which was a recognition of her sustained research activities. In one very interesting self-study she examined her experience as her faculty of education underwent a number of accreditation reviews (2010). Craig (2010) "reveals individual and institutional compromises that were made to achieve acceptable measures of success as determined by external agencies" (p. 63). She makes public the "pernicious impact on teacher educators' work and personal images of teaching" (p. 63) of the multiple accountability measures they must satisfy.

Monica McGlynn-Stewart's research illustrates the complex and difficult task of teaching a subject area that was not her area of expertise. In *Listening to Students, Listening to Myself: Addressing Pre-service Teachers' Fears of Mathematics and Teaching* (2010), she acknowledged that mathematics was a subject she feared teaching. She thoughtfully described how she used self-study to negotiate and deepen her understanding of her own teacher education practice as she simultaneously contended with her student teachers' fears and concerns. The study highlighted two significant considerations for teacher educators. The first surrounded teacher educators' qualities and practices that may lead to increased student teacher learning and experiences. These included listening to student teachers and providing safe spaces for sharing fears and concerns; providing opportunities to re-learn mathematics content in a collaborative, hands-on forum; and ensuring that student teachers experience success when teaching mathematics in their practice teaching placements (p.183). The second consideration was the professional development that influenced and helped to improve her practice. These forms of professional development included a critical friend to listen, support, and advise during critical times; and the process of self-study. A key message from this research is that self-study can situate research and teacher education practice in a synchronized relationship with one informing the other.

Darlene Ciuffetelli Parker's work (Brock University) is steeped in narrative inquiry. Like Cole, she drew on narrative inquiry and self-study methodologies in her work. In a collaborative self-study between herself, a pre-tenure faculty, and a tenured professor, both at Brock University, Ciuffetelli Parker identified three key aspects of the tenure process: fear and anxiety, building community and a collaborative mentorship, and balance between life and academia (Ciuffetelli Parker & McQuirter Scott, 2010, p. 405). As well, she did a collaborative self-study with Louis Volante (Ciuffetelli Parker & Volante, 2009), also at Brock University, examining the challenges of practice teaching supervision for faculty members.

Shaun Murphy (University of Saskatchewan) has studied issues of identity in teacher educators (Murphy, Pinnegar, & Pinnegar, 2011). In one fascinating self-study he crossed boundaries by collaborating with Stefinee Pinnegar (a professor), and a student teacher to examine "the ethical dilemmas, obligations, and plotlines that emerged" (p. 99). Using narrative inquiry, they explored "the intertwining issues of identity and ethics" (p. 99). Susan Elliott-Johns at Nipissing University worked with four other novice teacher educators to explore their practices and new roles. Their on-line community chronicled "their struggles and successes over the course of an academic year"

(Ramirez, Allison-Roan, Peters, Elliott-Johns, 2012, p.109). They examined their assumptions about working in teacher education. Lynn Thomas (University of Sherbrooke) did a collaborative self-study with Janneke Geursen from the Netherlands which included reflective journals that they shared with their students. Through this research they had a “much greater understanding of the complexities of reflective writing . . . and a much greater awareness of the importance of deliberate, explicit exchanges in teacher education classes” (Thomas & Geursen, 2013, p. 18).

One of the first self-studies that Kosnik completed examined the impact of action research in a teacher education program (2000). In the mid 1990s, the use of action research in teacher education was groundbreaking. Kosnik studied the impact on her as a faculty member, showing that her initial impetus for the action research was to help student teachers develop an inquiry perspective but that she was significantly changed by the process (1999, 2001). Although this work was informative, she did not reach the point where she asked, Is action research appropriate for student teachers? Is action research too sophisticated a process for beginners who are just trying to acquire a repertoire of teaching strategies and gaining confidence as teachers? Like many others she simply accepted that action research was “good” without being critical.

Kosnik, like Cole and Russell, was program co-chair for one of the castle conferences. After her term in 2004, Kosnik, Freese, Samaras, and Beck (2006) co-edited the text *Making a Difference in Teacher Education Through Self-study: Studies of Personal, Professional, and Program Renewal*. This text was significant because it included examples of self-study beyond an individual instructor to those studying their own programs. This was followed by the four editors co-editing *Learning Communities in Practice* (Samaras, Freese, Kosnik, & Beck, 2008). Kosnik researched their work as co-editors to show that an international learning community for teacher educators is feasible given technology, shared values, and approach to inquiry.

Many of these researchers have completed a number of self-studies, yet there is the nagging question of “So what?” Loughran (2010) says that we need to move beyond the stories. Self-study has a place for teacher educators to understand their practice, but, for it to be truly powerful, researching it must move beyond the individual to be of use to other teacher educators. As Zeichner suggests, there must be links between the studies. Bullock’s (2007) work is a fine example of links between studies. An example of what Zeichner suggested was found in Kosnik’s most recent self-study, where she built on her traditional research on new teachers (Kosnik & Beck, 2008). They found that new teachers felt that digital technology was not adequately addressed in teacher education. This led Kosnik in 2010 to make a concerted effort to integrate digital technology into her literacy courses. With Lydia Menna (her teaching assistant) and Shawn Bullock (their critical friend), they conducted a self-study of their efforts over three years (Kosnik, Menna, & Bullock, 2012). This self-study addressed Loughran’s (2010) question, “So what?”. They showed that teacher educators need a repertoire of strategies for using digital technology, that technology cannot simply be layered onto an existing course, and that student learning must not be overlooked when selecting digital technology.

Teacher Educator Inquiry Groups

In many self-study research projects described above there was an element of collaboration. Building on this key aspect of self-study, a number of Canadian teacher educators used self-study methodology as professional development for groups of teacher educators. These are significant, because they provide nuanced insights into professional learning communities that support the development of teacher educators.

A group of teacher educator-researchers at Brock University have been at the cutting edge of

illustrating how self-study can be both a form of professional development and a methodology to study educational research (Kitchen, 2010; Kitchen, Ciuffetelli Parker, & Gallagher, 2008; Gallagher, Griffin, Ciuffetelli Parker, Kitchen, & Figg, 2011). Pre-tenure professors at Brock formed a self-study group with the goals of providing one another support and deepening their understanding of how to link their teaching and scholarship. By identifying “significant events,” the group documented their learning and development, coming to realize the personal and professional value of a learning community. The findings demonstrate the benefits of a self-study community as a means for on-going professional development; in particular, the group provided a space for authentic conversations, where members found resonance in each other’s experiences and stories (Gallagher et al., 2011, p. 884). Moreover, they developed a sense of belonging through the self-study community.

Julian Kitchen (Brock University), who was a member of the Brock University groups described above, has devoted significant time to studying his practice and leading professional development sessions for teacher educators. He recognized that teacher educators are in a space “betwixt and between” because teacher education is a professional program. He identified four features for professional development of teacher educators: initial teacher educator preparation; ongoing professional development; practitioner research by teacher educators; and disseminating teacher education research and reforms (Kitchen, 2009, p. 3).

Arlene Grierson and her teacher educator colleagues at Nipissing University engaged in a process similar to those of the group at Brock University, using self-study as a form of professional development. In a year-long collaborative self-study, seven teacher educators from Nipissing University examined the text *Developing a Pedagogy of Teacher Education: Understanding Teaching and Learning About Teaching* (Loughran, 2006). Following the structure of the Brock self-study group, the Nipissing group met monthly throughout one school year to discuss the text. The use of book-study to guide the discussion led to authentic conversation about group members’ teacher education practices in relation to the text. Not only did participants discuss their own work, they also negotiated their work in relation to their peers (Grierson et al., 2012). They described the nuanced and complex work of teacher educators, as well as illustrating key characteristics of effective professional learning community groups. These included: sharing a common purpose or goal of improving teacher education practice along with active engagement in professional dialogue. Allowing for both independent and collaborative engagement in the process was deemed to be the most important factor that contributed to the success of the group. The Nipissing group’s experiences support assertions that collaborative self-study is an effective vehicle for faculty development (Kitchen et al., 2008; Latta & Buck, 2007) and has extended existing understandings of teacher educator collaboration.

Gaalen Erickson and Gabrielle Minnes Brandes (1998) examined a community of inquiry which included high school teachers and teacher educators. Over five years, teachers and teacher educators took risks in the classroom, tried new pedagogical strategies, used the group as a forum for discussion and reflection, and modified strategies for future use. As a result, “they developed a collective expertise that constituted a form of theorizing about their own teaching practices and their students’ learning practices” (p.46). In order for this to happen Erickson et al. (2005) identified three essential aspects of collaborative inquiry groups: (a) a mutually held understanding of what types of classroom practices nurtured good teaching and learning, (b) a setting where teachers had a strong commitment and control over the project and decided on its direction, and (c) a structure that allowed teachers and teacher educators to meet regularly in an atmosphere of trust and mutual understanding (p. 787). They found that the group evolved in an organic nature and the role of the participants was constructed and defined in the context of the meetings. As a result, the teacher educators’ role was to facilitate discussion and respond to relevant topics and deliberations of the group, rather than logistical tasks like agenda planning

Kosnik and Beck formed the group Becoming Teacher Educators for doctoral students, as a way to prepare them for the demands of being teacher educators. In a self-study of this group (Kosnik, Cleovoulou, Fletcher, Harris, McGlynn-Stewart, & Beck, 2011), they argued that graduate students needed to be prepared *during* their doctoral studies for an academic career. Now in their fifth year, the group has discussed articles about new teacher educators, shared their research, examined the multifaceted work of teacher educators, and in general became a very supportive community.

When Kosnik was the director of the Elementary Preservice Program at OISE, she built a community for the 25 teacher educators, many of whom were on contract, and most of whom were coordinators of cohorts of student teachers. In addition to dealing with administrative tasks for running the cohorts, Kosnik and her team jointly did research on aspects of their program. For example, they studied the assignments in the program. In the chapter “Community-building and Program Development Go Hand-in-hand: Teacher Educators Working Collaboratively” (Kosnik & Beck, 2005), she showed how little preparation most of the instructors had for their role in coordinating a cohort and that jointly conducting research was a way to include non-tenure instructors in the research process. By working collaboratively, the teacher educators deepened their knowledge of teacher education (best practices) and learned a great deal about conducting research in their own cohort.

Discussion

In this section we discuss some of the findings and outline some next steps for both research on teacher educators and professional development for teacher educators. As was shown throughout this chapter, teacher educators are a heterogeneous group; however, there needs to be more fine-grained data on them. For example, knowing about previous work experiences (e.g., number of years as classroom teachers) may help develop a portrait of who should be recruited to work in teacher education. Further, since there are such wide variations across institutions the number of tenure-line instructors actually teaching in preservice programs needs to be gathered from a representative number of universities in each province in order to better understand the trends in teacher education.

There has been a significant number of self-study research projects by teacher educators with many of them studying the transition from classroom teacher to professor. This important work has deepened our understanding of the challenges new faculty face. We now need to build on this work by studying mid-career and later-career teacher educators (Kosnik et al., 2014). Findings from self-study research are not sufficient if we are to truly gain an understanding of the complex work of teacher educators. There need to be more systematic studies using traditional research methods studying a significant number of teacher educators. The work of teacher educators is multifaceted. Research studies need to capture the complexity of their work by examining their identities, practices, backgrounds, transition, challenges, individual talents, and contexts. Further, there should be studies of teacher educators by discipline. For example, Kosnik, Menna, Dharmashi, Miyata, and Beck (2013) have studied literacy teacher educators, but we do not know how similar their experiences are to those who teach other content areas such as mathematics or foundations courses. We suspect there are similarities but there may be significant differences in their backgrounds, the ways that they design their courses, their professional development needs, or the communities in which they are involved.

In this chapter some models for professional development were discussed (e.g., Brock University support group, Nipissing University book-study); however, these seem to have been

initiated by faculty. It would be useful to learn about models of exemplary professional development that were organized by the institution to determine aspects of the programs that worked well, the factors necessary for success, and so on. There have been some larger-scale professional development initiatives for teacher educators in the Netherlands (Lunenberg, Zwart, & Korthagen, 2010), the United Kingdom (Boyd, Harris, & Murray, 2007), and Australia (e.g., Australian Learning and Teaching Council, 2010), but to our knowledge none on this level has been implemented in Canada. Using frameworks like the one developed by Goodwin (2010) on the knowledge base for teacher educators should be a guide for teacher professional development. Goodwin's five dimensions are:

- (1) personal knowledge/autobiography and philosophy of teaching;
- (2) contextual knowledge/understanding learners, schools, and society;
- (3) pedagogical knowledge/content, theories, teaching methods, and curriculum development;
- (4) sociological knowledge/diversity, cultural relevance, and social justice; and
- (5) social knowledge/cooperative, democratic group process, and conflict resolution.

The Becoming Teacher Educators group (Kosnik et al., 2011) discussed earlier is an example of a professional community for doctoral students. This model could be modified and replicated because it has been such a powerful form of professional development. Communities for teacher educators could be developed in individual universities and across universities. Meetings could be held face to face and use digital connections to create on-line communities.

Induction for new teacher educators has clearly been identified as a need, both by Canadian and international scholars. We would argue that there should also be inservice for experienced teacher educators. With education changing (e.g., use of digital technology) and research on teacher education increasing, mid-career and experienced teacher educators need a forum to learn about these initiatives and research findings. It is difficult for an individual teacher educator to organize his or her own professional development; rather, support needs to come from the administration. For example, deans of education should consider professional development for teacher educators as a priority. They can dedicate funds for teacher educators to attend conferences and make "space" in their faculty of education for discussion about goals and pedagogy. Their academic leadership both formally and informally can have a huge impact on individual teacher educators. See Elliot-Johns (2015) for examples of deans of education providing support for faculty development.

Using the research on teacher educators is a necessary step in developing a pedagogy of teacher education for which Loughran and others have called. As a community of teacher educators, we need to be learning from each other about successful pedagogical practices. Kosnik, Menna, Dharmashi, Miyata, and Beck's (2013) research on teacher educators documented their priorities for their courses and saw significant differences among teacher educators. By engaging in discussion we may come to a better understanding and agreement of what is needed in teacher education.

Studying teacher educators is important, but another key area for research is to study the graduates of teacher education programs. By studying beginning teachers we can determine the impact and influence of teacher education on them. In this way, teacher educators can deepen their insights into the needs of new teachers and the effectiveness of the teacher education program, and identify areas in which to strengthen their teaching and program. Kosnik and Beck's (2009) longitudinal research on new teachers showed that many of the practices in teacher education were not that helpful. For example, touching on many topics, which they called "cover the waterfront," overwhelmed student teachers. As a result, student teachers did not really acquire sufficient knowledge about literacy teaching, nor a suitable number of teaching strategies. This led to Kosnik

and Beck (2009) developing seven priorities for teacher education. These may not be the “correct” priorities, but the general stance that teacher educators need to prioritize and study their graduates is a sound position. Many more longitudinal studies on graduates need to be conducted.

In our review of the literature we did not locate studies on and about Aboriginal teacher educators. Just as faculties of education are developing programs to prepare teachers to work in Aboriginal communities, we need teacher educators who are Aboriginal, have a deep interest in Aboriginal education, and research on Aboriginal teacher educators. We do not know if they require particular kinds of professional development or support, but suspect they do.

Many of the issues that teacher educators face are not new; they have persisted for years. Systemic barriers need to be addressed. This will require a concerted effort by many stakeholders including deans of education. We believe that the practices of teacher educators influence the work of teachers, which in turn influences the success of pupils. Caring for and supporting teacher educators may be one of the first steps in enhancing education. Preparation of teacher educators should include: space for discussion with fellow teacher educators; opportunity to observe other teacher educators; study of one’s own practice; collaborating with other teacher educators on research and course development; attending conferences or courses on teaching in higher education; reading about teacher education; providing induction support (including mentors) for new teacher educators; and offering continuing professional development for mid- and later-career teacher educators.

The importance of teacher education and teacher educators should not be undervalued. Loughran (2006) sums up the complexity as follows:

It is not difficult to see that teaching can be viewed as comprising a knowledge of theory in and through practice and that each gently moulds the other in the creation of purposeful pedagogical experiences. The ability to make all of this clear and helpful to students of teaching and learning in teacher education requires a genuine scholarship of teacher education and demands much more than simply “demonstrating good teaching.” (p. 18)

This chapter, we hope, is another step in developing a scholarship of teacher education.

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PART 3

SELECTED ISSUES IN INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION IN CANADA

Chapter 13

PHILOSOPHICAL ISSUES IN INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION

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What is it that claims us so that we must think?
(Heidegger, 1977, p. 364)

On the 200th episode of *Philosophy Talk*, a group of philosophers, including Jenann Ismael, Martha Nussbaum, and Brian Leiter, identified and debated the top ten philosophical issues of the 21st century. The issues they identified included finding a new basis for social identification locally when distant forces shape so much of our lives; rethinking the very idea of human personhood in light of cloning, designer babies, and personality-altering drugs; and—the number one problem according to all panelists—achieving global justice (Philosophy Talk, 2013). We were struck forcibly by the practical nature of the philosophers' talk and the way in which fundamental questions about who we are and how we should properly live claimed their attention. That philosophy is the practice of social reason was also evident in the philosophers' dialogue—the acknowledgement that insights or interpretations are embedded historically and require language and practical reasoning to bring them to understanding (Palmer, 2001).

In thinking about the purpose of this chapter, we, as authors, engaged in a somewhat similar exercise as those participants in *Philosophy Talk*; that is, we asked ourselves to identify some key philosophical issues in teacher education in Canada. We found the task to be a challenging one, as there are clearly many issues of varying degrees of magnitude and urgency facing teacher education. Significantly, the issues identified by the philosophers resonated strongly in our own discussion of key issues. The reason for this, we feel, is because the philosophical issues identified on *Philosophy Talk* constitute *educational* problems having to do with subjectivity (personhood), historical circumstance (context), and responsibility (practice of living morally in a world inhabited by others). Education is primarily a social and cultural relationship, but also a fundamentally philosophical enterprise, whereby children, youth, and adults are invited into an ongoing conversation about the conditions of human existence and the nature of human responsibility at any given historical moment. What this tells us, then, is that to speak of philosophical issues in teacher education is to speak about critical educational concerns such as *subjectivity* (personhood of teachers), *history* (teachers' consciousness of historical, political, and social context), and *the practice of living and teaching* (teachers' capacity for ethical responsiveness). To speak of such issues is to remind ourselves that teacher education is an *educational*, and not only a professional, project.

While we grant that there are perhaps other issues that warrant a philosophical discussion, and indeed that none of these themes are quintessentially Canadian, it strikes us that in various

jurisdictions across Canada, teacher educators are addressing issues encapsulated by the three main areas we have identified in this chapter. For some researchers questions about who the teacher is and what constitutes “quality” teaching practice are empirical and their answers can have a direct impact on program reform; for others these questions are conceptual, related to ontology, and in need of deep understanding (rather than guides for improvement); for most researchers included in this chapter the three concerns are linked—the teaching subject is not just a purveyor of technique, but a person who is entangled in webs of tradition, history, and relationships—and pose serious questions of value.

At first pause, philosophical questions and perspectives may seem to be esoteric and removed from urgent issues of practice and the daily challenges of teacher education. Philosophy, we might say, is fine and may help us reflect on the work we do, but such reflection seems removed from the immediacy and demands of everyday teaching, research, and teacher preparation. Yet when we stop and think about that work, whether mundane or urgent in import, we are in the realm of philosophy. When we wonder about how we understand what it is we do and how we provide reasons for our actions, or, in Arendt’s terms, when we are making an effort to establish the “the link between thinking and acting” (Kohn, 2010, p. 193), we are doing philosophy.

What we are also suggesting is that thinking philosophically in and about teacher education demands particular forms of attention. “Philosophy,” as Palmer (2001), citing the hermeneutic philosopher Gadamer, suggests, “is not just theory, it is practical, embedded in the matrix of everyday human activity, a matrix requiring decisions and actions” (p. 17). Philosophy from this perspective is not idle or objective reflection on our work as teacher educators, but suggests investment in the very texture of thinking, action, and the forms of engagement that our work as teacher educators requires. It provokes consideration of the language that we speak or that speaks us, and how we live our responsibilities in relation to others. It reasserts a balance between contemplation (thinking) and activity (doing and making) in a field where reflection on our work can be easily supplanted by the daily preoccupations of teacher education programs and practices. To reflect philosophically about teacher education, then, invites pause and involves asking questions such as, How do teacher educators and teacher candidates understand themselves, their identifications, and their articulations of certain kinds of knowledge and values? How is teacher education, in theory, practice, and institutional forms understood, in the awareness that such understandings are always influenced by historical, social, and cultural factors? And to what extent are we conscious of teacher education’s historical place and responsibilities? How do we distinguish between fact and value in the accounts that teacher educators provide as justification for action (Latour, 2013)?

While these questions require rich and extensive responses, our goals in this chapter are necessarily modest. In the short space represented here, it would be impossible to do more than a cursory rendering of philosophical issues in teacher education. As such we make no claim to represent a comprehensive account of philosophical issues in teacher education in Canada, nor is our discussion inclusive of all perspectives and work that can be justifiably called “philosophical.” In the first instance, we identify and describe three thematic strands—subjectivity, history, and practice—which provoke consciousness about what we do in the name of teacher education. In the second instance, we explore the forms of attention that characterize inquiry into philosophical issues in teacher education. As such, our chapter is offered as a kind of *overture* (from the Latin and French, *aperture*, signifying an opening): an introduction of some key themes and “an introduction to something more substantial” (Soanes & Hawker, 2008, p. 724). An overture is also an appeal, an invitation to further conversations about these key issues in the work of teacher education.

The Question of the Subject

... making something new from the ruins of experience
(Britzman, 2003, p. 23)

The question of the subject—who we are—is fundamental in the areas of the humanities and social sciences where assumptions about the “human” condition underpin and motivate our inquiries and practices. What do we mean, and what are the implications, when we use terms such as *human* or *person* or *identity* or *individual* or *self*? Do we believe that the “self” pre-exists the social world? Do we assume the possibility of a sovereign individual—a Cartesian subject—unique, self-contained, and distinct from others because of its capacity to think and reason autonomously? Do we understand subjectivity as a function of relation, a self created through intersubjective encounter with others? The way in which we respond to these questions is crucial, because while some philosophical traditions (e.g., liberal humanism) argue for the individual self’s stability of identity, agency, and control over itself, others (e.g., post-structuralism) underscore the fragility, dependency, and vulnerability of the subject in a plural world. Psychoanalytic theory, for example, posits a wide range of subject positions “which individuals inhabit precariously, sometimes willfully adopting particular subject roles and sometimes finding themselves being cast into certain roles because of their past developmental history or because of the actions of others” (Mills, 1997, p. 34). Here we witness a subject less in control of itself and susceptible to the vagaries of others. As such, the subject appears less unified and always in process.

Additionally, there are traditions of thought wherein the subject is denied its centrality, although in quite different ways. While committed to the fragility of life among others, Hannah Arendt rejects subjectivity as a form of individual identity—the *what*—recognized in terms of qualities, qualifications, talents, and shortcomings. Instead, subjectivity is a revelation of a *who* that is implicit in everything one says or does (Arendt 1998, p.179). We are subjects when others bear witness to our speech and action in such a way that the opportunity for the witness’s own speech and action is not obstructed. Some critical theorists fear that too much emphasis on the subject distracts from concerns about larger social forces and the manner in which social inequalities are embedded in our social structures (Apple, 1979). Michel Foucault (1972) sets out to sideline the notion of the subject by emphasizing and examining the historical processes—the production and circulation of different forms of knowledge—which led us to think of the very idea of subjectivity in the first instance. For Foucault, the subject is merely the effect of power (power–knowledge nexus) and so the task is to “chart the death of the subject,” as it were (Mills, 1997, p. 34).

The import of how we think about subjectivity becomes clear when we consider teachers’ professional identity, the character of teachers’ work, and the implications of both for teacher education. On the one hand, viewing subjectivity as an intersubjective construction through which identities are formed and transformed suggests that the teacher’s public self is always affected and changed by the presence of the other. If individuals or society mirror back a confining or demeaning picture of an individual or a collective, then a person or group can suffer real damage or distortion (Taylor, 1994). Public mirroring of the teacher by parents, for example, is essential if schools are to fulfill their educational purpose and teachers are to stand in loco parentis. Difficulties emerge, of course, when teachers “exceed the normative cloak of professionalism” (Britzman, 2000, p.202) and begin to question predetermined understandings of what constitutes “quality” education and worthwhile curriculum. As the “stultifying dream” of “a common curriculum made safe from any controversy” (p. 200) is disturbed by debate, the questioning teacher becomes suspect, open to scrutiny, and subjected to further normalization. As Bingham (2001) argues, mirrors do not simply reflect back what we already know of ourselves. Mirrors are also constitutive in that they provide us

with a new sense of our selves (Phelan, 2010). In their study of the paradoxes of autonomy in professional life, Pitt and Phelan (2008) point to the findings of a significant report entitled *The Road to Health: A Final Report on School Safety* (School Safety Community Advisory Panel, 2007), which was commissioned by the largest school board in Canada, and to the discussion of it in local media, both of which, they argue, are sharp reminders that public education and the profession that serves it do not have the confidence of the public. On the other hand, the assumption of a self-contained, agentic teacher raises many questions, including these: Can teachers act autonomously? Can they think for themselves in situations that require judgment rather than routine? Or, is the teacher's autonomy complicated, if not completely undermined, by her role as "servant of the state" or by her efforts to serve the best interests of children and their communities? Are teachers simply objects of policy? What are the ethical or intellectual or cultural orientations from which teachers act? Does it make a difference that when we speak of teachers we are talking about a profession that is still marked by patriarchal assumptions about women? What, if any, relation exists between teaching and the production of the female subject? Are particular forms of subjectivity inscribed through pedagogic relations of power?

Concerns about what teaching and teacher education do to teachers—how they shape the teaching subject—undergirds much Canadian research. Deborah Britzman's groundbreaking work in *Practice Makes Practice* illustrates how dominant discourses in teacher education operate to reinforce three central myths about teaching and the teacher: everything depends on the teacher, teachers are experts, and teachers are self-made (Britzman, 2003). The first myth positions the teacher as exclusively responsible for the presentation of curriculum, student learning, and social control (as in classroom management). The second asserts that the teacher is an expert—knowing enough material to teach and knowing how to teach—thereby positioning teaching methods as sacrosanct and undermining "the problem of knowing as an intellectual, emotional, and esthetic challenge" (Britzman, 2003, p. 229). The third myth underscores the significance of experience in learning to teach and as such promotes the teacher as subjectivist whose "talent, intuition, and common sense" (p. 230) is sufficient, thereby diminishing reflection on the historical forces and institutional structures that naturalize this "particular brand of subjectivity" (p. 230). Britzman's work illustrates how formulations of the teacher as heroic individual banish from consideration the isolation of teachers, the dependency and vulnerability that attend teaching, the constructed quality of knowledge, and the ambivalence associated with teacher authority (Phelan, 2015).

A desire to acknowledge and to understand the vicissitudes of everyday life in classrooms and the ways in which teachers construct a sense of their own identities and personal practical knowledge has led to an interest in narrative (Clandinin, 1985, 1989, 1992; Clandinin & Connelly, 1987; Conle, 1996; Connelly & Clandinin, 1985, 1990). Clandinin (1989) explores the development of one novice teacher's personal practical knowledge during his first year of teaching. The work offers an account of teachers' knowledge, particularly of image, as non-propositional in character; as having experiential origins and as having emotional and moral dimensions. Following on Clandinin's recommendation that teacher education programs allow for the reflective reconstruction of novices' narratives of experience, Conle (1996) illustrates how preservice teachers subconsciously create metaphorical correspondences between two sets of narrativized experiences, their own and someone else's. She calls the process *resonance* and asserts that its educational value is maximized when preservice teachers are invited to share their narrative inquiries of learning to teach, staying close to the particulars of concrete experiential contexts. Phelan (2005) illustrates one teacher candidate's struggle to let go of a conception of knowledge as generalizable formulae that can be readily applied in practice and to become more open to practice itself as a source of wisdom. Teacher education, she argues, is very much a question of helping aspiring teachers to appreciate the fragility of knowledge, the epistemological value of feeling, and the priority of the particular in teaching.

The tales presented in much of the research literature honor the richness and indeterminacy of individual experiences, allowing the reader to capture the complexity of teaching and of learning to teach, while providing insight about what teachers and teacher candidates care deeply about, what motivates them, the conditions in which they learn to carry out their work day to day, and the dilemmas with which they struggle. As a reader, one feels the joys, pains, and dilemmas of aspiring teachers as they struggle to build relationships with children and youth in their care. The stories seemed to open for conversation much of what lies hidden in the life of someone learning to teach. Rich themes of loss, joy, difference, pleasure, and guilt are embedded in the stories. The narratives are not merely representational, but constitute what Aoki (1992) has termed a hermeneutic returning to the lived ground of human experience that allows us to understand how sufficiently we inhabit where we already are as (aspiring) teachers.

The assumption that narrative amplifies the relationship between what teachers and teacher candidates believe and how they practice has led to the use of narrative in teacher education programs. Introducing the work of Cavarero (2000) to the field of teacher education research, Forrest, Keener, and Harkins (2010) draw attention to the dynamics of narrative relations in teacher education. Understanding subjectivity as a quality of human encounters and the result of a “reciprocal dependency” (p. 92), these authors urge us to consider how the aspiring teacher’s desire for narrative unity—to have one’s story told in terms of a coherent, non-contradictory *ideal* teacher—creates a tension between a life and a life-story. By understanding the desire to have one’s story told, these authors assert, a teacher candidate has a better chance of recognizing her own vulnerability and that of her students, and of beginning to appreciate teaching at the starting place of ethics.

Stories may display a *who* of the aspiring teacher, but such revelations are steeped in language and as such are never innocent. Sumara, Davis, and Iftody (2008) revisit the normative structures of teacher education and underscore the ways in which programs reinforce a particular understanding of teacher identity but also infuse the social world with heteronormative values. They argue that teacher education has long emphasized the production and sustenance of predictable, stable, and normative identities and curricula. Attending to language in their work, these authors identify the normative structures of teacher education by exploring the use of the word *normal*, as in typical, generic, conservative, right, ideal, or neutral. They note the prolific use of terms such as the normal child, normal development, normal behaviour, and norm-referenced grading in teacher education. Through careful and detailed analysis of linguistic practices in teacher education, the authors argue that we can come to see just how those practices work to deprive some of a feasible and worthwhile life. Of course, it is not only linguistic practices that are at issue here. During teaching practica aspiring teachers may be subjected to mundane violence (Butler, 1999) as the boundaries of the teaching profession are carefully policed according to established professional norms. In “Violence and Subjectivity in Teacher Education,” Phelan, Sawa, Barlow, Hurlock, Myrick, Rogers, and Irvine, (2006) explore the relation between novice and expert teachers and the impact of mentoring on the intellectual freedom of teacher candidates. Demonstrating how the new teacher candidate can be vilified and violently subjected to the will of tradition and the professional order of things, these writers examine the idea of the teaching profession as a minimal community, one that is willing to put itself into question and place itself at risk with the arrival of each new teacher candidate.

The dynamic of professionalization/normalization provides the backdrop for research on the psychic life of power in teacher education. Following on the psychoanalytic heels of Britzman (2009), Pitt (2003), Gilbert (2014), and others, we witness increasing numbers of graduate students studying their own histories of subjectification in teacher education. In her autoethnography, *Silent Moments in Education*, Collette Granger (2011) explores the intellectual, emotional, and social relationships teachers and learners make with knowledge, ideas, and one another, including those moments in

which individuals are rendered silent. She argues that silences are not only personal and temporal in quality but are also symbolic of breaks in meaning and inherently difficult to think about. To explore those ruptures in meaning, Granger peels away layer after layer of her practicum experience with the help of very different interlocutors including Foucault (1997) and Winnicott (1990). Foucault's theorizing of power guides Granger's exploration of the dynamic of authority and conformity as well as confrontation and resistance during her student teaching practicum. She describes herself as a preservice teacher "eager and obliged to gain practical experience" who found herself "unable to use her new knowledge and skills in a practicum classroom" due to a difficult relationship with her mentoring teacher (p. 5). The author's exploration of the nature of that difficulty takes her to Winnicott's psychoanalytic theorizing. Never far from home, Granger's telling is conscious of its own act of transference as she recalls a question posed, on separate occasions, by both her mother and her mentoring teacher, Ms. K: "Who do you think you are?" (p. 221). While admitting that transference was only part of the story, she writes that "I went looking for a mother substitute, and I found Ms. K" (p. 226). *Silent Moments in Education* beautifully illustrates and complicates the play that is learning in and from experience in teacher education. This autobiographical work invites consideration of the excess of becoming in moments when, as Granger expresses it, "education . . . defeats its own purposes" (p. 217).

Thinking complicatedly about the subject in teacher education invites many vocabularies with their associated metaphors, assumptions, and practices. The figure of the teacher is engaged variously in Canadian research, at times the existential figure of experience, or the subject enveloped by the play of the unconscious, or the normalized subject frozen within dominant professional expectations, school practices, and social values.

The Question of History

History may well be a series of stories we tell about the past,
but the stories are not just any stories.
(King, 2012, p. 3)

As Thomas King suggests in the preceding quote, history is about stories but not just any stories. The question of what stories get told—what viewpoints and perspectives are given privileged space while others are excluded—is also a question of history. So, we might ask, in relation to teacher education, how is it that certain kinds of stories are made manifest and given legitimacy, and how do we embody that history in terms of our work and subjectivities?

In raising the question of history in relation to teacher education, we do not mean the history (or histories) of teacher education in a chronological or thematic sense, although those are important forms of inquiry. Our consideration of history, rather, invites conversations about the awareness of how the theory, practice, and institutional forms of teacher education are influenced by historical, social, and cultural factors, and, consequently, also invites a consciousness of teacher education's historical place and responsibilities. It is important to emphasize that such awareness—historical consciousness—is not simply what an individual thinks or is aware of, or a psychic phenomenon or personal memory, but has more to do with how we understand ourselves in relation to situations and events (Gadamer, in Palmer, 2001, p. 46). Ricoeur (2004) expresses this idea of historical consciousness evocatively: saying that it is not simply an accounting of our work or ourselves and that "one does not simply remember oneself seeing, experiencing, learning; rather one recalls the situations in the world in which one has seen, experienced, learned" (p. 36). Ricoeur emphasizes that historical thinking is therefore not just a thinking about the past, but a concerted effort to place one's

thinking in context, and indeed to interpret such thinking as an historical moment in itself. As Palmer (2001) notes, “a thinking that is genuinely historical must think its own historicity along with whatever it thinks” (p. 45). Historical thinking thus “comprehends understanding itself as “a historically effected event” (Gadamer, 1989, p. 300).

Hence to raise the question of history as a philosophical issue in teacher education is to ask how we as teacher educators not only think about and give expression to our work but also how we express such thinking in terms of our consciousness of historical time, subjectivity and the nature of practice. In this section of the chapter we provide some key examples of historical thinking in teacher education, which illustrate it in Gadamer’s terms, as “a historically effected event.”

Direct concern with historical consciousness, in Gadamer’s and Ricoeur’s terms, as an interpretive relationship to the historical situations in which we are immersed, has emerged in teacher education from several sources including scholarship related to teacher education for the disciplines, teacher education for social justice (Carson, 1991; Carson & Johnson, 2000; Chinnery, 2008, 2010), and teacher education policy analysis (Grimmett, 2009; Grimmett & Chinnery, 2009; Grimmett, Fleming, & Trotter, 2009). Peter Seixas and his colleagues (1998, 2002) have focused particularly on historical consciousness in the context of history and social studies curricula, and in approaches to teaching that encourage historical understanding. He has made the important distinction between memory and history, taking up the challenge posed by Gadamer (1989; in Palmer, 2001) that historical understanding and consciousness are not simply individual and psychic events, but woven deeply in social relations and their contexts. As an example of working with historical consciousness, Seixas’s (1998) work has influenced how we think about history teaching in schools and the relationships between text and context, promoting the view that a “text is an event rather than about an event” (p. 312). Seixas, Fromowitz, and Hill’s (2002) work is also directed at teacher education, asking how “individual and social memories get re-worked in the crucible of teacher education” (p. 43).

The re-working of memory, identity, and the apprehension of otherness is also a major example of teacher education and historical consciousness. There has been a considerable effort to understand the adequacy of language in attending to difference and the need to build a pedagogical language of belonging together, a central concern of teacher educators focused on the nature of intercultural understanding in teacher education and school classrooms (Carson & Johnston, 2000). After Gadamer (1989), such research suggests the importance of understanding ourselves in relation to history and points to the difficulties posed by language in any attempt to express such understanding in terms of a historical standpoint. Referencing the work of philosopher Emmanuel Levinas, Ann Chinnery (2008, 2010) has written about the need to challenge commonsense in teacher education and to question how particular approaches to difference still result in privileging dominance in cross-cultural classrooms. There is an historical element to Chinnery’s work in her questioning of the language of caring for others, and in her call for a more critical reflection on privilege and how it lives as part of our subjectivities. Chinnery also critiques a dominant notion of the teacher as master of content knowledge, promoted in teacher education. She offers an alternative conceptualization that posits the teacher as a nurturer of ideas, someone who knows how to think, and serves as a witness to others’ struggles with understanding.

As a curriculum scholar, David Smith (2000) has offered some deeply interpretive and historical readings of how we might understand ourselves as educators. His historical inquiry delves into the origins of our current forms of thinking and practice in education and teacher education. He emphasizes a tension between the interconnectedness of the world, and a continuing split between subject and object that is still embodied in educational practice and thought. Smith suggests that teacher education programs are situated between the old and new orders of world development, which puts traditional purposes in question. The solution is not capitulation to market forces but a

resistance to what he calls “frozen futurism” (pp. 11–12), where the ends of education are already determined in the form of restrictive outcomes. Smith forces us to think about our work, to become conscious, as it were, of our historical situation and understandings.

Any discussion of philosophical issues in teacher education would be glaringly incomplete without a discussion of First Nations peoples in Canada and their place in history; not just in history, but as understood in our contemporary practices of curriculum and schooling. In this regard, Susan Dion’s (2009) work explores the complexities of teachers’ understanding of their relationship with Aboriginal people. Asserting that the identities of both Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people in Canada have been shaped by the colonial encounter, she articulates a critical pedagogy of remembrance that invites teachers to attend to and learn from their biographical relationship with Aboriginal people. The promise of this pedagogy for teacher education lies in its capacity to construct an ethical awareness among teachers, thereby contributing to the transformation of relationships between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people in Canada. Such forms of pedagogy and inquiry are made more complex when we consider the diverse backgrounds of non-Aboriginal Canadians, including new immigrants and refugees who bring their own histories of conflict, strife, and discrimination.

Recently, the Truth and Reconciliation Commission held public hearings across the country, to hear testimonies of survivors of residential schools. Witnessing such testimonies, Jennifer Tupper (2015) asks what hope there is for reconciliation when the stories are made public. Tupper suggests that the process of reconciliation is necessary to realize an anti-colonial frame, but is incomplete without a realization and examination of what it means to be accountable as a white “settler.” She writes, “my own settler identity means that I (or my children) have never been subjected to such practices, yet I need to deeply reflect on how such practices [e.g. residential schools] have shaped my own historical and cultural understanding of the world” (p. 103).

There is a profound moment of historical understanding in Tupper’s words. As a teacher educator, she helps us understand that reconciliation is not simply an exercise of caring about the other, but a more profound re-assessment of understanding ourselves in relation, as an educational project. Styres, Blimkie, and Haig-Brown (2013) in their evocation of a “pedagogy of land” as the creation of a space which is not about having knowledge about the other, but about recognizing the interrelationships of the material, emotional, intellectual, and spiritual bonds that can be erased by dominant discourses of education. As Rodriquez de France (2015) emphasizes in reflecting on a teacher educator’s responsibility to help the student teacher understand indigenous ways of knowing, “we must pay attention to the language that dominates discourses that favour certain ways of thinking and being, making some spaces and contexts dominant while making other contexts invalid, devalued, and dismissed” (p. 253).

Such attention is exemplary in the work of Verna St. Denis and Carol Schick (2003) and St. Denis (2007) who illustrate the nature of historical thinking as an issue in teacher education with regard to aboriginal education and the complexities of cultural and racialized identities in historical contexts. Engaging in a “critical race analysis,” St. Denis provides an understanding of “racialization” as an historical process: “Racialization is a concept that brings attention to how race has been used and is continually used to justify inequality and oppression of Aboriginal peoples” (p. 3).

St. Denis’ counsel to consider race in historical terms is critical for teacher education and for how we respond with anti-racist and Aboriginally inclusive curricula. She cautions, however, that this requires a more profound and nuanced approach than simply recognizing Aboriginal identities and cultures. As St. Denis and Schick (2003) argue, historical thinking requires a commitment to explore deeply held ideological assumptions about race and the recognition of others. As they express it, what is required is an examination of the “co-production of dominant and subordinate relations” (p. 67), and how power relations are manifested in cultural and institutional practices.

Inquiring into the relationships between the focus of education and teacher education through the lenses of historical change, Peter Grimmert (2009) argues that we need to look carefully at the contexts in which teacher educators work, and consider the context of schools and education not simply as a sphere of activity removed from larger historical forces, but rather within a macro-political context. Grimmert, Fleming, and Trotter (2009) argue that we need to engage not simply in the preparation of teachers, but to do so within a more critical awareness of our policy context; that “teacher educators need to engage in rigorous practice-based inquiry that address issues of policy and governance” (p. 5). Certainly Grimmert’s views serve as an example of a working through of historical consciousness by asking questions about the purposes of teacher education, and especially in the current onslaught of neo-liberal assaults on public institutions and the very notion of public purposes.

Grimmett and Chinnery (2009) raise provocative questions about how we stand in the world as teacher educators. On the one hand, as they emphasize, we need to think of ways that we “bridge” the relationships between universities and schools, between teacher educators and teachers, and in Gadamer’s (1997, p. 30) terms build forms of solidarity that would support common purposes. As well, however, they call for teacher education to engage in “buffering” against trends such as standardization and conformity in the curriculum. In urging a movement from being “didactic” professors to becoming “learner-focused” teacher educators, Grimmert (2007) makes manifest an engagement with historical consciousness in questioning the very purposes of teacher education and the role of teacher educators in the larger project of education.

In summarizing this part of the chapter, we would thus contend that the “question of history” is a profoundly important philosophical issue in the thinking and practice of teacher education. First, the question of history requires that we recognize the desires we bring to our work as teacher educators and the responsibility we have to figure out what it might mean to “live in relation to a peculiar human possibility” (Lear, 2006, p. 7). Second, the studies which we cite above serve as examples of a critical engagement with discourses of teacher education that both proffer and withhold possibilities for countering racism and neo-liberal policies. The educational philosopher Joseph Dunne (1993) explains this trenchantly as the exercise of a certain kind of judgement that informs practice, and “is deeply embedded in the history of his or her engagement in that specific domain of practice—even when these judgements are creative ones that disclose the ends of practice in a new light” (p. 381). Thirdly, as our overview of the issue of history in teacher education illustrates, there is an attempt to understand teacher education in temporal terms and the effort to counter the trend in the work of curriculum and teacher education to “presentism”: the disquieting condition that “confines us to the surface of the present, itself consuming through the dispersing our subjective coherence” (Pinar, 2011, p. 41). Dunne (1993) also reminds us that the belief in technical solutions to educational questions and problems deny our rootedness in traditions of knowing and learning which always need to be brought back for scrutiny in the light of changing conditions. Pinar writes evocatively, “that it matters who said what when” and that it is crucial to explore “how memory structures what we experience in the present, and how new experience enables us to reconstruct what we remember and can foresee” (2011, p. 13).

The Question of Practice

... careful cultivation of ways of seeing and thinking, with sensitivity to contexts
(Lund, Panayotidis, Smits, & Towers, 2012, p. xviii)

Historically, competing views of practice have been evident in teacher education research and practice in Canada and beyond. In the 1950s and 1960s, research seemed pointed at producing a science of teacher education, preoccupied as it was with teacher effectiveness training, competency-based, process-product research within an empirical analytic tradition. Practice was largely conceived as “merely an expression of embarrassment at the deplorable but soon to be overcome condition of complete theory” (Bubner, 1981, p. 204). The role of teacher education research was to identify effective interventions so that they could be generalized across a range of program contexts in order to bring about pre-determined outcomes. Initial efforts were associated with the cognitive psychological attempt to isolate elements of student learning into discrete units (e.g., memory, retention, information transfer) for intensive study with the hope of informing teaching and teacher education practices. This led to efforts to research the relationship between student learning and teachers’ actions. Experimental and quasi-experimental studies sought to specify the knowledge, skills, and competencies of teachers in advance and to apply those insights to the field of teacher education (Phelan, 2011). In the 1980s and 1990s with a growing dissatisfaction with the technical rational premises of teacher education, a shift in interest from teacher behaviours to teacher thinking occurred (Clarke, 2001). Practice was now framed in terms of reflection and deliberation. The assumption was that teachers are knowledgeable, deliberative, and rational decision-makers. Teacher education was framed as a “learning problem” and there was much research interest in teachers’ knowledge, cognition, decision-making, attitudes, beliefs, dispositions, development of skills, and performance in classrooms (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2005).

Inspired by Donal Schön (1983), Canadian scholars such as Wideen and Andrews (1987), Grimmett and Erickson (1989), and Russell and Munby (1992) set out to recontextualize teacher knowledge in the immediacy and idiosyncrasy of particular teaching situations and within the experience of teachers. For Schön, knowing-in-action is entangled with reflection-in-action and, as such, teachers’ knowledge is “not dependent on the categories of established theory or technique, but constructs a new theory of the unique case” (Schön, 1983, p. 68). Two interrelated challenges emerged for teacher education research as a result of work on reflective practice: how to re-articulate the relationship between theory and practice in terms of *praxis*; and, how to cultivate the reconceptualized view of practice in the context of university-based teacher education.

The concept of *praxis* is characterized by the horizontal and conversational relationship between theory and practice through reflection. Referencing Freire’s conceptualization of praxis (1970/2007), Styres, Haig-Brown, and Blimkie (2013) understand praxis as “reflection/action” (p. 59)—critical reflection on the consequences of actions is, for these writers, the necessary constituent of praxis and leads to further actions. Praxis rebuilds a dialogic connection between the isolated fields of theory and practice as “action done reflectively, and reflection on what is being done” (Aoki, 2004, p. 120). We believe the introduction of praxis redefines the gap between theory and practice as generative of new imaginings and possibilities, because it affirms the dynamic relationship between theory and practice through reflection. Theories stem from the rough ground of practices (Dunne, 1993), generating informed and renewed actions ready for further reflections. This process suggests that “the sources of theory, then, are in practice” (Britzman, 2003, p. 64) and that theories cannot be separated from practice or universalized as truth. The relationship between theory and practice is an intimate one, as each dynamically informs the other (Russell, McPherson, & Martin, 2001).

The challenge of cultivating praxis in the context of university-based teacher education programs has drawn attention to the concept and role of experience in learning to teach. For Field and Macintyre Latta (2001) genuine experience entails novelty, surprises, and transformations. In a spirit of adventure, “one ventures forth to undergo something, and through this undergoing is transformed, that is, one returns from experience as a different person” (p. 889). Experience is not walking securely on a preset path; rather it entails risks and requires openness and courage (Carson, 1991; Phelan, 2015). Quoting Gadamer (1989, p. 354), Carson and Johnston (2000) remind us that “experience is initially always the experience of negation: something is not what we supposed it to be” (p. 75). Insight is therefore more than knowledge of this or that situation; it involves an escape from something that has misled us or “held us captive” (Gadamer, 1989, p. 356). Therefore, insight always involves some self-knowledge; it is something we come to as human beings—that is, to be fully human is to be “discerning and insightful” (p. 356).

Emerging from this appreciation of experience in learning to teach, Canadian scholars have pursued two distinct but related lines of thought: *personal practical knowledge* (Clandinin 1985, 1989; Clandinin & Connelly, 1987; Connelly & Clandinin, 1985, 1990) and *phronesis* (Field & Macintyre Latta, 2001; Lund, Panayotidis, Smits, & Towers, 2012; Martin, 2007; Phelan, 2009). The fragility of knowledge, the complexity of context, the uncertainty of the human condition, and the unpredictability of action characterize the relation between theory and practice. Neither personal practical knowledge nor phronesis aims to master and control; the assumption is that both theory and practice are dynamically changed and renewed through each action.

D. Jean Clandinin and Michael Connelly have written extensively on teachers’ personal practical knowledge as a “moral, affective, and aesthetic way of knowing life’s educational situations” (Clandinin & Connelly, 1987, p. 59). Clandinin (1985) conceptualized personal practical knowledge as being “composed of both theoretical and practical knowledge, blended by the personal background and characteristics of the teacher and expressed by her in particular situations” (p. 361). Later on she described the process of learning to teach as involving “the narrative reconstruction of a teacher’s experience as personal practical knowledge . . . shaped through its expression in practical situation” (Clandinin, 1989, p. 137). Britzman (2003) captured Connelly and Clandinin’s (1985) notion of personal practical knowledge as a “combination of theory and practical knowledge born of lived experience” and characterized as “contextual, affective, situated, flexible and fluid, esthetic, intersubjective, and grounded in the body” (p. 65). Narrative studies recounting Canadian teachers’ and teacher candidates’ stories of teaching and learning to teach proliferate, as referenced earlier in this chapter.

Understood as a kind of executive virtue, Aristotelian phronesis or practical wisdom marshals the requisite intellectual and moral virtues to support and enable right action in the rough ground of the classroom. Canadian studies of phronesis in teacher education have tried to articulate its conceptual meaning (Coulter & Wiens, 2008; Field & Macintyre Latta, 2001; Martin, 2007; Phelan 2001), its manifestation in practice (Jope, 2014; Phelan, 2009), and its implication for program design (Lund, Panayotidis, Smits, & Towers, 2012; Phelan, 2005; Towers, 2012).

Phronesis refers to the attunement of the *what* and *how* of knowing so that they are appropriately used in specific contexts (Lund, Panayotidis, Smits, & Towers, 2012). “More perceptual than conceptual” phronesis is “situation-specific and tied to the context where a problem is met or a need or concern arises” (Martin, 2007, p. 152). Phronesis suggests that there is a constant interplay between theory and practice, between the generals of propositional knowledge (including images, feelings, and values) and particulars of experience. Phelan (2009) argues that phronesis is a kind of moral discernment that enables teachers to understand and be ethically responsive to indeterminate and vague situations in which rules do not readily apply. It allows teachers to see not just who their students are here and now, but to imagine their best possibilities.

Experience is a key condition for the cultivation of phronesis as discernment (Field & Macintyre Latta, 2001, 2005). Jope (2014) explains that, “practical wisdom *arises from* prior experience, but it also *returns into* experience through its very exercise” (p. 48; emphasis in text). More than simply “learning by doing,” he argues that the insights gained from experience are returned to experience and used to reconstruct understanding of future experiences. In this way, experience contributes to the deepening of insight and wisdom. In other words, “people do not become wise by simply ‘learning’ about phronesis so much as ‘grasping’ it through the exercise of virtuous acts and the familiarity with ethical particulars this gives us over the course of a lifetime” (Jope, 2014, p. 23).

Above all, phronesis is a process of becoming good in the sense that each time a teacher makes a wise judgment about how to act her capacity for practical wisdom in future situations is enhanced. As Aristotle (2002) comments, “we are not inquiring into what excellence or virtue is for the sake of knowing it, but for the sake of becoming good” (1103b28–30). In socially diverse Canada, our understanding of the good requires consideration of how traditional wisdoms might shed new light on phronetic teacher education. Ma’s (2013) master’s graduating paper, for example, compares Aristotelian phronesis with Confucius’ *Ren* to counter the criticism of phronesis as parochially Western.

As a philosophical issue, reflection on the meaning of practice leads us to consider what it means to be a teacher and challenges the very notion of preparation for teaching that undergirds teacher education. Following our previous discussion about subjectivity and historical consciousness, a reconceptualized view of practice, one that is integrally about developing wisdom as well as learning how to teach, raises questions about how teacher education can engender forms of experience that enable praxis, as we have used the term here. As a philosophical issue, Gadamer (in Palmer, 2001) puts this evocatively: “The word ‘*praxis*’ points to the totality of our practical life, all our human action and behaviour, the self-adaptation of the human being as a whole in this world” (p. 78). The way teacher education takes up these challenges in the contexts of our schools and communities, we suggest, is an enduring and urgent issue, one that points to the phronetic imperative to abandon easy generalities about “quality” teacher education and to live with the original difficulty that the education of teachers provokes.

Conclusion: Going Forward

[T]he difference between mere circumstances and lived experience is our capacity to bestow experience with meanings, be reflective, and take action.
(Britzman, 2003, p. 51)

Canadian consideration of philosophical issues in teacher education reflects a strong appreciation for the human condition in education—that subjectivity is irreducibly singular (Field & Macintyre Latta, 2001), that lives are constrained rather than determined by history and circumstance (Falkenberg, 2007), and that teacher education carries a profound responsibility for the world (Smith, 2000).

Recognizing the “link between thinking and acting” (Kohn, 2010, p. 193), referred to earlier, challenges the focus of teacher education from one that assumes that teaching can be simply taught to one that alerts us to the profound and divergent ways that the knowledge and practice of teaching is deeply embedded in subjectivity, history, and society. Teacher education is thus, in both conception and enaction, a practice of social reason. Gadamer (1997), for example, is resolute in emphasizing philosophy as the practice of social reason that echoes our discussion in this chapter:

Philosophizing . . . does not just start from point zero but rather has to think further and speak further the language we speak. What this means today . . . is that the presently alienated language of philosophy must recover its original saying power and be led back to the uttering of what is meant . . . and back to things we have in common, the solidarities that are the bearers of our speaking. (p. 30)

Philosophical issues are therefore issues of language, how we give expression to meaning and what we hold in common about ourselves and our work, about how and why we say certain things, and what that means for how we understand ourselves in particular and more general situations. Language, as we are using the term here, however, does not simply refer to linguistic events and issues. In Gadamer's (1989) evocation of hermeneutics, language is the medium of experience and allows us, in terms of reasoning together, to identify and render open the object of our concern. And following Gadamer (in Palmer, 2007), such language is both conditioned by and dependent on our immersion in webs of relationships and responsibility, "the solidarities that are the bearers of our speaking" (p. 26). Hence, we might say that when we are discussing philosophical issues in teacher education we are attempting to say something about what we understand and hold in common about our responsibilities as teacher educators. But also, and this is a critical point in Gadamer's hermeneutics, there is the necessity to consider how complicit we are in our thinking about what we do, even though those "prejudices," to use Gadamer's term, may not be explicit, not yet part of a conversation, as he might say.

As such, our hope is that this chapter may provoke us to consider how we, as teacher educators, stand in relation to our projects of research, our teaching, and the educational community. How do we speak our knowing? Here the argument would be that despite appeals to science and methods of research, claims to impartiality do not remove us from the responsibility to question our work. As Gadamer (in Palmer, 2001) says in an interview, ". . . I would say that the fact that we are able to apply certain methods to certain objects does not establish why we are pursuing knowledge in the humanities and social sciences" (p. 41). As a question of historical consciousness, we may think of our work as a form of science, or research. But is it sufficient to rest legitimacy on certain methodological (or paradigmatic) forms of asserting truth and what counts as knowledge?

The question of truth is an important one for teacher education research, but perhaps not in any self-evident way. How do we know and assert that our knowledge (and its enframing in programs, curricula, practices) is true (and, we could add, justifiable)? Provocatively, Gianni Vattimo (2011), an Italian philosopher, writes, citing Heidegger, that "science doesn't think" (p. xxx). In his *Farewell to Truth*, Vattimo argues that we cannot simply ascribe the truth of our practices to science or the application of science without appealing to what he terms "the paradigmatic horizon within which every correspondence is verifiable" (p. xxxiii). In asserting that science doesn't think, he follows Gadamer's injunction to question the boundaries that may limit our questioning: that we cannot simply take theory (or "research") as the truth of things without an attunement to the very contexts that demand careful attention and understanding. Justifying his title, "a farewell to truth," Vattimo explains, "leave is taken of truth as the objective mirroring of a datum that, to be adequately described, must be fixed and stable" (p. xxxii).

What both Vattimo and Gadamer suggest is the requirement to apply thinking to our situations and to locate understanding in a deeply interpretive relationship with our work, our institutions, and with others with whom we share the difficult work of teacher preparation. No doubt we will happen upon those enduring concerns identified in this chapter, all of which are philosophical because they gesture toward singularities—subjectivity, temporality, and practice—whose complication urges a responsibility to think against the grain of things, and not to take for

granted that what exists is what is normal and indeed legitimate. Thus we might say that thinking philosophically about teacher education (that is, for example, to think and raise questions about the nature of subjectivity, practice, and our historical situatedness, as we do in this chapter) is this requirement to question, to ask how and where we stand in relation to past and future, and what legitimates our assertions and practices. Or in terms of the question of Heidegger's (1977) essay with which we began, "What calls for thinking?"

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Chapter 14

RURAL LANDSCAPES AND TEACHER EDUCATION IN CANADA: EXPLORING THE ROLE OF PLACE-CONSCIOUSNESS IN PREPARING AND SUPPORTING RURAL TEACHERS

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This chapter explores the concept of “place-consciousness” as it relates to the preparation of teachers for rural school communities. Before fruitfully discussing particulars of program structures or delivery, we believe teacher educators need to examine the philosophies that underlie and orient teacher preparation in Canada, including rural teacher preparation. We contend that at the heart of rural teacher education programs should be richly developed understandings of what it means for teachers to mindfully inhabit a place, how to contribute to its flourishing, and how to develop in students the dispositions and tools to more deeply consider their roles as members of particular communities. First, we describe some of the challenges rural educators face with a focus on the British Columbia context. We then present an example of place-conscious learning taken from a small “satellite” teacher preparation program and one of its partner school districts located in a rural region of the province. We believe that this illustration of place-conscious learning represents an effective response to some of the rural education challenges described, and therefore offers valuable lessons to teacher candidates and teacher educators working within and for rural settings.

Rocky Rural Terrain: Challenges for Rural Education

There is no single agreed-upon definition of rural in use in Canada, beyond the recognition that the term rural has a spatial dimension. The current definition from Statistics Canada states that census rural is the population outside settlements with 1,000 or more population that have a population density of 400 or more inhabitants per square kilometre (Statistics Canada, 2007). For many researchers, including many educational researchers, the word rural is more about a state of mind (Clarke, Imrich, Surgenor, & Wells, 2003; Edmondson & Butler, 2010)) than it is a geographical concept that contrasts with urban, or a statistical term referring to low population density. Corbett (2013), for one, claims rurality refers to relationships between residents and between themselves and the land, a designation of “connections and stewardship” (p. 2), rather than a set of facts about the distance from a city centre, or the location of the nearest hospital. In this chapter we refer to rural schools and districts in British Columbia as those outside the eight most densely populated metropolitan zones of over 100,000 residents, and the three municipalities with

populations over 75,000. However, we agree with our colleagues that rural is perhaps most importantly a state of mind.

When considering challenges faced by rural educators in Canada, we might expect to find that common ground exists across regions, provinces, and territories. Certainly there are similarities between jurisdictions. It is true that rural educators everywhere share the commitment to provide excellent learning opportunities for students in small communities that tend to be isolated from metropolitan centres, where services and resources are almost always more plentiful. Providing appropriate services for students with learning disabilities, for example, is problematic in many remote areas in Canada (Varga-Toth, 2006). It is also true that many rural schools are under threat of closure because of declining populations (Howley & Howley, 2006), while in other rural locations in Canada, often in the same province, school boards struggle to recruit appropriately qualified teachers especially in certain disciplines such as French, math, and physics or in areas such as special education (Wallin, 2009). Retention of quality teachers can also be difficult in isolated rural areas (Wallin, 2009); as one BC rural principal put it, “the more remote you are, the more turnover” (MacDonald & Farr Darling, 2011). Not only do new teachers need to contend with teaching positions they are likely unprepared for (multi-age classes that span four or five grades, for example), but those that come from urban environments often have to “overcome loneliness and culture shock” (MacDonald & Farr Darling, 2011).

External conditions affect the health of rural schools in Canada in many ways; rural teachers and principals often work in traditional agricultural or raw resource-extraction communities that are struggling for new footholds in a rapidly globalizing economy, rekindling questions about the purposes of education and a curriculum that is meaningful for the 21st century (Schafft & Jackson, 2010). Rural researchers point out the many points of disconnection between current school offerings and the dispositions and skills the next generation needs in order to thrive within a post-industrial society, and to care for an increasingly endangered planet (Gruenewald, 2006; Sobel, 2003). To further complicate matters related to preparing, recruiting, and retaining qualified staff, many rural educators are challenged, as are their urban counterparts, by increasing cultural and language diversity in their schools. In particular, they are challenged to meet the needs of a growing number of First Nations students (Gambhir, Broad, Evans, & Gaskell, 2008).

Responses to rural challenges are various and sometimes bring with them new and multilayered concerns. The use of digital technologies of all kinds is on the rise in schools in even the most remote of locations, wherever there is sufficient bandwidth and access. There are courses and programs online, exchanges between teachers and students in distant classrooms, creative media applications; in short, multiple ways for rural students to engage virtually with a wider world (Stevens, 2012; Wallin, 2009). These new communicative tools bring with them their own theoretical and practical conundrums, provoking us to reconsider the worth and relevance of the educational opportunities we may be providing and how these are transmitted to students (Crump & Twyford, 2010; Stevens & Furey, 2008). Some educators also point to the existence of a significant digital divide between urban and rural settings (MacDonald & Farr Darling, 2011). Technological support can be unevenly distributed across geographically large districts, and rural teachers generally have fewer opportunities for professional development training focused on new technological applications (Canadian Council on Learning, 2006).

In recent years, conversations among rural educational leaders reveal another common issue: persistent stereotypes and myths about rurality itself (Howley & Howley, 2010) magnify the difficulties encountered by teachers, principals, and senior administrators when they attempt to insert their perspectives into policy and funding discussions where rural realities (such as unreliable internet, winter travel risks, lack of specialists, etc.) are often misunderstood or ignored. Rural school superintendents can sometimes feel invisible in provincial deliberations that may ultimately decide

the fate of schools in their districts. Finally, rural educators live with an uneasy tension: they are providing educational experiences that may effectively broaden students' horizons but at the same time result in graduates who abandon (figuratively and literally) the communities that raised them (Hetkner, 1995), an irony thoughtfully investigated by Michael Corbett (2007) in his landmark study of identity and loss situated in coastal Nova Scotia.

Taken together, these concerns represent important shared ground for Canadian rural educators and for teacher educators everywhere who are preparing candidates for rural sites of shifting economic, political, and social conditions (Green & Reid, 2004). In this sense, we have in Canada the potential to construct a *Rural Education Commons* where many issues such as multi-grade teaching, long distance bussing, and limited secondary school offerings, as well as community vitality or its loss, can be brought together for examination and deliberation. But the geographical and cultural landscapes of rural Canada are multiple and astonishingly varied, so beyond the common ground of concern is a vast array of distinguishing features with dramatic implications for teacher preparation and ongoing teacher education in each rural region of Canada. As we imagine courses and experiences to better prepare and support teachers, it is essential that we keep the salient differences amongst school settings in mind.

In British Columbia, for example, just over 75,000 public school students were enrolled in rural schools in 2012–13, accounting for approximately 14% of the total student enrollment (British Columbia Ministry of Education, 2012). The province includes vast mountain ranges, a large desert, rolling pasture and rangeland, broad river valleys, temperate rain forests, coastal islands, and more. Following after the original First Nations inhabitants, various waves of immigrant settlers have farmed, mined, logged, and fished here, resulting in a remarkable spectrum of cultural inheritances and social compositions. Rural communities in the province differ widely in terms of histories, demographics, economic conditions, and more, yet the school is still regarded as the heart of most small towns and villages. As Wallin and Reimer (2008) note, Canadian rural education cannot be “separated from the continuity of community life” (p. 609). On a survey of rural education leaders, one summed up the observations of many:

The largest advantage of rural schools is one of connectedness. The nature of rural schools is that they are commonly a hub of community activity and focus. The family connections commonly span generations, and the identity and culture of the school reflects the values of the community. (Survey respondent in MacDonald & Farr Darling, 2011).

Even when tensions between community and school values arise, as they often can, schools still have the power to rally an entire community if their existence is threatened (Kearns, Lewis, McCreanor, & Witten, 2009). School administrators also express the belief that schools represent the “community viability tipping point” (MacDonald & Farr Darling, 2011). If the school disappears, so will the families with young children, and with them the realistic possibility that the town can sustain itself for long.

The diversity found within and across British Columbia communities is not exceptional for rural Canada. Distinctive patterns of settlement, resource-extraction, and development are found in communities throughout every province and territory, distinctions that we argue are insufficiently reflected in programs that prepare teachers to work in these communities. Although there are many pockets of promising classroom practices relevant to their communities and locations, teacher education programs are still remarkably generic despite recommendations that local context ought to be deeply and critically considered by teacher candidates through coursework as well as practicums (Gambhir et al., 2008).

Many teacher education programs are still designed and delivered as if a teacher is a teacher, with little attention paid to the radically diverse geographical and sociological contexts in which schools are located (Green, & Reid, 2004). In British Columbia, where nearly half the practicing teachers earned bachelor of education degrees from the University of British Columbia in Vancouver, teacher education curricula supposedly prepares teachers to enter any kind of classroom, whether that classroom is an urban school in Surrey, a suburban school in a wealthy section of Richmond, a rural school on the fringes of working-class Hope, or a two-room school on the North Coast. One BC administrator in a rural northern district recently noted, “We are getting a host of ‘cookie cutter’ teachers that lack the capacity to do the job” (MacDonald & Farr Darling, 2011).

The core of the UBC program in Vancouver (with the exception of several off-campus cohorts) still requires teacher candidates to take foundations and methods courses originally developed to cover as broad a spectrum of K–12 students and conditions as possible, so transferability of content to multiple situations has been considered crucial. What is presumably learned in university classes can then be applied to the practicum and subsequently to an initial classroom position, wherever it is located. The traditional practicum model narrows attention to the relation between teacher, student teacher, and students in a single classroom, instead of recognizing the complex social realities of teaching and participating in larger contexts, including the communities outside of schools. As White and Reid (2008) explain,

The model is problematic for rural schools in particular, where the “classroom focus” is at odds with a view of rural teaching that locates the teacher in the broader community. Prospective teachers for rural areas need to develop an understanding of the links between the classroom, the school, and the wider rural community—a different set of issues from those that the traditional model of a teaching practicum can provide. (p.5)

In this chapter, we argue that the most successful rural teacher education programs look to the bigger picture outside the classroom door. These programs are fundamentally “place-conscious,” that is, their content and orientation reflect local conditions, concerns, and knowledge, as well as tools to critically examine these. In rural areas where schools and communities are inexorably linked, we believe that effective teachers appreciate the importance of their own and their students’ relationships to the place where they live and to the lives of all who live there with them. Place-consciousness is by no means a new idea; educational researchers have investigated the potential for relationships between schools and communities (Gruenewald & Smith, 2008; Sobel, 2003), but it has not been taken up as robustly in Canadian teacher education as we think is warranted.

As British Columbia educators working in a rural region (one of us is a university-based teacher educator and the other a school superintendent in a rural district), we are committed to teacher education that is sensitive to concerns of location. We have been inspired by our colleagues White and Reid (2008), who claim that “place conscious pedagogies open a way for all teacher education institutions to address the needs of rural schools and their communities” (p. 2). We have been working together and with others to create learning opportunities for aspiring teachers to help them become more place-conscious, and therefore better prepared to meet the challenges of teaching responsibly and reflectively in rural (and other) settings.

As the university-based teacher educator I begin with the description of our work context, followed by my district-based colleague, who describes the meaning and potential of place-consciousness in rural teacher education.

Our Rural Context

For much of my career in a large metropolitan university, place was a topic of interest, but not central to the discourse about teacher preparation. Like my colleagues at the University of British Columbia, I acknowledged the traditional native land our university occupies, and I assigned social studies education projects that occasionally took teacher candidates to historic sites representing waves of immigration and settlement. We considered various notions of community, and how the most democratic and inquiring of these might be recreated in classrooms (Case & MacLeod, 2014). We did not spend any time cultivating our own sense of place through direct exploration of our surroundings, or through examination of the ways in which place and identity are necessarily intertwined. According to advocates of place-conscious learning, my social studies education classes were missing an important dimension: first-hand experience of, and reflection on, the role of place in teaching (Hayes-Conroy, 2008).

However, since 2006, I have experienced the role of place in teacher education very differently. I work with a UBC satellite program in the West Kootenay region in British Columbia's southeast corner. We are located in a narrow valley striped with rivers and lakes, and surrounded by steep mountains that are forested with second-growth trees. Hillsides are littered with rusted mining debris, and alongside roads are stone foundations and traces of orchards, signs that the past was different here. Aside from several scattered towns of eight or nine thousand people each, this is a very rural place. Each year I work with 20 to 30 teacher candidates in an after-degree BED program called the UBC West Kootenay Teacher Education Program (WKTEP). It was conceived by the provincial government in 1990 in response to the need for teachers who were prepared and willing to teach in area schools. At that time, four rural school districts and the local 2-year college became partners with UBC in a teacher education consortium.

Many of the teacher candidates in WKTEP have been raised nearby, or in other rural regions of Canada. Most attended small schools in their hometowns and went away to university. If they have traveled, they have tutored English overseas or backpacked through Europe or Asia. Some are pursuing a second career that brings them closer to people than their first ones in accounting or information technology. Most of these teacher candidates hope to work in rural communities similar to those in the valley. They share a love of the outdoors, and many plan to raise their families on small acreages. If rural teachers are born and not made, as has been suggested by some rural administrators (MacDonald & Farr Darling, 2011), these teacher candidates seem well suited for life in the country.

For the first sixteen years WKTEP prepared candidates to teach, its curriculum mirrored the one delivered on the Vancouver campus, including the generic classes that are required in adolescent and child development, literacy practices, the organization of schools and the provision of educational opportunity. Although course readings rarely, if ever, touched on the nature of rurality or its effects on the life chances of students, the program's character reflected its rural roots in informal ways. The cohorts of students and their families grew to be close friends, local teachers taught most of the UBC designed methods courses, and teacher candidates' relationships with sponsor teachers and principals were based on shared commitments to the continued or renewed vitality of the local towns and villages. Many graduates went on to positions in small towns in BC.

In 2007, those of us working as coordinators and instructors decided that WKTEP's rural character should become more central to its mission, content, and delivery. Not only would rurality be our backdrop, it would be the explicit site of inquiry and concern. We began to incorporate rural studies of economics, class, and ethnicity into foundations courses on the social and political contexts of schooling. We brought in local experts on regional planning and economic revitalization to speak about the school's role at the heart of a small community. We hosted panels of teachers and

principals who presented their work on multi-grade elementary teaching and innovative curricular integration at the secondary level. Aboriginal support workers shared their understandings of culturally sensitive practices. Our teacher candidates began to participate in professional development days in the school districts, work on civic committees, attend town meetings about projected school closures, and contribute to local environmental initiatives involving streambed restoration or habitat studies. We investigated the viability of remote placements at the far edges of our cooperating districts, finding “teacherages” and extra support for teacher candidates willing to move for practicum. Our initial thinking was this: *If teachers and schools hold central places in the life of the communities that surround them, then teacher candidates need opportunities to experience that life.*

Our teacher candidates were exposed to a range of teaching models in rural schools across the region and immersed themselves in volunteer activities that brought them into close contact with rural life worlds. They focused course inquiries on topics such as rural poverty, sustainable community development, alternative assessment tools, and services for students with low-incidence special needs. Our students encountered first-hand both the challenges and the possibilities found in rural teaching. Some graduates began interviewing for, and taking up positions in, very remote communities in the province and throughout northern Canada.

In 2010, we took a step further toward constructing a rural program when we developed a course on place-conscious pedagogy as an elective for teacher candidates pursuing careers in secondary schools. Terry (then a teaching, district principal and now school district superintendent) and I taught the course together, expanding the content for an elementary school focus the following year. Since then, the course has evolved as an ongoing and dynamic response to BC rural education leaders who have told us in several ways (an on-line survey in 2011, and focus group interviews and bi-annual forums with the BC Rural Education Advisory) what rural teacher preparation should include in terms of local understandings. One rural administrator echoed many others when suggesting that new teachers need to

be open-minded, look for opportunities to learn about everything, be flexible, be resourceful, be willing to collaborate (with colleagues, community, parents, etc.), develop personal habits/preferences that are not tied to urban living, appreciate the outdoors and all that it offers personally and professionally. (MacDonald & Farr Darling, 2011)

Another rural administrator told aspiring teachers, “It is important to come in with your eyes open, ready to adapt yourself and your teaching to the needs of the kids and community.” A third wrote, “Rural teachers probably need to put a higher premium on relationships . . . come prepared to become part of the community and give it your best for at least three years.” All of the rural superintendents who responded to an online survey (MacDonald & Farr Darling, 2011) claimed that it was “very important” for new teachers to have an understanding of and appreciation for different lifestyles and Aboriginal cultures that exist within and beyond their school communities.

From the perspectives of both a school district administrator (Terry) and a university teacher educator (Linda), direct experience in place-conscious learning continues to be one of the most powerful ways we know to prepare new teachers for rural settings in ways that respond effectively to the challenges raised by rural education leaders. We see cultivating place-consciousness as even more fundamental to the enterprise of rural teacher education than incorporating specific strategies for multi-grade teaching, or curricular integration, as worthwhile as these can be in the rural classroom. In the next section, co-author Terry explains our understandings of place-consciousness and its potential to revitalize curriculum and community connections in rural schools. In the sections that follow, we describe a project involving teacher candidates who worked alongside teachers and students to develop understandings that reflect four central principles of place-conscious pedagogy.

What Is Place-Conscious Pedagogy?

To begin, we should distinguish place-conscious pedagogy from the more commonly understood practices of place-based education that have been around since the 1970s. Although Dewey advocated for local curricula decades earlier, it was publications like Wiggington's *Foxfire* books that popularized the idea of students delving into local histories and celebrating the lives of local citizens (Wiggington, 1985). In these early versions, place-based activities were means to build community pride, deepen students' connections to their immediate environment, and honour local characters and cultures, both past and present. It was hoped that students would be motivated to learn about content they saw as relevant to their own experiences and horizons. As a result of these early forays into community studies, many teachers began to incorporate place-based lessons and projects into classes, especially in subjects like history, social studies, and literature.

In rural areas place-based pedagogy has become one solution to the problem teachers face when trying to bring curriculum to life for students in communities far from the cultural, educational, and social resources of urban and suburban centres (Edmondson & Butler, 2010; Theobald, 1997). By looking to the community and local environment for inspiration and knowledge, teachers can engage their students in rich explorations of their surroundings, helping them to develop deeper relationships with the history, geography, and people that define these landscapes. Teachers can frame learning experiences that students find meaningful because they connect intimately with their own lives.

But the traditional model of place-based pedagogy, grounded as it is in the immediate and the familiar, has obvious limitations. Educational researchers who were critical of traditional place-based education focused on the movement's potential for sentimentalizing the past and glossing over or even ignoring shameful historic periods and events in history in favour of providing students a local past of which they could be proud (Bowers, 2003). Critics advocated instead for a critical pedagogy and curriculum aimed at political and ecological advocacy (Gruenewald, 2003; Hayes-Conroy, 2008). Early place-based educators were sometimes viewed as romantics who were engaged in championing ways of life that are best left behind because they marginalized so many who lived them. It was suggested that some proponents of place-based education presumed a level of harmony and unity within communities that was itself idealized and likely never existed (Howley & Howley, 2010).

In addition, rural students can feel isolated from the larger world and removed from significant movements, events, and issues, both historic and contemporary (Theobald & Wood, 2010), and place-based pedagogy, as originally conceived, did little to address the perception of isolation. According to opponents of traditional place-based pedagogy, "place" should be regarded differently, viewed as both a resource for curricular exploration and a site for meaningful inquiry into broader human concerns (Gruenewald & Smith, 2008; Schafft, 2010). Gruenewald (2003) argued for place-consciousness as a critical pedagogy that foregrounds "a narrative of local and regional politics that is attuned to the particularities of where people actually live, and that is connected to global development trends that impact local places" (p.1). In contrast to the early forms of place-based teaching, "place-conscious pedagogies are more interested in developing and projecting awareness outward" toward places beyond the immediate and the local (White & Reid, 2008 p.6). The intent of place-conscious pedagogy is to start with what is nearby and known, but cultivate the relationship of the local to the global, and of the social life world to the natural environment, thereby, "actively engaging students with their local communities as vibrant, important sites for both local and global learning" (Theobald & Wood, 2010, p.17).

David Sobel (2003) coined the phrase, "enlightened localism" to describe pedagogy that thoughtfully examines global issues through a local lens. Like other advocates of a more expansive notion of "place," he believes that important, even universal, questions about moral matters,

including matters of ecological and social justice, can be addressed by studying local examples. Questions such as those related to tolerance within a diverse society, animal rights, obligations to future generations, and many others, can be fruitfully explored through examining relationships, policies, and practices within one's own neighbourhood and community. Suffused with a spirit of "enlightened localism," place-conscious pedagogy has evolved to address "head-on" a wide range of contemporary and historic issues that have significant moral import as well as global reach. As one researcher explained,

It is not just some feel-good, warm and cozy attempt to return to the simplicities of years past—it is a complex, and often difficult journey to bear witness to the social and ecological hardships of local communities and to gain from the wisdom that can be found within these struggles. (Hayes-Conroy, 2008, p. 1)

Practiced thoughtfully and critically, place-conscious pedagogy can even be a means of reconciliation between ourselves and others, and the places where we live, especially if our focus is on the invariably complicated and troubled relationships between the present and the past (Gruenewald, 2006).

Place-Consciousness Comes to Life

There may be no better way to demonstrate the potential of place-conscious pedagogy for rural teacher preparation than to provide a detailed account of our recent experience working with teacher candidates on a local history project in a rural community. We will follow our account by linking this experience to four principles of place-conscious teaching and learning. We have distilled these principles from the work of the many educational researchers cited in the literature review of the previous section. Over two academic terms, Grade 11 and 12 students in Lucerne Elementary-Secondary School in New Denver, BC, were immersed in a multi-disciplinary community-focused exploration of the local internment of 1400 Japanese Canadians from 1942–1946. Teacher candidates worked alongside students and their teachers, and were able to participate in an extended example of place-conscious pedagogy as it unfolded through both scripted and, importantly, improvisational curriculum (Corbett, 2013).

World War 2 history is integral to the BC social studies and history curriculum, appearing across the grades. The internment of Japanese Canadians is first addressed in Grade 4, and revisited through the secondary years in history, social studies, and English classes. The local connection to these events is powerful. In 1942, at the height of alarm about a possible Japanese invasion of the west coast, over 22,000 Canadians of Japanese descent were stripped of their rights and property and interned in temporary camps throughout British Columbia's interior. The third largest camp and the only one remaining at the end of WW2, was constructed in New Denver, in what is locally known as "the Orchard." In 1994, a museum was created onsite as a national memorial to the Japanese Canadians, and in 2010 Parks Canada declared it the Nikkei Centre National Historic Site. Although the site was familiar to Lucerne students prior to the project, few had made connections between the textbook explanations of Canada in WW2 and the winter of 1942 when hundreds of families, including infants and seniors arrived in the orchard from the Coast with tents, latrines, and a few personal belongings.

The project at Lucerne School came to be called *Telling Stories of the Nikkei: The Japanese Canadian Internment in New Denver*. At the time, Terry was teaching secondary English classes and the two of us had just developed the Place-Conscious Pedagogy class at WKTEP. Terry and her

social studies colleague, Gary Parkstrom, envisioned a collaborative project on the internment using local and online resources and expertise. They planned for a multi-layered inquiry involving digital storytelling, web based archival study, and other innovative approaches to studying the internment in New Denver. They believed an interdisciplinary, experiential project would help students understand the significance of this period of history and more deeply appreciate the “local to global” connections found in their community. The project evolved to include multiple participants: school students and staff, professional filmmakers, and community members. Others supported the effort, including the History Education Network, along with several museum curators who lent their time, artifacts, and expertise. By making creative use of the contributions of historians, teacher educators, student teachers, filmmakers, and internment survivors, we all hoped that a viable community of practice would emerge dedicated to better understanding this history and the impact of the Nikkei on Canada (Sears, 2014).

As Lucerne school staff were preparing for the project, plans began to link the teacher education students at WKTEP. The Nikkei Centre would serve as the site for their own inquiries into the potential of place-conscious pedagogy, including its connection to curriculum development, in this case history, social studies and English curriculum at several grade levels. Teacher candidates studied WW2 history, took field trips to New Denver, and immersed themselves in the artifacts, texts, and images preserved at the museum there. They consulted with historians online and at the local college. Teacher candidates collaborated with each other and New Denver staff to develop unit plans and integrated lessons on the internment that could be brought into their classroom teaching during their extended practicums. The teacher candidates were able to submit their work as assignments for their course on Place-Conscious Pedagogy. They also brought ideas to their sponsor teachers’ classrooms, adding another layer of collaboration that also enriched curriculum at other schools.

Collective preparation efforts also supported the teacher candidate assigned to Lucerne School for her own extended practicum. She was able to receive feedback on her lesson ideas from her peers and from teacher educators at UBC with interests in literature and in history teaching. Ideally, the preparation of history and social studies teachers includes immersion into the discipline of history and into practices in which professional historians participate (Sears, 2014). Bringing teacher education students into this circle of inquiry was an important element of the project, providing opportunities for teacher candidates to constructively engage with the benchmarks for historical understanding (Peck & Seixas, 2008) that simultaneously provided the conceptual framework for the secondary students’ examination of historical events. These benchmarks became powerful ways to guide the inquiry, supporting students and student teachers to investigate such matters and concepts as cause and consequence, continuity and change in their town over time, the promise and pitfalls of relying on personal stories as primary sources, and the ethical imperative to seek multiple perspectives on past events.

Lucerne students toured the nearby Nikkei Centre museum and studied archival images and texts online and from the Japanese Canadian National Museum in Burnaby, BC. In addition they viewed film documentaries about the period. They also interviewed local elders who had lived in the camp as children. These poignant remembrances brought the students and teacher candidates working with them to yet another level of understanding and empathy (Eppert, 2000). As culminating experiences, students created short films in which their historical understandings were expressed artistically, thanks to the guidance of two guest filmmakers.

Students’ documentary films, recorded interviews, and animated movies were screened at the local meeting hall. This public event brought together community members of four generations to hear narratives and see images that brought village history to life, linking its own past to significant world events (Simon, 2000). In this way, participants in the project brought stories of the Nikkei into

an even larger circle of learning, with the Lucerne students leading the way through their creative interpretations and retellings. Ultimately, their historical investigation, while rooted in one tiny community, encompassed global themes of injustice, racism, and displacement, and revealed astonishing human capacities for resilience and forgiveness. The teacher candidates who worked alongside experienced a powerful introduction into the role of place in teaching.

Place-Conscious Lessons

Student teachers worked alongside Lucerne students and staff at every stage of the project, building their own understandings of this historical period, family life at the internment site at New Denver, the memories of camp survivors, and the relationship of this episode and location to the rest of Canada in WW2. As a multifaceted inquiry involving numerous experts and resources, the project exemplified the boundary work across professional communities often recommended by history educators as a way to introduce teacher candidates to the practices that occupy historians (Sears, 2011). For those of us interested in cultivating place-consciousness in our aspiring teachers, it was an ideal opportunity to bring our shared commitments into the foreground of our practice as teacher educators.

As an exemplar of place-conscious history education the Nikkei project illustrates the value of bridging across community and school to deepen students' understandings, increase civic engagement, and enrich moral and aesthetic imaginations (Gruenewald, 2006; Hayes-Conroy, 2008). These were valuable lessons for our teacher candidates because they could see the impact of community connections. During the project, teachable moments arose that we could build on as teacher educators. There were multiple opportunities for our teacher candidates to directly engage with the histories the Lucerne students were discovering. So what exactly did our teacher candidates learn that might guide their own emerging practices? As a result of their immersion in a local history education project, did they become more place-conscious educators? We think these questions can be answered by reflecting on four key principles of place-conscious pedagogy that were enacted through teacher candidates' involvement in "Telling Stories of the Nikkei."

The Community Is a Rich Source of Knowledge for Creating Curriculum

Researchers have noted (Howley & Howley, 2010; Theobald & Wood, 2010) that students in rural schools can suffer from perceptions of inferiority, as well isolation from mainstream society. This is reinforced, as Corbett (2007) reminds us, by curriculum in rural areas that is almost always from, and about somewhere else. Teachers, too, can get tangled in the "deficit discourse" that surrounds policy discussions related to rural education. In coming to appreciate a place and a community through studying its unique features and history, teachers, students, and teacher candidates learn to view their own classroom context from a perspective of assets not deficits. As White and Reid (2008) observe,

Student teachers are empowered, by understanding place differently, to see beyond the surface of educational deficit and disadvantage that can lead to lowered expectations for the learning and achievement of the children in schools that are characterized predominantly by their spatial and geographic location. (p. 7)

This shift in perception was important for our teacher candidates who had the opportunity to view Lucerne students as members of a vibrant community with a rich and storied past. The teacher

candidates who worked alongside Lucerne students shared an investigation into the local past that transformed them from passive recipients of historical knowledge into active, competent inquirers (Seixas, 2006).

Students Are Likely to Engage in Learning That Is Close to Home

Our aspiring teachers were encouraged by the capacity and inclination of secondary students to investigate what they are genuinely curious about, often what they find on their doorstep (Corbett, 2013). The Lucerne students, along with WKTEP teacher candidates, learned valuable lessons about endurance and resourcefulness, most from personal remembrances shared by their own relatives and neighbors. The students understood they were listening to stories that had enormous meaning for those telling them and were also meaningful for the community. As evidenced by their films and journals, students felt that they had inherited an obligation to bring these memories forward and share them with others (Eppert, 2000). Teacher candidates were able to witness an unusual degree of dedication and focus in these young students as they prepared the scripts and edited interviews for their films. There was little doubt that Lucerne students were deeply committed to listening to and sharing these stories as honestly and sensitively as they could (Simon, Rosenberg, & Eppert, 2000). The Nikkei project served as an outstanding model of student engagement that begins close to home.

One Particular Place Can Be the Site of Inquiry Into Universal Human Concerns

Encounters with primary sources were the backbone of the historical inquiry (Gibson, 2014). The most dramatic encounters came through survivors' accounts of their childhood experiences through the internment years. The interactions with other peoples' memories led our teacher candidates to question their own "situatedness" as onlookers trying to make sense of events that happened so many decades ago. We all became aware of the risks involved in employing contemporary moral frameworks to judge the past (Peck & Seixas, 2008), however we also came to see that the Lucerne students' immediate emotive responses to elders' stories acted as catalysts for more thoughtful examination that resulted in more nuanced understandings of historic events. Terry and I also shared with the teacher candidates our own belief that ethical questions should be at the heart of deliberations in social studies and history classes. The stories of the Nikkei became powerful learning tools for examination of each teacher candidate's own ethical and civic commitments (Seixas, 2006).

To the surprise of listeners, the Nikkei survivors who were interviewed responded without anger to questions they were asked. One daughter of internees was raised, "not to be bitter." She recalled her father saying, "It couldn't be helped. It was war." Interviewees remembered the beauty of snow on the mountains or playing games with local children, even as they acknowledged their parents' perspectives would have been very different. They told their stories because they want the injustice never to be repeated, and also to convey the resilience of the human spirit (Farr Darling & Taylor, 2014). They have made peace with their past, and forgiven the country that turned on them, important lessons for students and teacher candidates to learn.

The more deeply students probed into regional and national press accounts of the time and available artifacts and documents, the more convincingly they could argue their case about unfair treatment of Japanese Canadians: "This never should have happened. It was all so unjust. They lost everything." The student films are characterized by their sincerity, if not criticality, but the teacher candidates discovered for themselves that genuine personal engagement is a prerequisite for deeper and more critical understandings of human experiences (Simon et al., 2000).

Connections Between the Local and the Global Are Multiple and Important

Although Lucerne students had visited the Nikkei Museum or the Japanese garden by the lake, only the project illuminated the site's global as well as local significance. Several student films capture their new understandings of prevailing Canadian attitudes toward Japanese enemies in WW2, and by extension, attitudes toward all Canadians of Japanese heritage. One student documentary, *Propaganda*, investigates racism and prejudice with montages of period posters, proclamations, and photographs of confiscated fishing boats and alien ID cards. Students were able to link events within and around the New Denver site to greater movements and patterns in history that resonated with their own discoveries (Peck & Seixas, 2008). One student film, *Never Again*, explores the danger of forgetting past injustices and the risk that fear will overrule our sense of humanity and fairness. Appreciating the historical significance of the internment challenged students to go beyond the immediacy of their own emotional responses to consider actions of government and citizenry and build a more complete picture of their country at war. The teacher candidates could see firsthand the ways in which the high school students made these local to global connections, and could help strengthen them (Gruenewald & Smith, 2008).

The spirit of "enlightened localism" (Sobel, 2003) that reaches out to the world permeated the project from beginning to end. This spirit challenged everyone to personally engage with history, inspired them to communicate across generations, and compelled them to make powerful connections between world history and what was happening in their own backyard (Hayes-Conroy, 2008). Ultimately, it was the emotional encounters with individuals who had experienced the Nikkei as children that helped students, teachers, and student teachers formulate deeper understandings of the ways in which the local and global intersect at various points of concern and crisis. These understandings led participants to a fuller sense of the value of studying history beginning in one's own location (Seixas, 2006).

Conclusion

Our argument is that experiential, locally inspired pedagogical approaches such as those incorporated into Telling the Stories of the Nikkei,

build a place-conscious teacher subject—and that a teacher's consciousness of place in devising and planning learning experiences brings about particular sorts of curriculum. As teachers come to know, and know about, a particular rural place, and come to understand its relationships to, and with other places, they are developing knowledge, sensitivities, awareness, skills, attitudes, and abilities that will allow them to feel more at home and more powerful in a rural setting. (White & Reid, 2008, p. 6)

At no time are these understandings and abilities more important to cultivate than in teacher preparation programs when teacher candidates are deeply exploring questions of pedagogy and identity. Close and sustained attention to a rich conception of place can expand the consciousness of teacher candidates about the value of particular places, and about the relationships of places to each other. Feeling at home in the rural setting where one teaches is certainly important, and may well incline a new teacher to stay longer in a small community. We believe there is even more to recommend cultivating place-consciousness in aspiring teachers. In our experience every rural community has the potential to be the focus of deep and meaningful inquiry based on its unique intersections of history, geography, and demographics (White, Lock, Hastings, Cooper, Reid, &

Green, 2011). The lingering societal perception that rural places and their inhabitants are not only disadvantaged but also deficient can be altered through learning and teaching experiences that emphasize the strengths and resources, including human resources, that are found in small schools and communities (Corbett, 2013). Teachers' expectations of students' abilities and potentials can be lifted if students have genuine opportunities to help shape projects and inquiries based on their own experiences and locally-situated knowledge. Students' levels of engagement and achievement can rise if they see themselves as co-constructors of curriculum they perceive as relevant and meaningful (Theobald & Wood, 2010).

We have attended to the study of place as a significant feature of the preparation we believe is desirable, and perhaps even essential, for new rural teachers, but we can see implications for all new teachers, whatever their geographic setting: remote, suburban, or urban. If teacher candidates can cultivate place-consciousness within one setting, they will be far more likely to bring this sensibility with them wherever their practice takes them. Along with other researchers in the field (Budge, 2006; Gambhir et al., 2008; Wallin, 2009) we believe that greater understandings of the relationships between schools and the communities in which they nest are important for all teacher education programs. These understandings should be reflected in both university curricula and the practicum teaching opportunities provided to aspiring teachers. Researchers have identified strong links between effective teaching and the knowledge teachers have of the communities in which their students live (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005), leading us to conclude that knowledge of community and location should be reflected in school curricula everywhere, not only in rural places. Cultivating place-consciousness should be as important to teacher education as learning how to develop informed and detailed understandings of individual students' capacities, backgrounds, and perspectives.

Our own rural location has become central to how we see ourselves as teacher educators. It has shifted the way we frame our intentions, and perhaps especially, changed our views on possibilities for teacher education in a province where rural concerns need and deserve more attention. Rural perspectives on teaching, teachers, students, and curricula have been woven into the fabric of our practice: the content of our classes, the stories we tell, and the questions we attend to in our research. Beliefs that animate our interests in promoting equity or widening horizons for students are grounded by our location, and shaped by our growing consciousness of the places where we work. Like our colleagues who focus on rurality, we have come to understand that in order to sustain rural places, future generations will need to experience a very different education than the one we have been preparing teachers to provide. What teacher education should look like, given the new realities emerging for rural communities, is a question that should concern all of us who work in the field.

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Chapter 15

GENDER ISSUES IN INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION IN CANADA: A RESEARCH LENS

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We, the authors of this chapter, have been involved in teacher education for a number of years, and during that time we have also been concerned about gender issues in education. We have taught courses related to gender and pedagogy, shared our research relating to gender and education, and investigated issues of gender in a range of ways. We have been actively involved in our national association Canadian Association for the Study of Women and Education. We thought it was, then, an easy matter to agree to write this chapter on Gender Issues in Initial Teacher Education in Canada. Until, that is, we set out to prepare writing the chapter. After much searching, we were concerned to find that, despite the fine Canadian scholarship in a range of areas related to gender, there was very little research reported in relation to gendered issues in initial teacher education.

We do not know why we should have been surprised, in retrospect. Although very involved in gender research, we have seen little evidence that discussions about gender are addressed in any focused or formal way in teacher education programs. Numerous Canadian scholars working in faculties of education do gender-based research but their work resides on the periphery of teacher education programs. Their past and present research no doubt informs gendered conceptions of what it means to teach but in ways that do not put gender at the intentional forefront of teacher education. Rather, courses are offered in “Social Issues”, “Diversity”, “Social Justice”, etc. These courses should and possibly do address gender issues, but given the plethora of diversity issues that need to be raised for teacher education students, it is likely that little depth is offered in any discussions of gender that might happen.

More recently, scholarship relating to understanding and promoting Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender, and Queer (LGBTQ) issues in teacher education has emerged in much needed ways (Gilbert, 2014; Kitchen & Bellini, 2012). While issues of gender in teacher education are undeniably linked to LGBTQ, we have chosen to frame this chapter as a broad discussion of gender. We acknowledge the merit and necessity of further conversations of how teacher education needs to help preservice teachers address “beliefs, attitudes, and personal experiences with gender identity and sexual orientation and prepare them to become advocates” for LGBTQ students (Turnbull & Hilton,

2014, para. 1). We go one step further to suggest that the importance of LGBTQ issues as they relate to initial teacher education warrant at the very least its own chapter.

There are reasons that issues of gender do not find a place in teacher education programs, of course. “Teacher Education” is contested space, as many perspectives compete to be included in the often tight parameters of teacher education programs. Students need to develop understanding in curriculum (resources, strategies, theories), assessment and reporting, the nature of childhood and adolescence, organizational and managerial skills, professional identity, professional responsibility, foundational understandings, diversity (disability, culture, race, sexual orientation, class, gender) and the intersectionality of these diversities. In light of pressing needs to enable students to function effectively in classrooms, and mindful of the requirements of external university and Ministry regulation, it is understandable that gender is lost in the long list of ‘need to know’ areas. Teacher education programs are often seen as a ‘training’ ground where students are required (and expect) to learn skills enabling them to provide effective learning experiences to their pupils, demonstrated to them by more experienced instructors and mentor teachers. More in-depth teacher ‘education’ including opportunities to delve deeply and reflexively into social issues is often not possible given the competing agendas and discourses of teacher education programs and the constrained length of teacher education programs.

While gender permeates all aspects of teacher education and arguably of being a teacher, programming within Faculties of Education rarely include a focus on gender. Gender is also often relegated to ‘feminist’ instructors who are able to weave gendered discourse into other aspects of the program, such as curriculum (materials chosen, language used), management (selecting female as well as male students), historical understandings of gender, and teacher identity. However, as Kirk (2005) notes, lack of attention to gender equity continues to devalue the profession for all. She suggests that it is “ultimately disempowering for both men and women if policy further entrenches divisions of labour along gender lines, narrows the choices available to men and to women, and promotes gendered identities for women teachers that depend largely upon ‘natural’ nurturing, caring and child-rearing abilities” (Kirk, 2005, p. 638). Gender, in all ways we consider it, has enormous influence on education generally, and teacher education more specifically. Too often, however, discussions of gender become personal and anecdotal; as we have recognized, there is limited research (particularly in a Canadian context) that relates to ways that gender, as a sociocultural construct, influences teacher education programs, the gendered make-up of teacher education programs, the genderedness of instructors, and discussions of gendered media-fueled myths. And despite the importance of gender in our profession, we (the authors) recognize the need for a more focused research agenda exploring this issue in initial teacher education programs.

There are, as Connell (1987) suggests, many tensions and confusions about the term ‘gender’, as it relates to biology, socialization, sexuality, integration with class, race, and cultural difference. It is important for us, then, to begin with a definition of ‘gender’ that shapes our discussion.

Exploring Definitions of Gender

When we think of gender many ideas come to mind. In general terms, we understand gender to be a sociocultural construct that moves beyond biological sex/ determinism and that in part defines our role in society. As defined by de Lauretis (1987), gender is “not a property of bodies or something originally existent in human beings . . . it is the product and process of various social technologies, institutional discourses, epistemologies, and critical practices, as well as practices of daily life” (p. 3). Drawing on feminist understandings about gender (Arnot, 2002; Butler, 1999; West & Zimmerman, 2002); particularly as it relates to power, the social constructivist framework explains

that there is no essential or distinct character that is feminine or masculine. Rather, behaviours are influenced by a range of factors including class, culture, ability, religion, age, body shape, and sexual preference (Jackson & Scott, 2002). Social constructivist theory suggests that boys and girls actively construct their own gendered identities (Davies, 2002; Thorne, 1993).

Our own identity and how we express ourselves to the world, although not always clearly articulated, shapes our understandings of gender. However, recent broadened conceptions of gender that are inclusive of diverse gendered identities/positions have problematized the issue, demanding that we move beyond a binaristic conception of gender as male/female to one that includes diversity of gender, e.g., lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgendered, and queer as gendered descriptors. However, particular physical characteristics and appearances, e.g., hair length and style, make-up worn, gestures, maintain strict normative views of gender. Behaviours are also societally regulated, dictating not only appearance, but careers, hobbies, relationships, and identities. From birth, children are gender-identified, and from a very early age, they are regulated into socially normative gendered lives.

In order to identify the gender issues in initial teacher education, it is important to first define and then problematize gender and how it can play out in educational settings. “Gender was first used in the 1950’s” (Public Health Agency of Canada, 2010, p. 1) and at the time, described the “feelings and behaviours that identify a person as ‘male’ or ‘female’” (p. 1). This definition places the emphasis on gender being constructed by an individual, based on how they feel and what they do. Thirty years later, West and Zimmerman’s (1987) influential work “Doing Gender” interrogated the term and identified *the act of doing gender* as something an individual does in a situated place, that “involves a complex of socially guided perceptual, interactional, and micropolitical activities that cast particular pursuits as expressions of masculine and feminine ‘natures’” (p. 126). West and Zimmerman furthered the initial definition of gender to incorporate the social interaction involved in decoding and understanding one’s gender. The act of doing gender is not limited to or does not lie solely with the individual; rather cultural customs, institutional norms and societal stereotypes hold strong influences over how one makes sense of gender; both their own and the gender of others. More recently, West and Zimmerman’s work has been critiqued and continued by scholars such as Judith Butler’s (2004) “Undoing Gender”, and Francine Deutsch’s (2007) article “Undoing Gender”, in which the concept of the “dismantling of gender” (Deutsch, 2007, p. 107) is discussed and proposed as a way to move towards more inclusive social environments and gender equity. These concepts reiterate the concept of a continuum of gender in which people display/act out/understand their gender to be changeable, to change on the situation in which they find themselves and, to include more than the traditional understanding of a binary relationship of maleness and femaleness.

Definitions of gender are changing to reflect how cultures renew and transform themselves. The changing definitions mirror how individuals interpret their own and others’ gender, given that gender identity can shift and move along a continuum depending on variables like “age, class, race, ethnicity, religion, as well as geographical, economic and political environments” (Status of Women Canada, 2013, n.p.). A current definition from the World Health Organization (2009) states that “gender refers to the socially constructed roles, behaviours, activities, and attributes that a given society considers appropriate for men and women” (p. ???). A Canadian institution, Health Canada, offers a similar definition: “Gender refers to the array of socially constructed roles, attitudes, personality traits, behaviours, values and relative power and influence that are ascribed to the two sexes” (Health Canada, n.d.). However, phrases like “society considers appropriate”, “ascribed to” and “the two sexes” suggest a more limited understanding of gender, creating boundaries, limits and difficulties for the lives of individuals who are outside of the socially appropriate norms (Hofstätter & Wöllmann, 2011). The influence that society and culture exert over people whose gender displays are not recognized as “normal” or are understood to be inappropriate is powerful.

Despite the fact that these definitions recognize: (1) a wide array of gender role; (2) the continuum of genderedness; and (3) the many variables influencing how gender is portrayed, interpreted and understood, gender as a binary concept is still culturally dominant. This binary of gender makes life very difficult for those in the educational system who do not fit in with normative notions of gender, regardless of whether they are teachers, students, parents or other adults. In addition, teachers bring to their teaching practice unique and idiosyncratic definitions of gender and when these include normative and binary understandings of gender then through their instruction and actions they may preserve sexist and homophobic discourses and practices. These actions contribute to the definitions of gender played out in the classroom and may have far more influence on students than formal definitions from the World Health Organization or Health Canada.

As preservice teachers enter a profession that challenges them to critically examine and change the current culturally-defined education system, they must contemplate a variety of gender-related questions including:

- Who decides acceptable gender expressions for teachers, for students, for parents, for our society?
- Whose voices are not heard when expressing ideas related to gender?
- What happens to children who do not fit societal norms and become institutionally bullied because of gender-expected roles/ideals?
- How does a teacher's gendered discourse and display influence, impact and direct others, their students and peers?
- In which situations in our educational settings does gender instruction happen - implicitly and explicitly?
- How could/should teachers be involved in examining societal issues, such as gender, in their classes/curriculum?

Preservice teachers' failure to consider these gender-related questions may result in a perpetuation of traditional gender norms, which can be exclusionary and in some instances dangerous. Through careful consideration of social issues such as gender, or courses offered which address these constructions (see Erden, 2009) preservice teachers' awareness of gender issues in education, and the implications for their practice, will increase. We, along with others, recognize the importance of understanding gender and its implications in the development of teaching practice. Before proceeding, we share a brief history of how we have arrived at this space and time.

Historical Background

Though, as we have pointed out earlier, consideration of gender is more complex than the binary representation of men and women, historically discussion of gender in education was limited to such distinctions. Our intention in using historical language of gender in this section as exclusively men and women is to share historically relevant information but also to highlight the heteronormativity in past discussion of gender. Since the advent of schooling, the roles for men and women in public education have been very different (Epstein, Elwood, Hey, & May, 1998; Skelton & Francis, 2003). In early 19th Canada, women began teaching in domestic situations, and by the end of that century public school teaching was done predominantly by women. However, women (mostly young) were paid less than men, were not able to maintain their position once they were married, and

rarely had administrative responsibilities. Today, while these conditions have changed¹, most teachers in primary grades are women and there are fewer female teachers in the secondary grades than elementary. The location of women in education is a reflection of the still commonly-held belief that women are naturally more nurturing and caring than men, thus should teach the young children, and the ‘soft’ subjects such as humanities and ‘home economics’ (nutrition, sewing, homemaking) whereas men generally teach older students more often, focusing on mathematics, science, technology, and the trades (Arnot, 2002; Arnot, David & Weiner, 1999). This ongoing differentiation of gender roles in education serves to maintain the low status of education as a profession, and the view that education is a ‘feminized’ profession. Educational materials such as textbooks often still contain gender biased materials, underrepresenting girls and women in all areas of curriculum (Tupper, 1998). This imbalance supports the ongoing differentiation of programs selected by males and females, with women still vastly underrepresented in physics and chemistry, mathematics, technology, and engineering, while dominating education and nursing (Acker, 1989; <http://www.thecanadianencyclopedia.com/en/article/women-and-education/>).

In the 1970s, considerable research was conducted in the areas of gender bias and stereotyping in educational contexts. Aspects of gender, including the ways in which literature stereotypes, the ways in which co-ed groups respond to male and female students; and the kinds of role models who influence children were examined. Women’s Studies courses and programs were created, offering spaces for examining gender issues. These research programs and resulting initiatives have addressed gender inequity in promotion, access, and school/workplace behaviours. However, sexism, gender bias, and stereotyping continue, affecting life in classrooms and elsewhere (see, for example, Pomerantz, Raby & Stefanik, 2013). And while there have been changes to the demographics, changing the numbers does not address the attitudinal mindsets of future generations, including teachers. Opportunities for students in teacher education programs to consider these issues and ways they are implicated are still very limited. Additionally, while women have greater leadership opportunities in schools, men are more often able to teach primary education, and opportunities for boys and girls to access to *all* courses offered are improving, we are still in need of open and informed discussions about a continuum of gender representations, moving beyond a biological sex model. As we briefly alluded to earlier but wish to emphasize here, heterosexual and LGBTQ teachers need to be supported then support their students in understanding the needs of students with alternative sexual orientations (Macgillivray, 2004) and gender-variant identities.

In 1993, Pearson and Rooke proposed the mainstreaming of gender studies in teacher education within Canada. Their argument for such action was to create opportunities for preservice teachers to uncover “distortions of past practice and ongoing assumptions while radically changing our understanding of how such landmarks were formed and why” (Pearson & Rooke, 1993, para. 14). The purpose was to highlight gender as an analytical lens through which we shed light on “how men and women’s experiences are linked, in an inclusive vision of human dynamics based on notions of difference and diversity, not generalization and sameness” (Pearson & Rooke, 1993, para 12.). The power in an approach of gender analysis is that social meaning is constructed based on how gender intersects with knowledge and understanding of what it means to become a teacher. Despite their compelling argument, our research for this chapter revealed little in the way of action being taken up in response to Pearson and Rooke’s call.

¹ Women’s salaries are generally the same as men; they cannot be dismissed as a result of their marital status or if they have children.

Literature Review – Gender Issues in Teacher Education in Canada and Beyond

In this section we will provide an overview of recent research both in Canada and in international contexts related to gender and teacher education. After a significant backlash to ‘women’s liberation’ of the 1960s and 1970s, attention turned in the 1980s and 1990s to the education and opportunities for girls and women (Sadker & Sadker, 1994). In education, girls were provided with opportunities to develop their skills in the sciences, technology, and mathematics, after some recognition that these areas had not been welcoming to girls (Clewell & Campbell, 2002). However, this brief focus on girls seemed to have had little attention in teacher education programs. Soon after this brief exploration into the education of girls and young women, a further backlash returned our attention to boys, with an examination of their struggles with literacy. There still seemed to be little change to teacher education programs or teacher education research foci. As we moved into the 21st century, a more nuanced discussion about gender through feminist, post-structural, and intersectional theoretical frameworks opened up, exploring ways that gender intersected with diversities such as race, class, ability and sexual orientation. However, as the focus broadened, attention on gender was diffused with other social justice issues (see Pinto et al., 2012). Some Teacher Education programs took up a social justice lens through which to prepare their pre-service teachers (York University, University of the Fraser Valley) while others continued to address gendered issues within a diversity framework in informal ways throughout their programs. In teacher education, discussion of a preponderance of females in teacher education programs has dominated discussion and any research that has been conducted (Laird, 1988). The focus on boys in media and popular texts has continued through the second decade of the 21st century, identifying ways in which boys in school are disadvantaged, excluded, and influenced by ‘feminized’ schooling (Abraham, 2010).

Poole and Isaacs (1993) discussed a gender agenda in teacher education, suggesting that pre-service teachers are taught in environments that continually reproduce hegemonic hierarchies; student teachers, they suggested, were not given analytical skills or conceptual tools to address hegemonic hierarchies, and no gender theories were presented in their classes or field-based experiences. Indeed, they commented that teachers and university instructors can *contribute* to gender inequities in schools (Acker, 1989, and they noted ambivalence, particularly by males, to including discussions of gender into the curriculum. Chapman (n.d.) also spoke of the need to address gender bias in education, referencing a ‘hidden curriculum’ intending to socialize females and males in particular ways that perpetuate societal norms. The use of explicit and implicit resources (textbooks, films, media images), test scores and statistics, as well as anecdotal evidence, maintain the status quo in relation to gender and curriculum. As noted by Sanford (2002a; 2002c), curriculum materials reinforce patriarchal conceptions of the world, particularly in curricular areas such as social studies, science, and English. Dominant discourse is ubiquitously exclusionary, where heroes and leaders are portrayed as male, (women in the margins), language – while now inclusive – contains more subtle messages about what is important (rational, logical, technical) and *Lord of the Flies* (Golding, 1954), drawing on dominant patriarchal cultural configurations is still one of the most widely taught novels in high schools in the western world. Sanford (2002b) suggests that these texts are representations of our culture and need to be explicitly problematized in the classroom and in teacher education programs. A study by Jones, Evans, Byrd, and Campbell (2000), using video analysis of videotaped lessons, introduced teachers to their own gender-biased behavior. The participants in this study came to recognize the disproportionate amount of time, energy, and attention that they gave to male students. This unacknowledged behavior, unless explicitly addressed, does not change in post-secondary teacher education programs. As commented by Sadker and Sadker (1994) two decades

ago, “sitting in the same classroom, reading the same textbook, listening to the same teacher, boys and girls receive very different educations” (p. 1).

Schools are fundamental socializing agents, transmitting social and cultural values. Dillabough (2006) suggested that heterosexual masculine logic structures social life and yet asserts normativity. This symbolic domination is deeply problematic – it seems to be neutral, normal, and therefore self-regulating, but masks systemic inequities. Heyward (1995) explored gender values at a Canadian independent school for girls, and in this research study identified a tension about gender expectations, where teachers are continually conflicted between the feminine nurturant aspects of teaching and the more stereotypically masculine authoritative aspects of teaching. The old gender regime of earlier times was, in this school, contested by students and teachers alike, but in the absence of explicit gendered discussion about conflicting goals and desires for these young women, remained unresolved. In 2001, Larkin and Staton offered a model of equal opportunity (Access, Inclusion, Climate, Empowerment – AICE), developed following research in Canadian schools. They said that

equity is concerned with the elimination of systemic barriers and the development of policies and practices that will support equal outcomes. The ‘equal opportunity’ notion of sameness overlooks structural inequities and focuses on transforming individuals to fit the dominant mold. (Staton & Larkin &, 1993, p.1)

They further suggest that all four of these equal opportunity components need to be given equal attention in providing gender equality in education and teacher education (Larkin & Staton, 2001). Sanford and Blair (2002) used this framework to research the attention given to these components in a variety of single-sex programs in western Canada, noting that while few school districts have a comprehensive gender-equity policy or lens, single-sex programs in some measure were seen as changing the nature of educators’ conversations about gender equity.

In 2000, Sanford noted that “issues of gender in education have in recent decades become recognized as an important aspect of social and cognitive development for students” (p.1). In a two-year research study where she worked closely with two pre-service teachers (one female and one male), teachers’ gendered beliefs and values were seen to have had an impact on their expectations, selected activities, management and teaching styles, and relationships with their students. The unexamined practices and expectations of these two preservice teachers had implications for their own confidence, voice, and activities, and for the ways in which their work was valued by others and by themselves. For example, the female student teacher spent many hours visiting the homes of her students over lunch, meeting their families and getting to know them. However, this was not seen as valuable or innovative in the same way as the male student teacher’s puppet stage and dramatic activities. It was noted by Sanford (2000) that “greater gendered awareness of the informal curriculum, which operates in and around classroom activities, will help to offer [teachers] different perspectives and possibilities to all students in the class” (p.87), and that the often invisible gendered curriculum that is woven into all aspects of educational experiences needs to be made visible in order for it to be examined. Marsh (2003), exploring hegemonic constructions of masculinity and femininity, suggested that these constructions need to be carefully examined. Marsh (2003) recommended that “isolated strategies and projects which focus on the needs of one gender at the expense of the other will not do” (p.75). Rather, educators need to take more than a cursory glance at gendered issues in their classes and ensure that surface measures of success do not mask inconsistencies in education at the expense of girls’ educational opportunities (Sanford, 2010).

These unresolved issues remain a tension for pre-service teachers today, surfacing in teacher education programs in different ways but not explicitly addressed or researched in these sites of

learning. As mentioned earlier, finding research specific to gender issues in the Canadian context of teacher education seems to have fallen through the cracks. In 2007, as part of the Working Conference on Research in Teacher Education in Canada, a range of scholars undertook a critical examination of practices in teacher education related to diversity, identity and inclusion (Carson, 2008). Attention was given to “internally persuasive discourses” (p. 67) of which gender and sexuality was identified under a larger umbrella of diversity. From this working conference, questions emerged that were intended to guide the study of teacher education with regard to diversity. As we have seen and experienced, the competing interests of diversity result in little critical engagement with issues specific to gender. Teacher education programs and curriculum need to better analyze and discuss understandings of teachers and their social situations, recognizing the balance required to accommodate new definitions of how gender is defined, rather than maintaining assumptions based on a normative patriarchal model. Additionally, Kirk (2005) suggests that, as a starting point, women [teachers] need to look back on their own silencing, marginalization and compromises they have accepted as women, in order to develop more authentic support of their students. Empowerment-focused gender and development of theory and practice will enable fulfillment of the potential of education in which and through which long-term shifts in roles and relations can be achieved. There needs to be more education of gender theories and their implications for education, in relation to pre-service teachers as well as educators, students, resources, and the relationships enabled as a result.

Erden (2009) reports on research conducted in relation to a course on gender equity in education in a teacher education program in Turkey. Erden (2009) states that gender equity must be systemic, and needs to be on the agenda of teacher education work in order for things to change. If one of the objectives of education is to enable all students to realize their capabilities and reach their full potential, we need to ensure gender-equitable environments. Previous research has shown that boys receive more academic contact from teachers than girls (Murphy, 1986), that elementary teachers were more likely to assist girls or do their work for them while giving boys more instructions than girls (Irvine, 1986; Murphy, 1986), that teachers called on male students more often and engaged them in longer discussions (Guzzetti & Williams, 1996), they interrupted girls more frequently than boys during conversations (Hendrick & Stange, 1991), and that teachers interacted with male students more than female students (Mewborn, 1999). These inequities are seldom addressed in teacher education programs in a systemic way. Brody (1998) suggested that teacher beliefs have an impact on their behaviours in the classroom, their preparation and delivery of instruction, and their learning from their own teaching practices (p.171). Kelly (2002) suggested that awareness to gender equity should start in teacher education programs; Erden’s (2009) study aimed to examine the effects of an undergraduate course in gender equity in education on teacher candidates. Erden’s (2009) research pointed to a positive shift in pre-service teachers’ attitudes, although acknowledging that this one-year study does not necessarily imply that this change is long-term.

Naming the Issues

Schooling, despite attempts to address inequities, is different for boys and for girls and for different types of boys and girls. As in the broader society, gender plays a significant role in how people experience education and the world. Although numbers (test scores, ranking, students in programs) suggest that gains have been made for girls and women, there are still significant qualitative differences in their experiences and in their education. Our society is a patriarchy, through which behaviours, expectations, and opportunities are normalized – we are socialized to accept (or

not even see) gender differences. An examination of the literature, or lack of literature, emphasizes that there are too few attempts in education and teacher education to discuss and understand the differences. The silence around gender issues in teacher education and education generally results in teachers' gender biases continuing unexamined. If we are serious about ridding ourselves of gender stereotypes and biases, about providing equitable education for all, then we need to conscientiously and systematically provide opportunities to recognize individual and social behaviours, expectations, and desires as part of a critical engagement with teacher education practices.

Locating 'Gender' in Teacher Education Programs

Kirk (2005) notes that although we have noted the impact of feminization of the teaching profession over the past decades in western contexts, this has not necessarily brought about strategic advances for women that were expected, nor has it created shifts in gendered understandings or practice. Education is considered a key factor in empowering learners, yet gender has gone unnoticed in teacher education programs. More attention is needed to give attention not only for girls' education but for the educational system as a whole. As mentioned in the Introduction to this chapter, gender inequity continues to devalue the profession for all (Kirk, 2005). Simmons and Thompson (2007) further elaborate by suggesting that poor pay and working conditions further 'feminizes' the teaching profession, with an ensuing lack of credibility and power of education and teacher education overall. They suggest that as the role of teacher education and teacher educators has been redefined in recent times, the focus has been essentially on delivery of programs rather than research. They cite Weiner (2000) as saying that "discourses of teacher education are shaped by the generally low status of school-teachers and teacher educators, the association of school-teaching with 'women's work' and the consequent increased feminization of teachers and teacher educators" (as cited in Simmons & Thompson, 2007, p.528). In order to appear credible as teacher educators, we need to develop appropriate pedagogies for teacher education and to develop research; however generally in teacher education programs the focus is on procedural issues such as management, planning, and curriculum development, which might indicate not only a lack of opportunity for research but also a lack of appreciation of scholarship as part of the role of teacher educators (Simmons & Thompson, 2007, p. 520). As Erden (2009) commented, gender equity issues are generally not addressed in teacher education programs; teachers have little opportunity to explore issues of equity and they enter the profession unprepared to teach in an equitable manner (p.413). Erden suggests that the findings of her study indicate a need to redesign teacher education curricula in order to include a focus on gender equity.

Examples from the Field

Although teacher education programs do not generally have classes focused on gender issues, when given the opportunity, preservice teachers have shown themselves interested in addressing these issues. We will provide two exploratory ways in which gender issues have been taken up in teacher education. Both examples are provided by student teachers, Jeanne and Emily, and stem from their work in a teacher education class, during their coursework towards their professional degree.

Creating gender equitable classrooms. In the first example/case study Jeanne poses the question: "Is the 21st century classroom gender-blind?" In a multi-part project Jeanne began by creating a collage poster (see Figure 1 below) depicting multiple images of men and women. She

invited the audience to view the poster and reflect on what they saw, and to ask themselves whether they saw images that portray gender stereotypes and/or discriminatory beliefs. She invited questions about how she had constructed the poster, using images from a variety of publishers' catalogues of children's books – images that students potentially are exposed to daily in their classrooms, libraries, and everyday lives. She then posed the questions: Do these issues stop when a student enters the 21st century classroom? Is gender still an issue, are our classrooms gender-free or are they gender-blind? Do teachers need to be more aware of gender in their classroom practices? If so, how?



Figure 1. Images from Jeanne's presentation

In order to further explore her question, Jeanne spent time making multiple observations of a variety of classrooms, through exploration of research about the issue, and interviewing teachers and students about their perceptions of gender issues in the classroom during which she also asked, “Do boys and girls receive equal attention from their teachers?” Her results showed that there was a very visible difference in the way boys and girls were treated in the classrooms she observed, but she was surprised that most teachers (even those who claimed to be gender-sensitive) tended to be unaware of the differences. Indeed, what Jeanne found worrying was that neither the teachers nor the students perceived any significant inequities – she noted a discrepancy between her observations and their perceptions. She suggested that we are not talking about gender issues enough in teacher education and that there may be value in increasing our awareness of the patterns she was observing. In doing so, she posits, we can perhaps help students to make a difference in the world at large, and support them to question and bring awareness to the gender inequities they live. She also spent some time exploring lyrics of songs that these students were listening to, which supported her ‘visual’ findings that there are still serious issues surrounding gender in the outside world, whether we are aware of it or not, that need further attention. These issues do not cease to exist when students enter the classroom and should be discussed and problematized in school. Teacher education students would benefit from having the awareness, skills and strategies to appropriately address gender issues.

In response to her inquiry experiences, Jeanne further asked how she could provide her own students with equal opportunities to engage meaningfully and appropriately in her classroom. Her

observations about which students in the class garnered the most attention showed that in the predominance of classrooms, boys attracted the most attention from the teacher, but in the final years of schooling, there was a shift from boys to girls. She also noted that this research needed to provide more nuanced responses by asking: Which boys? What types of attention (positive or negative)?

As a first step to renewing the discussion on gender and to begin addressing gender inequities in the 21st century classroom, Jeanne suggested a Checklist for a Gender Equitable Classroom (see Figure 2 below), encouraging teachers to consider their own practices, behaviours, and beliefs:

<p style="text-align: center;">CHECKLIST FOR A GENDER-EQUITABLE CLASSROOM</p> <p>Have I...</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> randomized participation of students? Used, for example, popsicle sticks or flashcards with names, or the Pick Me! App? <input type="checkbox"/> created activities and lesson plans that identify gender stereotypes? <input type="checkbox"/> assigned specific roles during group tasks to break patterns? <input type="checkbox"/> made sure I have eye contact with all my students? Every day? <input type="checkbox"/> frequently changed seating arrangements? <input type="checkbox"/> used female pronouns? <input type="checkbox"/> avoided sexist language or addressing the whole group by generic/male terms, such as ‘guys’? <input type="checkbox"/> moved around the classroom? <input type="checkbox"/> established ‘rules’ about how answers are given? Remembered that raised hands allows me to control who talks and when? <input type="checkbox"/> remembered that girls tend to think about their answer and focused on giving them enough time to answer? <input type="checkbox"/> found the women in all subjects? <input type="checkbox"/> monitored how I encourage students and made sure I provide verbal encouragements to all students (and not only to boys, as the research shows)? <input type="checkbox"/> invited role models from both sexes to come into my classroom? <input type="checkbox"/> emphasized collaboration, community, social responsibility? <input type="checkbox"/> refrained from talking about anyone’s appearance? <input type="checkbox"/> paid attention to my classroom’s environment and/or décor? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - what do students see? (i.e., are women and men presented fairly and equitably? Are gender stereotypes presented?) - what do students hear? (i.e., what music am I playing? What do I as a teacher value? What type of questions am I asking? What am I bringing awareness to?)
--

Figure 2. Checklist for a gender-equitable classroom

Gender, feminism, and text in the classroom. In the second example, Emily explored issues of Gender, Feminism, and Text in the Classroom. As seen in Figure 3 below, she created a visually powerful depiction of male and female characters using the ubiquitous international symbols (males with pants, females with skirts).

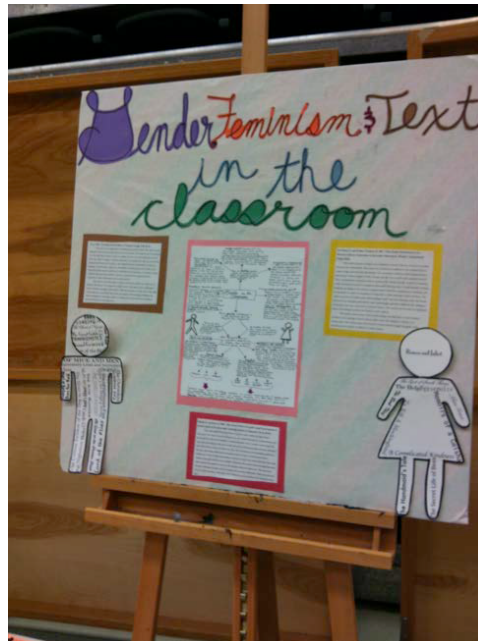


Figure 3. Emily's poster

She then identified on these figures (see Figure 4 below) common/popular literature that is predominantly male-oriented (Brave New World, Of Mice and Men, The Hobbit, Frankenstein, Lord of the Flies, The Curious Incident of the Dog in the Nighttime, Catch 22, The Kite Runner, The Great Gatsby, The Book of Negroes, Slaughterhouse Five, Clockwork Orange, All Quiet on the Western Front, The Giver, The English Patient, Extremely Loud and Incredibly Close...) and literature that is predominantly female-oriented (The Help, Persepolis, Memoirs of a Geisha, Alias Grace, The Handmaid's Tale, The Secret Life of Bees, To Kill a Mockingbird, The Book Thief, The God of Small Things, Romeo and Juliet, A Complicated Kindness) – see Figure 5 below.



Figure 4. Close up of male icon



Figure 5. Close up of female icon

From there she created a poster, exploring questions such as “How do teachers perceive gender of students? Are people of different genders treated differently in school?” and “How is gender represented in the materials that we bring into the classroom? What materials can we use – and what methods can we employ – that actively complicate gender norms?” These questions were the impetus for exploring alternative materials that would raise questions about differential gendered treatment, the importance of intersectionality, ways to break down hegemonic, gendered discourses, e.g., ‘boys will be boys’, and suggesting feminist teaching methods/pedagogy that would be of benefit to all.

The above descriptions are examples of strategies that can be employed (i.e. creating a poster to stimulate discussion, observing classrooms from a gendered perspective) within teacher education courses and programs, raising the important but often invisible issues of gender – language, choice of materials, attitudes, beliefs, ideologies – with our future teachers. Current and future teachers, along with their students, need opportunities to explore the complexity of gender issues using informed theoretical and research perspectives that challenge ‘common’ knowledge created and circulated in public media spaces and through personal experience. As with all other aspects of teacher education, students need to be informed using a variety of credible and creditable sources.

Conclusion

Students in initial teacher education programs who want to consider gender issues have to do it using their own initiative despite the fact that gender is still a very relevant and important issue (as demonstrated by the students’ analysis of images, literature, and music). However, it is equally important that all prospective teachers are introduced to gender issues, having opportunities to consider issues of which they may have previously had no awareness. Gender is pervasive across all aspects of teacher education and should not be left as an elective topic for ‘feminist-minded’ students and instructors. Without the formal support and attention in teacher education programs, the findings of a few ‘feminist’ students and instructors will likely have little or no impact on prospective teachers, their future students, or society at large.

Canada is fortunate in having a national organization devoted to exploring issues of gender in education and teacher education, i.e., the Canadian Association for the Study of Women and Education (CASWE <http://www.csse-scee.ca/caswe/>), with the accompanying special interest group Queer Studies in Education and Culture (QSEC). This organization disseminates research studies relating to gender and education at all levels; it additionally

offers a forum for exposing vital components of contemporary education that are frequently rendered invisible by existing pedagogy, curriculum, philosophy, policy, and school organization. Social justice and equity concerns have been constructed in particular ways with a subtle or even conspicuous avoidance of alternative interpretations. Issues of gender pervade social justice and equity in aspects of existing pedagogy, curriculum, philosophy, policy and school organization. (<http://www.csse-scee.ca/caswe/>)

The existence of CASWE within the larger organization of the Canadian Society of Studies in Education provides a national platform for gender issues to be addressed alongside issues in education.

It is clear, through our research for this paper, that issues of gender are nearly invisible in educational contexts. Gender has not had a significant space in teacher education programs or been a central focus. However, it is equally clear that there are many prospective teachers such as Jeanne

and Emily who are seeking opportunities to address gender issues and see them as important aspects to include in a comprehensive teacher education program. It is also evident that issues of gender inequity, while becoming more complex, still exist. The importance of gender in teacher education discussions needs more recognition if we are to change the current gender-blindness that exists within teacher education programs.

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Chapter 16

SOCIAL JUSTICE ISSUES IN INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION IN CANADA: ISSUES AND CHALLENGES

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As Memon (2013) recently noted, Canadian teacher education programs, particularly over the last 10 years, have shifted their respective teaching mandates from an acknowledgement of diversity—most often expressed as a form of multiculturalism—to more inclusive forms of diversity education. For the most part, commitments to equality, equity, and inclusion are used as foundational educational explanations for this focus. However, another justification is frequently used: the need to achieve socially just outcomes for all learners. This emphasis on *social justice* in initial teacher education is the primary focus of this chapter.

Educating for social justice has become a commonplace descriptor and assumed foundation of many teacher education programs in Canada and around the world (Zeichner & Flessner, 2009). While there are a range of possible antecedents, three are briefly canvassed here. First, an increasing awareness of diversity and difference that has emerged from the globalized, interconnected contexts in which we live and work. A second important factor is the increasingly dominant discourses of knowledge-based societies and the power that education can bring to effect positive change (Ogilvy, 2006). A third factor arises from the work of multiple Canadian human, social, political, and cultural rights activists and parallel social movement organizations that began in the 1960s and paved a route towards a more equitable, socially just, and inclusive society, paying particular attention to the laws and policies of the state as tools for effecting change (Clément, 2008). These factors have worked together to shape powerful policy frames that have affected many public institutions, but of particular interest to readers of this chapter, it has shaped the trajectory for education. This stance reflects Liston & Zeichner's (1991) prophetic call to teacher educators: "Although teacher education cannot by itself create a better society, it can join in the struggle for bringing it about" (p. 35). This chapter explores how this goal of creating a more socially just society is conceptualized, practiced, described, and understood by a range of Canadian teacher educators and researchers in recent times (2000–present).

A Framework for Analysis

Gorski, Osei-Kofi, Zenkov, and Sapp's (2012) recently published book *Cultivating Social Justice Teachers* sought to comprehensively review the international literature in social justice education; in

doing so, they noted two dominant trends and approaches. The first was described as “social justice learning bottle necks” (p. 2) or problems and barriers to social justice education; and the second sought to identify “threshold concepts critical to social justice teacher education” (p. 3), that is, issues or knowledge centrally important to learning about social justice. Given the comprehensive capacity of this framework to explore the complex scope of issues in social justice education, it has been used as the primary tool for reviewing literature for this chapter.

Chapter Methodology

The lead author (McGregor) completed a literature search on the University of Victoria library website using key terms: “social justice,” “initial teacher education” or “pre-service teacher education,” and “Canada,” later adding anti-racist education,” “critical pedagogy,” “inclusion,” and “social responsibility,” as these terms were used in conjunction with a social justice mandate. The initially identified articles (150) were reduced by eliminating those that related to Aboriginal education (the subject of another chapter in this volume), as well as mathematics and science education publications, given the infrequent use of social justice as their primary analytic framework. Other articles, such as those related to adult education, in-service teacher education, and graduate education, or those that involved non-Canadian research studies, were also removed. The initially identified 150 articles were, after screening, reduced to a total of 25 articles.

Monk, the third author, is fluent in French and was asked to review Canadian publications written in French. He began searching by using the terms “formation pour l'éducation à la citoyenneté,” “formation enseignants,” “justice sociale,” “social justice teacher education in Quebec (French language).” He also searched databases and focused particularly on *The Canadian Journal of Education*, *The Canadian International Journal of Education*, and *Erudit, éducation et Francophonie*. Monk supplemented these efforts by creating a list of faculty involved in teacher education faculties in Quebec universities who identified as having research or teaching interests in social justice. In this way a total of 12 French-Canadian publications were identified and included in this chapter's review.

We were also provided with a list of 33 publications written by current members of the Canadian Teacher Education Association (CATE) that fit within the chapter theme. While not able to access all publications listed, these publications were also reviewed for fit within the chapter. A total of 47 publications, including books, book chapters and peer-reviewed articles were used in completing the analysis for this chapter.

Method of Analysis

Three authors individually read and reviewed these publications: the English publications were read and summarized by two authors, McGregor and Fleming; the French publications were read and summarized by Monk. Common themes were generated by each reader, and then categorized into the two fields identified earlier in this chapter, that of social justice bottlenecks and critical threshold concepts. Themes were jointly reviewed and overlapping themes were combined into broader or more inclusive categories.

Bottlenecks in Initial Social Justice Teacher Education

Eight dominant bottleneck themes emerged following our review. These included the demographic composition of preservice teachers, dominant teacher beliefs, teacher identity development, transformative pedagogical practices, resistance to social justice teaching efforts among students, faculty orientations, the theory-practice gap, and issues of program design.

Demographic Composition of Pre-Service Teachers in Canada

A frequently mentioned concern of teacher educators who are working within a social justice framework is the demographic composition of preservice teachers they work with. As several key Canadian scholars have documented (de Freitas & McAuley, 2008; Lund & Carr, 2012; Solomon, Singer, Campbell, & Allen, 2011; Solomon & Levine-Rasky, 2003; Mujawama & Mahrouse, 2004; Taylor, 2007, 2011, 2012), the majority of individuals who choose to enter the teaching profession are white women of middle-class background. Authors such as Taylor (2007) have argued that these largely non-immigrant, white preservice teachers “tend to bring a relative poverty of cross-cultural experiences, limited awareness of their implications interlocking material and epistemic systems of discrimination/privilege, and notions of multicultural education as a fairly straight-forward programme of liberal colourblindness, ‘open-mindedness’ and correction of stereotypes” (p. 302). This is because, as Rezai-Rashti and Solomon (2004) noted, “pre-program findings indicated that [teacher] candidates had limited knowledge, understanding, acceptance and/or interpersonal skills for working with racially diverse school populations” (p. 70).

This demographic profile of teacher candidates is foundational to the context of Canadian teacher education programs and underlies much of the literature reviewed for this chapter. Given this reality, the implicit understanding conveyed by authors is that teacher education programs must engage their students in opportunities to learn about diversity and equity/inclusion issues and then apply these understandings to their teaching practice. However, it is important to note that a few programs in Canada have taken a more proactive approach to the issue of demographic sameness among teacher educators; in these programs faculty and staff actively seek to rectify this concern by recruiting more diverse teacher education candidates. York’s Urban Diversity (UD) program is one prominent example of an effort to solicit and recruit diverse students into their teacher education program (Solomon et al., 2012). Other examples include Aboriginal education programs that enroll targeted numbers of Indigenous students in both Saskatchewan and Manitoba. However, for the majority of teacher education programs the approach to creating a more socially just cadre of teachers is through the creation of programmatic experiences that are designed to alter, shift, transform, or trouble the dominant beliefs of the predominantly white teacher education students.

Shifting Dominant Beliefs

As noted above, shifting beliefs of primarily white, middle-class teacher candidates is seen as a key role of the socially just teacher educator. This is because, as Aoki (1991) famously noted, “the teacher is the teaching.” In other words, teachers reflect their own beliefs and understandings in both their pedagogical and curricular decisions. The goal then, as Singer (2011) aptly stated, is to create “successful social justice-oriented teacher education programs . . . [that] would be characterized by discernible changes in *teacher attitudes and actions* [emphasis added] regarding social differences both inside and outside the classroom” (p. 31).

Many of the publications reviewed for this chapter described the theoretical foundations of their work in this regard. Frequently mentioned are Freire’s (1980) idea of conscientization (e.g., Cho

& Taylor, 2012; Solomon et al, 2012; Lebrun, 2006), critically reflective (e.g., Falkenberg, 2013; Jutra, 2005; Lafortune, Lachapelle, Bélanger, & Milot, 2006) and reflexive thinking (e.g., Taylor, 2007, 2012). Given the importance of reflection, more will be said in subsequent sections of this chapter. However, the goal of most social justice teacher education programs and practitioners is to trouble, explore, and deeply understand the relationship between dominant beliefs and discourses and help students to understand how these discourses have become naturalized within Western education and educational systems in Canada. Multiple authors captured the goal of deconstructing or disrupting “common sense” or taken for granted beliefs, and emphasized the ways in which identities can be altered through a range of critically focused pedagogical practices.

Of concern to some researchers were the ways we might measure or report on the effectiveness of efforts to shift preservice teacher beliefs. Multiple authors attempted to map this terrain using narrative cases, student interviews and discussion of critical incidents in classrooms as examples that show evidence of preservice teachers’ shifting beliefs. Three authors (Groff & Peters, 2012; Rezai-Rashti & Solomon, 2004; Solomon & Levine-Rasky, 2003) employed Helm’s model of racial identity development (1995) as a means of tracing pre- and post- program changes in beliefs, although the complexity of student responses exposes the limitations of this model. Courtine-Sinave (2004) proposed a new model for measuring teachers’ social justice development that identified three stages: naïve, agent, and author.

Exploring Teacher and Social Identities

While shifting preservice teacher beliefs is a necessary foundational component of socially just teacher education, how this is conceptualized has shifted, with a greater emphasis on teacher identity development and exploring existing and potential *social identities*. This reflects how the field has been influenced by theories of difference/Othering as socially constructed and maintained (Dolby, as cited in Nieto, Bode, Kang, & Raible, 2008, p. 180). In this foci of the social justice literature, having a sense of self and an awareness of one’s own identity is critical to identifying existing beliefs, and potentially altering, disrupting, or decentering teachers from their “common sense” ways of constructing others in binaries based in difference. As Taylor (2012) argued, it is necessary “to explore the limits and contradictions by discussing concrete examples from one’s own personal experiences and insisting on an intersectional analysis of how “othering” relations of race, gender, sexuality, class, ethnicity, faith, ability, accent and national origin (among others) converge differently on specific bodies depending on the particular context” (p. 185). These critical approaches enable the teacher candidate to move away from a dependency on knowledge “of” others to a more inward “critical excavation of self-knowledge” (Britzman, as cited in Taylor, 2012, p. 185). Another good example of how teachers can engage in critically informed multicultural identity work is conceptualized in de Freitas & McAuley’s (2008) emphasis on the three prongs of unpacking power and privilege, critically exploring the construction of Othered identities in social/popular media, and using theory as an interpretive tool that allows preservice teachers to “problematize their comforting truths regarding difference and injustice” (p. 430).

Some social justice teacher scholars have differentiated the responses of students (white and visible minority) to critical social justice identity work. For example, Solomon et al. (2011) illustrated how racially and culturally diverse students demonstrated comparatively greater engagement with the complexities of difference, as well as a stronger commitment to enacting social justice issues as a necessary component of their practice. Tarc (2013) similarly explored the continual construction and movement of new forms of racism, and suggested that racism is routinely experienced by preservice educators of colour who live this theory “in the pores of their skin” (p. 377), tracing their demands for action and change. These authors deeply problematized approaches to creating socially just

educators in institutional settings dominated by predominantly white teacher educators and teacher candidates.

Transformative Pedagogical Approaches to Social Justice Learning

A great many of the publications reviewed for this book chapter concerned themselves with pedagogical approaches to creating critically aware, socially just teachers. This is an important bottleneck to explore because it captures one of the biggest concerns of social justice educators: How best to reach, develop, or transform preservice teachers, so that they become fully inclusive educators? What important factors or elements should other teacher educators be concerned with in how they engage in this work? How have students responded to these tasks? In what follows, we sort the approaches into categories, drawing from DeLuca's (2012) matrix that differentiated between pedagogical approaches to socially just education: namely, personal narratives and critical reflection, critical consciousness raising, action-based and action-research oriented learning, and student diversity representation.

Narrative methods and critical reflection. In the narrative category, a number of authors referred to the use of journals or other forms of personal writing to help students reflect on their personal and past experiences, particularly in the context of developing critical consciousness or to engage in responding to unearned personal privileges (Taylor, 2012; Thompson 2011). Online journals as narrative tools are also discussed by Trilokekar and Kukar (2011) and MacPherson (2010). A somewhat different narrative approach was documented by Grace (2006) who sought to create a "safer pedagogical space" for students to share personal narratives and poetry, and to engage in self-study/autobiographical practices as a way of coming to understand issues of queerness and heteronormativity. Digital book talks were described by Hughes and Robertson (2011), while Guay and Jutras (2004b) described *professional memoirs* as a means by which personal experience and global injustice can be explored. In all cases, preservice teachers were invited to engage in critical reflections on their own learning; social justice educators described this as a pedagogical tool that deeply engaged students in explorations at the intersection of their personal and professional identities.

Critical consciousness raising . The primary purpose of the critical consciousness raising approach is to enable preservice teachers to deeply engage with and explore their own complicity with discourses and practices of exclusion, and to deconstruct the conditions under which such thinking emerges, with an emphasis on transgressive and dialogic learning (DeLuca, 2012). A number of authors described approaches in courses or teacher education programs that fit within this category (Courtine-Sinave, 2004; Solomon & Levin-Rasky, 2003; Solomon et al., 2011; Kelly & Brandes, 2010; Robertson & Hughes, 2011). Several studies provided important details about how deeply transgressive learning was accomplished. For example, Schick and St. Denis's (2003) work provides substantive detail about the application of a *power triangle* as a means of disrupting dominant thinking, and the use of *counter-histories* to explore historical injustices. Taylor (2012) described *intersectional analysis* and *disruptive readings* (2007), and Thompson (2011) described *self-reflexive case studies* that required preservice teachers to "live the pedagogical terrain" (p. 102). Vigneault (2004) argued for the use of the *Socratic method* as a tool for questioning all assumptions, and Guay and Jutras (2004a; 2004b) described engagement in critical reflection on the intersections of history, human rights, and social justice. As this brief summary shows, deconstructive approaches were preferred by social justice educators reviewed for this chapter. As importantly, these educators explored the contradictions and tensions that emerged from doing deconstructive work; for example, Schick (2000) described in some detail the resistance and privilege that dominates many preservice teacher

responses. Several authors (de Freitas & McAuley, 2008; Solomon et al., 2011; Taylor, 2007, 2012, 2011) drew on the concept of difficult knowledge; as a conceptual idea, this will be detailed later in this chapter.

Action-based and action-research oriented learning. Several authors described models or approaches that used action research. For example, at UBC, a two-year “diversity and social justice cohort” featured fieldwork and social activism projects (Gill & Chalmers, 2007; Kelly, 2012) that emphasized *decolonizing the curriculum* and longer term *school–university partnerships* using social justice inquiry strategies. Non-traditional field work, including community placements and longer term placements that involved diverse populations were also explored by Groff & Peters (2012), Solomon et al. (2011), and DeLuca (2012). An interesting element of Solomon et al.’s (2011) Urban Development (UD) program also emphasized *alliance building strategies* and learning to map the political nature of social justice work as emergent forms of social justice work.

Student diversity representation. As noted earlier, teacher education is a field dominated by white, middle-class women. While few programs overtly address diversity, an exception includes the York University Urban Development (UD) program that actively recruits racially, ethnically, religiously, and socially diverse students, and is designed to “accurately reflect the diversity of Toronto” (Solomon et al., 2011, p. 37). The UD program also immerses white teacher candidates in explorations of race, ethno-cultural identity, class, gender, sexual orientation, and ability using what it describes as inter-group dyad partnerships designed to break down racial and ethnic barriers and own group cleavages.¹

Resistance to Anti-Oppressive, Social Justice Themes

As Lund and Carr (2007, 2012) have argued “resistance is a significant obstacle and something worth paying sustained attention to if we are to seek its removal” (2012, p. 109). Considerable evidence emerged in this review to show that Canadian teacher educators are concerned with and actively engaged in work designed to overcome preservice teacher resistance, to unpack its effects and understand its sources. Approaches to understanding and documenting resistance varied. For example, active resistance to social justice courses, concepts or ideas are canvassed by authors such as Jutras (2005). Rezai-Rashti and Solomon (2004) summarized teacher resistance in three types: beliefs in meritocracy, denial of personal prejudice, and treating discussions of race as taboo topics to be avoided. Similarly, Schick and St. Denis (2003) explored preservice teacher resistance as a combination of beliefs in historical myths of Canada’s “fairness and progress,” in colourblindness and neutrality (also explored by Groff & Peters, 2012), and that individual achievement will enable success (meritocracy). Taylor’s (2012) analysis examined how, while deconstructive approaches have the potential to engage students, “discourses of guilt and judgment unfortunately close down learning” (p. 188). Resistance is also understood through the lens of white privilege (Chinnery, 2008; Schick, 2000; Schick & St. Denis, 2003; Lund & Carr, 2007, 2012; Taylor, 2007, 2011, 2012). More will be said about this theme later in this chapter.

¹ The authors acknowledge that other programs in Canada focus on diverse populations, most notably, Aboriginal students. However, research on these programs were excluded from this review because of space limitations and because Aboriginal education is canvassed in another chapter. We apologize to those reading this chapter who would argue it deserves acknowledgement.

Teacher Educators' Lack of Experience with or Commitment to Social Justice

There are a number of publications that explore the limitations and challenges facing teacher educators who are predominantly privileged, middle-class, and white. Resistance and guilt among teacher educators is canvassed in Taylor's (2011) study; she asked teacher educators to examine their own motivations given their position as largely white, Western, privileged, and liberal humanists who frequently "attempt to recruit emotions of altruism, generosity and solidarity as motivations . . . to alleviate global inequity and suffering" (p. 19).

Other structural or institutional constraints on teacher educators are also recognized: for example, DeLuca (2012) discussed the institutional restraints of large lecture halls and programs that don't allow for deep student engagement. Beyond this, several authors referenced problems with faculty or school practicum supervisors who do not model or espouse a social justice orientation to their course curriculum. Students' critique of programmatic features or courses within social justice classes/programs that fail to "model" best pedagogical practices, or, even more troubling, instructors who fail to engage students who are "very good at being politically correct" (DeLuca, 2012, p. 565) are also explored. Other authors noted that instructors/faculty associates or school sponsors sometimes inappropriately label their approaches as socially just when using tools such as "multicultural bingo" or asking an Aboriginal student to "tell everyone about what a pow-wow is" (Gill & Chalmers, 2007).

Taylor (2012) and Chinnery (2008) also discussed the ethics of social justice learning, particularly a concern with "children [who] are exposed to knowledge of global inequity" and then are "closed down . . . [by] a pedagogy [that] offers consolation rather than critical and ethical tools to respond to this crisis" (Taylor, 2012, p. 181). Chinnery (2008) also critiqued approaches and courses offered by faculty who, either knowingly or unknowingly "position classmates . . . [as] unpaid Sherpa's of cross cultural education" (p. 399), essentially demanding that ethno-socially diverse students teach dominant preservice teachers *about* their differences.

The Theory/Practice Gap

Finding ways in which the theory of social justice can be applied to the practice of teaching (so as to move beyond "bannock and beads" or multicultural approaches to cultural/racial diversity and difference) was a strongly evident theme in our review. For example, Hughes and Robertson (2011) described how, despite engagement in critical literacy approaches designed to deconstruct texts, preservice teachers failed to fully examine the underlying conditions or causes of socially unjust issues and continued to articulate themselves as value free authorities who guide students to new understandings. Similarly, Thompson's (2011) exceptionalities course provided students with direct engagement in creating an inclusive teacher resource file (ITRF), yet she unexpectedly found that nearly all preservice teachers "ignored the complexities raised by DSE (Disability Studies Educators), First Nations scholars and autism pride/autism-as-culture advocates in the ITRF assignment" (p. 109).

The effects of dominant professional discourses of control and management became evident in MacPherson's (2010) discussion of how preservice teachers "agonized over the harassing and prejudicial behaviour of children and youth toward their ethnic minority peers" (p. 278), demonstrating how frequently the call to become social justice advocates and allies is translated into practices that reinforce power-over binaries and the role of the teacher as the arbiter of what is "right" or "good." Thompson's (2011) work also showed that some discourses of disability—such as the medical model based in deficit ways of thinking—remained firmly embedded in teacher candidates' discussions and practice. The discourses of teaching/teacher authority are also implicated

in Reizia-Rashti and Solomon's (2004) analysis of teacher candidates' racial identity formation, finding that while students were more likely to support anti-racist education in conversations *about* their practice, the depth of their integration of such thinking into their practices was less evident. These were attributed in part to how preservice teachers accessed the discourses of authority and power—such as the restrictions and limitations of the curriculum (the authority of the text), but also to teacher sponsors who were seen as powerful actors who vetoed or disapproved of such initiatives. Together, these became “excuses for not engaging in equity and diversity work” (p. 84).

Other scholars have identified problems within teacher education program pedagogy and practices. For example, Bellini's (2012) work made evident that issues related to homophobia and gender variance are largely missing from the teacher education curriculum, even in social justice focused courses, permitting preservice teachers to simultaneously pathologize or ignore the gay and lesbian children/teens in their classrooms. Returning to Thompson's (2011) exceptionalities and social justice course, the construction of course assignments that reinforced dominant norms and discourses of “naming” disabilities and reactivating deficit thinking were extensively examined and problematized.

In sum, the theory-practice gap is conceptualized as multifaceted, inter-related, complex, and attributable to both participants and program designers, making it a powerful bottleneck to how deeply transformative social justice learning can be realized.

Integrated Versus Single Course Models

The final theme in the bottleneck category emerges from a discussion of social justice teacher education program design. A number of publications identified how social justice teaching and learning requires concerted, integrated, and sustained efforts at engagement—essentially, greater program coherence. Given the ways in which teacher education programs in Canada are typically and historically organized and governed by institutional academic authorities, this is a serious issue.

DeLuca (2012) provided an important historical context for this phenomenon: he described how, historically, teacher education programs did not include inclusivity issues in their designs, and so most have addressed its inclusion by adding inclusivity/diversity themes to specific sub-disciplinary fields. He also suggested that most research has focused on isolated program components, and argued that research must focus on “mechanisms that create tight coherence between program aims, coursework and field-based experiences, so that programs can overcome the centrifugal forces that leave [teacher] candidates on their own to make sense of disparate, unconnected experiences” (p. 552). He further argued for an infused approach, drawing social justice themes in an integrated way, across multiple experiences in order to “articulate connections between multiple interpretations of inclusivity” (p. 566). Mjujawa Riya and Mahrouse's (2004) study of teacher candidate experiences in a mandatory social justice course echoed this call for infusion: social justice courses need to be mandatory and the themes of inclusion and diversity need to be present in all program courses.

Infused models do exist in Canadian teacher education programs, although they are not the norm. York's Urban Diversity (UD) program is likely the best known example, although there are other programs (such as UBC's diversity cohort) that have similar infused, connected courses and experiences that explore and make connections between and among diversity perspectives. Solomon et al.'s (2012) study also made evident how coherence and infused design features have given teacher candidates a language of social justice and multiple, situated experiences in linking this language and learning to their developing teaching pedagogy. Perhaps most encouraging is the evidence that this program has had lasting effects on the lives of the preservice teachers and their professional identities (p. 45).

Threshold Concepts in Initial Social Justice Teacher Education

Threshold concepts are those concepts that are central to social justice learning. Their centrality is not related solely to their cognitive weight, but rather to how the attainment of these concepts enables transformation of professional identities and practices. Gorski, Zenkov, Osei-Kofi, and Sapp (2012) describe this as *crossing a cognitive threshold*. In the next section of this chapter, we identify those threshold concepts that Canadian social justice educators have identified as having significance in terms of their ability to transform preservice teachers and teacher educators.

Difficult Knowledge and Discomfort

One theme that differs quite substantially from the international literature on social justice learning is the concept of *difficult knowledge*. Emerging from the work of seminal Canadian teacher educator and scholar Deborah Britzman, this concept is inherently linked with questions of social justice because “they assume, albeit differently, a kernel of trauma in the very act of coming to know. . . . Difficult knowledge also signifies the problem of learning from social breakdowns in ways that might open teachers to their present ethical obligations” (Pitt & Britzman, 2006, p. 379). This conception of an inner psychic struggle is particularly useful in conceptualizing the complexity of engaging with and facing one’s own privilege. Taylor’s (2008, 2011, 2012) scholarship emphasized this perspective; she explored the problematics of engaging preservice educators in learning that bypasses habitual hegemonic representations of learning in order to take personal risks that implicate them as perpetrators of systemic and epistemological violence against diverse others.

DeFreitas and McAuley (2008) also provided insights into how social justice learning needs to be characterized as more than developing an identity,

because it presents a comforting plateau of self-awareness as the ultimate goal. We agree with the emphasis on action, but believe that the goal of identity development should not be to transcend discomfort, but rather to *embrace discomfort as part of the ongoing emotional labour of confronting one’s privilege* [emphasis added]. (deFreitas & McAuley, 2008, p. 433).

In related themes, Trilokekar & Kukar, (2011), Schick, (2000), and Lafortune et al., (2006), discussed the need for disequilibrium or contradiction to create a space from which to engage in difficult or discomforting work, particularly if the goal is to potentially aim for the transformation of the teaching self through encounters with difficult knowledge.

Deeply Rooted Inequities and Naturalized Privilege

Another transformational concept well represented in the Canadian social justice education scholarship is how whiteness and privilege operate. While there has been some emphasis on Helm’s (1995) staged approach to racial identity development, there were more frequent references to the operation of whiteness and how to engage students in understanding their complicity within discourses of social, cultural, and political privilege. As Trilokekar and Kurar (2011) asked, “How can teacher educators who have never examined their own privilege or who have no personalized learning of what it feels like to live as the other, prepare K–12 teachers to teach for diversity, equity and interconnectedness?” (p. 441).

Authors came at this issue from multiple directions. One direction included how whiteness blinds teacher candidates to understanding how their roles maintain binaries of difference, creating and reinforcing inequity. For example, Schick and St. Denis (2003) described how white students

argue that racism is really “a minor problem a result of attitudes and individual prejudices instead of institutional practices and ideological assumptions that support ongoing construction of whiteness as a racially dominant as well as invisible identification” (p. 62). Tarc (2013) described how preservice teachers of colour experience the “entrenched culture of a profession that gives them so much trouble” (p. 378). Another important discourse within the white privilege paradigm is that of “teacher as helper.” As Schick and St. Denis (2003) argued, “Students come to our courses thinking that they are going to learn of the other, to learn how they can be *helpers* [emphasis added], to discover how to incorporate the dominant society’s gestures of benevolence toward those designated as others. This is the assumption of superiority that whiteness permits: what it means to be a respectable citizen and teacher” (p. 65).

Other authors that highlighted the necessity of focusing on personal privilege and whiteness included Groff and Peters (2011), Gill and Chalmers (2007), Solomon et al., (2012), and Kelly and Brandes (2010). All described unpacking discourses of whiteness in order to effect altered teacher beliefs and identities.

Schick (2000), however, problematized the ways in which resistance is cultivated in anti-racist classrooms designed to unpack racial privilege. She argued “no real or significant learning takes place because of how they [white preservice teachers] are positioned and privileged in such courses” (p. 84). She posited that anti-racist pedagogues and teacher educators must avoid “telling victory narratives with our (dominant selves) at the center” (p. 100), so as to disrupt master narratives of whiteness. Chinnery (2008) echoed this perspective and argued that how we structure our teacher education programs often re-operationalizes this master narrative; instead, she suggested, “this might mean offering cultural minority teacher education students the option of taking classes with and from similarly positioned classmates and instructors” (p. 402).

Colonialism: Historical and Present

While another chapter in this book deals specifically with Indigenous education several key social justice publications reviewed for this article focused on colonialism as a dominant master narrative. Schick’s (2000) publication is an important starting place, as it identified how white students simultaneously position themselves as apart from and desirous of including/knowning Aboriginal peoples, creating a kind of “imperialistic nostalgia” (p. 90), simultaneously activating professional qualities of “goodness” and “helpfulness.” *Cultural talk* is identified as a colonial strategy that enabled teacher candidates to maintain hierarchies of difference by talking *about* difference. Teacher educators, she argued, must adopt practices that work in the messy contingency of our relationship to colonial presents and pasts, to continue to ask questions and work with, rather than for, Aboriginal peoples. This suggests that allyship is a way forward, a theme that is highlighted by Mosely and Rogers (2010), who discussed the impossibilities of being a passive anti-racist educator. Their work emphasized the need for “inhabiting the tragic gap,” as a necessary bridge for exploring the binaries of racism/anti-racism, understanding “the dialectical relationship between” (p. 318) them and how these are operationalized as marginalizing forms of allyship (p. 313).

Both Tarc (2011) and Taylor (2012) referenced the global binaries of North/South relations historically created through colonial practices, and how these are mobilized within everyday relations and activities of educators, given that Northern societies are naturalized as generous and sovereign, and racialized others as the objects of knowledge (Taylor, 2012, p. 180). Tarc (2011) described how these discourses allow race to be continually mobilized and moved into newly racialized spaces, marking difference upon educators who are ethno-socially different from the dominant white teacher population. These authors powerfully illustrated how colonization is a dominant contemporary and historical discourse operating within teacher education.

Yet while addressing the individual's role in maintaining colonizing and marginalizing relations is necessary, it is not sufficient to understanding the ways that colonization operates. Sanford, Williams, Hopper, and McGregor (2012) described education, and teacher education programs specifically as a "colonizing model . . . [that is] no longer sufficient for providing the education needed by new generations of learners who will be facing a world with challenges that they will not be able to address with the current approaches to education" (para. 3). In other words, there are systemic changes to educational institutions needed if we are to effect change in the colonization narrative that is naturalized within educational approaches, pedagogies, assessment measures, models of governance, and other institutional practices. These authors argued for what Memon (2013) described as inclusivity practices, incorporating Aboriginal principles of learning into courses designed to shift the understandings of preservice and teacher educators.

Heteronormativity

The review of literature for this chapter also identified the absence of both research into and attention to the issues of gay, lesbian, bi-sexual, transgendered, queer, and questioning (GLBTQQ) children and youth in initial teacher education. In this regard, Bellini's (2012) study stands out in her observation that "LGBTQ youth were not addressed in [teacher education] classes that claimed to view students through a social justice lens . . . [and] the amount of homophobia and heterosexism I witnessed not only with educators but with students as well" (p. 374) were indicative of this absence.

Grace's (2006) discussion of how to create safe spaces from which to explore issues of gender, gender expression, and sexuality also emphasized the role that teachers can play "as actor advocate, a deliberator and an agent . . . [with] the political and pedagogical task of building inclusionary and transformative educational environments. This is work for social justice" (p. 834). He argued that, while teaching is often characterized as a nurturing practice, educators fail in achieving this when they exclude the experiences of queer students and educators; such heteronormative stances create and maintain homophobic and unjust teaching and learning environments. These authors emphasized that concepts of *allyship* and teacher *advocacy* provide important new directions for teacher educators to consider.

Critically Self-Reflexive/Reflective Practices

Critical reflection or reflexive practices have been referenced in numerous thematic categories canvassed earlier in this chapter, but given it is pedagogically foundational to many teacher education programs, it is an important conceptual theme to explore briefly in this section. In short, reflective and reflexive practice—deep personal and professional reflection that lead to adopting the values of inclusion, justice, and equitable opportunity—are a pedagogical lynch pin through which teachers learn and apply their learning to practice.

Falkenberg's (2013) publication described why it is foundational to teacher education: it is key to changing teacher identities, beliefs, and practices. Reflection and reflective practices "play an important role in addressing the [social] responsibility mandate of teacher education through the development of personal qualities, because it will generally involve some changes to a teacher's identity. . . . Reflective thinking . . . is an agent driven approach to grappling with such kinds of substantial change" (p. 63).

How reflection accomplishes this is discussed differently among the authors included in this review. For example, readers will recall the narrative pedagogical approach described earlier; these cases emphasize *dialogic engagement* as the catalyst for going more deeply into one's thinking, seeking to trouble dominant binaries that are normalized in existing teacher discourses and pedagogical

practices. Other reflective triggers were discussed, such as *catalytic events* or troubling/difficult knowledge. These approaches help to distinguish how social justice educators conceptualize reflection's purpose—that is, to develop and transform social, cultural, and personal values and embed them as anti-oppressive practices *in and on action*.

Dominant Professional Narratives that Marginalize

Earlier in this chapter I provided several examples of dominant professional narratives that frame, shape, and constrain teacher thinking about social justice issues. Authors reviewed here made clear the importance of uncovering dominant master narratives, particularly those of multiculturalism (Gérin-Lajoie, 2011) and neo-liberalism (Sanford et al., 2012). Other hegemonic frames operating within teaching discourses were canvassed, including topics such as colour blindness, teaching as a neutral activity with the teacher as a mediating knowledge dispenser, the notions of individual effort and meritocracy, and individualizing social injustice rather than addressing its systemic construction. This latter discourse remains prevalent among teacher educators and preservice teachers alike, as several authors (MacPherson, 2010; Schick, 2000; Solomon et al., 2011; Taylor, 2011; Thompson, 2011) attested. The need to change this thinking is powerfully captured in Kelly's (2012) article:

If educators assume that difference resides in the individual, it can be easy to see difference as deficit and lose sight of institutional inequalities and historical power imbalances. By contrast, I argue for seeing difference and diversity as a valued resource, bearing in mind the importance of institutions and collective action in efforts to realize this positive vision. (p. 135).

In other words, as teacher educators we must not only unpack the troubling discourses that do operate within the profession, but actively work to provide resistant discourses that can be used by educators to sustain their commitments *and* make a difference for their learners.

DeLuca's (2012) review of how inclusivity themes are integrated (or not) within teacher education programs provided important insights into how these discourses continue to operate within a single social justice course. Kelly (2012), Kelly and Brandes (2010), and Gill and Chalmers (2007) also argued for program-wide responses as a means of overcoming this limitation, further suggesting inquiry based approaches as powerful ways of achieving greater cohesion and providing teacher candidates with multiple opportunities to deconstruct professional discourses. The documented experiences of preservice educators in the UD program (Solomon et al., 2011) provided encouraging results to illustrate how inclusive ways of thinking and teaching that are integrated throughout a program can alter the professional practices of preservice teachers, and show evidence they are sustained when employed within schools.

Lest readers believe the only work of unpacking dominant, common sense discourses that operate in education is solely the work of preservice teachers, Chinnery's (2008) publication put this issue squarely before teacher educators, and argued that we must "revisit some of *our* [emphasis added] common sense notions about preparing teachers in and for a culturally diverse society . . . it might mean interrupting common sense ideas and practices in cross-cultural classrooms by deliberately creating spaces for resistance—for silence, conflict, and subversion of confession" (p. 402). MacPherson (2011) and Taylor (2011) also emphasized the importance of teacher educators examining and unpacking their own practices to understand the ways in which issues of power operate through their own pedagogical discourses.

Concluding Remarks

Reviewing the work of Canadian social justice teacher educators and scholars has been a remarkably complex task. Our effort, we hope, addressed the rich, diverse, and insightful work of these scholars and adequately represents the scope of the field. Our concluding comments are designed to consider—albeit tentatively—some ways we could progress towards an even better understanding of how to expand and support social justice teacher education programs.

A first observation is that there are some important black boxes that have yet to be unpacked in teacher education: among them, the issue of faculty professional autonomy (which is foundational to addressing the issue of program coherence), the demographics of preservice teacher candidates (often driven by institutional demands for enrolment), and the demographics of faculty (as has been recently identified by several federally sponsored reports on diversity). We also believe that several invisible forms of injustice—among them ableism and, in particular, heteronormativity—are black boxes that need to be cracked. These “elective invisibilities” (Fontaine, as cited by Bellini, 2012, p. 383) have created paradoxical environments in which some social justice issues are valued and others are not. And given the consistent call for teachers to become allies with marginalized communities, we need programs that immerse teachers in learning spaces that enable the enactment of socially just identities, rather than pedagogies that “teach about” social justice issues.

This chapter also detailed a range of bottlenecks in social justice education, with some progress evident: for example, most Canadian teacher educators have adopted diversity/inclusion education models that go well beyond the limitations of the historical multicultural paradigm. A threshold concept that has been cracked is that of the neutral, knowledge-dispensing educator who instrumentally delivers on the formal curriculum alone. A range of scholars described and promoted teaching as essentially political work that involves alliance building, advocacy, and teacher leadership in order to enact and create the conditions necessary for a more inclusive and just educational system and society at large. Another threshold concept is the recognition of the intersectional, socially constructed nature of marginalizing discourses and practices and their historical roots. Deconstructive, reflexive, situated, and dialogic pedagogical tools are evident in teacher education institutions from coast to coast. There is considerable evidence that Canadian social justice scholars are making important contributions to the international literature, particularly as it relates to the ideas of difficult knowledge, unpacking dominant binaries, and the intersecting nature of power and marginalizing discourses, including privilege and whiteness/racialization that operate through historical, colonial, and imperialistic discourses. Finally, this chapter pointed to many important policy directions worthy of pursuit by Canadian teacher educators, and research opportunities that will enable us to continue the work of socially just educational practice. As educational scholars, researchers, and social justice allies with the communities we serve, we need to play a lead role in achieving this agenda.

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Chapter 17

INTERNATIONALLY EDUCATED TEACHER CANDIDATES IN CANADIAN FACULTIES OF EDUCATION: WHEN DIVERSITY \neq EQUITY

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As noted in this handbook's Chapter 16 on "Social Justice Issues in Initial Teacher Education in Canada: Issues and Challenges",

for the majority of teacher education programs the approach to creating a more socially just cadre of teachers is through the creation of programmatic experiences that are designed to alter, shift, transform, or trouble the dominant beliefs of the predominantly white teacher education students. (p. 279)

This chapter concerns itself with an underrepresented yet equally important social justice mandate: the diversification of initial teacher education programs through the recruitment of and programming for internationally educated teacher candidates (IETCs). This discussion is timely in light of the recognized imperative to diversify the Canadian teaching force (Ryan, Pollock, & Antonelli, 2009), ongoing nationwide initiatives to realize this goal, and a growing body of teacher education research that explores the experiences of IETCs (e.g., Faez, 2012a, 2012b; Gambhir, 2004; Zhao, 2012). Moreover, this discussion is urgent at a time when, as this chapter will argue, diversification efforts are not keeping pace with equity measures, raising concern about whether the more diverse teacher candidates admitted into programs are adequately supported.

Two cases are analyzed to explore this concern. The first case involves Canada's largest faculty of education, the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto (OISE/UT), where cutbacks to programs and services and changes in policy have diminished access and services for IETCs on a number of levels. The second case concerns the midsize Faculty of Education at the University of Manitoba, where policy development designed to address an outdated "special consideration" admissions category aims instead to admit teacher candidates who more aptly reflect the broad range of diversity evident in schools and society, including IETCs. Yet this policy development is happening amid backlash from some faculty members about perceived "reverse discrimination" and without clear commitments to corresponding equity measures—that is, programming supports to facilitate successful learning experiences for this more diverse population. Both cases suggest that diversification is happening with inadequate or diminishing attention to

equity, which has important implications for teacher education programs and also demands attention in teacher education research agendas.

In subsequent sections, we outline the scope of the current chapter, define what we mean by the term IETCs, and provide a rationale for focusing on this group in a volume dedicated to initial teacher education research in Canada. Because IETCs comprise a very heterogeneous group, whose backgrounds, circumstances, priorities, and needs vary widely, we provide illustrative (though by no means exhaustive) vignettes that provide a sense of the complexity and range of backgrounds of IETCs in Canadian initial teacher education programs. We then draw on distinctions between diversity and equity as our conceptual framework, and outline the autoethnographic approach that has led us to critically examine developments in our respective institutions. The literature review analyzes research involving internationally educated teacher candidates in different parts of Canada, enabling us to answer our first question: What are the experiences of IETCs in initial teacher education programs in Canada? Then, we examine the cases of OISE/UT and the Faculty of Education at the University of Manitoba to explore our second question: What are the potential implications of diminishing or no supports and services for IETCs? We conclude with recommendations for future initial teacher education programming and policy agendas.

Scope of the Chapter, Terminology, and Rationale

Our focus in this chapter is IETCs in initial teacher education programs, that is, teachers preparing to work in the kindergarten to Grade 12 (K–12) schools. There are parallel but distinct areas of Canadian research addressing internationally educated teachers who work in adult or higher education settings (see, for example, Deters, 2006) and those who work in early childhood education settings (see, for example, Mehta, Janmohamed, & Corter, 2011). Also outside the scope of this paper is research on diversifying the Canadian teaching force beyond internationally educated teachers to be inclusive of more Aboriginal/First Nations teachers, LGBTTTQ teachers, and male primary school teachers.

In the Canadian literature on internationally educated teachers, a distinction is typically made between first generation immigrant teachers who have been educated and taught in international contexts (often referred to as IETs) and teachers who are considered 1.5 generation immigrants who have completed some schooling or a teacher education degree in Canada (often referred to as IETCs). Though this chapter concerns itself with the latter group, boundaries are not always clear, considering that most IETs require at least a full BEd degree and possibly teachable area coursework in order to be certified to teach in Canada and may complete some of these requirements within the framework of initial teacher education programs. For example, Schmidt, Young, and Mandzuk (2010) report that 50% of teachers applying to the Manitoba Certification Branch in an average year were denied certification outright, supporting the fact that the qualifications required to teach in many countries do not meet the requirements for certification in various parts of Canada.¹ Moreover, to add to the complexity of who can be defined as an IETC, there are some international students who complete teacher education degrees in Canadian faculties of education and then return to their home countries.

To reflect the common terminology used in Canada, this chapter uses the term IETCs to refer to teachers who were educated in another jurisdiction for part or all of their previous schooling prior to completing some or all components of an initial teacher education program in Canada. As noted

¹ For example, some jurisdictions do not require post-secondary education to become a teacher; in other cases, the teacher preparation is sufficiently different as to be deemed non-equivalent.

above, IETCs may include individuals who were qualified and experienced teachers in international contexts prior to coming to Canada and who then complete coursework and possibly practice teaching placements within the context of an initial teacher education program once having credentials assessed by the local certification branch. Alternatively, the term can include individuals who immigrated at a younger age, have some Canadian education, and applied to initial teacher education in the same manner as Canadian-born applicants. Finally, it may denote individuals who are international students and planning to leave Canada upon completion of their initial teacher education program.

Focusing on IETCs in the context of research on initial teacher education programs is warranted in light of the amount of Canadian scholarship devoted to the topic of teachers of immigrant backgrounds in the Canadian teaching profession. Research in this area began in earnest with Thiessen, Bascia, and Goodson's (1996) seminal work considering the lives and work of immigrant teachers from racial and minority backgrounds (see also Phillion, 2003). Today, education scholars working in nearly all regions of Canada from the East Coast to the West are conducting research and publishing on the topic of IETs (e.g., Cho, 2013; Janusch, 2015; Marom & Illieva, forthcoming; Walsh, Brigham, & Wang, 2011).

Additionally, the programming available to support IETs is somewhat limited in scope; as a result initial teacher education programs play a large role in IETs' pathways to entering the teaching profession in Canada. From the early 2000s onward, a variety of bridging programs offered in Ontario, Manitoba, Alberta, and British Columbia were designed specifically to support targeted numbers of IETs in meeting local teacher certification requirements (see Walsh & Brigham, 2007). However, with the surplus of teachers in many (though not all) urban centres nationwide, these programs have been in increasingly short supply and typically discontinued after a pilot period due to a lack of sustainable financial, political, and institutional support. British Columbia is the only jurisdiction with a relatively stable program for IETs, housed at Simon Fraser University.

In other jurisdictions without programs, IETs must work alone or with an academic advisor in a faculty of education to plan and take courses required for certification. Sometime these courses are clearly specified and in other instances only a number of credits is mandated, leaving it up to the individual to decide what specific courses to take. Teaching practicums can be more challenging to arrange given these are typically offered only within the context of bachelor of education programs and most universities do not offer stand-alone practicums; in most instances special permission needs to be sought. Whether IETCs are completing a full BEd program or some elements of it, mainstreaming IETs in existing Canadian teacher education programs is the most widely and readily available programming option for meeting certification requirements in Canada.²

Vignettes

We have crafted three vignettes to illustrate some of the complexity and range of IETCs' backgrounds and professional circumstances. Though each vignette features one IETC, they are fictionalized composites, reflecting typical situations we have encountered in nearly 50 years of our combined experience as teacher educators working with internationally educated teachers, and are also informed by cases documented in the Canadian research literature.

² The implementation in the past 5 years of the Labour Mobility Chapter of the Agreement on Internal Trade means that teaching certification attained in one jurisdiction is transferable to other jurisdictions across Canada (Grimmett, Young, & Lessard, 2012).

Vignette 1: Svetlana

Svetlana is an internationally educated teacher from Ukraine. Fluent in Ukrainian, Russian, and English, she taught in a special school for elite gymnasts prior to immigrating to Manitoba. She immigrated alongside her teenage children and spouse, an engineer who was fast-tracked for immigration through the provincial nominee program and who had a job offer from an employer prior to arriving. Svetlana was confident that her master's degree in education coupled with her 15 years' experience as a teacher in Ukraine would enable her to resume her career quickly, too. However, she is surprised and dismayed to discover, upon having her credentials assessed by Manitoba Certification, that she is eligible only for a provisional teaching certificate at this stage, which has a 3-year term. To obtain a permanent teaching certificate, she requires 12 credits of unspecified education coursework. Svetlana makes an appointment with a student advisor in the local faculty of education and after some discussion of course options is integrated over one academic year into existing BEd courses on school law in Manitoba, integrating Aboriginal perspectives into the curriculum, inclusive education, and cross-cultural education. From her previous context in which the students she worked with were academically and athletically gifted, she struggles with both the theory and the practice of differentiating programming for students with special needs, an issue that arises repeatedly during the occasional substitute teaching she does on days when she doesn't have class. Moreover, she feels a little out of place in the BEd courses where the majority of her classmates are in their early twenties and have never travelled outside of Canada. These classmates express anxiety about working with students and parents of English as an additional language (EAL) backgrounds, yet they don't appear to value the contributions she makes to group discussions in which she tries to offer her perspectives as a veteran teacher in another context and as a newcomer and EAL parent in Canada. Svetlana is often left without a partner or a group when collaborative activities are assigned in the class. Though there are no formal resources available for IETs in the faculty she is studying at, she is encouraged by a professor to avail herself of optional professional development workshops available for BEd students on strategies for working with special needs students. Additionally, she opts to take an online English course for IETs that is sponsored and delivered by the Manitoba government.

Vignette 2: Hong

Hong is an international student from China who gains admission to OISE/UT's Master of Teaching (MT) program. She is fluent in her local Chinese dialect as well as Cantonese, Mandarin, and English, and graduated at the top of her class in one of the most prestigious universities in her province. She worked as a tutor of business English for Chinese executives for several years after completing her undergraduate degree, and had the opportunity to participate in annual trips to the United States for Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) conferences. She has no experience in the Canadian school system or in working with the younger children she is preparing to teach in the context of her MT program, but she applied to this stream because her chances of admission were better. Nervous about the upcoming practice teaching placements and the high stakes evaluations attached to these, Hong feels she requires extra support and elects to defer her first evaluated practicum while she spends that term attending workshops and one-on-one sessions with an academic support advisor in the OISE Student Success Centre. She is partnered with a Mandarin-speaking advisor who can comfortably respond to Hong's questions in either Chinese or English. She has many questions about the curriculum in Canadian schools, especially the math curriculum with its emphasis on journaling and collaborative problem solving, which is very different from the math curriculum Hong experienced in China. While her peers are in their

practicum placements, Hong also has the opportunity to spend time in a classroom carrying out various activities under the supervision of a supportive host teacher. When Hong does complete her first evaluated practicum, she is able to make weekly appointments with an advisor over Skype to practice implementing the learning activities she will be using with her students. She has just received notice that these supports from the OSSC will be discontinued in the upcoming term because the administration of the faculty has pulled funding from the centre and reduced the number of advisors from 15 to 4. Hong is very nervous about how she will succeed in the practicum without the support she has found invaluable. Upon finishing her program, she intends to return to China where her degree will allow her to advance further in corporate tutoring, and she plans to start her own company with the help of her husband, who has remained in China to work and establish the partnerships and capital needed to launch the business, while Hong studies in Canada.

Vignette 3: Jacques

Jacques is a Black Francophone teacher from Mali who taught secondary school science and math back home before the Northern conflict in his country compelled him and his family to relocate to Canada. He settled in an almost exclusively white, rural community in Alberta because of the publicized teacher shortage and media accounts he had read about the need for more male teachers in rural areas (<http://www.calgaryherald.com/news/Alberta+facing+shortage+male+teachers+rural+areas/7168267/story.html>). He was granted provisional certification and is teaching in his community through the medium of French, but requires several undergraduate courses, including 6 credits in French literature and composition and 12 credits of BEd coursework in courses such as Curriculum and Teaching for Secondary School Majors. While he is teaching full-time, he is completing his certification requirements part-time at the University of Alberta, Campus Saint-Jean, by doing evening courses. Jacques speaks a variety of French different than that spoken in Alberta schools, and some of his students' parents have complained. Nevertheless, there are no supports provided for speakers of French as an additional dialect at the Campus Saint-Jean, and even if there were he wouldn't have time to avail himself of them since he is the sole breadwinner for his family and must continue to work full-time while completing his teacher certification requirements. He suspects that the "problem" some parents are identifying with his accent has more to do with his skin colour than actual communication challenges, but he is loath to speak out against the racism for fear of jeopardizing his position.

Conceptual Framework

Our arguments in this chapter are premised on the understanding that efforts to diversify teacher candidate populations in initial teacher education programs require both a commitment to diversity (i.e., recognizing and affirming differences) and explicit equity approaches (i.e., corresponding measures and resources) to ensure traditionally disadvantaged groups can be successful and the diverse community thrives. The interrelated yet distinct aspects of diversity and equity are discussed by the University of British Columbia (2010):

Beyond a mere "accounting for" difference, the way in which people are different – for example, in gender, race, culture, religion, sexual orientation, physical ability, family status or socio-economic status – must be respected. Thus, diversity in an organization means taking individual difference into account, respecting the ways in which that difference

manifests, and taking full advantage of the exchange of diverse perspectives and ideas that result in a robust and collegial environment.²

...

Equity is not the same as formal equality. Formal equality implies sameness. Equity, on the other hand, assumes difference and takes difference into account to ensure a fair process and, ultimately, a fair (or equitable) outcome. In this way, equity can be seen as the equivalent of the concept of substantive equality built into the Canadian legal system. Equity recognizes that some groups were historically disadvantaged in accessing educational and employment opportunities and were, therefore, underrepresented or marginalized in many organizations and institutions. The effects of that exclusion often linger systemically within organizational policies, practices and procedures. One goal of this plan, therefore, is to increase diversity by ameliorating conditions of disadvantaged groups.

Autoethnographic Approach

We have adopted an autoethnographic approach that has led us to critically examine developments in our respective institutions. In *analytic autoethnography* (Marechal, 2010) the researcher is “personally engaged in a social group, setting, or culture as a full member and active participant but retains a distinct and highly visible identity as a self-aware scholar and social actor within the ethnographic text” (p. 3). Maréchal goes on to explain that analytic autoethnography

reaffirms the distinctions between researchers and informants, observers and observed, or self and culturally different other prevalent in classical ethnography. It is also committed to an analytic agenda: Developing theoretical understanding of broader social phenomena, grounded in self-experience, analytic autoethnography remains framed by empirical data and aims to generalize its insights to a wider field of social relations than the data alone contain. (p.4)

As autoethnographers, we have been aware of our dual roles as social actors in our own contexts as well as researchers who hope to evoke strong responses in the reader while framing our data in such a way as to allow for a deeper understanding of diversity and equity issues as they pertain to IETCs in Canadian initial teacher education programs.

Literature Review

A growing body of research has examined the experiences of internationally educated teacher candidates in initial teacher education programs. Beynon, Ilieva, and Dichupa’s (2004) research in British Columbia revealed how professionally demoralizing and challenging it was for many internationally educated teachers to be informed by teacher certification authorities that the teacher education and experience they had acquired in their home contexts did not give them equivalent (or, in many cases, any) standing in the Canadian context, and in fact they would essentially have to start over by doing an entire initial teacher education program. As one IET named Parin, a teacher from India, described in Beynon et al.’s (2004) study,

The esteem is gone down the drain . . . you’ve given ten years of your life, studying . . . obviously, you tend to get some respect for yourself because this is what half of my life is

headed towards and it just boils down to zero. Right now I keep telling [my relatives back in India] that I am quite worthless in this country. (p. 434)

Research has also explored the ways dominant discourses (such as the myth of meritocracy) and practices discriminate against IETCs, a problem that Cho (2010) sees as three-pronged. The first barrier is admission into teacher education programs, the second barrier is experiences of discrimination in the university and school, and the third barrier is obtaining employment post-graduation (Cho, 2010). Cho presents compelling examples of linguistic discrimination encountered by IETCs during practicum placements and urges teacher education faculty to reject a “difference as deficit” orientation, challenge their preconceived notions of who can be a teacher in Canadian society, and expand those notions to include teachers of immigrant backgrounds and other diverse groups.

Discrimination against IETCs has been documented not only in practicum scenarios in Canadian schools but also in teacher education coursework. As Schmidt (2010) observed,

experiences with discrimination were noted in immigrant teachers’ interactions with Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) students encountered during some of the university coursework completed as part of the academic and professional bridging program. Immigrant teachers who participated in the bridging program revealed an incident in a B.Ed. course where a classmate spoke harshly about the numbers of immigrants coming to Canada, and criticized the “heavy Slavic accents” of some. (p. 245)

Barriers IETCs experience in initial teacher education programs are further explored by Chassels (2010), whose in-depth case study of an immigrant teacher candidate from China highlights the complex and often contradictory experiences of teachers of immigrant backgrounds. The challenges of “time; language; the culture of the teaching profession in Ontario; intra-cultural racism; feelings of inadequacy, inferiority, isolation and invisibility related to ‘otherness’; and a competitive labour market that disadvantages immigrant teachers” were juxtaposed with responses that included “constructive mentoring; a course developed specifically for internationally educated student teachers; and supportive peer colleagues” (Chassels, 2010, p. 1).

Faez (2012a, 2012b) has challenged the pervasive myth that teachers of immigrant backgrounds are automatically suited to working with English language learners (ELLs), an assumption that can create undue stress and pressure for IETCs. The research showed that IETCs in a large Canadian teacher education program did not in fact perceive themselves as any more capable of teaching ELLs than their Canadian-born, monolingual English-speaking peers. The main conclusion is that all teacher candidates need strong preparation to effectively teach ELLs, and that IETCs cannot be considered *de facto* experts in this area.

Two Institutional Cases

What a Difference a Decade Can Make! Operationalizing Equity for IETCs at OISE (A Perspective from Antoinette Gagné)

Institutional supports for IETCs at OISE stemmed from a 2002 initiative that sought to ensure that all teacher candidates and teacher education across the pre-service program received

some professional development with respect to ESL³ issues and teaching strategies. While leading ESL Infusion workshops in pre-service classes, my then doctoral student, Clea Schmidt, was interacting with some teacher candidates of ESL and immigrant background who noted that while they found it worthwhile to learn how to support the needs of their future ESL students, the teacher candidates themselves were in fact struggling in the context of the BEd program and in need of some support. This concern led to the development and implementation of a workshop series and internship opportunity designed specifically to meet the academic, professional, and language needs of IETCs. A small group of committed individuals launched these initial services, and then supportive institutional leadership and resources enabled the services to grow and expand into what became the comprehensive OISE Student Success Centre (OSSC). Our dual roles as social actors and researchers were evident from the way the services emerged from the research findings, and are echoed in our subsequent narratives in which we have advocated on policy and program committees while analyzing institutional developments.

The policy context helps situate the IETC-affirmative practices that emerged at OISE at this time. A striking contrast can be found between OISE/UT equity and diversity policy of 2005 and the current policy. The 2005 policy reads as follows:

OISE/UT is strongly committed to social justice in everything it does. This means that we are committed to the just treatment of each individual member of our community and the communities we serve. It also means that we are especially vigilant to ensure that differences are not treated in ways that produce direct or indirect forms of discrimination. Our commitment to social justice also means that those with whom we work and live who experience individual or systemic discrimination, for whatever reason, are provided with the means to overcome social and physical disadvantages, to the best of our ability. . .

We strive to remove the barriers that prevent historically disadvantaged groups from realizing their full potential. Through continual examination and monitoring of our practices, policies and programs we will aim to ensure that equitable principles prevail. . .

To further ensure that social justice prevails in our programs we will aim to:

- *enroll and support a student body that reflects the diversity of the communities we serve through, for example, processes for student recruitment, selection, admission and subsequent support and accommodations;*
- *ensure that social justice is promoted in all areas of our curriculum, in our pedagogy, in the climate of our classrooms, and in all aspects of the OISE/UT environment;*
- *hire and support individuals who have a demonstrated commitment and capacity to realize our social justice goals through their work and community involvement [emphasis added].*

By contrast, the current OISE equity and diversity policy states:

OISE is strongly committed to social justice in everything it does. This means that we are committed to the just treatment of each individual member of our community and the communities we serve. It also means that we are especially vigilant to ensure that differences are not treated in ways that produce direct or indirect forms of discrimination. . . .

Our commitment to social justice also means that those with whom we work and live,

³ “ESL” continues to be the term used in the Ontario context, though we recognize that it is problematic given students may speak multiple languages other than English.

who experience individual or systemic discrimination for whatever reason are provided with the means to overcome social and physical disadvantages, to the best of our ability. *It should be understood that equitable treatment sometimes involves similar treatment and at other times involves differential treatment in order to bring about an equality of results* [emphasis added].

Although there is some overlap between the 2005 and the current equity and diversity policies, significantly, the 2005 policy was reduced from three pages to less than a page. Most importantly, the specific ways in which the principles of equity and diversity applied to internal OISE administration, OISE's research program, pre-service and continuing education, field development, and community outreach programs, were dropped from the policy. This shift coincided with a significant decrease in programming and support for IETCs and other historically disadvantaged groups.

For more than 10 years I have been an active member of various committees where issues of equity and diversity are addressed. During the period leading up to the official approval of the 2005 policy and until 2010, equity for IETCs was enacted through development of 1) a special admissions category for IETs, 2) a robust admissions process that included an applicant profile with optional demographic data collection and questions focused on equity and diversity, 3) an elective course focusing on the language and culture of the Canadian classroom, 4) an internship providing experience in three schools—elementary, middle, and secondary—for a 5-week period, 5) a pre-field experience program for IETCs, and 6) the Academic and Cultural Support Centre. From 2003 to 2012, the initial teacher education community worked collaboratively to adapt and refine the various services and supports provided to IETCs. Then from 2012 to 2015 many of the services were either entirely cut or seriously reduced.

Special admissions category for IETs. A special admissions category was created with the support of funds provided through the *Teach in Ontario* bridging initiative for IETs, in response to the 2004–2009 teacher shortage identified by the provincial government. Many immigrant teachers find out from the Ontario College of Teachers that their credentials are not recognized in Canada and that it is necessary for them to return to a faculty of education and enroll in an initial teacher education program (Cho, 2013; Guo, 2009; Oolo, 2012). At OISE, where admission to the initial teacher education program has historically been very competitive, the IET admission category was created to assist new Canadians with international teaching experience to integrate into the teaching profession, and thus address the teacher shortage.

However, with the discontinuation of *Teach in Ontario* once the teaching shortage was over and the phasing out of OISE's Bachelor of Education and Diploma programs in teacher education to become an all-graduate institute of teaching, learning, and research, this special admissions category no longer exists. An underlying assumption exists that a competitive graduate program will result in a student body with fewer academic and language support requirements.

Admissions process, the collection of demographic data and the applicant profile. From 2003 onward, the BEd Admissions Committee of which I was a member worked to transform the admissions processes for the BEd program in an attempt to ensure greater access for those who had historically been kept out of faculties of education. The admissions process was reviewed and evaluated each year to ensure that changes made each year were in fact leading to the admission of a more diverse group of teacher candidates. The many changes included integrating questions in the applicant profile to gauge applicants' openness to equity and diversity in the classroom, as well as the collection of demographic data to determine the make-up of the entire applicant pool.

However, several aspects of the admissions process were abandoned in the past 2 years as the current administration viewed some of these to be overly onerous and costly to continue to implement. Only one required question on the MT statement of intent from the previous BEd applicant profile reflects OISE's ongoing commitment to admitting teacher candidates who show an openness and commitment to working towards equity in diverse classrooms and schools.

An elective course for IETCs in the BEd program: Language and Culture in the Canadian Classroom. In 2004, I designed and offered a new elective course to empower IETCs through a dual focus on access to resources and skills needed for professional preparation to teach in diverse Canadian teaching context and personal critical reflection on issues related to language and culture. The course included activities to help IETCs 1) explore their own cultural beliefs/assumptions, 2) relate overseas educational experiences to the local context, and 3) reflect on issues pertaining to race, class, gender, etc. The comment below from an IETC reflects the type of learning and growth experienced by many IETCs in this elective BEd course:

The course helped me better understand intercultural sensitivity.....I realized in order to demonstrate intercultural sensitivity, I would have to restrain my cultural filters from preventing me to listen to my students objectively.....To sum it up, by reflecting in this course, I think I increased my mindfulness and awareness of society. I learned how to evaluate situations from broad and multiple perspectives.

When the teacher shortage in Ontario was deemed to be officially over, this course was no longer offered as an elective in the BEd program as there were fewer IETCs in the program overall and not a sufficient number to run the course.

The Pre-Field Experience Program (PREP). After 2 years (2004 and 2005) offering an adapted internship to meet the needs of IETCs at the end of the BEd program, we developed the Pre-Field Experience Program (PREP), a non-evaluated but feedback-rich *practicum deferral option* specially designed for internationally educated teacher candidates. PREP was designed for IETCs who wanted to build their confidence teaching in Ontario schools and who felt they would benefit from a non-evaluated mentored teaching and observation experience in Ontario. PREP was a 4-week program of strategic teacher-candidate-focused preparation for effective teaching in Ontario schools, including school-specific communication practices, English and intercultural communication skills, structured school observations, debriefing sessions, and mentored teaching.

The following comment from an IETC illustrates the nature of learning and growth experienced in PREP:

I was able to observe the “culture” that prevails in the province’s schools, meet new people and colleagues, see first hand the different types of classroom management practiced at different schools by different teachers, do some modeling as well as learn more about my teachable—health and physical education. I was also able to observe French immersion classes, special education classes and English as a second language classes. All these experiences were invaluable to me as a student teacher since they represented a microcosm of the system, which I am trying to understand and be a part of. I also believe that this experience has helped tremendously in enhancing my professional growth as teacher and as a person.

Although PREP was considered an important optional program for IETCs in the BEd program and evolved each year to better meet their needs, it was discontinued during the 2014–15 academic year. No reasons were cited when the program was cancelled in spite of the presence of IETCs in the program.

The Academic and Cultural Support Centre currently known as the OISE Student Success Centre. I have acted as academic advisor and worked alongside the director of Student Services to provide leadership by selecting new peer advisors, developing programs and resources for the OSSC as well as facilitating monthly professional development for peer advisors on a range of topics. The OSSC has been central in pulling together several programs to support IETCs for success in their teacher education programs. The OSSC until recently has been a “full-service” academic and cultural communication resource and support centre.

Over the history of the center, more than 30 peer advisors have worked with both teacher candidates and graduate students across disciplines including 1) mathematics with a focus on concept development, 2) French with a focus on proficiency development, oral communication, and academic writing, and 3) English with a focus on oral and written communication skills for the classroom and the academy.

To illustrate the range of services offered by the OSSC, the IETCs from our introductory vignettes would have been able to avail themselves of the following supports:

- Svetlana would have been able to receive guidance in writing a reflective entry for her portfolio because she never had to do this type of writing in previous university courses in Ukraine.
- Hong would have been able to request help in modifying a lesson plan to make it more engaging and interactive for Canadian children.
- Jacques would have been able to book a series of telephone appointments to work on his delivery of lessons in French to gain confidence in his new teaching context.

During part of my term as academic advisor to the OSSC from 2004 to 2010, the centre was allowed to grow to support the increasing demand and from 2010 to 2012 the level of service provided remained constant. From 2006 to 2012 annual reports based on user data, workshop evaluations, and interviews with peer advisors reflected a high level of satisfaction with the range and quality of services provided. Users were also highly satisfied with the ability of the peer advisors, most of whom were teaching assistants (TAs) from various doctoral programs across OISE, to meet the diverse needs of our students, and IETCs in particular. However, since September 2013 the number of advisors has been cut drastically along with the services provided. At this time the number of peer advisors has dropped to the point where it is no longer possible to meet the demands of a very diverse student population. Senior administration has left the OSSC without any academic or administrative leadership and is exploring how the needs of OISE students and IETCs can be met by centrally-administered student service providers at the wider university.

The shift from a robust policy on equity and diversity, which specified how equity might be operationalized across OISE in 2005, to a bare bones statement has allowed for the dismantling of a system of supports and services that helped to level the playing field for IETCs at OISE.

University of Manitoba: Progressive Policy or Hollow Promise? (A Perspective from Clea Schmidt)

During my 10 years in the Faculty of Education at the University of Manitoba, I have been a member of the Committee for Initial Teacher Education Programs (CITEP) more often than not. It is part of the mandate of this committee to oversee admissions policies for the Bachelor of Education program, which is currently one of the two possible avenues for internationally educated teacher candidates to fulfill requirements for teacher certification at the University of Manitoba, the other being the post-baccalaureate diploma program (PBDE).⁴ Prior to my arrival in 2004 and continuing for the past decade, the faculty has had both “regular” admissions and “special consideration” BEd admissions categories. The latter allows for people to identify in one or more of the following groups: Aboriginal, visible minority, and persons with disabilities. An excerpt from the 2015–2016 Faculty of Education applicant bulletin describes the two applicant categories as follows:

Applicant Categories

1. Regular Category

Students will be considered for admission on the basis of their previous academic records and who have met all eligibility criteria as outlined in this section (A and B).

2. Special Consideration

The Faculty of Education has a Special Consideration Category. The Faculty recognizes the importance of providing the highest quality of education to all students in Manitoba via a teaching force that is fully representative of the cultural, ethnic and racial diversity of the province.

As the largest teacher education institution in the province, the Faculty recognizes its responsibility to facilitate the development of such a teaching force. The Faculty recognizes the need to ensure that its recruitment and admission policies and procedures do not inappropriately obstruct the achievement of such a goal, but rather actively promote its attainment.

For the purpose of identification, the definitions for the Special Consideration groups are as follows:

Canada Indigenous/Aboriginal Peoples

A Canada Indigenous/Aboriginal person is a member of a Canadian First Nation, Métis, or Inuit Community.

Visible Minority

Visible Minority—those persons other than Canada Indigenous/Aboriginal Peoples who, because of their ethnicity, are a visible minority in Canada.

Persons with Disabilities

Persons with disabilities are those who would consider themselves disadvantaged by reason of any physical, intellectual, mental, sensory or learning impairment.

⁴ The PBDE program is only a viable avenue if IETs require 30 credits or less of unspecified education coursework, and its totally open-ended format is problematic for IETs who benefit from specialized programming, a cohort model, and advocacy (see for example, Schmidt, 2010a).

Applicants who identify themselves under the Special Consideration Category are admissible under this category provided they meet all of the eligibility requirements as outlined in this section (A and B).⁵
(Faculty of Education, n.d., p. 3)

The special consideration category has long been recognized by some members of CITEP and the wider faculty as problematic and out-of-date for a number of reasons. One concern is that the Canadian Race Relations Foundation (2005) and other critics have suggested for at least the last ten years that the term “visible minority” be more appropriately replaced by *racialized minority* or *people of colour* (p. 17). Beyond terminology concerns, the existing three groups listed in the special consideration category do not adequately reflect the range of diversity (e.g., linguistic, socioeconomic, sexual orientation, religious, immigrant background, etc.) evident in Manitoban and Canadian schools and society, despite the policy’s claim to facilitate a “fully representative” (p. 3) teaching force. As one example, given the substantial immigration Manitoba has experienced in recent years, peaking in 2011 with nearly 16,000 newcomers to this province of 1.2 million (Office of the Manitoba Fairness Commissioner, 2014), responding appropriately to the needs of immigrant learners is a central concern for many schools. In turn, ignoring this aspect of diversity among prospective teacher candidates is a serious oversight.

In light of these concerns about the increasing inadequacy of the existing special considerations category, a sub-committee of CITEP was struck in 2013 to revisit the policy and devise a new, more inclusive BEd admissions policy.⁶ Three CITEP members, myself included, met approximately monthly over ten months to draft the policy, which went through subsequent iterations and drafts when shared with the CITEP committee and wider faculty.⁷ To begin, a process was undertaken to review admissions policies across campus in other faculties and departments and nationwide in other faculties of education. Reflecting the most progressive elements of the other policies reviewed, initial drafts of the policy were produced with a working title of Diversity and Equity Policy. The new policy made a more robust and concrete commitment to facilitate greater diversity in the teaching force by way of broadening the admissions categories. The newly conceived categories, including among other groups racialized, sexual, linguistic, and religious minorities, were much more inclusive of the different kinds of diversity evident among prospective teacher candidates. Moreover, the new categories were certainly more likely to reflect the realities of internationally educated teacher candidates, many of whom were not reflected in any of the previous special consideration groups. Another change involved increasing the percentage of diverse applicants offered admission from the 10% evident in the previous special consideration policy to 45% of admitted applicants in the new policy, to reflect a wide range of diversity across the program. Finally, an explicit statement was included about the need for corresponding supports and resources to align with the more diverse teacher candidate population that would be admitted.

The policy progressed through various drafts, and the faculty came together as a whole to debate its merits and drawbacks in a designated faculty discussion period in early 2014.⁸ While many

⁵ Ten percent of the designated program spaces in each of three BEd program streams (a total of 28 spaces) are devoted to the special consideration category, though this percentage has never been reached and the vast majority of applicants identifying within one of these groups are competitive within the regular admissions stream.

⁶ This policy was still in draft form at the time this chapter was written.

⁷ The views shared about the policy development process are solely those of the first author of this paper, as one of the members of the sub-committee who aided in drafting early versions of the new policy.

⁸ Another faculty discussion about diversity issues generally was scheduled to take place after the submission date for this manuscript.

faculty members acknowledged the effort and complexity involved in producing the policy and expressed their appreciation for the work that went into developing the draft, the detractors were numerous. A common criticism I observed as I took part in discussing the policy with my colleagues was that the proposed changes constituted “reverse discrimination.” This concern reflected age-old arguments about meritocracy, that is, the erroneous assumption that everyone has the same chances for success to begin with and people will succeed according to their innate talents and the efforts they dedicate to succeeding (see James & Taylor, 2008; Schmidt, 2010b). The ubiquitous comment also “purvey[ed] the same tired old stereotypes with the same vague language that people have been using since complaints were uttered about the racist dread of the ‘yellow peril’ a century and more ago” (Doughty, 2012, n.p.). Apparently, the fear of “denying nice white boys and girls from getting an education” remains a salient concern in the academy 35 years after the influx of “Asians” into Canadian universities raised dire concern in the popular media (Doughty, 2012, n.p.).

Following the faculty discussion, several more rounds of input at the CITEP level, and ominous forecasts of anticipated budget cutbacks from university administration, what originally set out to be a diversity *and* equity policy became just a diversity policy because no equity supports could or would be promised as part of it. It is beyond the scope of this chapter to explore all the reasons this decision came about. Nevertheless, having a diversity policy without corresponding equity supports in place or even on the horizon raises a salient question about whether admitting teacher candidates of diverse backgrounds is really enough: are initial teacher education programs simply paying lip service to diversity in the form of a hollow promise?

Discussion and Recommendations

Revisiting the first question that guided this chapter about the experiences of IETCs in initial teacher education programs in Canada, vignettes reflective of diverse teacher candidates’ experiences and a review of Canadian research suggest that barriers including issues of access and discrimination exist at multiple levels, including in university initial teacher education classes, in field experiences, and in post-program employment opportunities for teachers who do not fit the dominant teacher demographic, that is, white, middle class, female, Canadian-born, and monolingual English-speaking. Ongoing analysis of policies and documentation of the experiences of diverse teacher candidates needs to continue to determine the extent to which institutional agendas, programming, and services are in fact responding to the compelling need to diversify the Canadian teaching profession and adequately supporting IETCs who are a crucial part of that larger strategy.

The case of OISE, as unique as it is among initial teacher education programs in Canada because of its sheer size and corresponding resources, significantly demonstrates what can be accomplished when a range of comprehensive supports for IETCs are enacted. From the perspective of users of the OSSC services, the opportunities to learn about and engage with the intercultural and complex nature of Canadian schools and classrooms meaningfully facilitated their professional development and helped rebuild their confidence as contributing teaching professionals in the Toronto context. While not all faculties of education are likely to have the substantive infrastructure and resources required to develop their own independent student support centres, faculties of education can prioritize which services would be most relevant to the needs of their particular communities and work with existing resources available on their wider university campuses to offer some tailored support for IETCs. Such an approach would be highly beneficial in the case of institutions such as the Faculty of Education at the University of Manitoba, to ensure that equity measures for its particular student population are not altogether overlooked.

Considering our second question—What are the potential implications of diminishing or no supports and services for IETCs?—the two institutional cases demonstrate the impact of university business models on equity initiatives. The corporatization of post-secondary institutions is one of the most salient and troubling trends in higher education today. Operating within and across larger social, political, and economic discourses dominated by globalization and neo-liberal agendas, such agendas in turn shape the strategic priorities of faculties of education among other disciplines (McArthur, 2010). These discourses continue to dominate in spite of their problematic assumptions around meritocracy, the positioning of educators as technicians and learners as consumers, and ongoing systemic discrimination against groups marginalized by institutions and the wider society.

Within such a framework, equity in terms of dedicating resources and providing services to address the systemic barriers that disadvantage IETCs and other individuals from minority groups is not perceived as profitable and therefore is relegated to a lower priority on institutional agendas. Even in cases where an equity orientation makes inroads, a few committed people get initiatives underway, but when institutional leadership and politics shift towards more conservative practices, these initiatives become very hard to sustain. This, quite simply, is an unacceptable state of affairs, particularly for faculties of education for whom the well-being of minoritized populations must be a foremost consideration. Forgetting the work and message of Paolo Freire and other critical pedagogues at a time when such perspectives are sorely needed runs the risk of making teaching as a profession undistinguishable from business, and faculties of education undistinguishable from corporations whose only concern is making money.

Conclusion

Teacher education faculty and researchers have a responsibility as public intellectuals to lead, respond to, and shape the nature of the teaching profession, and this includes proactively diversifying the profession and facilitating access and support for IETCs. Whether faculties of education in Canada will succeed in sufficiently addressing issues of equity as part of this mandate, or will maintain their current superficial commitment to diversity, remains to be seen. Pathways and successful approaches are available for those institutions with sufficient leadership, vision, and courage to buck the current corporatization trend and enact socially just initial teacher education, instead of merely alluding to it with vague and hollow promises.

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