FIELD EXPERIENCES IN THE CONTEXT OF REFORM OF CANADIAN TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Volume 1

Edited by

Thomas Falkenberg and Hans Smits

Faculty of Education of the University of Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba

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2 Volumes

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THOMAS FALKENBERG
HANS SMITS

Published by

Faculty of Education of the University of Manitoba
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TITLE

Field Experiences in the Context of Reform of Canadian Teacher Education Programs, Volume 1.

EDITORS

Thomas Falkenberg and Hans Smits

BOOK DESCRIPTION

This volume developed out of a face to face working conference held at the University of Manitoba in Winnipeg in November of 2009. Participants from across Canada engaged with their colleagues' ideas concerning field experiences.

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PUBLISHER

Canadian Association of Teacher Education

Originally published by the Faculty of Education, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Canada

PUBLICATION DATE

2010

DIGITAL OBJECT IDENTIFIER (DOI)

http://dx.doi.org/10.11575/PRISM/38786

PLEASE CITE AS:

Fallkenberg, T., & Smits, H. (Eds.). (2010). *Field experiences in the context of reform of Canadian teacher education programs, volume 1 [eBook]*. Canadian Association of Teacher Education/Canadian Society for the Study of Education. https://prism.ucalgary.ca/handle/1880/113304

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Foremost, we like to acknowledge our colleagues who were involved in this writing and working project that we have proposed in the spring of 2009 and who came to Winnipeg from across the country to engage with their colleagues' ideas concerning field experiences in face-to-face working sessions. The number in which our colleagues responded to the project and the enthusiasm with which they participated has very much delighted us.

Picture from the last day of the Third Working Conference on Research in Teacher Education in Canada
Winnipeg, 7 November 2009

The contributions in this book (chapters 3-21) went through a blind peer-review process. We acknowledge with great appreciation the work that the reviewers have done and their contributions to the quality of the chapters in this book.

The Third Working Conference on Research in Teacher Education, held 5-7 November 2009 at the University of Manitoba (see www.umanitoba.ca/education/TEResearch), provided the context for the face-to-face working sessions in which participants engaged with the ideas that their colleagues presented in draft papers prepared prior to the conference. For her work behind the scene we would like to acknowledge the support that Sylvia Lapointe from the Faculty of Education at the University of Manitoba provided to the organization of the conference. Her efficient help with the finances, the conference site, and many other organizational issues was invaluable. We also would like to acknowledge the generous financial support for the conference by the Canadian Society for the Study of Education, the University of Manitoba Conference Sponsorship Program, and the Faculty of Education at the University of Manitoba.

Winnipeg and Calgary, June 2010 Thomas Falkenberg & Hans Smits

Chapter 1

Introduction: Central Issues of Field Experiences in Canadian Teacher Education Programs

THOMAS FALKENBERG

This first of two introductory chapters to the book provides a systematic overview with some in-depth discussion of central issues of field experiences raised to various degrees in different chapters of the book. The last section provides background information on the genesis of the book and its chapters in general. A table that allows the reader to identify the chapters in the book that speak to features of a particular Canadian teacher education program rounds out this chapter.

This book is the result of a systematic and structured attempt by Hans Smits and myself to bring together Canadian teacher education scholars to write about the topic of field experiences in the context of Canadian teacher education programs. With this book we want to provide Canadian teacher education practitioners, scholars, and those interested in revising and improving teacher education in the Canadian context with a compendium of scholarly material written on the topic by Canadian scholars working and interested in issues around the topic. The second part (the last section) of this chapter describes the process involved in creating this book.

The chapters provide a substantive contribution by Canadian teacher education scholars to the current discussion of field experiences in teacher education programs within the Canadian context. To my knowledge this is the first time that such a comprehensive collection of current teacher education scholarship on this topic has been published. In such an extensive collection the issues raised on the topic are numerous and addressed from different perspectives. In the first part of this introductory chapter I provide a systematic overview with some in-depth discussion of the main issues raised in the different chapters of this book. What I present as the main issues is, of course, grounded in the conscious and not so conscious biases with which I have read the chapters, but I do hope that I have done justice to the collection in this book. The discussion in this chapter will be structured by issues rather than by chapters.

In addressing the focus of this book, most of the chapters discuss in one way or another program features of particular Canadian teacher education programs. To my knowledge there exist no at least somewhat comprehensive overview of the different programs that currently exist in Canada, aside from Crocker and Dibbon's (2008) recent study that provides an overview of some general features of teacher education programs in Canada using aggregated

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data. However, there are a number of articles, book chapters, and even whole books on Canadian teacher education programs, but those are on *individual* teacher education programs.[1] Since most of the chapters in this book address the topic of field experiences with reference to particular teacher education programs in Canada, the collection in this book provides a good source for understanding specific program features of a number of programs that exist across the country, including specific program initiatives that are not (yet) program-wide. To provide some support to the reader who is interested in understanding some features of the teacher education programs discussed in this book, I have at the end of this chapter linked those particular teacher education programs with the chapter(s) in which they are discussed and listed what information about the program the respective chapter provides.

The collection of chapters in this book provides a rich discussion of many diverse issues around field experiences in Canadian preservice teacher education programs. This chapter is to provide the reader with a kind of birds-eye-view of central issues around the topic of field experiences in preservice teacher education as they are discussed in this book. The references to the different chapters will allow the reader to engage in more depth with the different issues as they are discussed in the respective chapter. The following is an overview over the issues discussed in the subsequent sections:

1. Field Experiences in Preservice Teacher Education: More than the Practicum
2. Different Approaches to Field Experiences in Canadian Teacher Education Programs
   a. Placement and Timing of the Practicum
   b. The type of Field Experiences
3. The Role of Field Experiences in Preservice Teacher Education
   a. The Theory-Practice Divide
   b. Working with Teacher Candidates' Pre-Conceptions: The Apprenticeship of Observation
   c. Limits of the Role of Field Experiences in Teacher Candidates' Learning
   d. The Urban-Rural Divide
4. School-University Partnerships
   a. The Idea and Practice of School-University Partnerships
   b. Challenges for School-University Partnerships
5. The Education of Teacher Educators
6. The Purpose of Teacher Education

[1] For example: the teacher education program at Simon Fraser University is described in Dagenais and Wideen (1999); the Midtown cohort teacher education program at OISE / University of Toronto is described in Beck and Kosnik (2002); the former teacher education program at Queen's University is described in Russell (2005) and in the articles in the 1999 special edition "Field-Based Teacher Preparation - Experience and Reflection" of Teacher Education Quarterly (volume 26, number 2); the former Master of Teaching teacher education program at the University of Calgary is described in Phelan (2005); the Urban Diversity Teacher Education Program at York University is described in Solomon, Manoukian, and Clarke (2007); and one cohort teacher education program at the University of British Columbia is described in Far Darling, Erickson, and Clarke (2007).

Field Experiences in Preservice Teacher Education: More than the Practicum

Based on anecdotal evidence, I claim that *typically* preservice teacher education in Canada provides program-based field experiences for teacher candidates only in the form of formal school practica, in which teacher candidates are placed in schools under the guidance of a practicing classroom teacher. However, as a number of the chapters in this book outline, there are teacher education programs in Canada in which various other forms of field experiences are provided to teacher candidates as part of the program but outside of their formal practicum.

At the University of Prince Edward Island, Ronald MacDonald conducted his science education course in a local high school (MacDonald, chapter 14). He met the teacher candidates shortly after the last daily high school class to allow interested teachers to be part of the course. At the core of the linking of the university-based course with school-based experiences was an assignment for which the teacher candidates were to develop a learning activity "to fit the needs of the in-service teacher and school students" (MacDonald, chapter 14, p. 263) and then to implement the activity in the classroom of the respective in-service teacher.

Over the last number of years Tim Hopper and others at the University of Victoria have been conducting part of their courses in classrooms as part of their School Integrated Teacher Education (SITE) project (Sanford, Hopper & McGregor, chapter 20). Course instructors and classroom teachers model teaching to the observing teacher candidates, who then gradually are provided with teaching opportunities in those classrooms. For Sanford, Hopper & McGregor this setting provides for a "systematic incorporation of school experiences into the teaching and learning of core concepts within university courses" (chapter 20, p. 349).

Similarly, over the last number of years a number of faculty members at the University of Manitoba have been conducting part of their courses in school settings as well (for a description of the structure of this design for two of those years see Falkenberg & Young, chapter 9). The experiences varied from observations of classroom teachers while teaching to teaching of small groups of students by teacher candidates. In all cases, classroom teachers have been an integral part of the conversations that were linked to the classroom experiences.

An integration of university-based course work and school-based experiences outside of the practicum are also part of the new teacher education program at the University of Saskatchewan, as Lemisko and Ward (chapter 13) write: "Some of the classes are taught in the schools, and there is an expectation that assignments for the course will be carried out in classrooms" (p. 257).

At McGill University David Dillon goes even further with the integration of coursework and school-based experiences (Dillon & O'Connor, chapter 7). He offers an elective course of 3 to 6 credits in the third of the four year elementary teacher education program "that is essentially a tailored practicum" (chapter 7, p. 136) in which teacher candidates

> may try teaching an age/grade level or subject area that they have not had the chance to teach before, they may explore related roles in a school such as resource teachers . . . or they may work with pupils in extra-curricular ways such as setting up and running a girls' club, a homework program, or a special interest program. (Dillon & O'Connor, chapter 7, p. 136)

This "practicum course" is accompanied by a weekly seminar and a portfolio requirement.

The practicum-external field experiences reported on in the respective chapters all seem to be characterized by three features. First, the field experiences are provided to teacher candidates as part of their university-based course work. Second, the arrangements for those field experiences are all based on initiatives by individual faculty members or small groups of individuals who see a great value for their teacher candidates' learning to teach in linking their coursework with field experiences outside of the official practicum. Third, all those arrangements – with probably the exception of the new program at the University of Saskatchewan – are not an integral part of the established structure of the teacher education program they each are embedded in, meaning that these links between university-based course work and classroom-based field experiences are idiosyncratic features of the university course or courses within which the field experiences are offered, as distinct from the practicum, which is an integral part of the program structure.

These features of these types of field experiences suggest that the arrangements upon which they rest are very vulnerable to dissolution. Because those arrangements are not an integrated part of the structure and design of the program – which would come with appropriate resources to support those arrangements – they do not only depend on the good will of faculty members but also on the availability of resources (generally in form of time) that those faculty members have to provide for. Changes in teaching assignments, research study leaves, and changes in time commitment of faculty members are all factors that contribute to the vulnerability of these kinds of field experience arrangements.

Other issues directly linked to these forms of field experiences will be discussed in other sections below. Three such issues are of particular relevance. First, alternative field experiences that link university-based course work with school-based field experiences are generally motivated by an attempt to overcome what some have called "the theory-practice divide" in teacher education programs, the divide between learning experiences in university-based coursework and those in school-based field experiences. Second, alternative field experiences, because they are generally not part of the formal structure of the program, require a different relationship to the field, a far more deliberate and collaborative relationship. School-university partnerships – the topic of a subsequent section – characterize the relationship that some of the programs discussed in this book strive for. Third, because alternative field experiences require a different relationship to the field, the different stakeholders around field experiences need to be considerate of the governance structure of field experiences, which is the topic of another section.

Different Approaches to Field Experiences in Canadian Teacher Education Programs

What the collection in this book demonstrates is the great variety in the design of field experiences in Canadian teacher education programs. Following I will highlight examples of that design variety by considering two aspects relevant in the design of field experiences.

Placement and Timing of the Practicum

In terms of the placement and timing of the practicum within the program, Canadian teacher education programs discussed in this book offer three different structures. The first structure spreads a number of practicum blocks over the length of the program, alternating coursework and practicum blocks, beginning with coursework. The current program at the University of Manitoba has this structural feature (Falkenberg & Young, chapter 9), where a practicum block follows a block of course work in each of the four terms of the program. A number of current Canadian teacher education programs alternate field experiences and course work as well, but they provide field experiences right from the start of the program. This is the case at the University of Regina (Mulholland, Nolan & Salm, chapter 18) and the newly developed teacher education program at Mount Royal University (Naested, Nickel, Sikora, & Vaughan, chapter 19). Quite a different structure for the practicum-based field experiences is provided at the University of New Brunswick, where the practicum is on-going during the whole length of the one-year B.Ed. program (Hirschkorn & Kristmanson, chapter 11).

The placement and timing of the practicum is an important structural feature of a teacher education program. Particularly the question whether a teacher education program should provide for practicum field experiences right from the start is important, and the variation of the placement and the timing of the practicum in the four teacher education programs just mentioned shows that those programs have a different answer to this question. Russell (2005) has discussed different assumptions underlying two different approaches to the placement and timing question, one he calls the "theory first, practice later" approach, the other one the "practice first, understand later" approach. The latter case is not exemplified in any of the four programs, since in such a case the program would start with field experiences *before* any coursework is undertaken. At the core of Russell's argument in favour of the "practice first, understanding later" approach lie two epistemological stances he takes: that experience precedes understanding in learning to teach, and that it is the "authority of experience" rather than the "authority of position" of the teacher educator that has the greater power in addressing teacher candidates' prior conception of teaching, developed through the "Apprenticeship of Observation".[2]

The stance that experience precedes understanding is in opposition to the epistemological position that a learner needs the theoretical understanding of (certain aspects of) teaching practices first (course work) in order to then *apply* those in concrete teaching situations (practicum teaching). A number of authors in this book argue against this

---

[2] On the idea of experience preceding understanding in learning to teach, see Loughran and Russell (1997), and on the idea of "the authority of experience" and "authority of position" see Munby and Russell (1994). On the notion of the Apprenticeship of Observation see this chapter below and the extensive discussion in Bullock & Russell (chapter 5).

epistemological stance. For instance, Sanford, Hopper and McGregor (chapter 20) argue for situated learning in learning to teach, which is incompatible with viewing practice teaching as applying propositional knowledge to concrete contexts. The second epistemological stance taken by Russell ("authority of experience") takes its starting point in the recognition that all teacher candidates enter their teacher education program with preconceptions of teaching and learning, shaped through an Apprenticeship of Observation during the time of their K-12 schooling. However, such "preconceptions show a remarkable resistance to traditional attempts to change them" (Korthagen & Russell, 1999, p. 4). As Korthagen and Russell argue, for many teacher candidates it requires the "authority of experience" (experience they made for themselves) to have them question their preconceptions and to prepare them for what Piaget calls the accommodation process.

If teacher candidates are to theorize about teaching and learning, they can do so only with reference to some form of experience with teaching. Taking the concerns raised against the Apprenticeship of Observation seriously (see the section on this topic below), it is problematic if teacher candidates use their experiences as K-12 students as their reference for theorizing about teaching and learning, particularly, since they have not experienced teaching from a teacher's perspective but rather from a student's perspective. Thus, providing teacher candidates with experiences with teaching from a teacher's point of view before engaging them into theorizing about teaching and learning seems to make a lot of sense. Russell (2005, pp. 144-145) provides quotes from three teacher candidates who started their teacher education program with a four-month practicum before having taken any course work. Those quotes express clearly those students' readiness to engage in (what I would call) theorizing about teaching and learning, because their experiences with teaching and learning from a teacher's perspective had them recognize specific and more general needs for such theorizing.

However, the two epistemological stances taken by Russell as well as the notion of teacher candidates' readiness for theorizing based on the experience-first approach have to be seen in light of the arguments presented by Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann (1985). The authors discuss three "basic pitfalls of experience", arguing that caution has to be taken with the belief that "experience [is] as good a teacher of teachers as most people are inclined to think" (p. 53). The three pitfalls the authors discuss – the familiarity pitfall, the two-worlds pitfall, and the cross-purpose pitfall – are characterized as follows (Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1985):

> Classroom experience in itself cannot be trusted to deliver lessons that shape dispositions to inquire and to be serious about pupil learning. On the contrary, it may block the flow of speculation and reflection by which we form new habits of thought and action. (p. 56)
>
> In teaching, observation is a means, not an end. Tom [a fictitious teacher candidate with observational experience of teaching] may succeed in becoming a skilled observer, but this will not guarantee that he will know how to act wisely on what he notices. Nor will further classroom experience in itself activate the acquired skills in situation that call for observation. (p. 59)
>
> Just because experiences seem plausible does not mean they are trustworthy. Sue's belief that she knows how classrooms work will be difficult to dispel since it grows

> out of things she has seen and participated in; these experiences are vivid and cathected. (p. 61)

The authors describe what they think give rise to the three pitfalls:

> The familiarity pitfall arises from the fact that prospective teachers are no strangers to classrooms. The two-worlds pitfall arises from the fact that teacher education goes on in two distinct settings [school and university] and from the fallacious assumption that making connections between these two worlds is straightforward and can be left to the novice. The third pitfall arises from the fact that classrooms are not set up for teaching teachers: It is a case of being at cross-purposes. (Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1985, p. 63)

Interestingly, all three points mentioned here are discussed in chapters in this book and will also be addressed in this introductory chapter. What gives rise to the familiarity pitfall is linked to the already mentioned Apprenticeship of Observation, which is extensively discussed in Bullock and Russell (chapter 5). It is the theory-practice divide in many teacher education programs, the divide between university-based coursework and school-based field experiences that Faiman-Nemser and Buchmann say gives rise to the two-worlds pitfall. This theory-practice divide is discussed in a number of chapters, often in connection with attempts to overcome this divide (so, for instance, in Dillon & O'Connor, chapter 7). The issue that according to Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann gives rise to the third pitfall is linked to the question of the preparation (education) of associate teachers for their role as teacher educators, a question that is addressed by a number of chapters, particularly so in the chapters by Broad and Tessaro (chapter 4), Hirschkorn and Kristmanson (chapter 11), and Lacourse and Correa Molina (chapter 12).

Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann's arguments are not arguments against the two epistemological stances taken by Russell per se, but they qualify those stances. Their arguments suggest that while "practice first, understanding later" might be an appropriate epistemological stance, *what* we understand based on practice (experience of practice) and whether that "what" is desirable is a different question from the question whether practice precedes understanding. Their arguments also suggest that "the authority of experience" can backfire relative to teacher candidates' *desired* learning and understanding about teaching and learning: just because we look does not mean that we see, and what we see is not all what is there but rather what we are prepared to see! In their chapter Bullock and Russell (chapter 5) adopt this kind of qualifying stance toward the two epistemological stances when they warn against expecting too much from learning in the practicum, and when they suggest – in my words – that the practicum is not "the teacher" for learning to teach but rather provides a meaningful experiential basis upon which university-based coursework can help teacher candidates to theorize about teaching and learning.

If one subscribes to the two epistemological stances promoted by Russell, however, one still does not need to subscribe to the idea of starting a teacher education program with a practicum component before or even when starting coursework. The argument put forward by Russell and others depends on the focus on learning to teach in the classroom. The three quotes from teacher candidates that Russell (2005, pp. 144-145) presents and that I reference above demonstrate quite clearly how the focus of the teacher candidates' readiness for

university-based coursework is on aspects of their still to be developed proficiency in classroom teaching. If that is also the focus of the coursework from the beginning, then providing classroom teaching experiences to teacher candidates with a focus on developing teaching proficiency makes a lot of sense if one subscribes to the two epistemological assumptions outlined by Russell. However, if the educational focus at the outset of a teacher education program is going beyond the focus on classroom teaching proficiency, assuming Russell's two epistemological stances will have different implications for designing experiences for teacher candidates around teaching and learning. Sanford, Hopper and McGregor (chapter 20), for instance, draw on Dewey's well-known notion of teacher candidates as "students of education" to make the case that teacher education has to be more than preparing proficient practitioners:

> This means that practical work [by teacher candidates] should be pursued primarily with reference to its reaction upon the professional pupil [i.e. the teacher candidate] in making him [or her] a thoughtful and alert student of education, rather than to help him [or her] get immediate proficiency.
> (Dewey, 1964, p. 320)

Issues like the larger purpose of school education, poverty and schooling, resource distribution and its impact on learning, constraints faced by teachers, school divisional policies and their impact on teaching and learning, and so on are issues that are not directly linked to developing a proficient practitioner but are rather issue for "students of education". Initial classroom teaching experience in a teacher education program runs the danger of concentrating teacher candidates' learning focus on their becoming a proficient practitioner to the detriment of becoming a "student of education". If the latter is considered important, subscribing to the two epistemological principles mentioned by Russell would imply the design of experiences for teacher candidates that allow them to experience how different schools or teachers work for a larger purpose of school education, how different resource distribution impacts learning of students in different school settings, or how particular school divisional policies impact teaching and learning in that school division. Such experiences can then provide the basis upon which university-based coursework can help teacher candidates grapple with their preconceived notions around those different issues and the role these issues will play for them as teachers. School and classroom experiences addressing those issues will look quite differently than those helping teacher candidates to grapple with their notions of classroom teaching practice. Taking Russell's two epistemological stances seriously requires to ask the question: What type of field experience is appropriate as an experiential base for theorizing about *what* aspect of being a teacher? That aspect does not have to be classroom teaching practice. It might even be, as I argued, that starting with such a focus might weaken attempts to get at the other issues at a later time in the teacher education program. Indeed, some of the programs discussed in this book offer types of field experiences different from the "standard" type of practicum experience – and for the reason outlined here: to consider a wider purpose of the preparation of teachers than to just prepare them for good classroom practice. Next I turn to the more general issue of the design of different types of field experiences offered in teacher education programs discussed in this book.

The Type of Field Experiences

The chapters in this book show a number of different types of field experiences that are provided to teacher candidates as part of their respective teacher education programs. Next to the "regular" practicum, in which teacher candidates are placed in "regular" schools under the guidance of a classroom teacher, there are three more types of field experiences that programs discussed in this book provide for. First, in some programs field experiences are provided that are outside of the formal practicum, offered as part of a university-based course. Those types of experiences were discussed in the previous section. Second, in one program a practicum was offered in the context of an inter-professional team of learners of the respective profession. Two years ago a pilot program was offered a the University of Regina

> that placed students in interprofessional teams in a number of community schools . . . . In these cases, a pre-service teacher collaborated with a nursing student, a social work student and a human justice student, all of whom were focused on a common health and learning issue that affected the students in the intern's classroom.
> (Mulholland, Nolan, & Salm, chapter 18, p. 321)

In some programs a third type of practicum experiences is offered through alternative field placements where teacher candidates are placed not in regular schools but rather in some type of community setting. I will introduce some of those alternative placements as they are discussed in chapters of this book. At the University of Regina, which is in the process of reviewing its teacher education program, "the plan is for students to successfully complete an alternate field placement in a community setting" (Mulholland, Nolan & Salm, chapter 18, p. 321). Similarly, the University of Victoria had recently begun offering a short-term, optional practicum at a site alternative to the sites of regular school-based practica (McGregor, Sanford & Hopper, chapter 17). Possible placement options included

> community-based service and arts organizations, youth engagement or service oriented settings, alternative and private school sites, nature and outdoor recreational sites, hospitals, teacher education programmes, aboriginal organizations, international education placements and student day care camps.
> (McGregor, Sanford, & Hopper, chapter 17, p. 304)

The authors describe the challenges that accompany such a type of practicum placement, from organizational issues, to matters of appreciation of the experience by teacher candidates, as well as matters of adjustment to a partnership with new collaborators in the community. Nonetheless, the preliminary data that they provide on the transformative impact of the experience on teacher candidates' views about teaching, learning, and students are very promising.

Under the title "What kind of experience?" Boyle-Baise and McIntyre (2008) discuss two contexts for field experiences for teacher candidates, one of which is professional development schools and the other one community schools. What is of interest here is that they frame their discussion as the *normative* question of what kind of field experiences teacher candidates *should* get. This question invokes the logically preceding question of what the field experiences can /

should contribute to the overall purpose or goal of the education of teacher candidates in the first place. This is the very stance that McGregor, Sanford and Hopper (chapter 17) take in their rationalization for the alternate site of a short-term practicum in the program at the University of Victoria. For them the question of the purpose of their teacher education program (the "should", as they call it) was central to their decision to develop and implement a community-based field experience:

> For teacher educators, enhancing the development of such critically reflective practices therefore becomes central to programme design; at the University of Victoria we have approached this goal by conceiving of preparing teachers for their dual role as *citizenship educators* and *civic leaders*.
>
> While there are a variety of ways in which such learning and approaches to leadership can be advanced, we see one primary means by which this learning can be enabled: community based field experiences.
>
> (McGregor, Sanford, & Hopper, chapter 17, p. 300)

The notion of linking teacher education program design to the purpose of teacher education is one that can be found explicitly in several of the chapters in this book. I come back to this notion more extensively in this chapter below.

The Role of Field Experiences in Preservice Teacher Education

All Canadian teacher education programs have two central features in common: first, they are all university-based; second, they all have a practicum component that is distinct from the university-based course work. In this section I address the question of the role of field experiences within a teacher education program by (a) focusing on two roles that field experiences can play particularly well in preservice teacher education programs: addressing the theory-practice divide and addressing teacher candidates' pre-conceived notions of teaching and learning, (b) focusing on the limits of the role that field experiences can play in a teacher education program, and (c) focusing on the larger issue of the urban-rural divide, which directly affects the role that field experiences can play for the preparation of teachers in and for rural school divisions.

The Theory-Practice Divide

What is the Problem?

The issue of the theory-practice divide seems to be the most prominent single issue addressed throughout this book. It is, for instance, a central issue in Bullock and Russell (chapter 6), Dillon and O'Connor (chapter 7), MacDonald (chapter 14), Martin and Russell (chapter15), and Naested, Nickel, Sikora, and Vaughan (chapter 19). The prominence of this issue should not surprise, since the authors of all chapters are involved in the university-based course work of their respective teacher education program and are writing on the topic of school-based field experiences, which has been generally offered in separation from the former in terms of

timing, personnel, and curriculum. As, for instance, Mulholland, Nolan, and Salm (chapter 18, p. 322) write:

> According to Van Zoest and Bohl's (2005) model for the current (traditional) constellation of learning communities in mathematics teacher development, there is a very weak connection with little to no overlap between the university teacher education community and the internship (field experience) classroom community.

So, if members of the university community write about the work done in the "other" community, noticing a divide between the work done in the two communities should not surprise, particularly since the work in both communities is addressing the learning needs of the same group of people (teacher candidates), and generally a view is held that those learning needs are better served in a *coherent* program, a point that I address more explicitly below.

In the chapters of this book "the theory-practice divide" refers generally to the disconnectedness between the university-based course learning in a teacher education program ("theory") and the school-based learning in the program ("practice"). This disconnectedness and efforts to overcome it is not new to teacher education, as Bullock and Russell (chapter 5, pp. 91-92) point out with reference to Vick (2006), who traces this very issue back to the first half of the 20th century in teacher education in England and Australia.

I find the conceptualization of this disconnectedness as a "theory-practice" divide unfortunate for two reasons. First, it perpetuates the inadequate perception of what the university-based course experiences and what the school-based field experiences are about – *regardless* what experiences are provided in either sphere. University-based course work involves the practice of teaching, even if the course instructor does not make that explicit: teaching about teaching is teaching and the course instructor engages in a practice of teaching; teacher candidates experience teaching practice first hand in university courses. Tom Russell has been making this point forcefully when he emphasizes for teacher educators that how I teach (as a teacher educator) *is* the message (Russell, 1997). On the other side, field experiences in school settings are replete with theorizing. Theorizing about experience is the practice of linking the experience to ideas, conceptual frameworks, and principles. So, whenever a teacher candidate or an associate teacher makes sense of an experience, they theorize.[3]

The second reason why I think the conceptualization of the disconnectedness as a theory-practice divide is unfortunate is that it does not capture what I think the divide is actually about. In my view the divide is about the *disconnectedness of different domains of teaching competencies*. For instance, the planning of lessons that is discussed and practiced in university-based classes is not linked to a concrete context of a specific class of specific students in a specific school or to the implementation of the lesson. The theories about how students learn – discussed in university-based classes – are not linked to teacher candidates' experiences with students in their school-based practicum. University-based course work can focus on developing competencies relevant to "practice" (like lesson planning and understanding how primary school students meaningfully develop number sense), but the disconnect between the two spheres in a teacher education program lead to a divide of domains of teaching

[3] This point is separate from the questions of what kind of theorizing is happening and whether university-based faculty members can contribute to developing teacher candidates' capacity to theorize about their teaching and professional experiences.

competencies that does not give sufficient consideration to the *interaction* between those different competencies in teaching. While there are aspects of teaching that do not require a concrete classroom context and university-level theorizing, respectively, in the actual enactment of those aspects of teaching those aspects need to be connected to other aspects of teaching. The problem that is captured by the notion of the theory-practice divide is the problem that *the preparation* of teacher candidates for theoretical and practical aspects of teaching at both the university and the school *is disconnected*, and that, thus, teacher candidates are not helped with the *interconnectedness* of different teaching competencies.

Although they use language of the "theory-practice gap" and separate university-based "learning *about* teaching" from school-based "learning *to* teach", Dillon and O'Connor (chapter 7) seem to share the fundamental view about the theory-practice divide being the problem of not linking competencies focused on in university courses with those focused on in field experiences:

> What the term "theory-practice gap" seems to refer to in teacher education is that guidelines for teaching offered in teacher education courses seem *abstract* to students, even if couched in applied ways, and thus difficult to integrate well in students' learning since students have limited teaching experience upon which to interpret and integrate the guidelines. In addition, when students are immersed in the "practice" of student teaching, they often feel that the guidelines offered in their program (those few that they may be able to remember!) are insufficient in the face of the enormous complexity of the classroom. The real issue at play here seems to be the relationship between learning about teaching on the one hand and learning to teach on the other. (Dillon & O'Connor, chapter 7, p. 118)

Also, Bullock and Russell's (chapter 5) suggestion to university-based course instructors to link their courses to teacher candidates' field experiences can be understood as a call for an interconnection between competencies university courses and field experiences, respectively, focus on:

> We contend that preservice programs must directly and actively assume responsibility for helping teacher candidates learn how to learn from field experience and to judge the quality of that learning. It is unacceptable for a course that has been interrupted by weeks of field experience to resume as though nothing had happened; doing so suggests that field experience is relatively unimportant and sends the message that education courses do not value field experience. Field experiences will always change those whom we are teaching, and we cannot resume teaching preservice teachers without knowing something about how they have changed; necessarily, they have new issues, new questions and new understandings of what it means to teach and learn.
> (Bullock & Russell, chapter 5, p. 99)

How Can and Should the Theory-Practice Divide Be Overcome?

The question of how the theory-practice divide[4] can and should be overcome to address their interconnectedness needs to be put in context. Answers to the question depend on one's vision of what to educate teacher candidates for (the purpose of teacher education). Below I discuss the purpose issue for teacher education, but even if one limits one's focus of the purpose for teacher education to "learning to teach", the issue of different visions of what it means to teach and, thus, what it means to prepare teacher candidates for this particular understanding of "teaching" is still relevant. In other words, one can only meaningfully approach the question "How can and should this divide be overcome?" relative to a vision of what teacher candidates are to be educated for. To illustrate the need to contextualize the question of how the theory-practice divide can and should be overcome, I draw on a section in Dillon and O'Connor (chapter 7).

Dillon and O'Connor (chapter 7, pp. 118-122) discuss Schön's (1987) and Korthagen's (2001) approaches to what "learning about professional practice" aims for and what they suggest that implies for the relationship of "theory" and "practice". Schön's (1983) well-known distinction between the technical-rationality approach and the reflective practice approach to learning about professional practice is grounded in different views of the purpose of professional education. In the case of the technical-rationality approach, professionals are to be prepared to identify the type of professional situation and then to effectively enact in that situation those practices that were externally developed as "best practices" to be engaged in in those situations. In this "theory-into-practice" approach a perceived theory-practice gap in professional education would be conceptualized as a gap between the kind of practice "the theory" says is the best practice in a given educational situation and "the practice" the professional learner is actually enacting in an instantiation of that education situation. On the other hand, in the case of the reflective practice approach a professional is to be prepared for being a "reflective practitioner" (Schön, 1987), who is someone who has developed "professional artistry" that shows in the practitioner's ability to reflect *while* engaged in her practice (reflection-in-action) in order to find the best way to deal with the concrete situation at hand, drawing on explicit and implicit theories held by the practitioner while engaged in the action. In this, as it could be called, "theory-supported practice" approach a perceived theory-practice gap in professional education would be conceptualized as a gap between a learner's engagement with theories about different aspects of the professional practice and the practice in which professional learners develop their competency to reflect-in-action drawing on those theories.

In order to overcome the theory-practice divide in the second sense, Schön (1987), as Dillon and O'Connor remind us, "proposes placing the practicum at the very centre of a professional program, thus basically reversing the traditional figure-ground of courses and practica within a program" (Dillon & O'Connor, chapter 7, p. 120). The imperative "Placing the practicum at the very centre of a professional program!" can imply a range of different things for teacher education and following I discuss a few of them.[5]

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[4] Henceforth, I will use the shorter and more commonly used term "the theory-practice divide", although with the conceptualization I explicated above.

[5] The discussion above in the subsection on the placing and timing of the practicum is relevant here as well.

Teacher education programs in Canada are university-based, meaning that it is generally the completion of a university-based Bachelor of Education program that leads to teacher certification in Canadian provinces. All components of the program, including the practicum component, are formally university-based courses, and, thus, controlled by the university – although all such programs are shaped by program accreditation requirements (so for instance in Quebec) and certification requirements by the certification authorities (colleges of teachers in British Columbia and Ontario and provincial governments in all other provinces). Considering this current structure of university-based teacher education in Canada, the imperative "Placing the practicum at the very centre of a professional program!" raises the question of the role of the university in teacher education. While in the Canadian context the central role of the university in teacher education is not in question, the situation is quite different in the USA. There, so-called "alternative routes to certification" have been in existence since the 1980s and their numbers have steadily increased (Zeichner & Conklin, 2005; Zeichner & Schulte, 2001). The term "alternative teacher education program" is used with a range of meanings (Zeichner & Conklin, 2005, p. 656), but one common understanding is that it refers to all programs that are non-university-based programs. Such non-university-based teacher education programs range from apprenticeship-type, purely school-based programs supervised by teachers that do not involve any university coursework except maybe in form of degree requirements for program admission to programs that are district-based but involve the completion of a university-based degree program, like the Boston Teacher Residency program (Solomon, 2009). Do alternative teacher education programs of the more apprenticeship type overcome the theory-practice divide by design by having eliminated the "theory component"?

With the prominence of alternative teacher education programs in the USA it should not surprise that the question of the role of universities in teacher education is an on-going issue in the US literature (see, for instance, the chapters in Roth, 1999; and those in part 3 of Cochran-Smith, Fieman-Nemser, McIntyre, & Demers, 2008); but the issue has also been taken up by writers from the UK (see, for instance, the chapters in Furlong & Smith, 1996). Simplified, the literature discussing the role of the university in teacher education emphasizes specifically the importance of the "theoretical" aspect in teaching that the university can contribute. It is the expertise *about* teaching and learning, the scholarship and research in teaching and learning, and the critical distance to the teaching profession that Bridges (1996) discusses as the contributions of the university to teacher education; and Darling-Hammond (1999) suggests that university-based programs can better provide the meta-level competencies required to support learning to teach than alternative teacher education programs. However, both scholars emphasize as well, that those contributions by university-based teacher education programs cannot be taken for granted. Bridges (1996), for instance, suggests that with the current state of affairs in faculties of education, the quality of the contributions in the three mentioned areas leaves much to be desired. Darling-Hammond (1999), considering what research suggests about learning to teach, warns that

> lest schools of education become sanguine, however, there are grounds for concern about traditional preparation programs as well. One major aspect of the critique of teacher education is that . . . many teacher education programs seemed to separate theory and application to a large extent. (p. 22)

This concern raised by Darling-Hammond leads back to, as Dillon and O'Connor phrased it (chapter 7, p. 118) "the relationship between learning about teaching ['theory'] on the one hand and learning to teach ['practice'] on the other", and, indeed, one way in which the range of responses to the imperative "Placing the practicum at the very centre of a professional program!" can be conceptualized is as a continuum that is based on the degree to which the practicum, or more generally field experiences are integrated with university-based theorizing: from no integration at all to complete integration. Following I want to characterize three places on this continuum, from least integrated to most integrated and with some references to different Canadian teacher education programs as they are discussed in chapters in this book and are illustrative of the respective case.

One form of integration is characterized by the attempt to connect *the experiences* within the two program components – university-based courses and school-based practica – through various ways without, however, changing the two components per se. The one-year teacher education program at the University of New Brunswick seems to be a prototypical example for this case (Hirschkorn & Kristmanson, chapter 11). In this program the practicum runs concurrently to the courses in the program, thus, providing opportunities to link course experiences with field experiences and vice versa. The latter opportunity is fostered through the encouragement of teacher candidates to choose as topics for on-campus course assignments issues that arose in their practicum. In addition, the program includes three year-long courses for which the course topics were "negotiated with representatives from the educational community" (Hirschkorn & Kristmanson, chapter 11, p. 226). Also, university-based faculty members are encouraged to work as associate teachers, and there are regular meetings scheduled between "the field services office, the school liaisons and the faculty representatives" (Hirschkorn & Kristmanson, chapter 11, p. 226).

A second form of integration is characterized by a direct link between course and field experiences *within individual courses*, thus, creating a new type of field experience in addition to the practicum, which itself is not changed per se. There are a number of initiatives in Canadian teacher education programs that use this form of integration: at the University of Manitoba (Falkenberg & Young, chapter 9), at the University of Prince Edward Island (MacDonald, chapter 14), and at the University of Victoria (Sanford, Hopper, & McGregor, chapter 20). As the respective chapters make clear, this form of integration is based on the initiative of individuals or a small groups of teacher educators who have redesigned their own courses in the described ways. The program-wide practicum component is left unchanged.

A variation of this second form of integrating university-based theorizing and school-based teaching experiences is illustrated by David Dillon's (McGill University) field-based courses with accompanying seminar (Dillon & O'Connor, chapter 7). In this integrative approach field experiences are put at the core and beginning of course-based theorizing. In the field-based courses teacher candidates work in schools and the content of a seminar course that accompanies these field experiences is determined by those very experiences. In this variation as well, the formal practicum component stays untouched.

A third type of integration is characterized by the professional development school (PDS) model, which integrates course work and the practicum components in a particular way. Simplified, PDSs are practicum schools in which university-based faculty members, teacher candidates as well as a group of school-based classroom teachers meet regularly to engage in joint professional learning. (I say more about PDSs in the section on school-university partnerships below.)

Before I move to the next subsection, I want to briefly discuss two more points raised in chapters in this book that are connected to the question of the integration of field experiences with university-based theorizing. The first point is raised by Lemisko and Ward (chapter 13) and addresses the idea of a "knowledge base for teachers", which is traditionally quite wide-spread in the US literature on teacher education (see, for instance, Murray, 1996; Reynolds, 1989).[6] This notion is often combined with an epistemological stance that suggests that in teaching this kind of knowledge is "applied" (see for instance the quote by Darling-Hammond above). Lemisko and Ward (chapter 13) point to a shift in the conceptualizing of "teacher knowledge", which is now often conceptualized in terms of "knowledge of practice" (p. 249), which suggests a different epistemological stance. From this stance schools become sites of *new* learning, rather than a place where the knowledge from university courses is "applied". To develop this knowledge of practice, Lemisko and Ward, as many others before them, suggest that reflection on one's action is central. However, Lemisko and Ward (chapter 13, p. 251) report that "reflection-in-action" rather than reflection *long after* the action – which is what is often the case in teacher education – is what teacher candidates appreciate and are motivated to engage with.

The idea of an epistemological distinction between different kinds of knowing, including the notion of "practical knowledge", is not new (see, for instance, Eisner & Rehage, 1985; Fenstermacher, 1994; and the overview in Mundy, Russell, & Martin, 2001). However, it seems to me, judging by discussions I have and presentations that I attend, that the language of "applying theory" is still very wide-spread among teacher educators and teacher education scholars.

The second and last point, raised by Maubant and Roger (chapter 16), is linked to the point I made at the beginning of this subsection, namely that the question of how the disconnectedness of different domains of teaching competencies in teacher education programs can and should be overcome would depend on one's vision of what to educate teacher candidates for. Maubant and Roger suggest as a response to the question what to educate teacher candidates for that we look at the actual work that teachers do: "If we wish to facilitate the development of teacher education programs, it would be advisable, as suggested by Gauthier & Mellouki (2006), to establish a teaching knowledge base according to the analysis of the work of teachers (Lenoir, 2005)" (Maubant & Roger, chapter 16, p. 286). Deborah Loewenberg Ball, who plays a prominent role in teacher education scholarship in the USA, has recently made the case that if teacher education takes "the work of teachers" – by which she means "the core tasks that teachers must execute to help pupils learn" (Ball & Forzani, 2009, p. 497) – seriously as the objective of what to educate teacher candidates for, then "the intricacy of this work demands a disciplined approach to preparing teachers and a determined rejection of approaches that permit a good general education, reflective field experiences, or unstructured mentoring to suffice as professional training" (p. 498). She suggests "shifting from knowledge to practice" (p. 503) in teacher education, which then "would not settle for developing teachers' beliefs and commitments; instead, it would emphasize repeated opportunities for novices to practice carrying out the interactive work of teaching and not just to talk about that work" (p. 503). From that perspective, the she

[6] Interestingly, the latest handbook for teacher educators (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005), does not speak of a knowledge base; the sub-title rather reads: "What teachers should learn and be able to do".

promotes the use of the term "teacher training" to emphasize the need of "practicing" the central tasks that teachers need to engage in to help their students learn, like

> leading a discussion of solutions to a mathematics problem, probing students' answers, reviewing material for a science test, listening to and assessing students' oral reading, explaining an interpretation of a poem, talking with parents, evaluating students' papers, planning, and creating and maintaining an orderly and supportive environment for learning.
> (Ball & Forzani, 2009, p. 497)

While many of us might agree with the view that teacher education should prepare teacher candidates for the teaching practices teachers engage in, few are probably at this time willing to translate this objective for teacher education into a teacher education curriculum the way Ball and Forzani have done – but that should be the appeal of their proposal: to challenge the received view.

Ball and Forzani's approach to teacher education addresses the "theory-practice gap" in an interesting way by bringing the "practice" aspect to campus, a point that Aitken and Kreuger (chapter 3) make in their discussion of the role that university-based courses can play in the development of the competencies required by the Ministry of Education in Quebec for teacher education programs in Quebec:

> Each of the twelve competencies is further defined by up to eight features (Ministère de l'Éducation, 2001). For example, one feature of Competency 1 is, "Transforms the classroom into a cultural base open to a range of different viewpoints within a common space" (p. 58). It is acknowledged that the best place to assess the development of the competencies will be the professional placement, but it is understood that skills can be acquired and knowledge can be constructed in a full range of contexts, including the university classroom.
> (Aitken & Kreuger, chapter 3, p. 70)

Working with Teacher Candidates' Pre-Conceptions: The Apprenticeship of Observation

It is probably not an understatement to claim that constructivism (in at least one of its various forms) is the received view of human learning in school teaching and in teaching about school teaching in Canada.[7] The central pillar of constructivism as a theory of learning is that humans construct their own meaning for what they experience *using their prior understanding and pre-conceptions as a frame of reference*. The notion of the Apprenticeship of Observation is the attempt to give this constructivist idea a role in the teaching of adults enrolled in a teacher education program:

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[7] For instance, this view can be found in prominent textbooks in mathematics teacher education, like Van de Walle and Folk (2008, chapter 3), as well as the Common Curriculum Framework for K-9 Mathematics published by the Western and Northern Canadian Protocol (see WNCP, 2006, p. 2), which is the basis for the mathematics curricula of all members of the WNCP: the four western provinces and the three territories of Canada (www.wncp.ca).

> The Apprenticeship of Observation affects the subsequent phases of the education of teachers [pre-service and in-service teacher education] in the form of beliefs about and attitudes towards teaching and learning, which teacher candidates bring with them when they enter a preservice teacher education program. The literature on learning to teach suggests that, first, many teacher candidates come with beliefs about teaching and learning into their preservice teacher education program that are problematic with respect to teaching for understanding (Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, & Bransford, 2005; Lorti, 1975; Richardson, 1996; Wideen, Mayer-Smith, & Moon, 1998), and, second, that it is very difficult to change those beliefs in preservice teacher education programs (Britzman, 2003; Richardson & Placier, 2001; Wideen et al., 1998). An explanation for those difficulties is that those beliefs about teaching and learning that teacher candidates bring with them into their preservice teacher education programs function as their *frames of reference* (Kennedy, 1999) or their *filters* (Wideen et al., 1998, p. 145), which they use to make sense (or no sense) of what they experience in their course work and in their practicum teaching.
> (Falkenberg, in press)

The preconceived notions about teaching and learning that teacher candidates bring with them when they enter a teacher education program, thus, need to be considered in the design and implementation of the program because (a) those notions serve as the "frames of reference" (Kennedy, 1999) for how they make sense of the experiences in the program relevant to teaching and learning, and (b) are difficult to change. But why should those preconceived notions about teaching and learning be changed in the first place? As Kennedy (1999, pp. 55-56) points out, it is because teacher education programs generally consider the notions about teaching and learning that teacher candidates bring with them into the program as *problematic*. As a matter of fact, the very notion of the Apprenticeship of Observation is about this problematic status of those preconceived notions that teacher candidates bring with them when they enter a teacher education program. The following questions arise then for this sub-section: Why are the preconceived notions (generally) problematic? and What role can field experiences play in addressing the problematic aspects of those preconceived notions? In the following I briefly address each of these questions with reference to chapters in this book.

Why are the preconceived notions (generally) problematic? The notion of the Apprenticeship of Observation tries to capture this problematic aspect. The notion goes back to Lortie (1975), who pointed out that when teacher candidates enter a teacher education program (in the USA or Canada), they have about 15,000 hours of observation of and experience with teaching in schools, namely as students of the K-12 school system. (In the case of after-degree teacher education programs there are about 1,500 additional hours of experience with undergraduate university teaching and learning to be added on.)[8] But, as Lortie points out, because of the

[8] Following Lortie, many teacher education scholars have discussed the challenges that the Apprenticeship of Observation brings for teacher education (see, for instance, Darling-Hammond, 2006, chapter 2; Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, & Bransford, 2005; Kennedy, 1999; Korthagen, 2001, chapter 3; Sarason, 1996). In this book, particularly Bullock and Russell (chapter 5), Dillon and O'Connor (chapter 7), and Martin and Russell (chapter 15) address the preconceived notions that teacher candidates bring with them into a teacher education program and the challenges that come with them for teacher education programs.

particular nature of school teaching and learning, being a student functions for many students as an *apprenticeship for being a teacher*:

> The interaction [in the classroom] is not passive observation – it is usually a relationship which has consequences for the student and thus is invested with affect. Teachers possess power over their charges. . . . For persons with higher aspirations (e.g., the hope to attend college), the stakes are higher; they learn the significance of good grades and the value of teacher favor. In the terminology of symbolic interaction theory, the student learns to 'take the role' of the classroom teacher, to engage in at least enough empathy to anticipate the teacher's probable reaction to his behaviour. This requires that the student project himself into the teacher's position and imagine how he feels about various student actions.
> (Lortie, 1975, pp. 61-62)

This Apprenticeship of Observation, however, is "ultimately a false apprenticeship" because it "limits their understanding of teaching and learning" (Bullock & Russell, chapter 5, p. 94). Bullock and Russell then go on and articulate four limits that Lortie identifies:

> 1. Students do not link the teaching strategies used by teachers to the effects those strategies have on their learning . . . .
> 2. Students can imitate teachers . . . .
> 3. Students believe teaching decisions are whimsical and subjective . . . .
> 4. Students do not understand the complex decision-making processes that teachers engage in every day. . . .
>
> (Bullock & Russell, chapter 5, p. 94)

From a student's perspective, *good* teaching *looks* easy, because from a student's perspective only the surface features of good teaching are visible, like *that* a teacher gives instructions to students, *that* a teacher asks questions, *that* a teacher directs activities for students, *that* a teacher marks assignments; what is invisible is, as Bullock and Russell write, the complexity of the decision-making process behind all those surface features of good teaching. This suggests that a preconceived notion of teaching derived from a student's perspective develops expectations in teacher candidates for their teacher education program that their program helps them develop the "surface qualities" they observed, like being able to develop different types of activities that are fun for their students to engage in and being able to "manage" the students. Those surface qualities are framed by the question "How do I do ?", which might be in the way of framing teaching as a complex practice that requires interlinking value questions with the contextualization of learning outcomes with designing learning experiences relative to students' readiness, etc. Kennedy expresses the "being in the way" as follows:

> the kind of teaching that reformers envision requires teachers to shift their thinking so that they have different ideas about what they should be trying to accomplish, interpret classroom situations differently, and generate different ideas about how they might respond to these situations. Such a shift in thinking might be analogous to Kuhn's (1970) famous description of paradigm shifts in scientific communities.
> (Kennedy, 1999, p. 56)

What role can field experiences play in addressing the problematic aspects of those preconceived notions? Learning by practicing is a double-edge sword. One edge represents the danger of field experiences providing the opportunity to replicate practice without developing a sense of the complexity of teaching and the competencies that go with that complexity. As Dillon and O'Connor (chapter 7) point out:

> As important as experience is as a basis for professional learning, it is in itself no guarantee of new and more skilful learning in practice, as the title of Britzman's (2003) book about student teaching warns, *Practice Makes Practice,* rather than 'practice makes perfect'. (p. 124)

This warning should not surprise, considering what was said about the Apprenticeship of Observation:

> Lortie (1975) suggested that many teacher candidates primarily view the practicum as an opportunity to prove they can replicate the teacher behaviours they have seen throughout their lives. Experienced associate teachers will likely judge their teacher candidates by the extent to which they can replicate good teacher behaviours. Cultural replication is almost inevitable because teacher candidates initially have little choice other than to teach as they were taught (Sarason, 1996). It is little wonder that the culture of schools has not changed significantly."
> (Bullock & Russell, chapter 5 , p. 95)

However, there is another side of the sword of learning by practicing, which represents the potential of field experiences for *addressing* teacher candidates' preconceived notions of teaching and learning. Dillon and O'Connor (chapter 7, pp. 125-126) make the case that *reflective* practicum approaches provide an opportunity for teacher candidates' preconceived notions about teaching and learning to "be exposed for examination and discussion at early stages of a professional program" (p. 126), which the authors take as an argument for teacher candidates having reflective field experiences early on in their program (see the subsection on the placement and timing of the practicum above).[9]

In the next sub-section I discuss some limits of the role that field experiences can play in teacher candidates' learning to teach in general, but the discussion will also address some limitations that the idea of reflective practicum approaches as a way of addressing the Apprenticeship of Observation faces.

Martin and Russell (chapter 15) – and to some degree Bullock and Russell (chapter 5) – suggest an additional approach to addressing teacher candidates' preconceived notions of teaching and learning, namely through modeling of good teaching practices in university-based courses by the teacher educator and explicit reflection on those practices (Martin & Russell, chapter 15, pp. 280-281; Bullock & Russell, chapter 5, pp. 98-99). A role for field experiences in this approach can be established if course instructors draw explicitly on teacher candidates' prior field experiences when reflecting on the course instructor's teaching practice.

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[9] A similar argument is made in Russell (2005). A comprehensive approach to the type of "reflective field experience" that I think Dillon and O'Connor have in mind is Korthagen's "Pedagogy of Realistic Teacher Education" (see, in particular, Korthagen, 2001).

Limits of the Role of Field Experiences in Teacher Candidates' Learning

Bullock and Russell (chapter 5, pp. 96-98) provide case studies that illustrate some of the limitations of (the traditional forms of) field experiences for learning to teach: teacher candidates have to teach in someone else's classroom, plan for the learning of students for whom ultimately someone else is responsible, and are under the "tutelage" of someone else during the field experiences.

> The teacher candidate will always be limited in some way by teaching in someone else's classroom. In David's case, the limitation manifested itself implicitly because David knew he could never truly teach however he wanted, because his associate was ultimately responsible for the class. In Paul's case, this limitation manifested itself in explicit ways because he was told how to teach and was judged on his ability to mimic the behaviours his associate teacher expected of him.
> (Bullock & Russell, chapter 5, p. 98)

Indicated already in the previous sub-section, (the traditional form of) field experiences face limits when attempting to overcome the Apprenticeship of Observation. One might even argue that (the traditional form of) field experiences can easily reinforce the outcomes of the Apprenticeship of Observation. Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann (1985), for instance, argue this point, although they do not make the link to the Apprenticeship of Observation. Their "familiarity pitfall" of learning through experience – exemplified by the teacher candidate in the semi-authentic vignette 1 (pp. 54-56) – illustrates how *the way in which one engages with one's teaching practice and field experiences* makes all the difference in terms of addressing appropriately one's preconceived notions of teaching and learning.

To what degree field experiences will work with and work on the teacher candidates' preconceived notions of teaching and learning in the form of reflective practice will also depend on the preparedness of the associate teacher, under whose supervision and guidance the teacher candidate is involved in the field experience. If the associate teacher is not well prepared to address teacher candidates' preconceived notions of teaching and learning, the practicum might rather serve to reinforce a teacher candidate's preconceived notion of teaching and learning and she might not make the required paradigm shift (Kennedy) needed for a more desired teaching practice. This points to the crucial issue of the education of teacher educators, which I discuss in a different section below.

Sanford, Hopper, and McGregor (chapter 20) point to a related but more fundamental limit of (the traditional type of) field experiences, which is linked to the very core feature of field experiences, namely the provision of engaging in the practice of teaching in authentic teaching contexts. Such an engagement has the potential of putting the concern for the "practical" (in the sense of "technical") aspect of teaching ("How do I do . . . ?") to the forefront of learning to teach / being a teacher. Creating a context that raises primarily this concern can interfere with other, non-technical learning objectives in a teacher education program. Sanford, Hopper, and McGregor (chapter 20, pp. 346-347) side with Dewey's (1904/1964) idea of teacher candidates becoming "students of education" and his warning against an apprenticeship-type approach to learning in field experiences:

> However, this [the view of learning by persons-in-situations] does not mean an apprenticeship of learning, though learning from a more experienced colleague is needed. Teacher education is far more complex a process than copying what has been done before by experienced teachers. Pre-service teachers need to apply technical skills in the classroom but at the same time they need to adapt these skills as they reflect on their learning. Many years ago Dewey (1904) warned us against separating knower from known when it comes to educating teachers.
>
> . . . So we need to prepare teachers to become students of teaching without simply giving them the tools of teaching, though these need to be learned, and without simply putting them in a practical setting to learn on the job, though they need such experiences to learn how to teach. What we need is a way of systematically and recursively-developing skills from contexts, refined and studied in classes, which are actively developed and adapted by the teachers through a continuous process of becoming a student of teaching.
>
> (Sanford, Hopper, & McGregor, chapter 20, p. 346)

Elliott-Johns and Ridler (chapter 8) point to another, rather fundamental limit of field experiences for teacher candidates' learning relative to expectations that are too high for what can be accomplished through field experiences in particular and preservice teacher education in general:

> As the Dean of Education, Sharon Rich, writes in her Dean's Message for 2009-2010, recognition of "growing into" the teaching profession is a key element of understanding teacher education as a continuum, which only *begins* with completion of a pre-service program.
>
> (Elliott-Johns & Ridler, chapter 8, p. 148)

Preservice teacher education in general, and field experiences in particular – as the part of teacher education programs which brings teacher candidates the closest to the practice they are to be prepared for – do not prepare "ready-made" teachers but rather prepare, if successful, good beginning teachers. Feiman-Nemser (2001) calls for the view of preservice teacher education being part of a "professional learning continuum" for learning to teach. While in her article she considers the preservice and the induction phase of the continuum, the continuum should be considered starting earlier with the Apprenticeship of Observation and going right up to retirement from the teaching profession (Falkenberg, in press). One can even make the case that the continuum starts even before the Apprenticeship of Observation begins and runs parallel to it, recognizing the contributions that a teacher's personal life story outside of her schooling makes to who she is as a teacher and how she enacts her teaching practice.[10] The continuum is then conceptualized as a "continuum of the education of teachers" (Falkenberg, in press) in recognition of the fact that teaching is grounded in and shaped by the fact that the teacher is a person and by the factors that contribute to a person's development. Those factors are to be given consideration in preservice teacher education, similar to the consideration given to the Apprenticeship of Observation as one such factor.

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[10] See, for instance, the review in Richardson (1996, p. 105). Clandinin (personal communication, 1 November 2007; see Falkenberg, 2008, p. 15) makes a similar point, suggesting that "the education of a teacher" begins far earlier than with the enrollment in a teacher education program.

If we speak of the limitations of a particular approach, we can do so only relative to what the approach is to accomplish and to the context within which the approach is embedded. Changing what the approach is to accomplish or changing the context in which the approach is embedded will change to what degree the approach is (still) limited. The last limit just characterized might serve as an illustrative example of this point. If we assume that preservice teacher education is to prepare teacher candidates for being "finished" teachers, preservice teacher education in general – and the field experiences in particular – faces the limit of not being able to generally accomplish that.[11] On the other hand, if we recognize this limit and change our expectations for what preservice teacher education can accomplish, what had to be seen before as a limit of field experiences can suddenly be perceived as an opportunity of field experiences, for instance, to overcome the Apprenticeship of Observation, as was argued in the previous subsection with reference to Dillon and O'Connor (chapter 7). Kennedy (1999), in fact, argues that

> an important role for preservice teacher education (PTE) is to change these initial frames of reference. Preservice teacher education is ideally situated to foster such a shift in thinking. It is located squarely between teachers' past experiences as students in classrooms and their future experiences as teachers in classrooms. From their experiences, teachers develop the ideas that will guide their future practices. If these ideas are not altered during preservice teacher education, teachers' own continuing experiences will reinforce them, cementing them even more strongly into their understandings of teaching, and reducing the likelihood that these ideas might ever change.
> (Kennedy, 1999, p. 57)

Considering the important role that field experiences can have in a teacher education program for teacher candidates' learning to teach – as argued before – much of what Kennedy considers an important role for preservice teacher education to be falls onto the shoulders of the field experiences in a teacher education program.

In addition, above I have qualified some of the limits of field experiences by making reference to "the traditional type of experience". If the context in which field experiences are provided to teacher candidates changes – for instance by placing them in the context of professional development schools or other structures that integrate the continuum of the education of teachers (for a concrete suggestion see Falkenberg, in press) – some of the described limitations of field experiences will disappear.

The Urban-Rural Divide

There are two chapters in this book in which the issue of field experiences in rural settings is explicitly addressed (Lacourse & Correa Molina, chapter 12; and Mulholland, Nolan, & Salm, chapter 18). These chapters suggest to me – together with what I know about the challenges

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[11] Canadian school divisions and the teaching profession itself seem to make exactly that assumption (based on practice and policy) if one considers (a) that a beginning teacher is treated exactly the same way in terms of workload as a veteran teacher, and (b) the general inattentiveness that is given to the later phases of the continuum of the education of teachers, illustrated, for instance, in the general ineffective practice of professional development for teachers.

that rural practicum placements face in the teacher education program in the teacher education program I am teaching in at the University of Manitoba – that there is an "urban-rural divide" in terms of possibilities and opportunities provided in the field experience component of Canadian teacher education programs. This divide affects negatively (a) teacher candidates who do and want to have a rural practicum placement and (b) rural school divisions themselves in terms of the provision of new, qualified teachers needed. Following Schmidt (chapter 21), who frames the divide in opportunities between the "regular" group of teacher candidates and another special group of teacher candidates (internationally educated teachers) as an "equity issue", the urban-rural divide in field placements should be seen as an equity issue (better: equitability issue) as well, this time for those two groups just mentioned: teacher candidates who do and want to have a rural practicum placement and the rural school divisions themselves. In the following I discuss, first, some aspects of what characterizes the situation as an equitability issue, and, then, discuss some suggestions that have been made for addressing the urban-rural divide.

The role that field experiences can play in the context of teacher education in and for rural school divisions is framed by the conditions under which field experiences in such contexts are happening or are possible. With teacher education programs in Canada being located at universities, almost all teacher education programs are placed in urban areas. The logistical issues resulting from this spatial distance between rural schools and urban-placed teacher education programs impact the context for field experiences in and for rural schools. First, there is the issue of the education of the teacher educators involved in rural practicum placements. Unless a rural placement is fairly close to an urban centre, such placements involve not just associate teachers from rural schools, but also rural-based faculty advisors from the respective local area. Any education of associate teachers and faculty advisors that goes beyond the sharing of information – which can be easily done electronically – runs into the logistically and financial problems of bringing people from different regions together for professional development. Once technologies like video conferencing are more readily available the logistical challenges might disappear. These obstacles to the education of rural-placed teacher educators are of particular concern if one considers that one central factor of effective teacher education programs that is mentioned again and again is their level of *coherence* (see, for instance, Darling-Hammond, 2006, p. 41). How can such coherence be accomplished if joint meetings of the different groups of teacher educators are problematic because of logistical and financial constraints? How much easier – in comparison – is it to bring together associate teachers and faculty associates that live in an urban area? In addition, because almost all university-based sites of teacher education programs are located in urban areas, having faculty members as faculty advisors – which is, for instance, a central feature of the newly developed teacher education program at Mount Royal University (Naested, Nickel, Sikora, & Vaughan, chapter19, pp. 335-336) – becomes almost impossible for rural practicum settings.

Another challenge for rural practicum placements, compared to urban placements, concerns the design of the practicum itself. At the University of Winnipeg, teacher candidates are in their practicum schools once a week while they do course work. (Something similar is under consideration for the new teacher education program at the University of Manitoba.) Such an arrangement is in many cases logistically impossible for rural placements because

many teacher candidates with an interest in teaching in a rural setting reside in the city during the time of their course work.[12]

Where the logistical issues resulting from this spatial distance between rural schools and urban-placed teacher education programs will impact the context for field experiences in and for rural schools the most will most likely be linked to attempts to improve teacher education programs. As discussed in previous sections, the integration of university-based course work and school-based field experiences is considered to be one of the crucial means by which to improve the education of teachers. Such integration implies a closer relationship between university faculty and schools, particularly in professional development schools. With universities and their faculty being placed in urban areas, such an integration will most likely involve exclusively urban schools. The impact of such forms of school-university partnerships on the professional development of the teachers of partner schools was seen as one crucial way of improving the education of teachers at the preservice and the in-service level simultaneously. If rural schools are not involved in school-university partnerships, the advantage of improving teaching practices in schools which are in such partnerships will affect urban schools rather than rural schools – which can contribute to an urban-rural divide in the quality of school education.

Although I do not have supporting numbers for the claim, anecdotal evidence about the situation in Manitoba suggests to me that rural school divisions, in particular those in the North have a hard time filling all their teaching positions – compared to an oversupply of teachers in the urban areas, although in the "very urban", that is the inner city school divisions there does not seem to be an oversupply of qualified teachers to be available. There seems to be a class of "less-desired" teaching placements for the vast majority of teacher candidates, which seem to be rural and inner-city placements. Solomon, Manoukian, and Clarke (2007) argue that for many teacher candidates "border crossing" is required in the institutional, ethno-racial, sociocultural, and moral-political "borderlands" in order for those teacher candidates to "ready themselves" (my term) for working in an inner-city schooling context, and that inner-city service learning in a teacher education program provides for opportunities for the personal transformation that is required for such border crossing. Generalizing from this line of argumentation, good field experiences in rural contexts might be crucial in shifting teacher candidates' sense of what a desired teaching placement is to then include the teaching in a rural setting, in addition to preparing them appropriately for the specifics of teaching in a rural school – a non-rural placement should generally not prepare teacher candidates as well for rural teaching positions than a rural placement can.

What are some ways in which teacher education programs have tried to address the urban-rural divide? There seem to be two primary approaches. One approach is to eliminate the geographical divide by bringing the teacher education courses and their instructors to the rural school divisions. The Brandon University Native Teacher Education Program (BUNTEP) is one such example, where courses are offered off-campus directly in the communities the program is to serve. Once university-based teacher educators are located in

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[12] I was told that when the practicum structure at the University of Manitoba included a one-day-a-week practicum component in the past, teacher candidates with a rural practicum placement living in Winnipeg during the time of their coursework were visiting during the once-a-week component an urban classroom together with a fellow teacher candidate who was assigned to that classroom for her practicum. This is a good illustration of the inequitability that characterizes the urban-rural devide.

rural school divisions, linking them and their work to field experiences is much easier to accomplish. The challenge with this approach is to find sufficient and qualified university-based teacher educators who are willing to teach off-campus, which is often linked to staying away from home for at least part of the course teaching.

The second approach consists of bridging the geographical divide through the use of technology. Mulholland, Nolan, and Salm (chapter 18) report on

> a digital internship pilot project currently underway [through which] virtual visits with interns are being introduced in such a manner that the faculty-intern conferencing process can be ongoing, synchronous, and without geographical boundaries, expanding into the realm of individual office and classroom spaces. (p. 6)

Lacourse and Correa Molina (chapter 12, pp. 245-246) report on discussing the idea of creating a website that offers a discussion forum for teacher educators in rural areas as part of their research study.

As the technological possibilities, like video conferencing, will become more developed, more affordable, and, thus, more widespread, the technological approach to the urban-rural divide seems to me the most promising on the horizon.

School-University Partnerships

The Idea and Practice of School University Partnerships

The issue of closer links between university-based courses and school-based field experiences was already discussed at some length in the context of the ways different Canadian teacher education programs try to integrate theorizing and practice in their program in the subsection on overcoming the theory-practice divide. What I want to discuss in this section are more the attempts to "institutionalize" such integration through a "school-university partnership". The idea of school-university partnerships as a structural feature of a teacher education program comes up in several chapters in this book (Dillon & O'Connor, chapter 7; Falkenberg & Young, chapter 9; Hirschkorn & Kristmanson, chapter 11; Lemisko & Ward, chapter 13; McDonald, chapter 14; Sanford, Hopper, & McGregor, chapter 20).

Chronologically as well as in terms of in- and extensiveness school-university partnerships have been far more developed in the USA than in Canada. In the USA this has been the case particularly through the concept of the professional development school (PDS)[13], a concept that was developed in the late 1980s and promoted first by the Holmes Group (Holmes Group, 1990[14]), although a proposal to develop school-university partnerships through "partner schools" has already been made earlier by John Goodlad (1984).[15] The Holmes Group identified four purposes for PDSs, the first three of which are linked to an

[13] The following about PDSs draws on Falkenberg (in press).

[14] Republished as part of The Holmes Partnership Trilogy (2007).

[15] For a historical perspective on the development of and work in partner schools see Goodlad (1993, 1999).

attempt to support the development of the teaching profession: (1) developing novice professionals (preservice teachers and beginning teachers); (2) continuing development of experienced professionals; (3) research for and development of the teaching profession. These suggestions for developing the teaching profession are directly linked to the idea of school reform, and PDSs are the Holmes Group's approach to supporting school reform efforts by providing an institutional framework for ongoing and collaborative teacher professional development. For the Holmes Group School reform was concerned with better learning (with understanding) for all students, which was identified by the Holmes Group as the fourth, *overarching*, purpose of PDSs.[16] PDSs are relatively widespread in the USA. One estimate by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education suggests that there are more than 1000 PDSs in 47 states in operation (Darling-Hammond, 2005, p. x), although Fullan, Galluzzo, Morris, and Watson (1998) caution against a too optimistic interpretation of those numbers when they write with reference to their studying PDSs: "The extent to which a professional development school actually exemplifies the characteristics outlined in *Tomorrow's Schools* is difficult to determine, but many of our interviews suggested that the gap between rhetoric and reality is wide." (p. 31)

In Canada there are to my knowledge no PDSs in place that exemplify the characteristics outlined by the Holmes Group, although there are some programs that use the term "Professional Development School" for their school-university partnerships; so, for instance, Wilfrid Laurier University (in a news announcement on their website) and the University of New Brunswick (Hirschkorn & Kristmanson, chapter 11). However, what chapters in this book illustrate is that there are attempts to linking university-based course work and school-based field experiences in a more formal and institutionalized way. Those attempts are characterized by different levels of formality of structure and of interaction between university-based teacher educators and school-based associate teachers.

Some school-university partnerships are characterized by the involvement of core faculty members in teacher candidates' field experiences as their faculty advisors. This is, for instance, a central characteristic of the newly developed B. Ed. program at Mount Royal University (Naested, Nickel, Sikora, & Vaughan, chapter 19). Such a design connects university-based course work and teacher candidates' experiences in the school classrooms:

> We have sought to make these recommended connections between the coursework and practicum, particularly through extensive faculty involvement in the practicum, to scaffold this interface between theory and practice.
> (Naested, Nickel, Sikora, & Vaughan, chapter 19, p. 328)

As Hirschkorn and Kristmanson from the University of New Brunswick, where core faculty members are invited to function as faculty advisors, point out, having core faculty members involved as faculty advisors can contribute to their professional development:

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[16] Lee Teitel (1999, p. 12) suggests that the discussions about PDSs have now converged around the four goals. Those four goals for PDSs can also be found on the website of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (www.aacte.org). Different purpose versions, however, can still be found; see, for instance, Boyle-Baise & McIntyre, 2008; Clark, 1999).

> In what follows, we will present the argument that the practicum can contribute significantly to a Faculty member's professional development by forging connections with the field, keeping current with curriculum and instruction (Hirschkorn & Kristmanson, chapter 11, p. 227)

Despite the hope that is expressed here for faculty members adjusting *their* approach to their teaching of university-based courses, it seems to me that the involvement of core faculty members as associate teachers gives primarily preference to the impact of coursework on field experiences: faculty members as associate teachers can help their students make sense of their coursework in the context of their practicum teaching. Some school-university partnerships, however, go further than that and have created a formal structure that provides room for the field impacting university-based coursework. One example illustrating this case comes from the University of New Brunswick, where three year-long courses are offered as part of the new teacher education program that are co-designed with members from the field:

> The on-campus component of their programs consists of three year-long core courses whose focus and topics were negotiated with representatives from the educational community. The intention was to increase relevance of these courses and to align the various topics with moments in the school year. (Hirschkorn & Kristmanson, chapter 11, p. 226)

Another example of the case where the field impacts what happens on campus comes from the new teacher education program at the University of Saskatchewan (Lemisko & Ward, chapter 13), where it is in some cases seconded teachers who are teaching university-based courses, partially in school settings:

> At the current time, all incoming teacher candidates are assigned a partner school, and in most cases their introductory education course (focused on the philosophy of curriculum and the craft of teaching) is taught by a seconded teacher, faculty member, or a field experience coordinator. Some of the classes are taught in the schools, and there is an expectation that assignments for the course will be carried out in classrooms. (Lemisko & Ward, chapter 11, p. 233)

But it is the school-university partnership built and fostered by David Dillon at McGill University (Dillon & O'Connor, chapter 7) that goes probably the furthest in terms of linking field experiences to university-based courses. The university-based courses that he offers are field-based courses in which teacher candidates work in partner schools, and the content of a seminar course that accompanies these field experiences is shaped by those very experiences.

Some school-university partnerships are formalized at the divisional level, as is the case at the University of Saskatchewan (Lemisko & Ward, chapter13), but in most cases of school-university partnerships reported on the chapters of this book the partnership is more informal in the sense that it grew out of and is based on personal connections that faculty members have with particular schools. This is the case for the reported partnerships at McGill University (Dillon & O'Connor, chapter 7), the University of Manitoba (Falkenberg & Young, chapter 9), the University of Prince Edward Island (MacDonald, chapter 14), and the University of Victoria (Sanford, Hopper, & McGregor, chapter 20). The informal status of those school-university partnerships contributes to the challenges that they face, as will be discussed next.

Challenges for School-University Partnerships

While school-university partnerships provide a promising approach not just to improving the context for teacher candidates' learning to teach but also as an institutional framework for improving school teaching in general (following the Holmes Group), forming and sustaining such partnerships in the Canadian context face a number of challenges.

The first cluster of challenges are linked to the circumstance that in Canada teacher education is located at universities – in terms of the location of the responsibility. As such, teacher education programs are subject to the culture and institutional practices and policies of the university. I discuss the challenges that arise for school-university partnerships from the academic freedom principle, the notion of course teaching at universities, and the tenure and promotion policies.

As mentioned several times in this chapter already, the literature on effective teacher education programs emphasizes program coherence as a central feature of such programs. Such program coherence, however, requires that the content of and the pedagogy in those courses are coordinated in some meaningful way. Teacher education programs need to be more than a collection of individual courses. However, as McGregor, Sanford, and Hopper (chapter 17) suggest, the academic freedom that faculty members have in teaching courses can be in the way of creating such coherence:

> Challenges remain: the issues of programme coherence and integration as well as faculty autonomy in course design have sometimes come into conflict. This is particularly true when there is an interest in trying to make change in a programme characterized by a course-driven, department sponsored model in which each instructor and faculty member has always been free to design and deliver the course content in ways they preferred. (p. 307)

The concern for program coherence in professional university-based programs should not be sufficient to challenge the principle of academic freedom in teaching one's courses; ultimately, it is this freedom that allows innovative teacher educators to create powerful learning experiences for their teacher candidates in their respective program setting. However, the concern for program coherence should give deans of education pause when they, as the final authority in assigning courses, decide who teaches what course in the teacher education program. The Association of Canadian Deans of Education (ACDE) has not too long ago ratified an Accord on Initial Teacher Education (ACDE, 2006); and it is quite clear from reading the "Principles of Initial Teacher Education" outlined in the Accord that program coherence is to be a central component of any program that claims to be guided by these principles.

The professorial work at Canadian teacher education faculties is divided into three areas: research, teaching, and service. The performance expectations in those three areas are defined in and enforced through collective agreements, tenure and promotion policies, and pay-increment criteria. These expectations bring unwritten but practical time allocations to each of the three areas. Teaching a university course is seen as generally involving time for the classroom teaching itself, time for preparing the course, and time for marking assignments. However, being involved in a school-university partnership as part of one's course teaching involves far more than the time assigned (and indirectly enforced) in universities in general.

Dillon and O'Connor (chapter 7) identify one reason why the involvement in school-university partnerships is so challenging to university-based faculty members, given the university context just described:

> To summarize this absolutely vital point about a new relationship with schools for developing and implementing enhanced field experiences, the challenge for teacher education programs seems be to learn to develop a *dialogue* with schools, rather than to continue the all-too-common and unidirectional *monologue*. We feel that this challenge would be a very substantial one for most programs, yet the very success of a reformed – and more school-based – teacher education program rests on it. (Dillon & O'Connor, chapter 7, p. 25)

Engaging with schools in a dialogue takes time; time that the university system generally does not provide for relative to its expectations of faculty members. Can this challenge be addressed in some way? One way to at least mitigate the time factor in faculty members' involvement in school-university partnerships is to link the research and service component of one's faculty position to one's involvement with the school-university partnership – to the degree possible (a suggestion also made by Lemisko and Ward, chapter 13, p. 258).

The tenure and promotion policies at universities generally represent another, though directly connected challenge to building and maintaining school-university partnerships. Lemisko and Ward (chapter 13) express this challenge as follows and put it in the context of their own program:

> With real or perceived assumptions about what "counts" toward achievement of tenure and promotion, some instructors are reluctant to engage in the team/relationship-building processes required for meaningful collaborative instruction. Concerns such as these have been and are voiced in a variety of settings in the College – including "brown-bag lunch" program renewal discussions, new faculty mentoring meetings and in Faculty Council. These concerns are real and we need to continue to build the evidence (first emerging our pilot projects) to support the idea that collaborative teaching and learning is ultimately beneficial for both learners and instructors. (We are also finding it helpful that the collective culture at the University of Saskatchewan is beginning to shift toward an acknowledgement of the importance of a focus on learning and exemplary teaching – see new teaching awards and draft versions of a "learning charter", as examples). (p. 257)

The Lemisko and Ward quote suggests also how the challenges of the tenure and promotion policies in faculties of education for faculty members' involvement in school-university partnerships might be mitigated: by working towards a cultural shift at the faculty and, ultimately university level to give the "scholarship of teaching" a greater consideration when it comes to conceptualizing what characterizes professorial work.

The second cluster of challenges has to do with the differences that often exist in the views about teacher education by university and school faculty. In some of the literature it is suggested that this is due to the different cultures in both institutions, particularly the different reward and accountability structures into which members of the respective institution are

enculturated.[17] In addition to those social-contextual conditions, university-based teacher educators and classroom-based teacher educators generally have a different orientation from which they focus on teaching. While the latter group tends to focus more on teaching as a practice that helps their students learn, the former group tends to focus more on the learning to teach aspect of teaching. Korthagen, Loughran, and Russell (2006, p. 1034) talk about three different perspectives that members of both groups need to hold simultaneously in the context of teacher candidates' field experiences: "the perspective of the individual learning to teach, the perspective of the teacher in a school, and the perspective of the teacher educator in the university setting". And they add: "Not everyone is willing and able to do this".

Lemisko and Ward (chapter 13) emphasize how important the subscription to a joint "educational philosophy" is for their school-university partnerships:

> The three school divisions with whom we have formal partnerships all espouse educational philosophies that include constructivist theoretical understandings. This stance provides a point of agreement within our partnerships.
> (Lemisko & Ward, chapter 13, p. 253)

The third cluster of challenges to faculty members' involvement with school-university partnerships has to do with what a colleague and I (Falkenberg & Young, chapter 9) describe as "the governance of field experiences". We write about the governance aspect of teacher education:

> There exists a *governance* aspect to teacher education located in the *power structures* and *interests* that connect the different parties involved in pre-service teacher education programs - whether we give attention to this governance aspect or not.
> (Falkenberg & Young, chapter 9, pp. 165-166, italics in original)

These power structures and interests show at different levels and impact field experiences in general and school-university partnerships in particular. The argument we make in the chapter, discussing the case of a school-university partnership at the University of Manitoba, is that central aspects of field experiences like its funding, its duration, its staffing, its site, the curriculum and the evaluation involved in those experiences are all *governed*, meaning, someone or some group has power over those aspects, expressing particular interests, even if those powers and interests are not always visible. In the case of school-university partnerships in particular, we argue, it can threaten the sustainability of such partnerships if the governance structure is not part of the consideration and negotiation in those partnerships.

The governance structure of teacher education includes the provincial government as one of what we have identified as being the six "domains of jurisdiction" of the governance structure of field experiences in Canadian teacher education programs (Falkenberg & Young, chapter 9, pp. 169-170). Other chapters in this book illustrate the impact of the current governance structure of teacher education in the different provinces and even across provinces. The impact of this governance aspect through teacher certification and in some

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[17] This point has been made by several authors (see, for instance, Sarason, 1982). Petrie (1995) and Stoddart (1993) emphasize in particular how these different cultures are a challenge to school-university partnerships, particularly when those take the form of PDSs, the probably most intense form of school-university partnerships. For a case study account of such challenges, see Baldwin (1999).

cases program accreditation requirements set by provincial governments and colleges of teachers, respectively, is illustrated in the chapter by Aitken and Kreuger (chapter 3) from Bishop's University in Quebec. Through its certification and accreditation power, the Quebec government has taken quite a prescriptive and, as some of my Quebec colleagues describe it, micro-managerial stance toward teacher education programs in Quebec. Aitken and Kreuger describe in their chapter the tensions that exist between the government's responsibility for the education of students and the relative autonomy of university programs. Aitken and Krueger (chapter 3) describe how, in their view, they work in their program "within and against the new structures" (p. 69).

Two programs described in two separate chapters in this book illustrate the impact of the current governance structure at work at the even more general interprovincial level, namely through the recently ratified pan-Canadian Agreement on Internal Trade, in which its Labour Mobility Chapter requires the respective provincial certification authorities to certify any teacher with a valid teaching certificate from *any other* Canadian province.[18] The new one-year teacher education program at the University of New Brunswick described by Hirschkorn and Kristmanson (chapter 11) has been developed partially in response to the actual and anticipated impact of the Agreement on Internal Trade on its previously two-year program (Hirschkorn, Sears, & Rich, 2009). McGregor, Sanford, and Hopper (chapter 17) describe how the Trade, Investment and Labour Mobility Agreement between British-Columbia and Alberta (TILMA) – a predecessor to the Agreement on Internal Trade – has impacted the teacher education program design at the University of Victoria:

> These policy decisions [like TILMA] have significant implications for universities and teacher education programming, as is evidenced by the University of Victoria's decision to downscale its elementary teacher education programme from a five to a four year programme so as to "compete" with teacher preparation programmes in Alberta.
> (McGregor, Sanford, & Hopper, chapter 17, p. 300)

In acknowledging the importance of the governance perspective for school-university partnerships, Lemisko and Ward (chapter 13) suggest a closer collaboration between the different "domains of jurisdiction" (Falkenberg & Young, chapter 9). They suggest starting to develop collaboration based on "mutual commitments" that they suggest exist in the Saskatchewan context:

> Although identification of a set of mutually agreed upon foundational principles will not resolve all the tensions and issues related to funding, regulation and delivery of field experiences, it seems that understanding and acknowledgement of our mutual commitments would be a good place to begin discussions about opening up organizational structures that seem to impede innovative decision-making processes in the governance of teacher education.
> (Lemisko & Ward, chapter 13, p. 255)

[18] For more details see Falkenberg & Young, chapter 9, p. 169; and McGregor, Sanford, & Hopper, chapter 17, p. 300).

However, they recognize the challenges that such an approach to collaboration faces: "Unfortunately, at present, it remains the case that each organization appears to be working toward transformative education in isolation despite the mutually held goals and aspirations." (Lemisko & Ward, chapter 13, p. 255)

The Education of Teacher Educators

Several times in the previous sections I refer to the importance of the education of teacher educators for the quality of field experiences as part of a teacher education program. In this section I discuss issues that arise in connection with the idea of the education of teacher educators. In Canadian teacher education programs there are generally three kinds of teacher educators involved, depending on the role they play in the program: university-based course instructors, associate teachers, and faculty advisors. There is no formal education of teacher educators in Canada. Learning as a teacher educator seems to happen more through a form of legitimate peripheral participation in the sense Lave and Wenger (1991) define it, namely through participating as a teacher educator in the community of teacher educators within a teacher education program with the support (more or less) from more experienced members of the respective community. New faculty members teaching courses in a B.Ed. program might receive course outlines from previous course instructors or might receive advice in regard to textbooks that can be used, etc.; new faculty advisors might receive advice from more experienced faculty advisors in preparation sessions. In any case, the learning through legitimate peripheral participation for teacher educators is in Canada generally not systematically structured and seems to rely very much on trial and error.

Since, generally, those who work as teacher educators went themselves at some time through a teacher education program, the question arises to what degree an Apprenticeship of Observation *for teacher educators* is at play in their teaching practice. As teacher candidates they have observed course instructors in education courses, and they have observed associate teachers supervising them during their practica. If there is no formal preparation for teacher educators as there is one for K-12 teachers, what are teacher educators drawing upon when they plan and teach their education courses or supervise teacher candidates as associate teachers? As discussed above, Kennedy (1999) identified addressing teacher candidates' preconceived notions about teaching and learning (resulting from the Apprenticeship of Observation) as one of the central roles for preservice teacher education. With no formal education for teacher educators, who is addressing teacher educators' preconceived notions about teaching and learning in a teacher education program?[19]

In my view it is quite telling of the currently "autodidactic nature" of learning as a teacher educator that for the education (professional development) of faculty-based teacher education the probably most prominent form of professional development that has emerged is

[19] I would see some indication for an Apprenticeship of Observation at play for (some) associate teachers and faculty advisors if I consider their perception of their role and their self-declared learning needs as teacher educators as identified in the study by Lacourse and Correa Molina (chapter 12, pp. 244-245). In my view, neither the role perception nor the self-declared needs as teacher educators indicate a deeper sense of the complexity of preparing teacher candidates that was discussed in previous sections of this chapter.

the self-study of teacher education practices (Laughran, Hamilton, LaBoskey, & Russell, 2004). Although the self-study literature emphasizes the importance of collaborative self-studying, the articles in the journal *Studying Teacher Education: A Journal of Self-Study of Teacher Education Practices*, for instance, are primarily reports by one teacher educator reporting on the self-study of her own teaching practice for the purpose of improving it.

A number of chapters in this book raise several important issues around the question of the education of teacher educators. I discuss each in turn.

As already mentioned above, Hirschkorn and Kristmanson (chapter 11) suggest that faculty-based teacher educators' involvement in school-based practica as faculty advisors provides them with an opportunity for professional development (as teacher educators). When they make this suggestion, they point to two factors that play an important role for the autodidactic nature of the professional development of teacher educators, namely *opportunity* and *willingness*:

> With respect to linkages with schools and teachers, the new education program at UNB facilitates interaction between the university and the field by creating a partnership between a liaison teacher at the school and the Faculty representative [opportunity]. If appropriately valued and nurtured [willingness], this seemingly logistical collaboration can be a source of rich professional discussions [opportunity].
> (Hirschkorn & Kristmanson, chapter 11, p. 228)

While opportunities can be provided within the university context, some of the challenges that I discuss above for school-university partnerships are directly linked to challenges for faculty-based teacher educators' willingness to engage in professional development: the award and recognition system in a university.

As most field experiences for teacher candidates are placed in schools, the more prominent role of teacher educators in the context of field experiences goes to associate teachers. What does their education and preparation for their work as teacher educators look like? It is probably fair to say – based on my experience with the teacher education program at the University of Manitoba and program descriptions in different chapters in this book – that generally their preparation for their work as teacher educators consists primarily of having relevant information about the practicum shared with them and having someone to talk to if problems arise. What Elliott-Johns and Ridler (chapter 8) write about their program at Nipissing University might be considered prototypical if not more on the more supportive side:

> All Associate Teachers are provided with a detailed practicum information package for each placement, and Principals are also provided with all necessary information to facilitate hosting a teacher candidate (or candidates) at their school. Furthermore, an Advance Information Form is included in the practicum package and Associate Teachers are invited to submit relevant information in advance to support their teacher candidates and prepare them for a successful practicum (e.g., a brief outline of Fields of Study, Teacher Candidate's Responsibilities, Units, Topics, Books, Learning Materials etc. and teacher's School/Home Contact Information). . . . In addition to in-person support from Faculty advisors, Associate Teachers are provided with on-line support materials (e.g., the Practice

> Teaching Handbook and samples of completed practice teaching evaluation forms are available on-line and these are also distributed as part of the information package). Furthermore, in order to build rapport with associates and principals in a particular area, many Faculty advisors are assigned to the same geographical route for several years.
> (Elliott-Johns & Ridler, chapter 8, pp. 151-152)

The situation for associate teachers in regard to their professional development seems to look somewhat different in Quebec, considering that "it is a ministerial directive to offer continuing education to teacher educators [a term the authors use for associate teachers and faculty advisors]" (Lacourse & Correa Molina, chapter 12, p. 236). In some other provinces, some universities have been offering classes addressing the mentoring of teacher candidates or beginning teachers. At the University of Manitoba a Post-Baccalaureate course on mentoring has been offered sporadically over the last number of years, and Foster, Wimmer, Winter, and Snart (chapter 10) report on a course offering with a similar focus at their university:

> Over the past several years, our Faculty of Education has been challenged regarding the assumption that a classroom teacher with five years of successful teaching experience has the necessary skills to mentor and supervise a Student Teacher. In 2006-2007, for example, at the request of the field and the profession, the Department of Educational Policy Studies at the University of Alberta introduced a graduate course that takes up academic themes and issues in teacher preparation and induction. Entitled *Educational Policy Studies 532 – Topics in Supervision: Preparation, Mentorship, and Induction of Student and Beginning Teachers*, the course has been offered five times to more than 85 practitioners enrolled in a master's program or in open studies at the University of Alberta. (p. 200)

There are a number of challenges that associate teachers face in their work as teacher educators that need to be considered when designing any form of education for associate teachers. The first challenge comes with the dual role for the associate teacher: (a) being the teacher in charge for the learning of the students in the practicum class of their teacher candidate; and (b) being a teacher educator for the teacher candidate. Lacourse and Correa Molina suggest, associate teachers need to be able to take and switch proficiently between the different perspectives that come with their different roles:

> The associate teacher must be sufficiently aware of the fact that she or he must not act in front of the preservice teacher as the teacher that she or he is, but as a teacher educator, capable of assuming two complementary, but very different identities. The associate teacher must, in this way, mobilize the resources specific to the roles and functions attributed to her or him in order to scaffold the preservice professional development and to manifest competency as co-educator and co-evaluator of teachers.
> (Lacourse & Correa Molina, chapter 12, p. 241)

Linked to the issue of the dual role is the challenge of what Broad and Tessaro (chapter 4) call "the poorly defined role of the associate teacher" (see also Lacourse & Correa Molina, chapter 12, p. 239):

> There is general agreement, in the literature and the field, that the role of associate teacher is poorly defined and that often expectations are ambiguous and overlapping. Sanders, Dowson and Sinclair (2005) suggest that associate teachers play roles as varied as friend, counselor, model, planner, professional peer, conferencer and evaluator and do not necessarily feel equipped to carry out these varied functions effectively.
> (Broad & Tessaro, chapter 4, p. 80)

How challenging will the education of associate teachers be if the role for which they are to be educated is so "poorly defined"?

Another challenge to the education of associate teachers arises for rural-based associate teachers due to logistical reasons, an issue that I have already discussed in a previous section.

As is the case for faculty-based teacher educators, classroom teachers' *willingness* to engage as teacher educators is a crucial factor for the quality of the field experiences as part of a teacher education program. Elliott-Johns and Ridler (chapter 8), for instance, describe for their program at Nipissing University the difficulty of having classroom teachers coming forward in sufficient numbers to function as associate teachers: "As a faculty of education we continue to grapple with some complex questions and issues such as . . . the increasingly limited availability of sufficient (and 'top-quality') associate teachers" (Elliott-Johns, chapter 8, p. 161). This leads to the question why classroom teachers would want to engage as associate teachers in the first place.

While I emphasize above that for teachers the role as a teacher educator requires a different orientation and focus than the one as a classroom teacher to K-12 schools, the qualities that are linked to the former role can greatly benefit one's qualities in the latter role, which can serve as a good reason for classroom teachers to get involved as associate teachers – and which serves as a good reason for a systematic education of associate teachers to develop those qualities. Broad and Tessaro (chapter 3) provide an illustrative example for this case. In their study they have inquired into different practices of improving associate teachers' strategies of providing feedback to their teacher candidates. As a consequence of their involvement with the project, associate teachers suggest that the value of their learning reaches beyond their role as an associate teacher:

> The associate teachers indicated that the opportunity they had to dialogue and think critically and metacognitively about their practice was extremely valuable and altered their practice not only as associate teachers but also as classroom teachers. They indicated that paraphrasing and asking scaling questions are helpful instructional strategies for encouraging problem solving and goal setting for students as well. They mentioned that they wanted to revisit some earlier debriefing conversations to change them based upon their learning. They also suggested that the process of being filmed both heightened self-awareness and also provided rich opportunities to consider language and interaction and the power of questions, words, and listening.
> (Broad & Tessaro, chapter 4, p. 85)

This illustrates the role of the education of associate teachers as effective *professional development* of classroom teachers. The professional work of supporting someone else's learning around teaching that associate teachers engage in is similar to the practice of mentoring beginning

teachers. The work by and the education of associate teachers can greatly benefit by drawing on the literature on mentoring beginning teachers and the professional development for mentors for their work. This is exactly the stance that Broad and Tessaro take when they label the associate teacher as "educative mentors" (chapter 4, p. 87) and draw on the literature on mentoring conversations.

In their chapter, Broad and Tessaro also suggest the value of the filmed lessons and debriefing sessions in their education of the associate teachers as resources for professional development of classroom teachers:

> One of the valuable outcomes of this study for the teacher education program, therefore, is the digital resource created from the filmed lessons and debriefing sessions. The elements of this project were utilized to structure the digital resource: (a) role of the associate teacher, (b) example literacy lessons, (c) example debriefing conversations, (d) reflections of associate teachers and teacher candidates. All of these elements are proving useful as artifacts that spur professional dialogue based in authentic experiences. This record of the lessons and the post-lesson debriefing sessions provides greater opportunity for educators working in a variety of capacities and locations to work with an "example of practice" that can support them as they inquire into effective feedback sessions and teaching practice.
> (Broad & Tessaro, chapter 4, p. 87)

Working as an associate teacher can also serve as a path within teaching as a career. Teaching as a profession has a "flat" career path, meaning that the kind of work one does as a teacher at the beginning of one's career is the same kind of work one does at the time of retirement – aside from some formal teacher leadership work in school divisions that one might be able to move into, like working as a consultant within a school division, but those positions are few and far between. The move from the classroom into an administrative position is the only career move that is generally available to teachers, although many teachers see a move into administration as not desirable. Johnson (2004), for instance, has suggested the systematic and institutionalized mentoring of beginning teachers and other forms of teacher leadership in order to not just address the retention problem of teachers in the USA, but to also provide a career path for experienced teachers. Working as an associate teacher and mentoring a teacher candidate should have the similar potential for addressing career path issues for the teaching profession in Canada.

The Purpose of Teacher Education

Educational practices – including the practice of educating teachers – are guided by value judgments, whether those are made explicit or not. This might sound trivial, but there is a twist to it: even if we wanted to be explicit about all the values that guide our own educational practice, we would not be able to. There will always be a part of our value system that impacts our educational practice that stays at the subconscious level. For instance, somewhere else (Falkenberg, 2007) I have argued that teaching as a value-laden (moral) endeavour requires assumptions about a theory of morality, which itself requires assumptions about the human condition. Who of us teacher educators is able to articulate in some explicit ways what she

thinks are the conditions for our being humans? Our value system shows in our educational practice, the decisions we make, and in how we respond emotionally to particular educational situations. Psycho-therapeutic approaches suggest to us, that there are ways in which we are able to bring into our consciousness at least part of what guides our value judgments, and that should not be different for the value system that guides our educational practices. To make it even more complex, our value system does not stay static, so revealing our value system is, thus, not just a matter of revealing more and more of it over time. It changes over time as we interact with and in the world, particularly with people whose practices are guided by different value systems.

What guides the judgments we make in teacher education can best be conceptualized as a *network* of assumptions that is interlinked in different ways (Falkenberg, 2010). McGregor, Sanford, and Hopper's (chapter 17) discussion of the assumptions that guide the alternative practicum placements offered at the University of Victoria illustrates the idea of such a network. In their discussion they articulate how assumptions about education and learning are linked to orientations toward and practices of teacher education pedagogy:

> Davis, Sumatra and Luce-Kapler (2008) argue that a genealogical analysis of western conceptions of education and theories of learning allow us to trace how these beliefs have produced particular conceptions of teaching. They present two general categories of learning theory: correspondence and coherence theory. Correspondence theories share a belief in knowledge as an external reality/truth that can be either discovered, traced, acquired or re-produced. From a teacher education perspective, correspondence theories of learning have produced at least two dominant ways of conceptualizing learning about teaching: the rationalist and empirical approaches. The rationalist model is of particular interest to this paper's discussion of field experience given its emphasis on logical constructions of knowledge and how it favours developmentally focused and incrementally organized *experiences* that move on a linear continuum from simple to complex. This understanding of experience emphasizes the study of an external reality that is then reinforced and practiced, usually characterized by conditioning or training regimes that are "practitioner-proof" (Dunne & Pendlbury, 2002, p. 197 as cited in Phelan & Sumsion, 2008, p. 26).
> (McGregor, Sanford, & Hopper, chapter 17, p. 298)

> A participatory approach also views knowledge as complex and diverse, and thinks about how knowledges are emergent through social and cultural practices. Teaching in this theoretical frame now moves from directing pre-service teachers to see/understand teaching practices in anticipated or normalized ways to triggering or nudging learning in unanticipated ways.
> (McGregor, Sanford, & Hopper, chapter 17, p. 299)

McGregor, Sanford, and Hopper's chapter illustrates also how their taking a particular normative stance on the purpose question in teacher education (What do we educate teachers for?) is linked to the design and implementation of a particular form of an alternative practicum placement at the University of Victoria:

> For teacher educators, enhancing the development of such critically reflective practices therefore becomes central to programme design; at the University of

> Victoria we have approached this goal by conceiving of preparing teachers for their dual role as *citizenship educators* and *civic leaders*.
>
> While there are a variety of ways in which such learning and approaches to leadership can be advanced, we see one primary means by which this learning can be enabled: community based field experiences. Called The Alternative Practicum, we offer our third year elementary teacher education students a three-week field experience in non-school sites."
> (McGregor, Sanford, & Hopper, chapter 17, p. 300)

The network of assumptions that guides our conceptualization of teacher education and its pedagogy includes assumptions that are more normative and others that are more empirical, the latter meaning that those assumptions are more likely to be given up by those holding the network of assumptions in the face of certain kind of empirical evidence (Falkenberg, 2010). I want to illustrate this idea by drawing on two different sets of "principles for preservice teacher education", each of which emphasizes more one of these types of assumptions than the respective other. Korthagen, Loughran, and Russell (2006) have proposed "fundamental principles for teacher education programs and practices". About the "empirical" genesis of their principles, they write:

> From our ongoing analyses of the three cases of pre-service teacher education and our three-way conversations about the interpretation of these cases, we have constructed seven principles of student teacher learning and program change in teacher education that we see as fundamental.
> (Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006, p. 1025)

Accordingly, the nature of all their seven principles is such that there is some kind of empirical evidence imaginable that could have Korthagen, Loughran, and Russell opt to give up or at least modify the respective principle. The first principle, for instance, is as follows: "Learning about teaching involves continuously conflicting and competing demands" (Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006, p. 1025). As their explication of how this principle derives from their interpretation of teacher candidates' learning to teach in the respective programs of the three authors make clear, the principles are based on interpretations of what "effectively supports" learning to teach, illustrated in the following quotation taken from the explication section of the first principle:

> This vignette highlights the value of students struggling with the need to simultaneously be both learners of learning and learners of teaching so that they come to better understanding not only how a particular teaching approach influences their learning, but also how that teaching was constructed and performed. Clearly, what they experience as learners of teaching dramatically shapes their views of practice. Therefore, modeling approaches that create opportunities for student teachers to be cognizant of their learning about learning and their learning about teaching need continually to be made explicit.
> (Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006, p. 1026)

What if such struggling turns out not to be the most effective way for teacher candidates to come to understand how a particular teaching approach influences their learning? What if a

modeling approach turns out not to be a very effective way of making teacher candidates cognizant of their learning about learning and their learning about teaching? The point here is not to question the principles outlined in their article or the empirical evidence those are build upon. The point is rather to identify the more *empirical* nature of the assumptions upon which those principles are based.

Of a more *normative* nature are many of the principles set out for preservice teacher education in the Accord on Initial Teacher Education by the Association of Canadian Deans of Education (ACDE, 2006). Although all their principles begin with "An effective teacher education program . . . ", many of the principles are not empirical assumptions about effective teacher education programs but rather normative assumptions representing value judgments about what is important in the education of teachers.[20] A principle like "An effective initial teacher education program encourages teachers to assume a social and political leadership role" (ACDE, 2006, p. 4) is clearly such a normative assumption about what teacher education programs *should* do, based on a normative stance about education in general that the Accord is quite explicit about in its introduction section:

> We envision a democratic society that is inclusive, equitable, and sustainable and an education system that nurtures informed citizens who contribute creatively to human development and social change.
> (ACDE, 2006, p. 1)

Such a normative stance on the type of society valued and the type of education system that goes with that type of society is clearly less susceptible to being given up by any kind of empirical evidence for those subscribing to those principles. The questions of the *purpose of teacher education*, i.e., the question what we educate teachers for, is clearly a normative question, but the network of assumptions upon which we base our ideas of teacher education does also include assumptions of a more empirical nature like the principles about learning about teaching by Korthagen, Loughran, and Russell.

There are some chapters in this book that embed their conceptualization of field experiences into a larger purpose of teacher education, based on normative assumptions similar to those just discussed. The embedding of the alternative practicum placement in a larger purpose of teacher education at the University of Victoria (McGregor, Sanford, & Hopper, chapter 17) that I refer to above provides one such example. Teacher education, so the authors argue, should "[prepare] teachers for their dual role as *citizenship educators* and *civic leaders*" (p. 300), and the design of an alternative practicum placement, they argue, is one meaningful way that can contribute to that purpose – which is itself a more empirical assumption.

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[20] There are some principles that can be understood as being more empirical in nature, like the principle "An effective teacher education program ensures that beginning teachers understand the development of children and youth . . . and the nature of learning" and "An effective teacher education program involves partnerships between the university and school, interweaving theory, research, and practice and providing opportunities for teacher candidates to collaborate with teachers to develop effective teaching practices" (ACDE, 2006, p. 4). However, compared to the empirical assumptions set out in the principles by Korthagen, Loughran, and Russell (2006), none of those principles in the Accord are substantiated.

There are at least three other chapters that embed their conceptualization of field experiences in a larger purpose of teacher education or of education in general. Lemisko and Ward (chapter 13) from the University of Saskatchewan write that

> [they] are also driven by the desire to prepare teachers who strive toward social justice and who engage in education as transformative praxis. This requires a coherent program, with course work and field experiences that challenge the beliefs, attitudes and presuppositions of teacher candidates and supports them in developing understandings about the histories and experiences of diverse social groups and how to work with multi-identitied students. (McDonald, 2007) We are striving to develop a renewed program that includes course work which engages teacher candidates in an exploration of anti-racist and anti-oppressive education and in the examination of how to include Aboriginal and multicultural knowledges and perspectives in teaching and learning. We have also built into the PGG requirements for teacher candidates to gather evidence from field experiences to demonstrate that they are reflecting upon and analyzing their growth in understanding the roles of teachers and schools in decolonizing education, building inclusive communities, incorporating Aboriginal and multicultural content and perspectives and in taking a leadership role in seeking to improve social and environmental conditions.
> (Lemisko & Ward, chapter 13, pp. 256-257)

Mulholland, Nolan, and Salm (chapter 18) from the University of Regina link their normative stance of an "anti-oppressive teaching theory" to guide the design of a pilot seminar for associate teachers, teacher candidates (= interns), and faculty advisors prior to the practicum (= internship). They write:

> As the developers of the pilot seminar, we chose to focus on teaching to diversity as the first module to develop for the renewed seminar. Inspired by anti-oppressive teaching theory, we created a three-hour module that engaged cooperating teachers and interns in collaborative learning and structured dialogue about race, white privilege and equity in contemporary Saskatchewan classrooms (Earick, 2009; Marx, 2006; Pollock, 2008; Trepagnier, 2006). The content of the activities that we designed was familiar to the interns in the seminar, particularly since they have been immersed in similar discussions throughout the course work leading up to internship. Some of the cooperating teachers revealed to us in conversation and in written evaluations that most of the content was new to them. In that way, directly addressing the gaps in understanding related to anti-oppressive education helped level the power differential that is so common between cooperating teachers and interns (Anderson, 2007).
> (Mulholland, Nolan, & Salm, chapter 18, p. 324)

Finally, Schmidt's "critical, equity-oriented approach to field experiences for IETs [internationally educated teachers]" (Schmidt, chapter 21, p. 365) at the University of Manitoba provides another example of a network of assumptions involving a larger purpose of teacher education and an interlinking of normative and empirical assumption within that network. Teacher education, Schmidt argues, needs to be dealt with within the larger purpose of education, namely to contribute to a greater equity (equitability) in our society, which is a

normative stance. However, when Schmidt argues with the assumptions around the valuable contributions that internationally educated teachers can make for K-12 school education, then those assumptions are clearly more empirical-based assumptions that might be in conflict with empirical findings:

> IETs have important contributions to make as role models for learners from diverse backgrounds and can also serve as important cultural and linguistic resources for these students, their families, and the wider school community (Ryan, Pollock, & Antonelli, 2009). IETs' resources and contributions are most fruitfully employed in school environments where they are recognized and valued as part of a wider affirmation of diversity and difference.
> (Schmidt, chapter 21, p. 361)

As with normative questions in other domains, the network of normative assumptions about teacher education that educators subscribe to vary from person to person, whereby the degree of variation varies as well. In different chapters of this book authors make the point that for the sake of program coherence a good match in – as I would phrase it – fundamental normative assumptions about teaching and education between university-based faculty members and associate teachers should be in place.[21] Aiken and Kreuger (chapter 3), for instance, point to different concepts of "competencies" (p. 70) in the literature, which is directly relevant to teacher education programs in Quebec, where program accreditation is directly linked to a program's ability to address convincingly the set of 12 competencies for teacher candidates laid out by the provincial government (Ministère de l'Éducation, 2001). Aitken and Kreuger have also found in their study (Aitken & Kreuger, chapter 3, p. 74) differences in the concept of "success" for teacher candidates in their practicum between associate teachers and faculty advisors. How should teacher education programs respond to the issue of mismatching conceptualizations and fundamental normative assumptions?

Lemisko and Ward (chapter 13) provide a multi-prong answer to this question. At the first level they seem to suggest that a match in at least some fundamental assumptions are necessary or at least advantages for the school-university partnerships that they want to enter into:

> The three school divisions with whom we have formal partnerships all espouse educational philosophies that include constructivist theoretical understandings. This stance provides a point of agreement within our partnerships.
> (Lemisko & Ward, chapter 13, p. 253)

However, they also recognize that responses to some aspects of the purpose question for teacher education might not quite match between the different parties involved in a school-university partnership. Rather than viewing this as a problem, they recognize it as a phenomenon inherent in school-university partnerships and see the situation as calling for on-going engagement:

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[21] A response to the purpose question for teacher education is directly linked to the purpose question of teaching. Associate teachers' view about learning and teaching, thus, has a direct relevance to their view about the purpose of teacher education.

> Building a shared mission and vision is complex and takes time and each partnership must be treated as a unique relationship shaped by particular cultures, goals and commitments of the member organizations. This means that authentic partnerships are more like a verb - an ongoing, unfolding process - rather than a noun - a fixed "business" contract. While living with this kind of complexity can be somewhat unnerving, we believe this kind of "authentic partnership" is necessary to achieve our goal of developing field experiences that are mutually transformative.
> (Lemisko & Ward, chapter 13, p. 252)

This is exactly the stance that Hansen (2008) takes concerning the question whether inquiry into the purpose of teacher education is a process that will or should end with a final agreement. He suggests that this would not be a desirable process or outcome in the first place:

> Should such inquiry [into the purpose of teacher education] strive to produce a final agreement about values? . . . . To examine purpose in teacher education implies something other than a process that would terminate dialogue through a final agreement. Rather, inquiry into purpose is crucial to maintain dialogue . . . . Dialogue about purpose embodies its own values, among them sustaining a sense of value (again, as contrasted with becoming passive), a sense of community (which often translates into critical energy), a sense of individuality (as each person articulates her or his outlook), and a sense of hope (that values matter in the world precisely because human life is not predetermined or predestined).
> (Hansen, 2008, p. 23)

This dialogue about the central purpose question of teacher education needs to be part of our ongoing dialogue about teacher education.

This ends the part of this introductory chapter that discusses central issues of field experiences as they are raised in different chapters of this book. The next and last section of this chapter provides some background information on the genesis of the book and its chapters in general.

Introduction to the Chapters

In May 2009 Hans Smits and I sent out a note to the members of the Canadian Association for Teacher Education (CATE; www.csse.ca/cate) inviting them to engage in a writing-discussing-publishing project on the topic of "Field Experiences in the Context of Reform of Canadian Teacher Education Programs". In the announcement we identified three focus areas for the writing and the conversations:

(1) *What do we know with any certainty about the nature of field experiences in teacher education, currently and historically?*
(A review of research on the topic of preservice teacher education field experiences)

(2) *What is the current state of field experiences in Canadian teacher education programs?* (A description and analysis of features of field experiences in Canadian teacher education programs: formal features, but also assumptions made and stances taken within programs)

(3) *What should be the role of field experiences in teacher education programs*? What is possible within current structures of educational practice, both in universities and in schools? How might field experiences best reflect both what we know about teacher education pedagogy and what we might imagine can be different, and for what purposes and ends?

The invitation was sent out with the overall project goal to develop a set of documents around the topic of field experiences in teacher education programs that could be made available to the teacher education (research) community to support the scholarship and practice of teacher education in Canada. We employed a three-step approach to achieving this goal. Those interested in participating in the project had to commit to each of the three steps. First, by September 2009 they had to submit a draft paper that addressed at least one of the three focus areas. Second, they had to attend the Third Working Conference on Research in Teacher Education in Canada (www.umanitoba.ca/education/TEResearch) that was held 5-7 November 2009 at the University of Winnipeg. The Third Working Conference was completely dedicated to this project. Depending on the focus area of their paper, participants were grouped into working groups for the Conference and were expected to have read all papers of all working group members in advance of the Working Conference. At the Conference, participants were to discuss the issues raised by and provide feedback on the papers of the other working group members. Third, participants were to revise their draft papers in response to the discussions and the specific feedback at the Working Conference and to submit a final draft by the end of December 2009. Those draft papers were then undergoing a **blind peer review** process, including the paper by one of the editors (Falkenberg & Young, chapter 9). All chapters in this book, with the exception of the two introductory chapters 1 and 2, are the result of this three-step working process as well as the blind peer review.

Hans and I are very pleased to provide in this book a collection of 19 papers (chapters 3-21) written on the topic of "Field Experiences in the Context of Reform of Canadian Teacher Education Programs" by teacher education scholars from 15 different universities from across Canada, including two chapters from Francophone scholars from Québec (see the list of contributors and their institutional affiliations in the section "Contributors" at the end of this book). We added to this collection of 19 papers two introductory chapters (chapters 1 and 2).

Each chapter in this book begins with an abstract, which should give the reader a sufficient overview over what the respective chapter is about. Although some papers have been written with one of the three above mentioned focus areas in mind, many address more than one. This made it difficult to cluster the 19 papers for ordering them in this book. For that reason Hans and I have decided to arrange those 19 papers in alphabetical order by the last name of the (first) author.

To my knowledge there is no comprehensive overview over teacher education programming in Canada available with the exception of the recent base line study by Crocker and Dibbon (2008), which provides aggregated, mainly quantitative data about structural

features of teacher education programs in Canada drawn from website information from the respective institutions. Most chapters in this book provide as part of their discussion of the issues they focus on information on the field experience component of a particular Canadian teacher education program; some chapters even centre their focus on features of the field experience component of a particular teacher education program. Although this information does not provide a comprehensive nor complete overview over the field experience component of Canadian teacher education programs, it does contribute to a better understanding of the qualities of the landscape of teacher education programming in Canada. To assist with this understanding, the table below provides an overview over the program information that can be found in particular chapters on the teacher education program at a particular university.

University	***Chapter***	***Program Information (The chapter describes . . .)***
University of **Alberta**	Foster, Wimmer, Winter, & Snart (chapter 10)	• very extensively the practicum component of the teacher education program
Bishop's University (Québec)	Aitken & Kreuger (chapter 3)	• the faculty's response to the government of Quebec's introduction of 12 standards for teacher education; how those competencies are assessed in the practicum component of the program, and some challenges with the assessment scheme
University of **Manitoba**	Falkenberg & Young (chapter 9)	• the governance structure of the regular practicum and the governance structure of field experiences offered as part of university-based course work
	Schmidt (chapter 21)	• the central features of the special teacher education program designed to qualify internationally educated teachers for provincial certification
McGill University	Dillon & O'Connor (chapter 7)	• a cluster of university-based courses that provide teacher candidates with field-based experiences
Mount Royal University	Naested, Nickel, Sikora, & Vaughan (chapter 19)	• the different components of the newly developed and approved B.Ed. program
University of **New Brunswick**	Hirschkorn & Kristmanson (chapter 11)	• the central features that characterize the link between university and school faculty and university program and practicum experiences in the new, one-year B.Ed. program

Nippissing University	Elliott-Johns & Ridler (chapter 8)	• the practicum component of the different teacher education programs • critical discussion of four central assumptions underlying the design and implementation of the programs
OISE / University of Toronto	Chudleigh & Gibson-Gates (chapter 6)	• change to the OISE field placement process • statistics about the teacher education program • support structure within the field experience component of the program for teacher candidates, associate teachers, and faculty advisors
University of **Prince Edward Island**	MacDonald (chapter 14)	• a curriculum and instruction course that is taught in a school setting and links the university-based course with classroom experiences of the students enrolled in the course
University of **Regina**	Mulholland, Nolan, & Salm (chapter 18)	• field experiences in the current program • history of and current reform efforts for the Internship Seminar in the program • on-going program review process (brief)
Université de **Sherbrooke**	Lacourse & Correa Molina (chapter 12)	• the Quebec context for the practicum component of the program with particular consideration given to the role, the needs, and the education of faculty advisors and associate teachers, particularly those located in rural school settings
University of **Saskatchewan**	Lemisko & Ward (chapter 13)	• current program structure with focus on field experiences; the six goals of the undergraduate program; underlying principles that underlie the program • first year of formal partnerships with school divisions to provide field experiences as part of a pilot cohort project • review process and changes to the program based on feedback from a review process

University of **Victoria**	McGregor, Sanford, & Hopper (chapter 17)	• how certain program components are embedded in a particular view of the larger purpose of the program • a detailed description of the design of a community-based, short-term, and voluntary community based alternative practicum • discussion of challenges and successes of the alternative practicum
	Sanford, Hopper, & McGregor (chapter 20)	• underlying assumptions of the program; • three specific changes to the program: (1) course-based field experiences in some courses of the program; (2) use of e-portfolios; (3) professional seminars offered across the four-year program

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Chapter 2

Introduction: The Aporia of Ideology and Utopia –Field Experiences in Teacher Education as Peril and Promise

HANS SMITS

The purpose of this second of two introductory chapters to the monograph is to suggest, through a more philosophical discussion, that field experiences in teacher education are sites of complexity and difficulty, which may be called aporia. More specifically the aporia represent tensions between ideology, that is language and concepts meant to give meaning to practices, judgments and evaluations of teaching, within the historical boundaries that define schooling, education and educational research, and utopia, which is a critical engagement with possibilities that do not yet exist. The relationship between ideology and utopia – a tension between what is and what might be – is necessarily framed by historical influences on education. Interpretive engagements with the tension between ideology and utopia in thinking about field experiences suggest an openness to others in sites of practice, and building more collective inquiries into the meaning, limitations and possibilities for good practice. To put it in other terms, educational research and policy ought to support the development of the capacities for action and practical reason.

> We are always educating for a world that is or is becoming out of joint, for this is the basic human situation, in which the world is created by mortal hands to serve mortals for a limited time as home. (Arendt, 1969, pp. 192-193)

> An education for the world cannot proceed as though the "world" has a hold on us, which is why educators must take seriously the phenomenon of world-alienation. (Levinson, 2010, p. 485)

> Few ideas today are as healthy and as liberating as the idea that there is a practical reason but not a science of practice. (Ricoeur, 1991, p. 199)

The ensuing discussion represents an attempt to raise some questions about the context and frames of thinking in situating "field experiences" in programs of teacher education. The monograph as a whole is an effort to understand field experiences within the larger context of educational policy and the ongoing interests in reform of teacher education programs now commonplace across post-secondary institutions in Canada. The participants in the November 2009 Third Working Conference on Research in Teacher Education in Canada (see

© Author. T. Falkenberg & H. Smits (Eds.). (2010). *Field experiences in the context of reform of Canadian teacher education programs* (2 vols., pp. 51-66). Winnipeg, MB: Faculty of Education of the University of Manitoba.

www.umanitoba.ca/education/TEResearch) and their subsequent contributions to this monograph represent genuine engagements with important questions about the purposes of field experiences, their efficacy in overall teacher preparation, the nature of community and relationships reflected in university programs with their school and broader communities, and how we might understand more fully – and perhaps differently – the kinds of practices and work fundamental to our responsibilities as teacher educators. Specifically, there were three overarching questions of focus suggested for the papers:

1. What do we know with any certainty about the nature of field experiences in teacher education, currently and historically?
2. What is the current state of field experiences in Canadian teacher education programs?
3. What should be the role of field experiences in teacher education programs?

The purpose of the conference and the publication of the papers in this monograph were not to provide definitive answers to these questions, but rather to suggest potential areas for further thought and research in the interest of keeping alive these ongoing and essential topics for our work as teacher educators. In providing guidelines for the conference and invited papers we wanted to stress the importance of critically examining the underlining, and sometimes tacit, assumptions which "frame" the apprehension of lived experiences of programs, the "other" outside of our own immediate academic contexts and milieus, and how we come to endorse guidelines for policies and practices. In terms of the first question posed for participants, there was an encouragement to think beyond the notion of certainty, and to take up the complexity of practices, to inquire into the *aporia* I attempt to address in this introduction to the series of articles that follow.

In contributing to the introduction of the monograph my hope is to offer some questions around the frames and assumptions we make in thinking about concepts and practices in the context of reform efforts in teacher education.[1] In doing so, my purpose is less to advocate for certain programmatic reforms, but more to think about how our work is "framed" and what that might mean in terms of further practice and research. Indeed, the purposes of the working conferences on research in teacher education have been to focus not only on examples of research and advocating a broader research agenda but also to encourage the task of thinking about what research is for and what frames our inquiries. The manifest

[1] While not speaking directly to our work as educators, Judith Butler's recent book, *Frames of war. When is life grievable*? (2009), and her discussion of "frames" for apprehension and how our ways of conceptualizing make sense are enframed as "operations of power" may be useful to consider in how teacher education practices are understood. As she notes, the idea of frames is both an epistemological problem, ie., to what and why do we pay attention, and an ontological one: what counts as being most worthwhile and significant for us as human beings. At least part of my argument in this introduction is that we do not attend sufficiently in research on that which frames our thinking about teacher education and practices: for example, to take up ontological questions, such as purposes and broader outcomes and subjectivities of teaching, and the epistemological approaches which privilege certain kinds of signification over others. An example of a limiting frame would be to equate good teaching with narrow outcomes based on children's success on standardized tests. A more complex enframing, and a more difficult one is to consider the broader purposes of education in terms of ethical and social responsibilities.

aim is to support a broader discussion of teacher education and encourage viable and meaningful research in the service of understanding the practices, programs and the explicit or implicit paradigms that underlie the forms and functions of teacher education programs in Canada.

When I began to think about how I might approach my part of the introduction to the monograph I thought of an example of experience common to teacher educators. Namely, when we ask our student teachers what has been most valuable about their teacher preparation, almost invariably, it is the field experience parts of their programs. To paraphrase what a student teacher might tell us, "it is where real learning happens and I wish there was more of it." The difference between on-campus teacher preparation experiences and field experiences is also commonly referred to as a "gap" between theory and practice, with practice holding the cachet of being more "real" and certainly more immediate in its emotional and affective impacts on learning about teaching.[2]

The intention is not denigrate or parody such sentiments but to respect them as aspects of inquiring into teacher education and the place of field experiences in learning about teaching. In fact, I think we ought to take very seriously, and with due respect, the lived experiences of field experiences for all involved. We might well ask what sentiments like that possibly mean within the larger picture of teacher education. And what and why are there such enduring "tensions", or what I will call "aporia", in the work, the thinking, relationships and practices that construe the overall enterprise of teacher education and preparation and which particularly surface in field experiences in teacher education programs.[3]

To foreground the basis for my own interests and biases, I approach this discussion from the perspective of having administered a teacher education program and beginning to reflect on that experience and the challenges of living a program that genuinely attempted to be different from norms of teacher education approaches. My experience in working in a program that arguably challenged certain normative assumptions about teacher preparation also threw into sharp relief the place and purposes of field experiences in such a program.

In making reference to the uniqueness of the University of Calgary's teacher education program for my discussion (inquiry and case-based learning as a primary structure for student teachers' experiences) I recognize that the program's overall orientation was not necessarily different in intent from other teacher education programs, where issues of inquiry, identity,

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[2] My colleague at the University of Calgary Jim Field and I have just started two research projects exploring school principals' and teachers' views on teacher education. Already a common "theme" that has emerged is that there should be more field experiences in teacher preparation programs. However, it is important to point out that there are more complex reasons for this sentiment other than simply having "more" experiences in schools, a point I will return to later in my introduction.

[3] Amanda Berry (2008) characterizes tensions as follows: "The notion of tensions is intended to capture the feelings of internal turmoil that many teacher educators experience in their teaching about teaching as they find themselves pulled in different directions by competing concerns…" (p. 32). While the idea of tension is useful in signifying the quality of complexity in teacher education practices and programs, and perhaps certainly descriptive of the "internal turmoil" that may be experienced by teacher educators, I am using the term *aporia* as a perhaps more useful way to describe the *location* of tensions Berry identifies. The origin of the word *aporia* suggests spatiality: *aporia* suggests something that is not easily resolvable, but a rather a *space* of difficulty in which we must necessarily dwell. It is this space of difficulty, I will suggest as where indeed we focus our thinking about teacher education in general and field experiences in particular.

and field experiences are similarly central to diverse (but also similar) programmatic intentions and approaches.[4] Calgary's program was perhaps most significantly different in the way it was organized, and how it attempted to move away from a content-oriented approach to one, in intention at least, that was more process-oriented, orienting students to think about in the contexts of real classrooms and relationships with teachers and children.[5] I would argue that its ethos was an important factor in generating certain tensions – both productive and not – in relation to student teachers' experiences and problematizing the taken-for-grantedness of field experiences. Reflecting retrospectively on my own experiences, I am struggling to understand and articulate the kinds of tensions my own experiences surfaced and the difficulties with trying to hold something as a practice with coherent and defensible principles of action.

Indeed, as I will try to argue in this introduction, one of the tensions related to teacher education and field experiences has to do with our conceptions of "practice" and the extent to which teaching as a practice (as opposed to, in my argument, simply a set of skills) is possible or not in contemporary contexts of schooling. In a conversation with Joseph Dunne (2002) Alisdair MacIntyre is quoted as having written the following:

> "the moral content of our educational system is simply a reflection of the moral content of our society", and that "the task of the educator is to stand against a current which will in fact probably overwhelm him"; This was written forty years ago, and later MacIntyre wrote that "teachers are the forlorn hope of the culture of western modernity…the mission with which they are entrusted is both essential and impossible. (p. 1)

In the conversation Dunne asks MacIntyre, given this rather bleak view, how teachers are to "find truth…in this characterization of their task to respond to *both* sides of it?" – that is, what is "both essential and impossible"?[6]

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[4] I am referring to University of Calgary's Master of Teaching (B.Ed. after degree) program in the past tense, since a program with different orientations and structures will soon replace it. Nonetheless, I will predict that the tensions inherent in the relationship between on-campus and field experience components will continue to thrive, and as I will argue further on, perhaps necessarily so.

[5] In terms of field experiences, the University of Calgary's MT program emphasized the principle of being "field-oriented" rather than field-based, emphasizing that field experiences were heightened opportunities for the practice of inquiry about learning and teaching, rather than just practicing teaching. For many reasons I will not go into here, it became one of the parts of the program that was a source of considerable tension – for student teachers and teachers in schools. Nonetheless, I would argue that it offered students the possibility for developing certain kinds of dispositions as a teacher (an orientation to learning and learners, inquiry as a way of engaging in teaching, and a strong focus on the lived experiences of everyday schooling) that has signified the work of many of our graduates. For a sample of writing about the complexities of the MT Program and examples of research see the series of ongoing discussions by Lund, Panayotidis, Phelan, Smits, and Towers (2003); and Lund, Panayotidis, Smits, and Towers (2006, 2008).

[6] Both writers are known as "neo-Aristotlean" thinkers, especially in relation to at once edifying and making more complex the question of the meaning of practice in contemporary contexts. For example, in his account of virtues MacIntyre has emphasized the importance of ethical actions and understandings as *practices* – which is different from the application of knowledge to practice (MacIntyre (1981). As Dunne (1993) has written, "I have stressed the way in which, with the help of a range of Aristotelean concepts, one can formulate the capacity for appropriate responses to particular situations

What MacIntyre and Dunne are referring to as both "essential and impossible" can be interpreted as having to do with a larger crisis: in Arendtian terms, "the crisis of world estrangement" or alienation. Natasha Levinson and others in a recent issue of *Teachers College Record* raise this question of "world alienation" in terms of the purposes of education, and for what we ought to educate.[7] As Levinson and others emphasize, Hannah Arendt's notion of world-alienation is deeply and historically embedded in Western culture and societies, and has to do with humans' increasing estrangement from the world through forms of knowledge and organization that have marked the historical development of our societies. Critically, Arendt also addresses the quality of public life, and to what extent what she calls thoughtful "action" is fully possible, when much of life and work has become oriented in instrumental ways – with an ensuing sense of "worldlessness". In a discussion of this, Stephanie Mackler (2010) describes the problem of world alienation and its problematic meaning for education:

> At first glance, such talk of the disappearance of the world might seem hyperbolic, if not simply bizarre. One way to get an immediate feel for this idea…is to consider another of Arendt's terms, world alienation. In modern, Western society, there is a widespread feeling of isolation and disconnectedness from both our physical and social world. (p. 510)

An important effect of reading Arendt is to think more historically and ask what our own, contemporary, world offers or not for the purposes and practices of education. From that perspective, the problem of "world alienation" and what MacIntyre noted as the difficult, if not impossible "task of the educator is to stand against a current which will in fact probably overwhelm him" has been intensified by more recent historical developments in Western societies. In particular, I would identify the effects of "neoliberalism" and the impacts not only on social institutions and practices, but also possibilities for forms of association and human action oriented to other than individual and economic gain. From a recent discussion on the impact of neoliberalism on everyday life, the following provides a broad definition helpful to the discussion about "worldlessness":

> "Neoliberalism" broadly means the agenda of economic and social transformation under the sign of the free market that has come to dominate global politics in the last quarter century. It also means institutional arrangements to implement this project that have been installed, step by step, in every society under neoliberal control…The most dramatic form of commodification is the privatization of public assets and institutions. (Connell, 2010, p. 22-36) [8]

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which is essential to good performance in any practice" (p. 378). The focus of MacIntyre's and Dunne's dialogue has to do with whether or not teaching can be understood as a "practice" or whether it is better understood as a constellation of practices. In my view this is an important distinction and point of debate that has not fully been considered in teacher education.

[7] The February 2010 issue of *Teachers College Record* is dedicated to essays dealing with the implications of Arendt's work for thinking about education, and particularly the conundrum or challenge of teaching in "worldless times", and how educational practices and institutions are deeply implicated in the problem of world alienation.

[8] A recent collecton of essays on the impact of neoliberal policies on institutions is that of Braedley and Luxton (2010). Another very interesting discussion of the impacts of neoliberalism on everyday life and

To discuss fully the impact of neoliberal policies on education would require a much greater treatment than I can provide here.[9] Briefly however, discussions by various authors of the dominance of economic and instrumental thinking has addressed not only questions of the commodification of educational services, but also a greater stress on quantifiable forms of productivity, testing, competition, and narrowed standards of accountability.[10] The "worldlessness", in Arendtian terms, occasioned by neo-liberal policies and their impacts on life, would refer to the limits created on possibilities for human flourishing, and the narrowing of, for example, teaching and learning, to more instrumental and economic ends. Further the change in institutional contexts and expectations for the work of educators limits the fuller development of what some writers have termed as "capabilities."[11]

In broad terms, education has depended on narratives that link purposes to the idea of progress, enlightenment, and possibilities for individual human enhancement.[12] Within the framework of neoliberal reforms of institutions, it can be asked how that changes, distorts, or even forecloses on certain possibilities for progress.[13] The discussions about world alienation and the limiting of possibilities through narrowed economic interests throw into question the kind of world for which we educate, and more immediately in terms of our interests as teacher

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effects on self and identity – or subjectivity – is the work of Richard Sennett (2006). Sennett argues that the "new capitalism" has served to weaken social bonds the possibilities for commitment to more overarching common purposes and ends.

[9] The curriculum scholar David Smith from the Faculty of Education at the University of Alberta has written several essays exploring the impact of what he has termed "market fundamentalism" on educational life and practices (Smith, 2003, 2006a, 2006b). Smith's work is important in educing how certain kinds of educational practices and the narrowing of teaching and learning to instrumental and limited ends has deep roots in Western forms of thought, exacerbated in more recent history through the impacts of heightened capitalist globalization and the social forms and restraints that imposes on possibilities for education that speaks more truthfully to human ends and needs.

[10] See Smith (2003, 2006a, 2006b). I have also tried to begin to explore the question of what is possible or not in curriculum in the conditions of globalization and neo-liberalism; see Smits (2008).

[11] For a relevant discussion of the "capability" approach to understanding human practices, see Deneulin, Nebel, and Sagovsky (2006). In the opening essay, Paul Ricoeur speaks to the importance of social arrangements and institutions to the recognition of persons: "The idea is that individuals may be held to be 'great' or 'small' according to the evaluations ruling specific categories of social activities" (Ricoeur, 2006, p. 25). Social and institutional activities are given importance in how human activity is evaluated, how we think about practices, and the kind of world to which they are oriented.

[12] For a brief but compelling discussion of what might be termed the humanist purposes of education see Hans-George Gadamer (2001). Education is self-education. *Journal of Philosophy of Education*. Vol. 35, No. 4, pp. 529-538. Gadamer emphasizes, that "the humane capabilities are the ones to stress if one is to educate and to cultivate oneself, and that only then, when we succeed in that, will we also survive without the damage from the progress of technology and technicity." (p. 537).

[13] Charles Taylor (1991) has discussed this in terms of the "malaise of modernity"; such malaise it can be argued, has intensified under neoliberalism: in Taylor's terms, "the fading of moral horizons", "the eclipse of ends", and a loss of freedom. Examples would include the stress on certain forms of individualism but the constraining of possibilities for individual authenticity, and intensified forms of instrumental actions and ends, in the absence of more meaningful and overarching narratives of possibility.

educators in schools and their realities, possibilities for engendering good teaching.[14] As the political theorist Wendy Brown has written, two historically dominant narratives – the idea of limitless progress and the idea of the "sovereign self" have in the past century faltered as aims of historical development. Arguably, both the idea of progress and the development of sovereign selves are integral, or have been, to the core vision and purposes of Western education. But as Brown writes about her experience with students, "Without a notion of progress, my students invariably lament, 'what is the purpose of working for a better world'" (Brown, 2001, p. 15).[15]

If we accept, or at least are willing to consider Arendt's historical framing for education and MacIntyre's pessimism about the possibilities for teachers to make the world better, as teacher educators we are left with fundamental questions about for what we prepare our students and the critical question of how we understand the responsibilities of the teacher in the communities in which they will practice. In other words, however arguable our perspectives and interpretations of the current world and what the future might hold, there is nonetheless always the imperative to situate our purposes and to articulate what those might be, to always "think anew" in Arendt's (2003) terms: "The need to think can be satisfied only through thinking, and the thoughts which I had yesterday will satisfy this need today only to the extent that I can think anew" (p. 163).

As a teacher educator and more lately in my career as head of a teacher education program, I have become more aware and sometimes more anxious about the question of the essential nature of teaching on the one hand, and its fundamental impossibility on the other, and at the same time to work at "both sides" of it. That is to say, teacher education lives in the space of what exists as current forms of schooling and the broader sense of practice that speaks to possibilities for renewing the world. "Thinking anew" about the purposes of teacher education forms a necessary backdrop to our deliberations about the nature and quality of our programs and purposes, and as we discuss in this monograph, field experiences, and where I see an overlap between Arendt's challenge of "worldlessness" and MacIntyre and Dunne's discussion about the nature of teaching as practice.

The discussion of Hannah Arendt's work by education scholars is important to the discussion of teacher education, because it causes us – or should – to think about purposes and frameworks for our thinking and how our ideas and practices are deeply embedded within

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[14] See a very interesting recent discussion of how two dominant trends within the "neoliberal" construal of education – narrowed forms of testing and quantitative measures and "choice" – have impacted and limited fuller possibilities for teacher professionalism in Hirsch (2010). The article is a review of a recent book by Diane Ravitch (*The death and life of the great American school system: How testing and choice are undermining education)*. Particularly relevant for the discussion in this paper is what Ravitch claims is the overemphasis on "teacher effectiveness" or quality: "She does not doubt that good teachers are supremely important, but argues that reformers are guilty of an oversimplification when they isolate this variable from the many factors that have made schools ineffective" (Hirsch, 2010, p. 17). Ravitch's new work is somewhat ironic, to say the least, given her previous support for movements like "accountability" and competition in education. But to her credit, her new work recognizes what I am arguing in this paper, namely that certain forms of social and political organization are limiting of broader and deeper aims of education.

[15] Brown explores the problem of "how…commitments to knowledge, questioning, and intellectual depth [have] been overtaken" by certain kinds of fundamentalism (p. 37). She asks this in the context of weakened social bonds and structures that have emerged as a consequence of neoliberal policies.

historical circumstances and change. Given the tension between our hopes for progress in education (deeply implicit in the submissions to this monograph) and the cautions about what constitutes the "world" for which we prepare teachers opens up, but does not resolve necessary, the aporia to which I refer. MacIntyre's and Dunne's dialogue about the nature of practice speaks to the language and concepts that guide our normative decisions about what we believe about teacher education. There is a fundamental responsibility – if a difficult one – to think carefully about how we frame our inquiries – in field experiences as the topic of this book – and how we come to provide language for practices. It is important to consider, then, both what is revealed and not in prescriptions for action, and whether such prescriptions offer narratives of closure or possibility.

A possibly compelling way to think about how our work is framed is reference to the work of the hermeneutic philosopher, Paul Ricoeur, and particularly his discussions about the nature of human action and practice and the relation between *ideology* and *utopia*, and the ways in which thoughts and actions are always situated historically. This is a discussion oriented to understanding the difficulties of our responsibilities and the frames through which we practice our inquiries and develop our actions.[16] Ricoeur (1991b) states, helpfully I think, that examining the relationship between ideology and utopia serves as a "theory of cultural imagination" (p. 308). While Ricoeur's discussion more broadly addresses political and cultural life, it may also be applied to examining teacher education (as a form of cultural and historically situated "praxis") and how that is lived and understood. A discussion of ideology and utopia can be applied to the question of how we make decisions in teacher education – for example in the context of reform – and the basis on which we make such decisions and the work of preparing our teacher candidates for a "world".

Both ideological and utopian forms of ideas and representations are necessary to our practices and actions and both have positive and negative impacts. Ricoeur defines ideology "as the sphere of representations, ideas, and conceptions versus the sphere of actual production, as the imaginary versus the real" (1991b, p. 310). In Ricoeur's formulation, ideology serves an integrative function for understanding the world, and for giving meaning to our actions. Ricoeur emphasizes however that a major "trait" of ideology is a gap between various forms of representation and the "actuality of the life process."

Elsewhere, Ricoeur has written about the mimetic function of language and narrative in creating possible landscapes of meaning. It is as "sphere[s] of representations, ideas, and conceptions" (1991b, p. 310) that educational research, policy, and programmatic guidelines may be considered ideological. As educators and researchers, we have the responsibility to create and contribute meaning – language – to practices in the world, the "actuality of the life process" (1991b, p. 310) in Ricoeur's terms. As teacher educators, we have, given our positions, an obligation to speak to the truth of things related to all things educational. Research protocols are intended to legitimize that what we say and write is based on truthful representations of the actual world, of others, and their practices. John Loughran (2006) puts this well, speaking to the task of the teacher educators, he writes that it is "to describe, articulate, and share in meaningful ways their knowledge of teaching and learning about teaching" (p. 10).[17]

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[16] I refer specifically to two essays by Paul Ricoeur (Ricoeur, 1991a, 1991b).

[17] Loughran has been a key initiator of the teacher education self-study movement. While I have some reservations about the self-study approach, I do recognize its importance in bringing reflexivity and

What is helpful in Ricoeur's discussion of meaning making through narrative (and this related to the discussion of Arendt's concern about worldlessness) is what he posits as the dynamic relationship between action (lived experience) and the broader sense of relationship to past and future. Rather than a hierarchy of experience (i.e., privileging immediate over as yet unrealized possibilities or short-term ends) and narrative (our "theories" and languages of practice), the experience and narrative are always in a reciprocal relation. Quoting Ricoeur, Connerty (1990) notes that "Time becomes human time to the extent that it is organized after the manner of a narrative; narrative, in turn, is meaningful to the extent it portrays the features of temporal experience" (p. 392).

The discussion about ideology and utopia is in part then to understand how our languages are historically related, and to how they speak to temporal experience (our lived experiences of things) and narrative (how we assign meaning to our experiences, and the relative truthfulness of those narratives). To provide a language that engenders meaningful representations and concepts and ideas that can guide action is the positive function of ideology. We need language and critical thought – and arguably distance – from actualities of practice in order to be able to develop "truthful" representations. Concepts and certain forms of knowledge can help us know and re-interpret the world, and indeed provide renewed hope and vision for the ongoing struggles we – and our colleagues in schools and other educational spaces – experience.[18]

However, the work of assigning meaning and significance to things is also fraught with difficulty. There is an assumption in much educational research that the world (in our case schools, teachers, learning, teaching) is finite and constituted of stable categories from which abstractions and conceptual knowledge can be confidently derived. I admit that this is a simplistic interpretation of research, but for the purposes of my discussion, it does point to the "gap" identified by Ricoeur.[19] And with this gap, ideology can become negative – or even dysfunctional – when research, policy prescriptions, and programmatic justifications become negligent of lived experiences, or when the language we use is either insufficient in understanding historical and cultural change; as the legal philosopher Cora Diamond (1988) notes about "losing your concepts", a phenomena describing a gap between understanding and historical change: "Certain concepts require for their content or intelligibility background

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understanding to the role and positioning of teacher education and raising and elaborating especially the nature of pedagogy involved in the preparation of teachers. My reservations would be with regard with what I see as still privileging the expertise of teacher educators and maintaining a dualism inherent in pedagogy between experts and non-experts. Jacques Ranciere (1991) has described this kind of relationship as "enforced stultification" which he defines as the practice of pedagogy that maintains a division of the world in two: those who know and those who do not. I wonder if the hostility expressed sometimes to the academy by those in the "field" does not have its roots in the dualism Ranciere explores.

[18] Johnathan Lear (2006) has written about the necessity for concepts and knowledge that can reliably guide our lives and practices, and the devastation that results when concepts no longer make sense in altered historical conditions.

[19] Bent Flyvbjerg's (2001) critique of social science research based on the model of extracting abstract knowledge from empirical realities, stresses that this always leads to a misrepresentation of the dynamic, contingent and complex qualities of the life world, and neglectful of the meanings that participants create within that world. He argues for research that is much more context specific and sensitive and oriented to supporting practical reasoning.

conditions which are no longer fulfilled. So…we go on using the old words, but the words can no longer carry their old significance" (p. 257).

In speaking to the "gap" then, I will identify some key sources of tension from an ideological perspective – that is to say, to raise questions about the adequacy and limitations of our language and thinking about aspects of teacher education. The first has to do with how we construe the "world" and for what kind of world we are preparing our students, future teachers. If the world is always "out of joint" and it is a problematic venture at best to educate for a world that is "worldless", then in relation to field experience programs we need to ask to what extent student teachers may develop an understanding of teaching other than simply what counts as the (assumed) norms for practice in schools and classrooms. This is a central problem for teachers working in schools with children as well. That is to say, if the whole notion of preparing children for a world is one necessarily engaged with questions of purpose and ethics, then how ought we (teacher educators) stand in relation to schools as we prepare teachers for future practice? And in this context, what do we mean by *preparation*, for what, and how do we construe the meaning of *experience* in "field experience"?[20]

The second ideological gap is that in the notion of practice itself, and what properly constitutes teaching practice. As I alluded to earlier, the program in which I worked attempted to develop a notion of teaching practice as being a form of practical wisdom, and what Joseph Dunne (1993) emphasized as a form of practice that is bound up in complex ways with social contexts and relationships. One of the interesting terms of the dialogue between Dunne and MacIntyre, referred to earlier, is whether teaching can be considered a practice at all, that is practice in the sense of the Aristotlean notion of *phronesis*. For Dunne, teaching is (or ought to be understood as) a practice in the Aristotlean sense of phronesis,[21] as an activity that needs to be thoughtfully carried out in relation to learners and within particular contexts.

For MacIntyre, teaching is itself not a practice, but a kind of mediation of many practices (for example the practice of teaching mathematics or history, or early childhood, which are specific in terms of their pedagogies and knowledge required). This can still be construed as what I would call a relatively rich ontology of teaching or being a teacher, but significant for my discussion here, it places more universal knowledge in a different relation to practice(s) than does Dunne's evocation of teaching as phronesis.

Historically speaking, MacIntyre's conception of teaching as a set of practices rather than a practice reflects the structure and content of teacher education programs, almost universally

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[20] Here I introduce "experience" as one of the necessary terms requiring further exploration. There is a rich literature to guide reflection on the meaning of experience in relation to practice: I would cite particularly the work of Hans-Georg Gadamer and his problematizing of experience as something that we just do, or its reduction to merely technical acts. Relevant to my discussion here is that of language and the responsibility to develop experience as "an articulation of the world" and to encourage "a form of knowing that presents the missing other half of the truth, a truth that stands alongside the great monologue of the modern sciences" (Gadamer, (2007, p. 273). In the same volume there are two further essays which would be important for discussions about understanding experience and our relation to it in terms of developing language and understanding; Hermeneutics as practical philosophy (pp. 227-245); and Hermeneutics as a theoretical and practical task (pp. 246-265).

[21] Emphasizing the phronetic quality of teaching, Dunne writes, "The crucial thing about phronesis…is its attunement of the universal knowledge and the techniques to the particular occasion, so that they are deployed in relation to 'right person, to the right extent, at the right time, with the right aim, and in the right way'" (*1993,* p. 368).

similar across jurisdictions.[22] When we look at the curricula and programs of study, what may be concluded is that student teachers experience becoming a teacher through a set of fragmented encounters with different forms of knowledge and pedagogies (as reflected in courses related to curriculum and instruction, foundations, psychology, and more lately the application of new technologies).[23] Practica or field experiences are another "piece" of the whole, and as several of the ensuing articles suggest, often poorly integrated into a more coherent sense of program and of learning about teaching.

To refer to this then as a problem of ideology, Ricoeur (1991b) refers to a disjuncture in the way that practice is conceived in theoretical, more universal terms (but also with the question of what forms of knowing underlies those conceptions) and how practice is lived and experienced in the everyday). If for example, our language of teacher education, curriculum, the lives of students and teachers does not invite understandings of what exits – the way things are – in practicum situations, then there is a gap in ideological terms: either a failure of language or a distortion of what is experienced. What that implies for research and the work of teacher education in relation to schools is a different engagement with the meaning of practice. Such an engagement points to questions of what supports understandings of practice and how it can more fully be experienced as not just a set of techniques, but also as a way of being, or an ontology. As Ricoeur suggests, such work would exemplify the positive function of ideology, which is to provide integrative possibilities for "theory and practice" as the gap is commonly identified.

When experience of practice is only that of technique[24], then it does not allow for the development of practical wisdom, or a view of teaching that can hold things together, to allow for what Ricoeur counsels as the necessity to link means and ends in justifiably purposeful ways. What further acerbates this ideological gap is that in current university-based teacher education programs, the emphasis on research – and research conceived in the model of

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[22] A good overview of research on teacher education programs is that of Zeichner and Conklin (2005).

[23] Even though in the program at the University of Calgary there was an explicit attempt to move away from the paradigm of distinct courses, there was nonetheless the pressure to always add "content" to the program through additional lectures, workshops, and indeed courses. For example, pressures from certification authorities, changes in provincial curricula, certain demands from schools and boards, led to finding ways to add content on special education, Aboriginal education, assessment and technology, English as a second language, dealing with cultural diversity, just to name the most urgent areas. While all these issues are undeniably critically important for the education of teachers, my assessment is that they contributed to a greater sense of fragmentary knowing, sometimes resistance from students, and highlights the question that MacIntyre and Dunne debate, namely, what is the overall sense of practice that can sustain teachers in dealing with the kinds of complexity that they encountered in their field experiences?

[24] I am using the word "technique" here to describe a particular notion of teaching that sees practice as the application of theory *to* practice, as oriented to production (e.g., good test results, good classroom management), and reduces teaching to a skillful application of methods. Teaching as technique is especially oriented to a sense of control and a narrowly oriented to pre-determined outcomes. But as Joseph Dunne argues in his defense of teaching as practical judgement, "the technicist mode [only] gives the illusion bringing everything under control: it confines the teacher's attention within the technical frame" (1993, p. 367). As Dunne further argues, the emphasis on technique serves to create even great distance from or aversion to the very factors that make teaching and learning possible: contexts, subjectivities, and the relational conditions central to pedagogy.

science – leads to what Gadamer suggests is a greater gap between the actualities of lived experience and more universal notions of what constitutes [research-legitimated] knowledge, and occludes what Gadamer names as "a form of knowing that presents the missing other half of the truth" (2007a, p. 273). Research as ideology (that is, as the "science of practice") then, does not in intention or application, become practical reason. The ability to reason well in relation to others and in context opens up the positive functions of ideology in enhancing language and creating meaningful experience.

This brings me to what Ricoeur calls the counterpart to ideology, utopia. Utopia is offered in hermeneutic terms as both limiting and productive of possibility and necessarily caught up with language and how we assign meaning to things. Referring back to Arendt's language of worldlessness and the difficulty, if not impossibility of teaching for a world that is "out of joint", utopian possibilities lurk in both the limitations of given situations, and what those situations also offer as glimpses into what is possible. Ricoeur (1991) puts it provocatively, I think:

> The shadow of the forces capable of shattering a given order is already the shadow of an alternative order that could be opposed to the given order. It is the function of utopia to give the force of discourse to this possibility. (p. 199)

Following Ricoeur's discussion, utopia provides necessary moments of "decentering", that "what decenters us [taking us from the given, the taken-for-granted (the limiting qualities of ideology)] is also what brings us back to ourselves…[and that] there is no movement toward full humanity which does not go beyond the given" (1991, p. 322). Like ideology, utopia also has positive and negative poles – positive when it allows for an imagined place of possibility, and negative or dysfunctional when, as Ricoeur suggests, it does not take us back to where we are.

The foregoing, to bring this introduction to a close, speaks to the aporia in teacher education and working well with and in field experiences and the necessary spaces of difficulty we encounter in our practices of teaching, research, and collaboration with others that mark our responsibilities as teacher educators. My reference to Ricoeur's discussion of ideology and utopia was to question how we negotiate the necessary spaces of difficulty, which I have referred to as aporia. Such spaces suggest possibilities for the play between what is given, with which we must necessarily cope, and the necessity to keep open what might be different in pursuit of desirable ends and outcomes. To cite Ricoeur (1991) once more:

> This interplay of ideology and utopia appears as the interplay of the two fundamental directions of the social imagination. The first tends towards integration, repetition, and a mirroring of the given order. The second tends to disintegration because it is eccentric. But the one cannot work without the other. (p. 323)

Despite the forlornness I cited by MacIntyre earlier, Ricoeur's ideas about living the responsibility of social imagination and Gadamer's invitation to discover truth in relation to others and within our historical frames suggest a way to live more hopefully in spaces – the aporia – of teacher education. We can take up field experiences, echoing the focus of this monograph, as an immutable given or a space to take up possibility. So when our students and

partner teachers claim the primacy of field experiences over what we offer in on-campus programs, that can be received as negligent of theory, or a provocative question for our common theorizing. Such a question provides an imperative to examine our language(s) and concepts and how we understand teaching practice, for example, as aligned to or distant from our research formulations. Ricoeur's notion of the relation between ideology and utopia, the necessary aporia that it presents (in Arendt's terms always caught between the past and future) suggest that in part at least, our work as teacher educators is to inquire into the conditions that limit or enhance possibilities for practical reason.

I would suggest that such forms of thinking require courage and imagination in our work as teacher educators. I will conclude with a brief reference to Jonathan Lear's book *Radical Hope* (2006). Lear starts with a statement by Plenty Coups, the Chief of the Crow First Nation when they suffered defeat, the loss of their livelihood and culture in the late 19th century. Lear cites Plenty Coup saying that after the defeat by colonizing forces: "after this, there was nothing left to do" (Lear, 2006, p. 1). Lear asks what this statement could possibly mean, and how it reflected a profound loss of hope. He argues that hopelessness arises when commonplace languages, practices and concepts we know are no longer sustained by the actual conditions of our living, when they no longer make sense. Re-thinking our concepts, and finding ways to meaningfully relate those to practices, he argues, occasion radical hope. Interestingly and relevant to the argument I have been making in this introduction, Lear characterizes the practice as radical hope as that of requiring practical reasoning, and the exercise of "virtues" such as courage and imagination.

To end my discussion, I refer back to the earlier discussion in the paper: the challenges posed by Arendt's concerns about the difficulties of preparing our students for a world, and the further constraints posed by the historical conditions in which we find ourselves today. A challenge for helping our students find hope through teacher education lies in the effort to begin to make sense in the places where they encounter teachers and children. Schools may not always be the way we would like them to be, but they are places where teachers and children dwell together, suffer together, and even against the tide, create wonderful experiences of learning together. While in teacher education we are wont to rush into new methods, new programs and the production of more research, teacher education and the programs we need, need to, critically I think, focus on what Alain Badiou (2008) calls "the conditions of existence rather than just improving its methods" (p. 20).

Badiou's counsel is utopian because it asks us to think about what it means to live well and what that means in ethical and socially responsible ways, and particularly so in the contexts of failed or failing principles and narratives. But utopian thinking also needs to understand practice, to take us back to ourselves more fully and to build capacities for ongoing understanding. Perhaps that is where our work in the university begins, and how we begin to also dwell productively with others in the conduct of our diverse needs and responsibilities. To dwell in the aporia – living between the spaces of ideology and utopia – of teacher education practice, including field experiences is, then, to engage in inquiry with others "directed to a future goodness that transcends our current ability to understand what it is" (Lear, 2006, p. 103). To understand research in teacher education and field experiences programs as a call to responsibility, is to take up the world both as it presents itself but also to accept the task of its renewal and to conduct inquiry as reasoning together. In his eloquent defense of practice as practical reason, Gadamer (1989) provides a question we could apply to our work in field

experiences: "What is practice? Practice is conducting oneself and acting in solidarity. Solidarity, however, is the decisive condition and basis of all social reason" (p. 87).

To hark back to the title, field experiences can be perilous when they are only held as another part of a program, only a place to learn about teaching, only a place where you learn technique, and the place of "practice" rather than theory or knowing, and only a place where we as teacher educators see opportunities for our own research and programmatic changes. The peril is to fall prey to the immediate and to foreclose on other than technique and instrumentality. The promises lies in the joys and possibilities of creating knowledge, experiencing the fecundity of social reason, and generate glimmerings of what it means to take up responsibility for the world, as difficult and daunting as that sometimes may seem. In Arendtian terms, it is a challenge of practicing in the interest of enhanced human action, generating language for what is necessary, immanent, and celebratory of possibility and living well together in the world.

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Chapter 3

Working Within and Against Governance in Quebec: Understanding Competency Evaluation in the Field Placement

AVRIL AITKEN and ELIZABETH KREUGER

Changes in policy in the province of Quebec have aligned educational purposes and practices with the neo-liberal agendas that are increasingly rooted elsewhere in North America. While changes have created new opportunities for program redesign in faculties and schools of education, the prescribed use of a competency-based approach limits the possibility of program diversity. Competency evaluation tools have been developed by faculty members for field placements, however to use the tools as intended by the designers, users must be aware of how the concept of competency has evolved. They must understand the factors that contribute to competency development, including the role of reflection and the need for ongoing formative feedback. Research carried out in one school of education in Quebec shows that associate teachers and supervisors require professional development on the new evaluation practices.

In the last decade the Government of Quebec has undertaken educational reforms that align provincial policies with the neo-liberal agendas that are taking hold elsewhere (Lenoir 2003; Lessard & Brassard, 2005). Among the new conditions for accreditation of teacher education programs is the requirement that the programs, individual courses, and evaluation tools and practices are structured in reference to a framework of twelve professional competencies. This paper explores some of the issues related to the evaluation of professional competencies in field placements.

The paper begins with a brief reflection on governance in the Quebec context and the response of Bishop's School of Education. This is followed by a reflection on the concept of competency and teacher professional competency in Quebec. The third section looks at two issues, which became evident through a research process carried out in 2008-2009, related to competency evaluation in the field placements. The final section looks at future directions for Bishop's School of Education regarding one of theses issues, associate teacher and supervisor perceptions.

© Authors. T. Falkenberg & H. Smits (Eds.). (2010). *Field experiences in the context of reform of Canadian teacher education programs* (2 vols., pp. 67-78). Winnipeg, MB: Faculty of Education of the University of Manitoba.

Teacher Education in the Quebec Context

In the last fifty years, Quebeckers have seen three educational reforms, the latest of which includes a range of initiatives including curriculum change and harmonization between the "goals of society" and objectives of all educational institutions, including the universities (Ministère de l'Éducation, 1997). The recent reforms move educational purposes and practices in Quebec closer to the instrumental and pragmatic approaches that are becoming prevalent in North America (Lenoir, 2003). In Quebec, this includes "centralization of financing, curriculum and assessments" and governance shaped by "participatory community-based democracy" (Lessard & Brassard, 2005).

One feature of the changing landscape of educational governance is the official recognition in the Education Act of a regulatory body responsible for monitoring and accreditation of programs leading to teacher certification. The creation of the Comité d'agrément des programmes de formation à l'enseignement (CAPFE) was followed by the release of a set of guidelines for universities, entitled "Teacher training: Orientations, Professional Competencies" (Ministère de l'Éducation, 2001). The guidelines describe twelve "core competencies," exit profiles, and orientations for teacher training in the province. Universities and schools of education can define the means through which they address the prescribed orientations, competencies, and exit profiles. Once accreditation is granted, the CAPFE monitors the programs and extends the period of accreditation based on certain criteria. In the most recent three-year period of follow-up, the CAPFE prioritized four criteria, one of which was "the organization of teacher education practicums in relation to the attainment of competencies (e.g. coordination with schools, education for cooperating teachers, evaluation grids)" (CAPFE, 2006, np).

While the use of competencies in teacher education programs is not unheard of in North America, Quebec has also followed the current movement toward competency-based programs common in French speaking countries in the European Union. Thus, in Quebec a competency-based curriculum is in place in elementary and secondary schools where students are assessed on the development of subject specific and cross-curricular competencies (Ministère de l'Éducation, 2007). In keeping with the trend toward competency-based approaches, a framework of competencies for associate teachers and supervisors who work with pre-service teachers was released (Portelance, Gervais, Lessard & Beaulieu, 2008). Thus, one of the defining features of governance structures in the province is the use of a competency-based approach at multiple levels.

Significant dilemmas have arisen in connection with implementation of the new curriculum in the elementary and secondary schools and resistance has been observed across the province. Competency evaluation and reporting are proving to be among the key areas of concern and changing policy (Henchey, 2007; Potvin & Dion, 2007). Issues arising may well be linked to the differing ways that the concept of competency is understood among those implicated or interested in the educational reforms, such as teachers, school administrators and parents.

Faculties and Schools of Education charged with preparation and certification of teachers are facing similar dilemmas related to competency. The literature shows that educational researchers across the province have begun to explore some of the many

implications of the use of a competency-based approach in teacher education (Correa Molina, 2008; Gervais, 2008; Guillemette & Gauthier, 2008; Portelance, 2008).

The Bishop's University Response to Changing Governance in Teacher Education

In response to Ministry requirements, faculty members of the School of Education have engaged in a multi-year process of building a conceptual framework for the program offered at Bishop's (Kingsley, Aitken, Beauchamp, Bures, Millington, & Orzechows, 2009). The work has involved a reimagining of what a pre-service program might be and how the work of all partners might be integrated. While features of the twelve professional competencies such as reflection and critical stance are evident, the working model is not defined by the competencies. The process, instead, has involved faculty members in reading and reflecting on current shifts in teacher education internationally and considering the principles in the ACDE (2006) Accord on Initial Teacher Education. One feature of the work that has been undertaken is the creation of outcome statements for each of the four years of the program. The final outcome statement reads, "The graduating teachers recognize teaching as an intellectual pursuit; demonstrating the qualities of responsible and autonomous practitioners who show a capacity of ongoing critical reflection, potential for leadership, and commitment to the transformative power of education" (Kingsley et al., 2009).

In connection with the ongoing efforts to design the program, individuals have experimented with integration of student-driven action research, collaborative teaching of courses, field experiences embedded within courses, the use of authentic tasks, the creation of electronic learning communities, collaboration with schools across the province, student-directed professional interviews at multiple levels, and the collaborative development and piloting of tools for evaluating teacher competency in the university setting and field placement. These initiatives have lead to collaborative research, writing, and presentations.

It might be claimed that our response to the increasing pressure toward the standardization that is inherent in neo-liberal models is to actively create a unique identity for the program at Bishop's. This includes an emphasis on our shared belief that teaching is an intellectual act and that education has the power to transform. As Grimmett, Fleming and Trotter (2009) point out, there is some irony that a high degree of engagement in the reform of program responds to new governance requirements, yet simultaneously creates conditions through which such governance can be challenged. As such, we work within and against the new structures; this includes our efforts to ensure that we pay particular attention to how the concept of professional competency is understood by all partners.

The Concept of Competency

An evolution in the meanings of competence and competency has taken place over the last fifty years. An earlier and somewhat pervasive use of the term "competency" is connected to the notion that it is "the quality separating competent professionals from incompetent or mediocre ones. From this perspective, competence is taken as a global trait inherent to the action of a person or professional group which is subject to third party judgement" (Esteves,

2009, p. 33). This use of the term competency is often associated with an acquired skill set and/or knowledge base, and may be rooted in behaviorism or scientific and technical rationality. From this perspective, teachers' "work and their worth become broken down and categorized into checklists of performance standards" (Hargreaves, 2000, p. 151 – 152). The practice of competency evaluation from such a point of view would involve attention to isolated behaviors and knowledge; it might also involve evaluation prior to being in action in a professional situation (Esteves, 2009; Ministère de l'Éducation, 2001).

Esteves (2009) distinguishes between the above sense of competency and the one put forward by Jonnaert (2002), Lafortune (2009), and Peyser, Gerard and Roegiers (2006). The latter describe competency as "the spontaneous mobilization of a set of resources in order to apprehend a situation and respond to it in a more or less relevant way" (Peyser, Gerard & Roegiers, 2006, p. 37). From such a perspective, the emphasis for teacher educators is on the ongoing development of professional competency. Lafortune (2009), who, like Jonnaert, takes a socioconstructivist perspective, writes that "competency development is stimulated by cognitive dissonance and difficulties that instill doubt, raise questions, and encourage experimentation. It is an action-based process and leads to autonomy" (p. 165). Peyser, Gerard and Roegiers (2006) suggest that this sense of competency – as effective, autonomous action in diverse complex situations – is now commonly accepted. However, we would say that these authors cite literature drawn from the European Union rather than North America; additionally, our experience has been that such a perspective on competency is not part of the prevailing discourse among teacher educators outside of the province.

Significantly, Ministry of Education documentation for teacher education in Quebec aligns with the definition offered by Peyser, Gerard and Roegiers (2006). For example, the framework for teacher educators states that teacher professional competency "is based on the ability to mobilize resources in situations requiring professional action; involves a successful, effective, efficient, recurrent ability to act; is part of intentional practice; and is a project, an ongoing pursuit" (Ministère de l'Éducation, 2001, p. 45). Thus, in official government documentation in Quebec, competency is associated with strategic use of resources in "work contexts and situations [which] are characterised by the undetermined, uncertainty, often urgency and always by the need to find answers that have some level of originality as regards what is already known and what has already been done" (Esteves, 2009, p. 39).

Teacher Professional Competencies in Quebec

Table 1 (below) provides an example of how Quebec's professional competencies are presented. The table includes sample competency statements and mastery levels for four of the twelve competencies.

Each of the twelve competencies is further defined by up to eight features (Ministère de l'Éducation, 2001). For example, one feature of Competency 1 is, "Transforms the classroom into a cultural base open to a range of different viewpoints within a common space" (p. 58). It is acknowledged that the best place to assess the development of the competencies will be the professional placement, but it is understood that skills can be acquired and knowledge can be constructed in a full range of contexts, including the university classroom.

Competencies	***Levels of Mastery*** ***By the end of his or her initial training, the student teacher should be able to:***
FOUNDATIONS (Competencies 1-2) Competency 1. To act as a professional inheritor, critic and interpreter of knowledge or culture when teaching students.	✓ Understand the subject-specific and program specific knowledge to be taught, so as to promote the creation of meaningful links by the students; ✓ Exhibit a critical understanding of his or her cultural development and be aware of its potential and limitations; ✓ Exhibit a critical understanding of the knowledge to be taught so as to promote the creation of meaningful links by the students; ✓ Establish links with the students' culture in the proposed learning activities
TEACHING ACT (Competencies 3-6) Competency 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 program of study.	✓ Develop appropriate and varied teaching/learning situations involving a reasonable level of complexity that enable students to progress in the development of their competencies ✓ Build these activities into a long-term plan
SOCIAL AND EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT (Competencies 7-10) Competency 7. To adapt his or her teaching to the needs and characteristics of students with disabilities, maladjustments or handicaps.	✓ Cooperate in the development and implementation of individualized education plans designed for students under his or her responsibility;
PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY (Competencies 11-12) Competency 11 .To engage in professional development individually and with others.	✓ Identify, understand and use available resources (research reports and professional literature, pedagogical networks, professional associations, data banks) related to teaching; ✓ Indentify his or her strengths and limitations along with his or her personal objectives and the means of achieving them; ✓ Engage in rigorous reflexive analysis on specific aspects of his or her teaching; ✓ Undertake research projects related to specific aspects of his or her teaching.

Table 1: MELS Teacher Professional Competencies (Ministère de l'Éducation, 2001, p. 123-143)

Competency Evaluation

The Ministry's perspective on competency has significant implications for the competency evaluation process as the policy documents indicate (Ministère de l'Éducation, 2003; 2005):

- There are two purposes and processes for evaluation: evaluation to support learning and evaluation to recognize the development of competency.
- Decisions must be made based on multiple data sources systematically gathered in a range of contexts in which competencies are being demonstrated.

Lafortune (2005) clarifies why multiple sources of data are necessary; drawing on Scallon (2004), she explains that attention needs to be paid to the actions taken, that is, mobilization of resources in multiple situations, as different situations will require new ways of using resources. Thus, evidence of discrete skill or of decontextualized knowledge would not be considered – on its own – a demonstration of competency.

Competency Evaluation in the Field Placements at Bishop's University

Table 2 (below) provides some of the features of the field placements pertinent to the evaluation process. Specific details regarding the third and fourth year placements are described in the section that follows, as evaluation in these years is the focus of this paper.

	Year 1	***Year 2***	***Year 3***	***Year 4***
Timing	Fall Semester	Fall and Winter Semester	Winter Semester	Winter Semester
Duration	5 half days	½ day weekly, for 20 weeks	6 weeks	13 weeks
Student Role	Observe, reflect and question.	Observe, work with students in small groups, and begin teaching and reflecting on lessons; collaborate with associate teacher; progressively increase responsibility for lesson design.	Assume a minimum of a 60% workload; collaborate with colleagues; design and implement one or more learning and evaluation situations [unit plans].	Assume a minimum of an 80% workload; design and implement a series of learning and evaluation situations [sequence of units linking student competency development]; collaborate with the community; take responsibility for evaluation and reporting.
Competencies Targeted for Assessment	N/A	Seven of twelve competencies	All twelve competencies	All twelve competencies

Associate Teacher Role	Model	Mentor Evaluate 2 times	Mentor Evaluate 3 times	Mentor Evaluate 4 times
Supervisor Role		Mentor Evaluate 1 time	Evaluate 3 times	Evaluate 4 times

Table 2: Competency Evaluation in the Field Placements

Evaluation forms for the third and fourth year field placements were designed by a faculty team during a series of meetings that took place before the 2008-2009 placements began. The twelve competencies are represented on the forms however several descriptive statements are provided for each competency. There is space to write comments or questions under the descriptive statements. Such remarks may or may not be entered under each statement, depending on the discretion of the user.

The forms are structured such that feedback can be written on the same form more than once, so that the users can easily refer to prior remarks. The form also includes a 12-point continuum for each of the competencies; the continuum represents a range of possible demonstrations of competency – from does not meet expectations (at this point in the placement) to exceeds expectations. A mark can be placed on the continuum when each evaluation is carried out. Space is provided at the end of the form for a final judgment upon completion of the field placement. For students in the six-week [3rd year] field placement, the form is submitted three times by both associate teacher and supervisor. Students in the thirteen-week [4th year] field placement are evaluated four times by supervisors and associate teachers. In 2008-2009, students did not use the tool for self-evaluation; this is anticipated for 2010, however.

Initial Research on Competency Evaluation in the Field Placement

In 2008-2009 the field placement experiences of students, associate teachers, supervisors and school administrators were explored (Kreuger, 2009). Data were collected before, during and after all of the field placements in the following forms: detailed notes from group and individual interviews, individual and collective written reflections, and competency evaluation forms. The following section explores issues that emerged through the research process in connection to competency development and evaluation.

Issues Emerging: Student Perceptions.

Student teachers were asked before the field placement if they understood "what success would look like," that is, what appropriate competency development would look like at that point in their education. Kreuger (2009) reports that fewer 3rd year secondary student teachers than elementary student teachers claimed to have an understanding (20% of high school versus 53% of elementary). In addition, when asked if they were prepared to reflect on their practice and participate in the professional dialogue about their competency development with their associate teachers and supervisors, 65% of the high school student teachers responded positively, compared to 89.5% of the elementary teachers. This raises important questions for

the faculty members. Are these differences in student perceptions due to the structure of the program? Are third year elementary student teachers entering their field placement better equipped than their high school counterparts? What is contributing to differences in levels of general confidence? Is it possible to identify the specific actions that can be taken by professors and students to better ensure students feel prepared and equipped to speak about their own competency development?

Issues Emerging: Associate Teacher and Supervisor Perceptions.

There was a high degree of concordance among associate teachers' and supervisors' judgments of the general overall strengths of Bishop's students. There was some agreement in general on third year student teachers' weaknesses, one of which was students' abilities to organize the classroom for learning (Competency 6). Notably, this was also the area of greatest student apprehension prior to the placement. The question of how to assist students – in a university setting – to develop this competency remains an issue of concern for professors. Significantly, the Ministry documents indicate that this competency is developed over much time and that the demands of the new curriculum have an impact on what it means to organize a class for learning (Ministère de l'Éducation, 2001). A problem may therefore lie in how evaluators define success with this competency for pre-service teachers at this point in their education. An additional issue is that students appear to be successful with some features of Competency 6 (rapport and respect), while struggling with others (management of the class) (Ministère de l'Éducation, 2001, p. 133). This sheds light on a potential problem area related to reporting on the development of Competency 6. We question whether competency is being evaluated if the evaluation form requires evaluators to comment on specific and discrete features of the competency. Further, we wonder if evaluators are basing their judgments on isolated features or on overall development of the competency.

In all of the data sets for all students (including 2nd year), there were differences between the supervisors' and associate teachers' perceptions and judgments of individual students.[1] In five of the six sets, the 2nd year high school group set being the exception, the associate teachers judged the student teachers to have a greater degree of competency development than attributed by the supervisors. In the 3rd and 4th year data, the pairs of evaluators had 100% agreement on students who did not meet expectations. However, there was only 43% agreement between supervisor and associate teachers on students who exceeded expectations (Kreuger, 2009). Again, it appears that "success" is not well defined.

Future Directions for Bishop's School of Education

The current dialogue in the School of Education regarding redesign of the program is providing many opportunities to discuss student perceptions and how the program is [or is not] contributing to their preparedness. Recent initiatives have been put in place to involve students more actively in their own assessment. This includes finding ways to assist students to know "what success looks like" and to know how to monitor their own competency

[1] The six data sets included an associate teacher set for each of three groups [2nd, 3rd and 4th year field placement] as well as supervisor data sets for the same three groups.

development. Thus, some of the issues that have arisen in 2008-2009 are in the process of being addressed. There are other issues that will require an alternate approach, notably those that relate to

- the divergence in judgment between associate teachers and supervisors working with the same pre-service teachers;
- the lack of precision regarding what constitutes meeting or exceeding expectations over the course of the three years, for each of the twelve competencies.

What the Literature Indicates

Current work on evaluation of pre-service teachers in field placements is providing some paths for our reflection. Given that teacher educators in the province of Quebec are working with a competency-based program associated with a socioconstructivist perspective, the associate teachers and supervisors must have a similar understanding of competency development and evaluation. Additionally, Guillemette and Gauthier (2008) underline that competency development requires reflection in action, on action and for action. Thus, the dialogue between the evaluator and the pre-service teacher must explicitly focus on and include feedback on the reflection process. Significantly, the responsibility of the associate teacher and supervisor to help the student reflect critically on his or her practice is one of the associate teacher and supervisor competencies in the recently released frameworks for these two groups (Portelance, Gervais, Lessard & Beaulieu, 2008). Additionally, students must receive formative feedback that is directed at development of the specific teacher professional competency (Ministère de l'Éducation, 2003). That is, dialogue must foster reflection, and the feedback must be informative to learner, "to help the student teacher gain insight into performance so that it is valuable to his or her professional growth" (Tilemma, 2009, p. 156). Increasing evaluator understanding of the how to best use written feedback to support student learning and adjustments is also essential, particularly if such feedback is going to be used as data in forming a judgment at a later point. That is, competency evaluation requires data gathering over time for the purpose of a later judgment on the development of the competency (Lafortune, 2005; Ministère de l'Éducation, 2005).

Perceptions of Success

Tilemma (2009) writes that there can be "considerable variation in purposes and multiple perspectives in criteria among the different assessors" (p. 155). Different evaluators may have different views on what are standards of quality. While multiple perspectives may benefit the student, that may not always be the case. Tilemma and Smith (2009) indicate that ensuring clarity about criteria and aligning perspectives among multiples evaluators will lead to a shared set of standards. Tang, Cheng and So (2006) suggest that dialogue among assessors and the use of exemplars would be pertinent. These authors explored the need for student involvement through development of a detailed "progress map" which explicitly outlines levels of attainment of the designated standards. It is designed for self-evaluation or formative assessment. The authors indicate that, "the concept 'learner ownership in assessment' involved

supervisors' changes in perceptions and actions taken in the field experience assessment process" (p. 235).

Perceptions of Role

It appears that associate teachers may be more likely to see themselves as mentors, providing formative feedback, while outside supervisors may be more likely to judge performance. Portelance (2008) indicates that associate teachers must be viewed as guides, rather than models for the students. Additionally, Correa Molina (2008) writes that pre-service teachers benefit when supervisors see themselves as teamed with the associate teachers. Evaluating in triads, with students, associate teachers and supervisors in collaborative discussion may be an effective approach (Correa Molina, 2008; Tillema, 2009). It is clear that there is a need for associate teachers and supervisors to understand their role, given that they may not previously have evaluated competency.

Conclusion

Sweeping shifts in educational policy in the province of Quebec have created complex conditions in which teacher educators must operate. As Lessard and Brassard (2005) would suggest, at Bishop's we are "draw[ing] from the constraints imposed and the opportunities offered by the current governance in such a way as to adapt and save some fundamental education orientations and convictions" (2005, p. 24).

The use of a competency-based approach at all levels is among the significant challenges that we face. It influences the work of all involved in the field placements. While faculty members are fruitfully engaged in the redesign of a unique program, it is the associate teachers and supervisors that will engage with students in the field placements. While the newly released competencies for these two groups may contribute to defining professional development targets for those involved, we need to know the particular needs of the learners, in this case, the associate teachers and supervisors. As this paper demonstrates, we have begun to better understand those needs; the current challenges are to begin to conceive of the kind of professional development through which associate teachers' and supervisors' competencies would be developed, and to find an approach to do so, one that does not overburden faculty already grappling with the redesign of the program.[2]

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[2] Prior to the final revision of this text, a team of Faculty members of the School of Education of Bishop's received a MELS grant of $88,985 for a three-year collaborative action research and professional development project with associate teachers.

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Chapter 4

Voices from the Field: Associate Teachers and Teacher Candidates in Learning Conversations

KATHY BROAD and MARY LYNN TESSARO

How does engaging in professional dialogue and learning about feedback strategies affect the mentoring and teaching practices of associate (host) teachers? In exploring this question, four associate teachers and four teacher candidates were filmed while engaged in debriefing conversations following lessons during practice teaching sessions. After the initial filming, the associate teachers learned about additional strategies for providing feedback. These additional strategies included beginning the conversation with a scaling question, paraphrasing and selecting an area of focus for debriefing sessions. Then the teacher candidates' lessons and the post-lesson debriefing conversations, led by associate teachers, were filmed again. The associate teachers identified changes that occurred in their practice as a result of focusing on the processes and language used during feedback sessions. The teacher candidates indicated that their learning during the debriefing sessions was positively affected by the increased focus on feedback. Utilizing the digital resource compiled from this research may provide opportunities for additional associate teachers to engage in professional development regarding feedback strategies.

Introduction

In an effort to provide opportunities for teacher candidates to connect research and theory with practice, teacher education programs are usually comprised of university courses and in-school practicum experiences. These practicum (field) experiences are a central and relevant component of teacher preparation. Howey and Zimpher (1989) suggest that teacher education programs are "a set of courses and attendant field activities a prospective teacher must satisfactorily complete to obtain certification" (p. 243). Doyle (1990) and Zeichner and Conklin (2008) confirm that teacher education includes, among other areas, professional education in pedagogy, including a large component of fieldwork in school settings. Not only is fieldwork recognized as a significant component of teacher education, it is highly valued by teacher candidates, teacher educators and practicing teachers (McIntyre, Byrd, & Fox, 1996).

The fieldwork experience has traditionally brought together three individuals who are intended to work collaboratively in the pursuit of collective and individual learning about teaching: the teacher candidate, associate teacher and university supervisor (Guyton & McIntyre, 1990). This triad is an accepted grouping and deemed necessary in teacher education (Nguyen, 2009). Although crucial members of this triad, associate teachers tend to view their

© Authors. T. Falkenberg & H. Smits (Eds.). (2010). *Field experiences in the context of reform of Canadian teacher education programs* (2 vols., pp. 79-90). Winnipeg, MB: Faculty of Education of the University of Manitoba.

primary role as teachers responsible for the learning of the students in their charge in classrooms, and the education of teacher candidates as a secondary responsibility (McIntyre, Byrd, & Foxx, 1996). This is understandable as the demands of full-time teaching are considerable and agreeing to supervise a teacher candidate is clearly an additional layer of responsibility. The development of a positive and productive relationship between the associate teacher and teacher candidate has been seen as a significant factor in the development of knowledge and practice of teacher candidates during fieldwork experience (Knowles & Cole, 1996). Clarke and Collins (2006) explore the complexity of the system in which practice teaching occurs and particularly emphasize the complicated phenomenon that is supervision of field work.

There is general agreement, in the literature and the field, that the role of associate teacher is poorly defined and that often expectations are ambiguous and overlapping. Sanders, Dowson and Sinclair (2005) suggest that associate teachers play roles as varied as friend, counselor, model, planner, professional peer, conferencer and evaluator and do not necessarily feel equipped to carry out these varied functions effectively. Given that the role is not well defined, and that there is a lack of preparation for associate teachers, it appears that much of the discussion led by associate teachers tends to be concerned with the specifics of a particular classroom context. It seems much of the feedback given by associate teachers to teacher candidates tends to be focused on management of the classroom with direction-giving instructions tending to dominate (Knowles & Cole, 1996).

More recently, greater attention has been given to the role of associate teachers in scaffolding teacher candidates to reflect upon and assess their own practice and learning in order to make adjustments and adaptations to their instructional practice (Athanases & Achinstein, 2003; Feiman-Nemser, 2001a; Yendol-Hoppey, 2007). Tang and Chow (2007) and Feiman-Nemser (2001a) emphasize the importance of reflection in teacher candidates' practice, as the process engages higher level cognition and provides a sense of ownership over one's learning. Self-reflection and self-assessment also aid in setting personal goals and developmental targets for further growth. Clarke (2006) indicates that associate teachers also benefit from reflection on their interactions with teacher candidates in order to build metacognitive self awareness and to critically analyze their own practices as supervisors and mentors.

Crasborn, Hennissen, Brouwer, Korthagen, and Bergen (2008) analyzed videos to discover how explicit discussion and attention by associate teachers to the skills and language they used in supervisory conversations encouraged teacher candidates' reflection. Their results note an increased use of effective debriefing strategies, such as "starting with an open question, summarizing content, asking for concreteness, helping to make the thinking explicit and finding alternatives." (p. 507). Associate teachers moved from providing directive advice to engaging the teacher candidates in conversations centered around reflection of practice and concerns. Such change in associate teachers' approach to feedback allowed teacher candidates to reflect on their practice and the theories behind it, which, in turn, supported the professional growth of the candidates.

Feedback is intended to be "information with which a learner can confirm, add to, overwrite, tune or restructure information in memory, whether that information is domain knowledge, metacognitive knowledge, beliefs about self and task or cognitive tactics and strategies" (Winne & Butler, 1994, p. 5740). Thus, feedback can be viewed as being at the core of improving understanding and practice for teacher candidates. Effective feedback, offered

through intentional dialogue, is an important factor in helping teacher candidates build on their existing knowledge and develop and refine their teaching skills (Tang & Chow, 2007). In their meta- analyses, Hattie and Timperley (2007) and Shute (2008) found that carefully constructed and focused feedback that encourages learners to take ownership of their learning may assist in growth and development. Associate teachers should provide feedback that allows teacher candidates to explore any possible misunderstandings including ideas about learners, subject matter, and pedagogy present in their practice, collaboratively devise strategies for improvement, and feel comfortable in seeking guidance from associate teachers. Feedback can also be used to close existing gaps, provide learners with new challenges and deepen understanding of processes (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Tang & Chow, 2007). Feedback is, therefore, an essential component of associate teacher-teacher candidate discussions. However, Strong and Baron (2004) and Tang and Chow (2007) indicate that further research is needed on the impact of mentoring conversations. The "Voices from the Field" study, reported in this paper, continues that line of inquiry by focusing on specific feedback strategies and interventions and the use of dialogue to strengthen mentoring conversations. The effects of these strategies and conversations on the learning and practices of associate teachers and teacher candidates are then explored. The conceptual frame for this research study incorporates the triad model of supervision, the centrality of feedback and the use of video-based artifacts in developing reflective practice for teacher candidates, associate teachers and field supervisors.

The study was designed to explore the following central questions:

- How does engaging in dialogue and professional learning with colleagues about associate teaching and feedback practices affect the self-described mentoring competencies of associate teachers?
- How does the participation of teacher candidates in debriefing sessions with associate teachers who are using specific feedback strategies affect the teacher candidates' learning about reflective practice?

Data Collection

This project utilized a collaborative action research approach (Hubbard & Power, 2003; Sagor, 1993) combined with analysis of a study group (Carroll, 2005). Collaborative action research was deliberately selected in an effort to diminish the distance between teacher educators in the field and the academy and to increase the sense that the learning and study were shared by all participants. While issues of power and ownership in research studies are always present, the study was designed to follow the needs and interests of the associate teachers and candidates as participants who determined their areas of individual study and professional learning within the research framework. Four teacher candidates and four associate teachers were involved in this study. For the purposes of confidentiality, pseudonyms were assigned to all study participants. The teacher candidates, one male (Carlos) and three females (Tanya, Janet and Ellie) were completing their second four-week practice teaching session of a one-year teacher education program in an urban setting. Two junior-intermediate teacher candidates were team teaching in junior level classrooms in an elementary school. The two primary junior teacher

candidates were teaching in classrooms in a second elementary school. The four female associate teachers (Anna, Macy, Tisha and Joan) - had all been teaching for over seven years and had been in their present schools for more than two years. The first school is located in a priority neighbourhood where student mobility is high, with a breakfast program and other supports to address community poverty. The second school has an equally diverse student population, however socioeconomic status is generally higher within the school community.

Initial Data collection and filming debriefing session #1

Initial data were collected through voluntary and anonymous surveys distributed to a class of 60 teacher candidates which were then analyzed for patterns of response. Survey questions asked respondents to consider actions and supports that assisted them to learn and develop teaching practice during fieldwork. 53 surveys were returned. Categories of responses included: communication between associate teachers and teacher candidates, development of working relationships of candidates and associates, expectations of associate teachers and the teacher education program regarding the teaching practice of teacher candidates, quality and specificity of information provided regarding teaching practice, and freedom to experiment and take risks during fieldwork. The categories that emerged were then utilized in analysis of the filmed lessons, debriefing sessions, and focus group discussions (described below) using constant comparison (Punch, 2009).

The four associate teachers also completed a brief survey that inquired about their experiences and understanding regarding effective feedback and debriefing sessions. Then each associate teacher and teacher candidate pairing held separate initial debriefing sessions which were filmed. The four associate teachers and researchers then met as a group to watch and discuss the filmed sessions in order to raise the associate teachers' awareness of their current practices and use of feedback strategies in supervisory conversations. Both teacher candidates and associate teachers expressed a degree of apprehension and self consciousness about being filmed initially. However, they also indicated that this self awareness fostered meta-cognition. Crasborn et al. (2008) in a similarly designed study refer to their participants' reporting of "something like a dual cognitive task during dialogues" (p. 512) demonstrating a heightened degree of awareness of both planning and language.

Professional Development Learning

Following the filming and discussions of the initial debriefing sessions, the four associate teachers took part in a half-day professional learning workshop conducted by a school district program coordinator. The workshop was entitled "Focusing on the Learning Conversation" and its goals were to explore the fundamentals of listening, broaden the repertoire of mentoring strategies and approaches, and to have associate teacher participants intentionally share knowledge and practices. Within the umbrella of a "learning conversation", associate teacher participants reviewed the roles and stances of effective mentors using the framework outlined by Wellman and Lipton (2003) of associate teacher as consultant, collaborator, or coach. In this framework, intentional dialogue that is focused upon a range of strategies from more to less directive approaches is used. For example, in the consultant role the associate teacher would engage the teacher candidate by eliciting questions and areas of concern and then providing a range of potential strategies from which the teacher candidate can choose.

The coaching stance involves the associate teacher skillfully questioning the teacher candidate in order to draw upon the teacher candidate's personal experience and professional knowledge in determining next steps in response to a challenge in teaching practice. The collaborative stance involves the teacher candidate and associate teacher problem solving and drawing upon shared and individual funds of knowledge to address a teaching-related concern cooperatively. A similar framework regarding directive and non-directive mentoring was developed by Hennissen, Crasborn, Brouwer, Korthagen, and Bergen, 2008 following a large meta analysis of studies from 1990 – 2006.

Participants were introduced to the use of focused observation, as well as the use of scaling questions and paraphrasing as methods for engaging teacher candidates in reflection about their lessons. Focused observation requires the teacher candidate to reflect upon practice and identify a specific area on which feedback is desired. The associate teacher collects evidence regarding this area through observation and then utilizes this data to inform the supervisory conversation. Scaling questions (Bucknell, 2000) involve asking teacher candidates to rate the lesson that they taught, for example using a scale of 1 to 10. If the teacher candidate rates his or her lesson as a 7, the associate teacher would then ask the question, "What were the good things that made that lesson a 7?" After hearing the response, the associate teacher would then ask, "If you were to bump your lesson up a notch, say to an 8, what are some things you might consider doing to make it an 8?" Paraphrasing refers to the strategy of restating what the teacher candidate has said in order to clarify and check for understanding, to summarize and organize ideas expressed by the candidate or to emphasize underlying concepts, goals or assumptions. (Costa & Garmston, 2002),

Within the professional learning workshop, the components of effective listening were outlined, with an emphasis on paraphrasing. To develop skills in focused observation, each associate teacher chose a specific aspect of a filmed lesson to structure a very focused discussion with a colleague partner. Opportunities to practice listening and coaching skills were provided throughout the professional learning session. At the end of the session, each associate teacher selected one of the strategies they had learned to plan the specific next steps for implementation with their respective teacher candidates.

Filming Lessons and Debriefing Session #2

A second filming session included both the practice teaching lessons and the debriefing sessions. This filming took place after the summative evaluations had been completed to ensure that the evaluation of the teacher candidates was not influenced in any way by the study. The video provided opportunity for analysis and the development of metacognitive skills, while the debriefing session involved critical discussions of ways to structure meaningful, learning-focused conversations. Each associate teacher concentrated on using one of the strategies that had been introduced during the professional learning session (scaling questions, paraphrasing, focused observation). Each debriefing session was different, reflecting the different settings and areas of emphasis. At one school, Anna and Joan along with Carlos and Tanya were involved in the same debriefing session because they had co-taught a lesson in a team teaching situation. In that debriefing session, the associate teachers chose to introduce scaling questions. At the second site, Tisha concentrated on the use of paraphrasing, and Macy asked Janet to choose a focus for her observation.

The debriefing sessions and focus group sessions (described in the following section) were also analyzed and coded for themes. The themes were raised and shared with participants for validation and critique (Carroll, 2005; Punch, 2009). The themes were also captured in an edited digital resource that was developed from the research.

Filming Reflective Conversations during Focus Groups

The filmed debriefing sessions of the group were a data source for shared inquiry by associate teachers and researchers. The four associate teachers and the four teacher candidates attended separate filmed focus group sessions. Firstly, each group independently viewed the video of the lessons and debriefing sessions. Then each group was filmed participating in a focus group discussion in which they reflected on their learning and the experience of being filmed. During their focus group, the associate teachers were asked to consider the importance of their role as mentors to teacher candidates, and then reflect on the various learning-focused conversation strategies (i.e., scaling questions, focused observation, paraphrasing) that they had examined and tested during the professional learning and debriefing sessions.

In their focus group, the teacher candidates were asked to reflect on the methods that their respective associate teachers had used when debriefing their lessons and also on their feelings and experiences during these sessions. Rich data were generated through the discussion of the associate teachers who inquired into their own practices and shared their challenges and successes related to their mentoring conversations. The collected data is a direct result of the willingness of both the associate teachers and teacher candidates to de-privatize their practice, sharing their strengths and their questions.

Findings

The associate teachers involved in this study were able to identify how their perspectives, skills, and actions had changed through their experiencing professional learning and being metacognitive about their practice as teachers and mentors. Their experiences of being filmed also assisted them to be more conscious and aware of their actions. Shared video viewing shows promise as a tool to enhance reflection and inform the feedback conversation between associate teachers and teacher candidates (Sewall, 2009). The impacts of this study on associate teachers and teacher candidates are discussed in the following sections.

Associate Teachers

The four associate teachers stated that their practices as both associate and classroom teachers had been refined through participation in the professional learning session and the filming experience. They noted that shifting the focus of the conversation to the needs and direction of the teacher candidate was a clear theme. In two cases, the use of scaling questions assisted the associate teachers in focusing upon the teacher candidates' perceptions and needs. As Joan commented:

> We used the scaling question … it gave us a sense of whether or not we were on the same page with our teacher candidate. It allowed everything to flow nicely

> afterwards … it allowed the teacher candidate to give a lot more input into the whole debriefing and gave them more ownership of their own work and how they could improve upon it.

Anna indicated that, by asking the teacher candidate to identify the area for a focused observation, it was possible to reduce the amount of feedback to a more manageable amount and focus it on a targeted area of need and interest. According to her, the process is incredibly powerful:

> I had Carlos put a focus right on his lesson. Instead of spending little chunks of time on lots of things we were able to spend quality time on one thing that he was really concerned about. Actually, it really helped for the second practicum for me and for my student teacher.

Paraphrasing was another strategy that assisted the associate teachers in empowering the teacher candidates to unpack their own thinking and problem solve collaboratively with the associate teacher. It also dramatically altered Macy's communication style:

> Paraphrasing was definitely something I wanted to focus on. I knew all of the components of being a good listener, but, in my head, there were so many things going on. I could not be a good listener because I was planning what I wanted to say. Did I paraphrase? Did I pause … did I do all of those things? I realized I needed to relax. The second debriefing session was much easier. I really was taking my cues from [my teacher candidate] because she was leading me down the path or I was leading her down the path where we both wanted to go. We naturally went there, and it became more meaningful because it came from her; it was not from me. She realized it, she will remember it, she will implement it … not because her associate teacher told her, but because she figured it out herself.

The associate teachers indicated that the opportunity they had to dialogue and think critically and metacognitively about their practice was extremely valuable and altered their practice not only as associate teachers but also as classroom teachers. They indicated that paraphrasing and asking scaling questions are helpful instructional strategies for encouraging problem solving and goal setting for students as well. They mentioned that they wanted to revisit some earlier debriefing conversations to change them based upon their learning. They also suggested that the process of being filmed both heightened self-awareness and also provided rich opportunities to consider language and interaction and the power of questions, words, and listening.

Teacher Candidates

The themes that arose during the conversations with the four teacher candidates included: provision of regular, immediate, focused feedback, asking first for the opinion and evaluative comments of the teacher candidate e.g. "how do you think the lesson went?", and providing both positive and constructive feedback. According to evidence from the focus group with the four teacher candidates, the candidates valued: being asked to reflect upon their lessons, having associate teachers who are positive and encouraging, being provided with specific feedback on

an area that they had identified within their own practice, and having feedback immediately after the lesson. Janet and Carlos also stressed that constructive suggestions for growth were appreciated.

Evidence of impact on the teacher candidates' understanding of their professional learning process and teaching practice was clear in the focus group discussion. They explained that they had become more metacognitive and critically reflective about their pedagogy. According to Ellie:

> The debriefing session made me reflect back - What did I do well and not do well? How do I feel about my lesson? How do I feel I performed? I thought that really made a difference - it really made me reflect.

Tanya and Janet said that the use of scaling questions strongly impacted their reflection on lessons. Tanya described how the scaling questions furthered thinking:

> It actually really helps you reflect by asking that question because you have to think about why. If I said I gave my lesson a 6, she would ask what made it a 6? I can't just give myself a number and not explain why.

Janet began to use the scaling questions in an even more sophisticated way, as she made a distinction between the rating of her own teaching practice and the rating of the effect of her teaching on the students' learning:

> I found myself needing to give two different ratings. I felt that I gave this lesson an 8 out of 10 in effort, but I felt like the student response to me was a 7. How do I bring the students up to where I feel the lesson was an 8? I found I needed to differentiate the two. I could feel like a lesson was absolutely amazing … but if the student response, if they weren't enthusiastic, if they weren't engaged, then I would have to re-evaluate that 8 I gave myself.

The impact of focusing upon the needs and direction of the teacher candidate was another important theme in the teacher candidate focus group. They described the need for a safe environment, "where [it] felt comfortable to try, make a mistake, and then learn from that mistake." Ellie stressed the importance of timely and specific feedback that focused upon the areas that she had identified:

> For me, the important thing was to get immediate feedback. I liked it when my associate teacher gave me feedback right after the lesson. That way, it was fresh in my mind and in her mind; so we were able to reflect back on what had happened and have a good discussion about the lesson.

All teacher candidates indicated and demonstrated that they had increased their capacity to reflect upon their practices and to be more discerning throughout the duration of the practicum. They viewed the mentoring role taken by their associate teachers as an important reason for this growth.

Discussion

This study has highlighted the relationship between associate teachers and teacher candidates, pointing to the pivotal importance of the associate teacher as an "educative mentor" and the teacher candidate as an active constructor of knowledge. To facilitate the growth of teacher candidates as they develop their practices through field experiences, teacher education programs may wish to strengthen the attention and resources directed to the development of mentor teachers (Darling-Hammond et al., 2005; Sanders et al 2005). In particular, this study underscores the power of the debriefing conversation in the development of the practice of beginning teachers. Other research reinforces the value of assisting mentor teachers in gaining expertise and skill in providing feedback and framing effective mentoring conversations (Crasborn et al., 2008; Tang & Chow, 2007; Whitehead & Fitzgerald, 2007). The role of these conversations in activating the knowledge and self- assessment skills of teacher candidates in the debriefing sessions also emerged from the data analysis. Focusing upon the strengths and learning needs of the teacher candidates, and allowing the learner to lead both the discussion and the learning, is a rich area for further development (Tang & Chow, 2007).

An important implication for teacher education is that collaborative inquiry and co-learning by experienced teachers, teacher candidates, and teacher educators has been demonstrated to be efficacious for the learning of all parties, suggesting a need to create opportunities for teacher educators in their field and university settings to discuss and dialogue (Nguyen, 2009). "The professional dialogues among supervisors help to expand the repertoire of supervisory practices which supervisors can employ" (Tang & Chow, 2007, p. 1081). From this study, it appears that a digital resource that captures practice has the potential to be an effective springboard for such discussion and reflection.

One of the valuable outcomes of this study for the teacher education program, therefore, is the digital resource created from the filmed lessons and debriefing sessions. The elements of this project were utilized to structure the digital resource: (a) role of the associate teacher, (b) example literacy lessons, (c) example debriefing conversations, (d) reflections of associate teachers and teacher candidates. All of these elements are proving useful as artifacts that spur professional dialogue based in authentic experiences. This record of the lessons and the post-lesson debriefing sessions provides greater opportunity for educators working in a variety of capacities and locations to work with an "example of practice" that can support them as they inquire into effective feedback sessions and teaching practice. To date, this resource has been used for mentoring sessions with coaches, mentors, and associate teachers within an urban school district in Canada. It has also been shared with groups of international educators and with colleagues within the faculty of education. By sharing inquiry questions, experiences, and knowledge, all members of the learning community gained opportunities to reconsider and refine practice.

The feedback strategies, including scaling questions, paraphrasing, and focused observation and feedback are transferable to instruction with students, particularly to facilitate self-assessment and goal setting. For example, when engaging in individual writing conferences with students, the teacher can ask the students to rank themselves on a particular criterion, asking for evidence for the ranking and then assisting the student to determine what to work on to move the rating to the next level. Paraphrasing can also be helpful when scaffolding students' problem solving or thinking in the development of academic, social, and

communication skills. The use of focused observation is useful for teachers when engaging in assessment, as teachers can be strategic and targeted in their observations of students and can gather data for next steps in teaching and learning. As well, filming and video can be used to assist in developing skills in the classroom. For example, students can view video of other learners or experts engaged in giving oral presentations, and then they can analyze those exemplars to determine criteria for competent performance for their own work.

There are several limitations to this research as the sample is small and involves only two school settings. All of the four teacher candidates were members of one elementary teacher education cohort. As a result, generalizability of the findings is not possible. However, further study is suggested as these findings affirm the potential for increased learning on the part of associate teachers and teacher candidates in other studies using video, formative feedback and reflective dialogue (Crasborn et al., 2008; Sewall, 2009).

We have continuing questions about the best ways to provide the space for this kind of dialogue and learning for those who support teacher candidates and novice teachers entering the profession. How can we assist teacher educators and associate teachers to think about their roles and relationships? How can we encourage this kind of metacognitive, explicit discussion and sharing of practice? How can we work more collaboratively to facilitate learning for beginning and experienced teachers and teacher educators? To move forward with our questions, we plan to continue to seek and listen to the voices of associate teachers and teacher candidates.

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Chapter 5

Does Teacher Education Expect Too Muchfrom Field Experience?

SHAWN MICHAEL BULLOCK and TOM RUSSELL

Including field experience in a teacher education program is universally taken for granted. Teacher education programs implicitly and explicitly place considerable emphasis on the relevance of field experiences to teacher candidates' development. Field experiences are usually designed around an apprenticeship model that pairs an inexperienced teacher candidate with an experienced host teacher. In this paper we argue that the apprenticeship model of field experience is inherently limited. We believe that teacher educators should be attentive to the limitations of practicum experience and should focus on how to create learning experiences that are responsive to the changing learning needs of candidates throughout a preservice program.

Teacher candidates frequently name the time they spend in host schools as the most valuable part of their teacher education programs (Britzman, 1991/2003; Segall, 2002) and often question the relevance of some of their education courses to the intricate world of professional practice. Many teacher educators have taken up candidates' pleas for increased connection between coursework and the practicum. Bridging the so-called theory–practice divide has become a clarion call of teacher education, with a prodigious literature devoted to calling attention to the problem and considerably less literature offering solutions that dramatically improve the quality of teacher candidates' learning. While we agree that field experience is a necessary part of any teacher education program, our purpose in this paper is to call attention to the inherent danger of expecting too much from the practicum. We argue that the practicum is an inherently problematic construct that is unlikely to encourage teacher candidates to develop pedagogies that promote more productive learning for students.

From Practice Teaching to Professional Learning Community: A Rose by Any Other Name?

Vick's (2006) historical overview of the place of field experience in teacher education reminds us that the current problems of the practicum are not new. Citing Australian and British sources dating back to the 1930s and 1940s, Vick makes a convincing argument that an early source of tension around field experience arose because field experience vests a considerable

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amount of responsibility for teacher education in the hands of host schools and associate teachers. The agendas of faculty members often did not match the agendas of associate teachers, with the result that teacher candidates had to navigate a conflicting set of requirements from the two sites of teacher education: the university and the school. Vick (2006) explains the position of teacher educators in the following way:

> College staff and inspectors often saw their role not simply as preparing trainees [teacher candidates] to fit seamlessly into classrooms but as preparing them *not* to fit into schools as they existed—as preparing them to transform rather than reproduce prevailing values and practices. (p. 191)

The position of teacher educators over 60 years ago likely rings true for many teacher educators today: We want to make schools a better place for students to learn, and preparing teacher candidates is our primary way of doing so. In many of the same reports cited by Vick, other familiar problems associated with field experience arise, such as concerns about the ability of associate teachers to provide mentorship in non-traditional teaching strategies, the structure of the field experience (e.g., should the field experience be organized in continuous blocks or limited to one day per week?), the ability of teacher candidates to move seamlessly into teaching positions in local boards with minimal administrative support, and "the ambiguity in the colleges' role." Vick's conclusions are not encouraging; he suggests that the problems associated with the field placement in teacher education may "be inherent in the model of a balanced combination of on-campus theoretical studies and school-based practice that has dominated the past century of teacher education" (p. 195).

Some education reformers might argue that the field experience has gone through considerable modification over the last hundred years. LeCornu and Ewing (2008) trace the development of the field experience by examining the three major changes in how the field experience has been framed in teacher education programs over the last 40 years. They characterize as "traditional" (p. 1801) the familiar arrangement of prospective teachers learning theory from a Faculty of Education before practising teaching under the supervision of an experienced teacher and they point to the rhetorical implications of terms associated with the traditional orientation such as *supervisory teacher* and *student teacher*. In this familiar orientation grounded in technical rationality, the process of learning to teach tends to treat student teachers as blank slates to be filled with the wisdom of both university faculty and supervisory teachers.

Fuelled in part by Schön's (1983) criticism of technical rationality and his view of the role of reflection in the construction of professional knowledge, LeCornu and Ewing (2008) believe that the conceptual underpinnings of field experience are shifting: "With a focus on professional decision-making under the reflective orientation, student teachers go beyond a consideration of the technical skills of teaching to consider the moral and ethical issues involved in teaching and learning in a particular social context" (p. 1802). An examination of the websites of some teacher education programs reveals an associated shift in language toward terms such as *associate teacher*, *host teacher*, and *teacher candidate*.

LeCornu and Ewing (2008) go on to suggest that a new orientation toward the field experience is emerging in the early 21st century, that of the professional learning community:

> When working in a learning community, the aim is not just to develop one's own reflection skills but to facilitate the development of other's reflection skills also. In the reflective [practicum] paradigm . . . the focus has often been on the student teacher being an individual learner rather than recognising the role that each student teacher has to play in others' learning. There is a subtle but important shift of focus and one which more completely acknowledges the collaborative nature of the teaching profession. (p. 1803)

With this latest change in orientation, we see more movement from the view of student teacher as a passive recipient of teaching skills toward the view of teacher candidate as an active collaborator in the co-construction of knowledge. Some teacher education programs use the term *professional experience* in place of *practicum*. LeCornu and Ewing recognize that "much of the school reform work in the last decade has also been focused on the development of schools as learning communities" (p. 1804). This is an interesting trend, yet it will take massive efforts to transform the deeply entrenched culture of existing field experience arrangements and practices.

Despite the shift from student teaching to practicum to professional experience that has been suggested in the literature, we find no compelling evidence that significant large-scale reform has taken place since field experiences were originally conceptualized in teacher education programs. From our perspective, many of the changes have remained at the rhetorical level. Preservice teachers are often called student teachers in the same way that Faculties of Education are often called Teachers' Colleges, despite protests from teacher educators and revised policy documents. We believe that the historical problems of the practicum identified by Vick (2006) persist to this day, particularly the somewhat ambiguous role of Faculties of Education in field experience. Questions abound concerning field experience: Who should assess teacher candidates? How long should field experience be? When should field experience start? Who selects associate teachers? What is the role of the university in field supervision? Beyond such questions, we see a big-picture question that needs to be asked: *Why do traditional images of the role of field experience persist in teacher education despite decades of apparent reform?*

From False Apprenticeship to a True Apprenticeship

The concepts of the apprenticeship of observation and the acculturation effects of mass schooling help to explain many of the historical problems associated with the practicum identified by Vick (2006). We find the perspectives offered by Lortie (1975) and Sarason (1996, 2002) to be particularly helpful ways of thinking about the problem of field experience. Both writers call attention to the acculturation effects that are the unintended by-products of mass schooling. Although Lortie writes from the perspective of a sociologist and Sarason writes from the perspective of a psychologist and an education reformer, both conclude that the cultural routines and patterns associated with schools, teaching, and learning are firmly embedded in our culture from a very young age and thus highly resistant to change. Simply put, every adult knows what teaching and learning should look like because he or she has spent thousands of hours as a student in school. The implications of these cultural expectations for teacher education, particularly for field experience, merit careful analysis.

Lortie (1975, p. 61) coined the phrase *apprenticeship of observation* to name the acculturation effects of attending school. Throughout their experiences in elementary and secondary schools, students learn the cultural expectations and patterns of schools and teaching by *observing* how teachers teach and react to their learning behaviours. Students are socialized to act in certain ways, and those who quickly learn the routines of school are likely to succeed. Because teachers rarely explain the underlying reasons for their pedagogical decisions, students learn to mimic teacher behaviours without understanding why teachers act the way they do:

> The motivation to engage in such role-taking is especially great when students have already decided to become teachers. But it is likely that taking the role of the teacher is general among students whatever their occupational intentions. It may be that the widespread idea that "anyone can teach" . . . originated from this [socialization]; what child cannot, after all, do a reasonably accurate portrayal of a classroom teacher's actions? (Lortie, 1975, p. 62)

In a traditional apprenticeship, one of the goals of an experienced practitioner, or mentor, is to help an inexperienced practitioner understand the reasoning that supports professional decisions. Inexperienced practitioners are mentored into the profession by learning how to make these decisions, often taking a greater role in the decision-making process as they gain more experience. In contrast, teachers do not view all students as future teachers who are being mentored into the profession. The goal of a teacher is to teach the curriculum to students, not to teach them how to be teachers, yet teaching a subject does inadvertently teach the learner something about teaching.

The apprenticeship of observation is ultimately a false apprenticeship. It is an unintentional by-product of the fact that students spend thousands of hours observing teachers. Although those students who do eventually enrol in teacher education programs to become teachers have been tacitly mentored into the profession throughout their lives as students, the apprenticeship of observation limits their understanding of teaching and learning. Lortie (1975) identified four limitations:

1. *Students do not link the teaching strategies used by teachers to the effects those strategies have on their learning:* Students are not likely to "learn to see teaching in an ends-means frame" (p. 62).
2. *Students can imitate teachers:* Through observation, students learn about teaching in ways that are "intuitive and imitative rather than explicit and analytical" (p. 62).
3. *Students believe teaching decisions are whimsical and subjective:* "Students have no reliable basis for assessing the difficulty of demands of various teaching acts and thus may attribute teachers' actions to differences in personality or mood" (p. 63).
4. *Students do not understand the complex decision-making processes that teachers engage in every day:* Students do not "perceive the teacher as someone making choices among teaching strategies," nor are students "likely to make useful linkages between teaching objectives and teaching actions" (p. 63).

These limitations make the apprenticeship of observation a false apprenticeship. The apprenticeship is false because students spend considerable time trying to make sense of why teachers act the way they do—so that they can be successful in school—without having access to teachers' professional decision-making processes.

Sarason (1996) reminds us that, regardless of one's current relationship to the education system, anyone who thinks about education reform begins from an insider perspective. Because virtually all adults have been to school, it is difficult to imagine a perspective on education that is truly separated from our own experiences as students:

> As observers of schools, we do not come to the task with blank minds. We come with images, expectations, and implicit and explicit attitudes. We come to the task after a long process of socialization and acculturation from which in countless ways, witting and unwitting, we have absorbed conceptions of and attitudes toward school settings. Far from being a random process, acculturation is directed to shaping a person's definition of reality, not only what it is but what it should be. (Sarason, 1996, p. 14)

Sarason goes on to link the acculturation effects of mass schooling to the problem of education reform, reminding us that there is no such thing as a neutral observer of schools and that we tend to focus on individuals within schools rather than on the structural characteristics of the culture of school. It is not surprising, therefore, that teachers (including teacher educators) tend to teach as they were taught, given the powerful influence of the apprenticeship of observation and the fact that the culture of school has remained so stable over the last 100 years. Changes that have occurred in school culture tend to be the result of broad societal shifts rather than of a focused mandate to make schools a more productive place to learn (Sarason, 1996).

The practicum component of teacher education programs was first conceived of as an apprenticeship between an experienced teacher and a preservice teacher, without explicitly taking into account the effects of the false apprenticeship of observation. Lortie (1975) suggested that many teacher candidates primarily view the practicum as an opportunity to prove they can replicate the teacher behaviours they have seen throughout their lives. Experienced associate teachers will likely judge their teacher candidates by the extent to which they can replicate good teacher behaviours. Cultural replication is almost inevitable because teacher candidates initially have little choice other than to teach as they were taught (Sarason, 1996). It is little wonder that the culture of schools has not changed significantly.

Another effect of the apprenticeship of observation is the "conservative bias" (Lortie, p. 29) in teacher education arising from the fact that many teacher candidates had successful and productive learning experiences within the existing system. Lortie (1975, p. 29) theorized that many teacher candidates have a positive attitude toward their experiences with school, so that they are "more likely to approve of existing arrangements [in schools] and . . . less motivated to press for change." Given the amount of time that children and adolescents spend immersed in the culture of school, it comes as no surprise that "some become so attached to it they are loath to leave" (Lortie, p. 29). If teacher candidates come to teacher education programs as a result of their relative success in the school system, then they are likely to work hard to mimic the teacher behaviours they have witnessed their entire lives:

> Because of its casualness and narrow scope, therefore, the usual practice teaching arrangement does not offset the unreflective nature of prior socialization; the student teacher is not forced to compare, analyze, and select from diverse possibilities . . . . there is little indication that it is a powerful force away from traditionalism and individualism. (Lortie, 1975, p. 71)

Although the concept of the apprenticeship of observation has been familiar in the literature for over 30 years, teacher educators seem to have paid little attention to its implications for teaching teachers, particularly from the perspective of field experience. As Russell (2008, p. 2) argues, "while teacher educators might easily say that they are aware that teacher candidates already 'know' a great deal about teaching, they rarely go on to consider just what candidates do and do not know and how they know it." There is little evidence to indicate that teacher education programs have explicitly designed field experiences to challenge the effects of the apprenticeship of observation or that teacher education programs are designed to address the cultural problems of educational reform.

Two Examples of the Limitations of Apprenticeship

Unlike the apprenticeship of observation, the field experience is a true apprenticeship because teacher candidates are *intentionally* engaged in learning how to teach. Teacher candidates carefully attend to how their associate teachers behave because they want to learn to be teachers. We believe, however, that the apprenticeship model of field experiences has limitations. Given the structure of the field experience in most teacher education programs, the current best-case scenario for a teacher candidate is to be placed with an associate teacher who provides a space to discover one's default pedagogies (gained largely through the apprenticeship of observation) and also helps candidates to challenge themselves to enact unfamiliar pedagogies.

Data gathered in a study of how people learn to teach demonstrate how difficult it can be for field experience to play this kind of a role in the development of a teacher candidate's pedagogy. The study (Bullock, 2009) followed five teacher candidates over the course of a B.Ed. program with a view to examining how teaching and learning experiences during a methods course and the practicum affected the development of their professional knowledge. The inherent tensions associated with practicum experiences was a consistent theme throughout the data.

One major source of tension during the practicum was the perceived disconnect between how teacher candidates wanted to teach and the reality of the pedagogies they were able to enact. The stress of everyday teaching often took precedence over the goals candidates set for themselves. As one participant remarked, "Once you're actually in there, all this stuff you've heard [at the Faculty of Education] kind of fades. You're trying to focus on coming up with things in front of the class." Another participant commented that he did not "feel ready to try a lot of things" on the first practicum. The urgency of day-to-day lesson planning was underscored by another participant who commented "We spend so much time getting ready for the next day. We don't have time to go through a manual; we have to teach the next day."

The experiences of two participants provide illustrative examples of the limitations of the apprenticeship model of field experience. David and Paul (pseudonyms) had quite different

experiences with their associate teachers. David indicated that he was given almost complete freedom during his first practicum. His associate teacher was supportive, encouraged him to try different teaching strategies, and was not concerned if certain approaches were less than successful. David's associate provided him with considerable feedback and frequently offered to talk though the problems of practice that David encountered. Given this seemingly ideal scenario, it might be surprising to learn that David said he was "dreading going back [in February] and having to do the same things [he] was doing before." For David, the practicum meant he had to "work under someone else's shadow," which was a frustrating prospect for him, regardless of how "lenient" an approach his associate teacher used. When asked what he learned from his fall practicum experiences, David replied:

> I don't know that I'm learning a whole lot, because I'm not really able to do what I want to do, which is what was getting my frustration levels up. I don't really want to go back to this next practicum, not because I don't enjoy it, but because I just want it to be September already It was communicated up front that I could try whatever [teaching strategies] I want. At the time it's nice to hear that, and I didn't think too much about it, but I just knew that that was wrong. You can't really just do whatever you want. There are pressures of always knowing that you're being evaluated and, sure, I can try whatever I want, but if I fall flat on my face and I'm not able to recover, well, it's going to reflect in the assessment, which, as much as they say "Don't worry about these [teaching assessments]," hiring [school] boards are clearly asking to see these. We come into a classroom that's been set up already and we know full well that when we leave, we're handing it back, so we can't make the changes or operate really as we may want to.

Although he was given a considerable amount of freedom during his practicum, David felt limited by the artificiality of teaching in *someone else's* classroom. He noted the professional obligation that associate teachers have to implicitly put limits on what teacher candidates do, because associate teachers are ultimately responsible for the course after the practicum is finished: "As much as he [the associate teacher] says 'Try whatever you want, try this, try that,' I realized, well, he's still making me cover all of this [curricular material] and I don't have the freedom that I thought I did."

Paul, in contrast, had an associate teacher who limited almost completely his opportunities to make pedagogical decisions. His associate teacher had a very specific idea of how mathematics should be taught, an idea that stood in direct opposition to Paul's developing vision of what teaching and learning should look like. This tension was made more problematic by the fact that his associate teacher for physics allowed him considerably more freedom. As a result, each math class he taught was a challenge:

> It felt like every time I was struggling or getting discipline issues or they were getting bored . . . . I mean, every second of that class was a struggle because in that class I was always specifically working against the grain. These crazy Grade 9 kids [in the math class] had all this energy and wanted to be out of their seats and talking to each other, whereas in physics class a lot of the time those activities were really built around just channelling that into more productive stuff . . . . In the math class, it always felt like you were making them sit and be quiet and work

> on homework, you know.....Even just having them sit there and listen to me talk, that just didn't feel like a natural thing, even for 10, 15 minutes, in math.

Paul's practicum experience was filled with a variety of tensions for a number of reasons, but one of the major sources of tension was the discrepancy between how he wanted to teach his math class and how he was required to teach that class. Eventually, Paul became so frustrated with his practicum experience that he looked at it as something to "get through" rather than as a learning opportunity.

These two examples highlight major limitations of the field experience. The teacher candidate will always be limited in some way by teaching in someone else's classroom. In David's case, the limitation manifested itself implicitly because David knew he could never truly teach however he wanted, because his associate was ultimately responsible for the class. In Paul's case, this limitation manifested itself in explicit ways because he was told how to teach and was judged on his ability to mimic the behaviours his associate teacher expected of him. Teaching is not a skill that is largely independent of the individual doing the teaching. There is a great deal of craft knowledge associated with teaching, but that craft knowledge must be developed in relation to each individual's extensive prior views about teaching and learning. We believe that teacher educators and candidates may expect too much of field experience that carries with it the limitations of an apprenticeship structure.

Where Do We Go from Here?

Teacher candidates will always value their field experiences highly, for obvious reasons. During field experience, they are active; in many of our classrooms, they are much more passive. During field experience, they have much more autonomy and responsibility than in teacher education classrooms. During field experience, they engage with a wide range of learners and professionals; during education classes, they typically engage with one professional, who is teaching them, and with other candidates in their classes.

As teacher educators, we have little control over what happens in field experiences away from the university, but we should have significant control of what happens under our own roof. We believe it is valuable to be open and explicit about the limitations of the apprenticeship structure of field experience and about what is and is not possible in such experiences. If we accept field experience for what it is and what it cannot be, then we need to ask what implications this view has for our courses and our arrangements for supervision of field experiences. Field experience in teacher education programs is often supervised by adjunct faculty members who may be recently retired teachers or principals. These individuals are valued for their extensive familiarity with school practices, but that does not guarantee that they understand the limited nature of field experience and how the particular teacher education program in which they are working is making efforts to acknowledge and go beyond that limited nature.

Teacher educators have the most control over the courses they teach, and we contend that it is the professional responsibility of teacher educators to make experiences in education courses as active, interactive, and engaging as pedagogically possible. In the study cited earlier, for example, each of the five teacher candidates stated that the way they were taught in a methods course had a significant impact on how they thought about teaching and learning

(Bullock, 2009). Specifically, the candidates named teaching approaches such as Predict-Observe-Explain (Baird & Northfield, 1992) and self-directed learning as examples of "active-learning" approaches that they experienced during their methods course. According to the candidates, "active-learning" approaches require the teacher to share control of the class with students. A sense of shared control between teacher and students is critical to what Sarason (1996) called a "context of productive learning" (p. 343). Although candidates agreed that their methods course was a productive place to learn, they also were quick to point out the challenges of implementing the same approaches during practicum experiences.

If our goal is to prepare teachers who will improve the quality of learning in school classrooms, then we must improve the quality of their learning in our own classrooms. By setting a goal of creating a context of productive learning with teacher candidates, we can demonstrate what is possible in a classroom beyond the confines of what many candidates would assume based on their apprenticeships of observation. Challenging ourselves to share control of our teacher education classrooms with candidates implies a significant responsibility to find ways to listen to and act upon candidates' interpretations of their learning on practicum experiences. One promising approach that we have both used involves maintaining a blog with each of our candidates throughout the teacher education program. Although reading and responding to blog posts demands time, we have found that blogging provides a unique window into the tensions, challenges, and successes that individual teacher candidates experience during their practicum placements.

Finally, we contend that preservice programs must directly and actively assume responsibility for helping teacher candidates learn how to learn from field experience and to judge the quality of that learning. It is unacceptable for a course that has been interrupted by weeks of field experience to resume as though nothing had happened; doing so suggests that field experience is relatively unimportant and sends the message that education courses do not value field experience. Field experiences will always change those whom we are teaching, and we cannot resume teaching preservice teachers without knowing something about how they have changed; necessarily, they have new issues, new questions and new understandings of what it means to teach and learn. Creating a context of productive learning with teacher candidates implies that we have found ways to share control of our classrooms and that we have made listening to candidates a priority in everything we do. Perhaps in this way we can move beyond the unhelpful dichotomy between the theory of the university and the practice of the field experience and toward a more coherent focus on how teacher candidates learn to teach. Both the apprenticeship of observation and the apprenticeship of the field experience have significant limitations that can be explored in a teacher education classroom. By creating a context of productive learning in our own classrooms, perhaps we can begin to work with candidates to make *how* they are learning from experiences, both in the field and in our classroom, the focus of our pedagogy.

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Chapter 6

Supporting Teacher Candidates At-Risk in Field Experiences: Organizational and Program Responsiveness

ANNE MARIE CHUDLEIGH and CATHI GIBSON-GATES

The goal to graduate Teacher Candidates who are effective and successful new teachers in today's schools and classrooms is shared by teacher education institutions across Canada. Achieving this goal involves supporting Teacher Candidates who are at different points on the continuum of learning to teach. Supporting Teacher Candidates who are at an earlier point of this developmental continuum offers challenges and complexities to teacher educators at the university and cooperating/associate teachers at the school level. Through an in-depth sharing of our experiences as teacher educators supporting Teacher Candidates who are at-risk in their practicum, this paper is intended to share our ever-evolving organizational and programmatic response, to identify the complexities and issues involved, and to contribute to the growing body of literature addressing field experiences in the context of reform in Canadian teacher education programs.

Introduction

Formal teacher education programs vary widely across Canada, some programs are four years, others nine months; some are post-degree professional programs, while others are concurrent dual-degree programs. Although there is great variation across the different Canadian programs, all initial teacher education programs in Canada currently include a field experience, called a practicum, where Teacher Candidates engage in evaluated practice teaching (Gambir, Broad, Evans & Gaskell, 2008).

Teacher education researchers are exploring the various issues and complexities inherent in the practicum as they collectively seek out more coherent, meaningful and equitable experiences for our teacher education students (LaBoskey & Richert, 2002; Darling-Hammond, Hammerness, Grossman, Rust & Shulman, 2005; Grossman, Hammerness, McDonald, & Ronfeldt, 2008). As a contribution to this discussion and exploration, this paper describes the programmatic response as well as the issues and complexities of supporting a specific group of Teacher Candidates – Teacher Candidates who are at-risk in their practicum. For the purposes of this paper, "at-risk Teacher Candidate" refers to a Teacher Candidate who is not demonstrating the potential to be successful in the evaluated practice teaching setting. Associate Teachers are responsible for making the final decision about the success or failure of

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a Teacher Candidate practice teaching in their classroom, although this decision is often made in consultation with the faculty involved with the practicum supervision of the Teacher Candidate.

Our assumptions and beliefs about teacher education research, and about our work as teacher educators, are a necessary contextualization and explication of the thoughts and experiences that are shared in this paper. They include:

1. Recognizing the developmental progression of learning to teach (Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, Bransford, Berliner, Cochran-Smith, McDonald, & Zeichner, 2005), we acknowledge that within any given population of Teacher Candidates there will be Teacher Candidates at different points on the developmental continuum of learning how to teach.
2. Once admitted into a teacher education program, we believe that all Teacher Candidates have the right to be successful. Given the diversity of Teacher Candidates in any teacher education program, underlying this assumption is the belief that the support and needs will vary for individual Teacher Candidates, intending to provide all Teacher Candidates with an equitable opportunity to succeed.
3. Although the literature on the practicum experience refers to three key people who are intended to work for common purposes in the practicum (the teacher candidate, associate teacher and university supervisor) (Guyton and McIntyre, 1990), we believe that there is a significant role to be played by the academic department within the institution that is responsible for the practicum component of any teacher education program.
4. We have chosen to explore and share our experiences through the use of stories as we believe that stories capture the richness and indeterminacy of our experiences as teacher educators and enable us to explicate the complexities and issues we wish to share (Carter, 1993).

A story based on our experiences as teacher educators supporting Teacher Candidates at-risk in the practicum will be shared as an authentic and real-life entry point into the paper, followed by a description of the institutional context, the programmatic responsive supports put in place, and two additional stories highlighting the questions, issues, tensions and complexities of Teacher Candidates who are at-risk in the practicum.

A Story to Begin…

November 8, 2008 - it is day seven of the 20-day Practice Teaching session #1. It's 8:10 in the morning, and I'm on my way to the office when I receive a call on my cell phone from "John" – an instructor and coordinator in our elementary teacher education program.

This morning when John arrived at a partner school to observe the 6 Teacher Candidates (TCs) placed there, the principal called him into the office to share her concern about the TC placed in the Kindergarten class. Although the Associate Teacher (AT) is working very hard to support the TC, the principal is worried that "the placement is taking its

toll on everyone – the teacher, the Teacher Candidate, and the students." Yesterday the principal observed the TC during the afternoon class. The TC was standing around, not engaging with the children, and when the principal said hello to the TC, the response was just a slight nod of the head – "not even a 'hello' in return." The AT shared with the principal that she spends every lunch hour meeting with the TC, but the TC has "shown very little improvement in seven days of practicum." The AT is committed to working with the TC for the remainder of the practicum, but the principal is worried about the amount of time the teacher is spending with the TC, with "little to no growth being observed." The principal also shared a concern about how the young students might be responding to this new adult in the room – someone who in her words, "just hovers around the tables but does not engage with the children." The principal asks John if a placement at another school can be found for the TC.

John calls me to share, as the Elementary Practicum Coordinator at OISE, the concerns raised by the principal. John provides me with more background information about the school, the Associate Teacher and the Teacher Candidate. We talk on the phone for 10 minutes, I scribble down 4 pages of notes, and then I consult with my team in the School-University Partnerships Office (SUPO). We have a suggested plan. I call John back to share our thoughts, and then John and I determine next steps.

I arrive at the office and meet with another TC who is accompanied by her instructor. This TC walked out of practicum the day before with the intention of withdrawing from the program. The three of us talk for 30 minutes, and then the TC leaves my office with a referral to the Personal Support Counsellor on the other side of the hall.

Phone calls throughout the day address various issues needing immediate attention, including an emergency situation in a TCs family, a TC who is feeling very frustrated in his practicum and wants to leave, a TC who got into a heated argument with a member of the school's caretaking staff and subsequently accused the caretaker of being a racist, and a TC who is experiencing high anxiety.

The day ends with our regularly scheduled "8th floor meeting", Directors of Elementary and Secondary, Personal Support Counsellor, Equity and Human Rights Mentor, Elementary and Secondary Practicum Coordinator, Director of the School-University Partnerships Office, and the Executive Director of Teacher Education, meet to discuss the patterns of issues that are arising during practicum. We brainstorm responsive programming ideas, plan next steps, and continue to question if we are doing all that we can. It is a tiring meeting because we are talking about complex issues, we are sometimes challenging one another and the status quo. It is important work, but it is emotionally and mentally difficult.

The OISE Context

The Role of Practicum Coordinators

The authors of this paper offer the above story to provide a context to the work that we do as Practicum Coordinators in the School-University Partnerships Office (SUPO) at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (OISE) at the University of Toronto. Although we have various responsibilities as Practicum Coordinators, our primary work during practice teaching

is to support Teacher Candidates who are at-risk in their practicum. Supporting TCs who are at-risk in the practicum also involves supporting the TC's Associate Teacher and OISE Faculty Advisor (or Practicum Supervisor).

Our primary goal as Practicum Coordinators, and throughout OISE's 9-month teacher education program, is to provide opportunities for every Teacher Candidate enrolled in our program to be successful. The challenge is never-ending, but so is our commitment and our collaborative determination to support every individual, in a very diverse population of Teacher Candidates, in their journey to become a certified teacher in the province of Ontario.

The aim and purpose of this paper is to communicate our understanding and contribute to the practices of supporting Teacher Candidates who are "at-risk" in their field experiences. A description of the OISE context, including Teacher Candidates, field experiences, SUPO and the placement process will provide the contextual framework within which we work as Practicum Coordinators. Programs of support for Teacher Candidates, Associate Teachers and OISE Cohort Coordinators and Faculty Advisors will be shared, followed by two additional stories intended to highlight the individuality and complexity of what it means to support a TC identified as "at-risk.

Teacher Candidates (2009-2010)

Each year, the Registrar's Office provides a summary of the incoming class, based on data collected through the application and acceptance processes. Applicants to OISE must have at least a B-range average in 15 full-year university courses, and for some teaching subjects, a minimum number of courses in the specialty areas.
Previous experience working with children or youth in a school setting has not been a requirement for admission to the B.Ed. program since 2004-2005.

We are the largest faculty in Ontario.

Total # of Candidates: 1363	548 747 68	Elementary Secondary Technology Education
Average Age	28	
Gender	962 401	Female Male
First Language/Mother Tongue* *Candidates reporting a language other than English as their mother tongue are also required to satisfy the English language proficiency requirements for admission	1170 16 17	English French Other
Special Characteristics – (Self-Declared)	56 9 338	Living with a disability Native persons Visible minority

Field Experiences

There are three field experiences in the 9-month Consecutive program:

November: 4-week practicum #1
March: 4-week practicum #2
May: 5-week internship

April/May: 4-week practicum – Spring "Make-Up" Practicum

The additional 4-week practicum period in April/May is available for Teacher Candidates who do not successfully complete two sessions of practice teaching, due to deferral, failure, etc. In the spring of 2009, 52 Teacher Candidates participated in a "spring practicum". Although this number represents only 4% of our enrollment, a variety of challenges exist in setting up and supporting 52 TCs who are being placed outside of our regularly scheduled practicum period. Some of these challenges include finding and arranging placements, communicating with school administrators and ATs about the non-regular placement period, and maintaining confidentiality about reasons for TCs doing a spring practicum. Additional administrative and supervision support is also required, and there is the on-going issue, or tension, of providing these TCs with opportunities to be successful within the university's timeframe for a spring convocation and, thus, graduation with their peers.

The final field experience for OISE B.Ed. Teacher Candidates is the Internship, which takes place across 5 weeks in April and May (with the exception of TCs doing a spring practicum, who do a later and shortened Internship in late May and early June). OISE's Internship is self-selecting and self-directed, providing each TC with an opportunity to complete the teacher education program with an experience that relates to their personal professional goals as a developing teacher in Ontario. Teacher Candidates are responsible for identifying their professional needs and interests, and for organizing an experience to meet these needs and interests.

SUPO and the Placement Process

In 2002, a critical and very significant change was made in the structure of OISE: "The Practicum Office" became the "School-University Partnerships Office", (SUPO). This name change was much more than a shift in nomenclature – it was a principle- a research-based decision that had a major impact not only on the placement process, but also on the value, commitment and responsibility OISE had to its school partners. Over a period of four years, the following shifts took place:

- Placements for TCs were no longer centrally arranged by Practicum Officers, but became the responsibility of the Coordinators of each cohort of TCs.
- Leadership roles in SUPO became academic appointments, and include a Director, and a Practicum Coordinator at both the Elementary and Secondary level.
- Practicum-related issues, problems and challenges were no longer directed to

administrators of the academic program (i.e. Directors of Elementary or Secondary) but to SUPO Practicum Coordinators.

- SUPO was given a mandate to support school-university partnerships and all those involved in these partnerships.

With a mandate to build and support partnerships with education boards and schools, SUPO developed and implemented a variety of initiatives to support all stakeholders involved with the practicum – TCs, ATs, OISE Program Coordinators and Faculty Advisors. Practicum Coordinators became responsible for the implementation and evaluation of these initiatives, and for enacting and ensuring OISE's responsibility and commitment to providing each TC with opportunities to be successful in the three required field experiences. Summaries of these initiatives for Teacher Candidates, Associate Teachers, and Coordinators and Faculty Advisors are outlined below.

The OISE Support Structure

Support for Teacher Candidates

SUPO has a variety of programs aimed at supporting a diverse population of Teacher Candidates enrolled in OISE's 9-month teacher education program. The formal program supports are outlined in chart form below, followed by a brief description of the informal, responsive programming supports.

Program	Description	Purpose	Audience	Timing
Transitions Program	Groups of Teacher Candidates visit 3 different schools. During each visit they observe classes, and meet with a school administrator.	To familiarize Teacher Candidates with the current secondary school classroom setting.	Teacher Candidates who received their high school education outside of Canada and/or those who have not been in a school setting for ten or more years. In 2009, 76 candidates registered for the program and 6 schools agreed to act as hosts to these Teacher Candidates	Sept./Oct. – Three Wednesday afternoons prior to first practicum block.
Pre-Field Experience Program (PREP)	A non-evaluated practicum experience designed specifically for "Internationally-Educated Teacher	An opportunity for Teacher Candidates educated outside of Canada to spend the first practicum in a feedback-rich environment that is	Coordinators recommend the program to Teacher Candidates who they feel would benefit from exposure to the	Candidates must register before October 16th. Program length is the equivalent of practicum #1. Teacher Candidates

	Candidates (IETC). PREP includes observation and a gradual transition to teaching in a classroom setting, in addition to workshops, micro-teaching, structured school observations, mentored teaching, observation visits and debriefing sessions.	observational and non-evaluated .	Ontario school culture, prior to an evaluated practicum. Participation is voluntary.	who elect to participate in the PREP program must still complete two evaluated practica.
Academic and Cultural Support Centre (ACSC)	Support with academic writing, resume and cover letter preparation, English language proficiency , oral speaking skills (including lesson delivery), gaining insights into the culture of K-12 schools in Canada.	To provide all candidates with another avenue of support and service.	Open to all students	In addition to scheduled workshops, the ACSC is open Monday through Saturday for one-to-one in person or telephone consultation.
Student Services	Counsel, support and assistance is provided individually and through workshops through a Personal Support Counsellor, Equity and Human Rights Mentor and administration of the bursary program. Student Services is also the liaison to University of Toronto Support Services	To support and enhance the development of students as they proceed through their academic and professional preparation.	All OISE students have access to the services. Candidates whose success in the program is in jeopardy due to financial, personal or academic circumstances are advised by faculty or Practicum Coordinators to set up an appointment with Student Services counselors.	Structures and networks are in place that allow Student Services to be responsive to emerging situations as student needs shift. Student Services also provides a variety of workshops, based on patterns of interests and needs throughout the program.

Practicum Preparation	Initiatives include workshops with practical tips for a successful practicum. - panel discussions of Principals, Associate Teachers and Alumni who discuss practicum expectations and strategies - informal "coffee with SUPO" gatherings to provide a more informal contact between Teacher Candidates and the SUPO team.	To prepare Teacher Candidates for practicum experiences, through a series of workshops and print publications.	All elementary and secondary Teacher Candidates,	Three weeks preceding first practicum block

The informal and responsive supports include one-on-one coaching, additional practicum observation visits, and meetings with SUPO Practicum Coordinators. One-on-one coaching is made available for TCs who have been identified by their Faculty Advisor as needing specific one-on-one support with practicum-related expectations, such as lesson planning, organizational skills, or teacher presence. Additional practicum observation visits are arranged through SUPO, in consultation with a Teacher Candidate and his or her Faculty Advisor. Meetings with Practicum Coordinators take place when there are serious practicum-related issues that need to be addressed in order for the TC to work towards a successful practicum. Issues addressed in meetings with a Practicum Coordinator, Teacher Candidate and Faculty Advisor might be related to patterns of behaviour (e.g., professionalism, absences, preparation) are more appropriately addressed at OISE, rather than at the school level. Diagram 1 illustrates how the support process for a TC who is at-risk might be initiated.

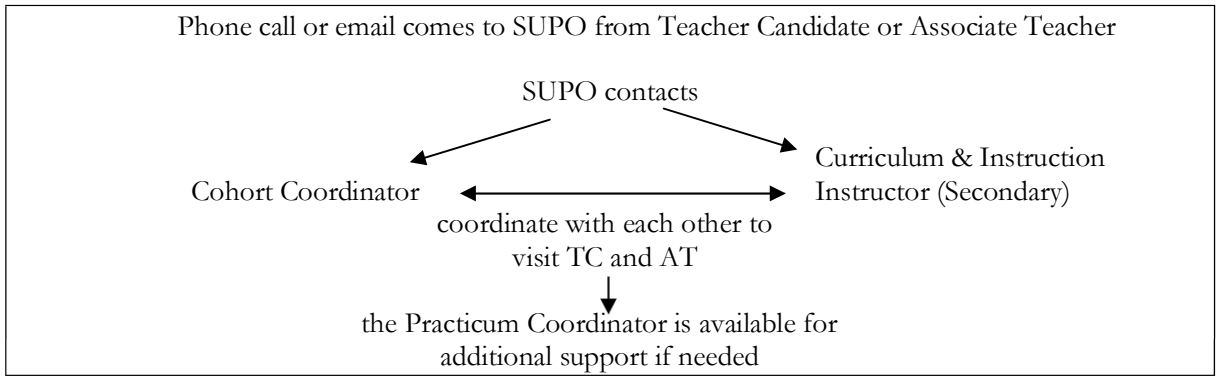

Diagram 1: How the Support Process for At-Risk Teacher Candidates Might Be Initiated

Support for Associate Teachers

SUPO provides support for Associate Teachers in a variety of ways, including: 1) various forms of communication, 2) workshops and professional development opportunities, and 3) on-going access to Practicum Coordinators.

1) *Communication* - The three key methods of communication with Associate Teachers involve the SUPO Information Booklet, the SUPO website, and regular email communications through a SUPO database.
   i) The SUPO Information Booklet contains an overview of the practicum, including a description of an Associate Teacher's role and responsibilities, assessment and evaluation procedures, and a checklist of attributes of an effective Associate Teacher.
   ii) The SUPO website includes a variety of forms that Associate Teachers might use to provide feedback to their Teacher Candidate, as well as tips for writing the final practice teaching report or "summative evaluation".
   iii) As of 2006, SUPO maintains an electronic database that allows regular email communications to all Associate Teachers about various issues relating to the practicum experience. Although SUPO aims to minimize the number of generic email communications (to over 1300 Associate Teachers), these emails are intended to provide helpful and timely information to Associate Teachers, in addition to reminding them that the SUPO team is available to support them if any issues arise with the Teacher Candidate placed in their classroom.

2) *Workshops and Professional Development Opportunities* – Each year SUPO provides a number of professional development opportunities for Associate Teachers. Some workshops are designed specifically for Associate Teachers (eg., effective feedback, cognitive coaching, etc.), while others are related to a broader array of teaching-related interests and issues (eg., safe schools, equity, etc.). In partnership with the Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation (OSSTF), SUPO provides a full-day workshop to secondary teachers for both experienced Associate Teachers and teachers who are interested in becoming an Associate Teacher, on a OSSTF-sponsored Professional Activity Day every February.

3) *On-Going Access to Practicum Coordinators* – SUPO tries to maintain a high profile through database communications and print material so that 1300-plus Associate Teachers are aware of SUPO's mandate to support school partners and Associate Teachers. This awareness has been gradually increasing since the shift from the "Practicum Office" to the "School-University Partnerships Office" in 2002. After hearing from Associate Teachers that they were not sure when to contact SUPO, the following note was added to the SUPO Information Booklet: "Associate Teachers often wonder what level of concern is necessary before contacting SUPO; If there is any level of concern, please contact SUPO" (page 13, 2009-2010). Contact information for all members of

the SUPO team is included in the introduction of the SUPO Information Booklet (page 2).

Support for Coordinators and Faculty Advisors

The Practicum Coordinators in SUPO work closely with cohort coordinators, acting as a liaison with school boards who require placements made through a central placement process, and supporting coordinators to secure additional placements where needed. Workshops on practicum supervision are offered to all Faculty members on a regular basis. The Practicum Coordinators also attend monthly secondary and elementary Coordinator meetings to further discuss issues related to practice teaching and to debrief each practicum experience. SUPO also provides support in resolving Teacher Candidate concerns around their assigned placement, the contents of their "summative evaluation" and other issues that are brought to our attention.

Summary of SUPO Support Programs

2009-2010 is the eighth year since the shift from the "Practicum Office" to the "School-University Partnerships Office." Although progress has been made in supporting the key stakeholders in the practicum, our goal to support Teacher Candidates continues to be our primary focus of attention. The two stories below highlight the tensions, complexities and issues that seem inherent in many Teacher Candidates who have been identified as "at-risk". Patterns of issues allow SUPO to develop responsive programming, and in some cases new policies and procedures, but each Teacher Candidate with whom we work is also an individual, with unique questions and issues. SUPO program supports do not always address these issues, and as we continue to differentiate what we do in SUPO in response to TC's needs and issues, it seems to be a never-ending challenge. The ever-present question is, "Are we doing all that we can?"

Two Stories about Two Teacher Candidates

A Story about Jeffrey

The OISE cohort faculty team became concerned about Jeffrey (pseudonym) during the academic components of the program. He rarely interacts with his peers, he offers little participation in small and large group discussions, and his body language suggests aloofness and disinterest. Although Jeffrey exhibits many strengths – he is the first to arrive to every class, he is always prepared, and in one-on-one conversation, he seems to be internalizing the material – the instructional team is concerned about how he will do in practice teaching. As a result of these early concerns, the faculty team arranges through SUPO some additional support for Jeffrey during practice teaching, including an early visit and more frequent visits.

Supporting Jeffrey towards a successful practicum is challenging. Each observation visit takes approximately 2 hours: 30-45 minutes of classroom observation, 10-15 minutes in discussion with the Associate Teacher, and an hour debrief with the TC. Although Jeffrey

seems to understand the balanced feedback during the debriefing session, there is little demonstration that he is incorporating the feedback into future lessons, both at the planning and the delivery stages. After two visits to Jeffrey during the first 8 days of practice teaching, the Faculty Advisor requests that the Secondary Practicum Coordinator visit Jeffrey for an observation and debriefing of his teaching. During the second visit by the Practicum Coordinator, the AT communicates to the Coordinator that Jeffrey has failed. The AT has also communicated this result to the Jeffrey.

In a follow-up debriefing following the failed practicum, the TC shares with the Practicum Coordinator that during his high school years he had received a diagnosis related to Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD). Jeffrey had made a decision upon his acceptance into the OISE program that he was not going to disclose this diagnosis with others. Jeffrey clearly articulates his first-hand experiences with the negativity and discrimination based on the label of this diagnosis.

Jeffrey's Story: Tensions, Issues and Complexities

Three tensions in the above case study highlight several of the issues and complexities of supporting TCs who are at-risk in a practicum placement. These are:

1) The right of classroom students to effective learning opportunities WITH the right of a Teacher Candidate to an opportunity to practice teaching

2) Determining the amount of time and support that is necessary to facilitate the Teacher Candidate's learning opportunity WITH the amount of time and support that becomes a non-instructional "rescue" of a Teacher Candidate.

3) Respecting and maintaining the confidentiality of the Teacher Candidate's disclosure WITH the potential for increased understanding of how to support the Teacher Candidate if a disclosure had occurred prior to practice teaching.

A Story about Mandeep

At the mid-point of practice teaching session #2, Mandeep (pseudonym) is identified as being at risk for failing the practicum on the Mid-Point Formative Assessment Checklist. In phone conversations and a face-to-face meeting with the Practicum Coordinator, Mandeep shares her belief that both her Associate Teacher and her Faculty Advisor are not providing her with the kind of feedback and support that is necessary for her to be successful in the practicum. In consultation with other members of the SUPO team, it is determined that the Practicum Coordinator will complete the supervision of Mandeep during her placement, and this will include additional and more frequent observation visits. In addition, Mandeep has been given the contact information of an instructor who is available as a one-on-one coach over the last 2 weeks of her practicum. Mandeep, in collaboration with her Faculty Advisor, has made notes about her strengths, and areas that need further attention. These areas include, lesson design, lesson delivery, questioning and teacher presence.

The Practicum Coordinator observes Mandeep twice during the third week of the practicum, and has arranged an observation visit for the beginning of the final week. The evening before this visit, an email from the AT communicates his concerns about an email he had just received from Mandeep. In the email, Mandeep states that the AT is "setting [her] up for failure and [she] does not like this feeling." The SUPO Practicum Coordinator contacts the AT, who is willing to continue supporting Mandeep, but wants her to be made aware of the seriousness of the comments shared in the email.

The SUPO Practicum Coordinator arrives for the scheduled observation visit at the beginning of the school day. Within minutes of the lesson beginning, Mandeep falters with the delivery of the lesson, and begins to cry. The AT takes over the class, and the Practicum Coordinator and Mandeep go to a quiet room to talk. Mandeep is angry and upset, and feels that she has not received the necessary support from those around her.

During morning recess, the AT confirms Mandeep has failed the practicum, and asks the Practicum Coordinator to communicate this to Mandeep on his behalf. Following this communication, Mandeep decides to leave the placement and school immediately. The Practicum Coordinator makes a call to the Personal Support Counsellor at OISE, requesting that the counsellor see Mandeep for an appointment later that day.

Before leaving the school, the Practicum Coordinator speaks with the AT, and then arranges to meet with the principal of the school.

Two weeks later, the Practicum Coordinator receives an email from the AT requesting that his name be removed from the list of available Associate Teachers for future TCs. The Practicum Coordinator has a follow-up phone conversation with both the AT and the school principal. Although the school will continue to be involved as a partner school with OISE, the AT, after 6 years of being an outstanding role model for TCs, will not assume this role in the future.

Mandeep's Story: Tensions, Issues and Complexities

Although there are similar tensions in the above two stories, Mandeep's story highlights additional tensions, including:

1) An Associate Teacher's role to act as a mentor and be supportive towards a Teacher Candidate, WITH the Associate Teacher's responsibility to assess and evaluate the Teacher Candidate.

2) A Teacher Candidate's perspective of self, WITH an Associate Teacher's perspective of the Teacher Candidate.

3) The length of time and support that is provided to a Teacher Candidate WITH a pattern of performance and professionalism that seems to indicate the Teacher Candidate is not moving forward with the additional time and support.

On-Going Questions

Although SUPO has implemented many different programs of support for TCs, the tensions, issues and complexities noted above continue to challenge us. In ongoing discussions with faculty and school partners many questions arise as we grapple with these challenges, including:

- How much support is too much?
- How can we facilitate success, not rescue teacher candidates?
- How can we promote thoughtful reflection and increased self-awareness?
- How can we maintain strong partnerships with our school partners given the pattern of challenges, additional time and support that is necessary from ATs when a TC is at-risk?
- How can we encourage TC's to become self-advocates for their special learning needs, when we cannot yet guarantee a non-discriminatory response from those in positions of power?
- How can we support AT's in their capacity to be supportive, constructive mentors *and* evaluators?
- What role can OISE's admission policies and procedures play in addressing these issues?
- When a TC needs to complete a field experience in a non-regularly scheduled period (after the completion of classes, or in many cases, the following academic year), what impact does this have on the TC's full opportunity to integrate the academic learning into classroom practice?
- As we devote more time and attention to meeting the needs of an increasingly diverse group of TC's, what are the implications for workload, both at the school level and within OISE?

An Associate Teacher (a member of OISE's Associate Teacher Advisory Committee) captures some of these complex issues and tensions in the following statement:

> As ATs we want the TC to be successful and we want the lessons and experience to be of value for the students in our classes and schools. We are accountable for the progress, for providing support, and for ensuring successful outcomes for all of our students. Having a TC who is clearly struggling and wants to cover 75-100% of the day is problematic. Over the past several years I have had two parents speak to me regarding concerns about the TC working with their child, one of those a parent volunteer in my class. I have tried in these cases to scale back so that the TC is covering perhaps 25-50% of the day, and would indicate this on their evaluation, and discuss the situation with their supervisor. I have shared the parental concerns with the Principal. I spoke with the parents and supported the TC. This situation certainly adds stress to the process…
>
> It is very difficult to tell a TC that they are at-risk, and even more difficult to click that fail box on the summative evaluation. As educators we are dedicated to student success, even when that student is an adult, and spend hours wondering how, and what else we can do, to provide the necessary support.

> I am still more than happy to work with at-risk Teacher Candidates, and understand how important the role of AT/mentor is in our system.
> (personal communication, January 23, 2008)

Moving Forward

The questions, complexities and issues related to supporting Teacher Candidates continue to propel us forward in our work. A number of initiatives have been recently implemented at various levels to increase our understanding and practice of supporting all TCs in the practicum experience.

"Adult Learner" Workshop Series - At an institutional level, support and resources are available to SUPO for on-going program development. This fall (2009), a SUPO 4-part series on supporting and teaching the "Adult Learner" has been designed for all faculty instructors. The purpose of the workshop series, which includes presentations from key equity leaders at the University of Toronto, is to extend and deepen each instructor's understanding and practice of supporting a diversity of adult Teacher Candidates in the academic and field components of the teacher education program.

Digital Resource - A recent OISE school-university mini-grant project ("Authentic voices from the field: How teachers can benefit from use of effective feedback strategies," Strachan and Broad, 2009) produced a video resource aimed at those involved with supporting TCs in the field – Associate Teachers and Faculty Advisors. A plan for the sharing of the "Authentic Voices" digital resource will be developed this fall, including the potential of an on-line learning opportunity and discussion board.

Research on Admissions - Since 2005, when significant changes were made to the teacher education admission policy, on-going research of the impact of these changes has been the focus of a major research project at OISE. With a goal to eliminate discriminatory barriers to admission to the program, and to admit the most qualified group of potential teachers reflecting the diversity of students in our schools and classrooms, these research findings will continue to inform our work in SUPO. Who are our Teacher Candidates, and what programs and services can we put in place that will enable their success?

SUPO Advisory Committees - For the past 6 years, SUPO has worked with two advisory groups as part of its mandate to support school-university partnerships: The External Advisory Committee (members include representatives in leadership positions from school boards, teacher federations, Ontario College of Teachers, Ministry of Education), and the Associate Teacher Advisory Committee (members include Associate Teachers from partner boards, and various OISE personnel from SUPO, Student Services, Elementary and Secondary). Discussions with both Advisory Committees often revolve around the questions raised above, and this year (2009) the Associate Teacher Advisory committee has expressed an interest in sharing their new understandings about supporting TCs at-risk with a wider audience of Associate Teachers.

Teacher Federation Booklet for AT's - At a provincial level, the Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation (OSSTF) has recently demonstrated their on-going commitment to the practicum experience by publishing a booklet titled "OSSTF/FEESO Advice for Associate Teachers." Members of the SUPO team found the entire contents of the booklet resonated with the beliefs, practices and goals of SUPO's work with Associate Teachers. Possible future

collaborations between OISE and the various teacher federations in addressing this area will benefit all involved.

Practicum Resource Team - At a provincial level, the Ontario College of Teachers has assembled a "Practicum Resource Writing Team" from around the province. The purpose of the team is to:

> Review current practices in Ontario, with the aid of research conducted by the Ontario College of Teachers and current practices in other jurisdictions, leading to the development of a final resource on successful practices in November, 2009. (personal communication, August, 2009)

There is indeed a forward-reaching momentum as we all grapple with the issues and complexities of supporting TC's at-risk in their field experiences. But we have a long way to go. Sharing the experiences and current practices we have at OISE is intended to provide some groundwork on which to journey. What ideas, or roads, are worth keeping or adapting? What roads need an "under construction" sign? What roads should be cemented or paved? And what new roads should be considered?

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Chapter 7

What Should Be the Role of Field Experiences inTeacher Education Programs?

DAVID DILLON and KEVIN O'CONNOR

We approach the question posed by the title of this manuscript by placing it against the backdrop of the generally acknowledged ineffectiveness of typical teacher education programs and frame it largely as a challenge of effectively integrating "theory" and "practice" in teacher education programs. We then seek to answer this question by drawing from three sources. The first is the long-standing debate about various approaches to professional programs within university contexts, more specifically "scientific" and "experiential" approaches. The second is the findings from recent surveys of exemplary teacher education programs that highlight several key traits of those strong programs. The third is a selective use of recent reviews of research on field experiences within teacher education programs. As a result of reviewing these three sources and the school-based work of one of the authors, we conclude that field experiences should be (1) early, extensive, interspersed, varied, and eventually student-driven, (2) always linked with structures that foster students' sense-making from those field experiences, utilizing an inquiry approach, such as self-reflective and socio-constructivist pedagogies, and (3) developed in a close, equal, and more multi-dimensional partnership with participating local schools.

> The goal of realistic teacher education is not to make student teachers into collectors of knowledge on teaching. We want them to become good teachers. (Korthagen, 2001, p. 30)

The surface question that is the title of this paper implies at a deeper level the traditional, and relatively intractable, problem in teacher education programs often referred to as "the theory-practice gap." That is, a great deal of research has confirmed that teacher education programs have been relatively ineffective in helping their students not only understand, but above all successfully apply in their field experiences the guidelines for teaching offered to them by their university course work. (See, especially, broad surveys of research by Wideen, Mayer-Smith & Moon, 1998; Clift & Brady, 2005). Instead, students are far more shaped in their development as teachers by their practicum experiences – which may or may not reflect in varying degrees the content of their teacher education course work – than they are by their course work (e.g., Zeichner & Tabachnik, 1981; Veenman, 1984; Elliot, 1991). The result for graduates at best is socialization into the way teachers already teach and, thus, continuation of the status quo in classrooms. At worst, graduates enter teaching ill-prepared to help children learn, undergo a difficult initiation into full-time teaching, and all too often leave the profession within several

© Authors. T. Falkenberg & H. Smits (Eds.). (2010). *Field experiences in the context of reform of Canadian teacher education programs* (2 vols., pp. 117-145). Winnipeg, MB: Faculty of Education of the University of Manitoba.

years. Thus, we will approach the question that is the subject of this paper through the lens of professional theory and practice and the relationship between the two in professional programs.

The common use of the terms "theory" and "practice" in teacher education as almost mutually exclusive is unfortunate since they are always inseparable. All learners have developed some kind of theory about all aspects of their experience, even if only crude, naïve, or incorrect. And all practice is driven by those theoretical guidelines, even if below the surface of conscious awareness. What the term "theory-practice gap" seems to refer to in teacher education is that guidelines for teaching offered in teacher education courses seem *abstract* to students, even if couched in applied ways, and thus difficult to integrate well in students' learning since students have limited teaching experience upon which to interpret and integrate the guidelines. In addition, when students are immersed in the "practice" of student teaching, they often feel that the guidelines offered in their program (those few that they may be able to remember!) are insufficient in the face of the enormous complexity of the classroom. The real issue at play here seems to be the relationship between learning about teaching on the one hand and learning to teach on the other. The following discussion will examine these issues in more detail.

Much of the effort to address this lack of effectiveness through the latest wave of teacher education reform in North America over the last two decades has focused on exploring alternatives in regard to the nature of field experiences and their place within teacher education programs. Any answer to the question addressed in this paper will derive in part from three main sources. One will be a philosophical/theoretical choice of an approach to professional learning and education. The second will be what we have learned about field experience from recent surveys of exemplary teacher education programs. A final source involves a brief survey of the results of recent research on field experiences within teacher education programs. This paper attempts to review these three key areas, as well as some of David's own recent school-based work with students, as a means of reaching some conclusions about this question.

Insights from Approaches to Learning in Professional Programs

While this question is a very broad and complex one, we will impose some simplicity on it by dividing most approaches to professional training into two major categories, a traditional and still typical one that seems to suffer from major shortcomings and a challenging alternative that offers a good deal of potential. For this analysis, we turn to the work of Schön (1987) because his notion of the "reflective practitioner" in professional practice has been adopted so widely by teacher education programs—at least rhetorically—and to the work of Korthagen (2001) since he so effectively foregrounds the particulars of a specific teacher education program against a backdrop of key, general issues of learning in teacher education. Both authors are primarily concerned with issues arising between the "theoretical," or abstract, work of university courses and the "practical" learning associated with practica in professional programs. Our goal is to reveal clearly the choices available to teacher education programs about the role of field experiences.

The Technical-Rationality, or Scientific, Approach

Schön's (1987) analysis of professional programs revealed that they were generally founded on what he called the "technical-rationality" approach, an approach based on educational implications of the scientific method, namely, researching professional practice, codifying the results about good practice into a set of guidelines to be followed in practice (provided to students in course work), and then providing students with later, and usually more limited, occasions to apply those guidelines in practice situations (usually referred to as practica). Teacher education programs have traditionally been based on this model, one that Carlson (1999) refers to as a "theory-to-practice" approach, Tom (1997) refers to as "stockpiling" knowledge for subsequent application in practice, and Korthagen (2001) refers to as starting with "important Theory with a capital T" (p. 20) as the basis for students' learning. Such an approach is based on an *objective* view of knowledge. Schön attributes this trend to the gradual inclusion of professional programs within the university and the professions' subsequent need to appear to the established components of the university as scholarly and rigorous in their training of future professionals, in order to justify their place in the university. (For a fuller discussion of this historical shift and emerging issues for teacher education specifically, see Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2005.)

However, Schön posits that such an approach cannot discover, teach, and help students apply all that proficient professionals need to know and be able to do in order to practice their profession competently and well. He claims that much of what research has helped us discover about professional practice informs us about lower-level and less important aspects of professional practice. What we know less about, he claims, is the highly complex, problematic, and open-ended aspects of professional practice, in other words, the situations for which there is no obvious right answer based in professional knowledge and the very aspects of practice that determine whether a professional conducts his or her practice well or not. Schön attributes this typical approach to professional education as the cause of the crisis of confidence that he saw afflicting a wide range of professional programs at the time. It is telling that his book *Educating the reflective practitioner* was published at about the same time, 1987, that teacher education programs were most recently decried as ineffective and calls were made from several influential quarters for reform of teacher education (The Holmes Group, 1986; Carnegie Corporation, 1986; Goodlad, 1988).

Korthagen (2001) also finds shortcomings in this traditional approach for teacher education. In trying to help students see how Theory (with a capital T) can apply in particular problematic situations, the teacher educator faces two problems. One is deciding which theory and which aspect of it may relate to the situation as perceived by the student. The other is finding a way to help the student learn the targeted theory. Too often the effort is not effective and the gap remains. In fact, a brief summary and examples of the traditional difficulties of teacher education programs can be portrayed as follows:

- There are few, if any, effects of teacher education course work that influence and shape student teachers' classroom practice (e.g., Zeichner & Tabachnik, 1981).

- Student teachers often feel overwhelmed as they struggle with a range of problems in their classrooms, making it difficult to use theory as a guide to practice (e.g., Veenman, 1984).
- Eventually, students blame teacher education as being too theoretical and useless (e.g., Elliott, 1991).

Recent surveys of the effectiveness of American teacher education programs indicate generally poor results (see, especially, Wideen, Meyer-Smith, & Moon, 1998). In concluding their analysis of the difficulties fostered by the separation of teacher education programs into courses on the one hand and student teaching on the other, Rosean and Florio-Ruane (2008) conclude, "As a consequence, our students quite appropriately divide their professional education into two unrelated parts as they are expected effectively to change discourses and cross culturally determined borders in order to learn." (p. 712) Such conclusions have prompted the need to explore alternate approaches to professional learning and development.

The Reflective Practice, or Experiential, Approach

Schön's (1983) earlier work explored an alternative way to learn about professional practice by studying professionals who do their work well, not only performing basic, research-based aspects of their practice, but performing their work with "artistry," developed through what he called the professional's knowing-in-action and supported by his or her reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. Knowing-in-action refers to the practitioner's intuitive wisdom of practice, the knowledge and ability that make the practitioner's practice good, but which are usually tacit and generally cannot be fully articulated. Reflection can occur *as* one practices—reflection-in-action—usually in response to unexpected variations or surprises that call for adjustments to the professional's practice. Such reflection can be hard to distinguish from knowing-in-action and is still difficult to articulate. It is reflection done *outside* of the practice (stopping during it or reflecting afterward)—reflection-on-action—that contains the potential to be able to start bringing the professional's practical knowing-in-action and reflection-in-action to conscious awareness and beginning to articulate it.

In a similar vein, Korthagen (2001) turns to Aristotle and Plato for insight on an alternative kind of "theory" to underpin alternate approaches to teacher education. In contrast to the theory of "expert" scientific knowledge—*episteme*—that is a generalization derived from many instances and is designed to explain and predict many instances, *phronesis* goes beyond the limit of what is able to be codified as *episteme* and refers instead to a kind of practical wisdom that is concerned with the important specifics of particular situations as a way of not only understanding them well, but of deciding how to respond to them well. While *phronesis* uses general rules as guidance or background, how a skilful practitioner perceives the myriad of particulars of any one contextualized instance is the more important factor in its development and use. Such knowledge is not only variable, but usually tacit. In reading and responding well to the complexity of various particular instances, it must of necessity be insightful, flexible, discerning, subtle, and intuitive. Such knowledge is *constructed* and Korthagen refers to it as "theory with a small t" (p. 20). However, he also points out that "an important prerequisite for this type of knowledge is that someone have enough proper *experience*." (p. 27; emphasis ours). In fact, he goes further to claim that experience is "the sine qua non of phronesis." (p. 29)

In considering the implications of his reflective practice theoretical stance for the education of professionals, Schön (1987) proposes a reflective practicum approach. First, he proposes placing the practicum at the very centre of a professional program, thus basically reversing the traditional figure-ground of courses and practica within a program. Second, in considering the nature of the practicum, he looks to the broad area of "design" as a metaphor for all artistic/creative professional practice and as a basis for imagining alternative professional practica. Third, he concludes that "design" cannot be taught in the traditional, technical-rational way for several reasons: it is knowing-in-action, it is a holistic skill, it depends on a learner's ability to recognize aspects of design in practice and vice-versa, and it is a creative activity. Instead, he proposes a "reflective practicum" in which the student must basically learn by doing, a crucial tenet of experiential education. ". . . a significant part of what a beginning student of design-like practice needs to learn, she cannot understand before she begins to design. She must begin to design in order to learn to design." (p. 163) However, in addition, Schön posits the importance in this practicum of two additional key features. One is the quality of the dialogue between the student and whom we might call his or her mentor, but whom Schön calls the "coach." He claims that the role of the coach is extremely important not so much for what the coach knows professionally, but for how well he or she can coach. The other is the importance of addressing the affective dimensions of the practicum, since this kind of learning is holistic and seeks to integrate the affective and cognitive dimensions of learning. Finally, Schön posits that the development of the student's professional abilities will depend on the extent to which reflection-in-action develops during the practicum. Note that rather than simply imagining what a reflective practicum might look like, Schön has based his proposal on an analysis of several kinds of extensive professional practica that already exist in professional programs within the traditions of studio, conservatory, and apprenticeship.

While Schön emphasizes the importance of the dialogue between expert coach and student for professional learning, he also acknowledges the potentially important role of fellow students in one's learning.

> Most practicums involve groups of students who are often as important to one another as the coach. Sometimes they play the coach's role. And it is through the medium of the group that a student can immerse himself in the world of the practicum . . . learning new habits of thought and action. (Schön, 1987, p. 38)

In regard to teacher education programs more specifically, Korthagen (2001) proposes an approach that starts, not with Theory, but rather with practical problems faced by student teachers. The approach is based on experiential learning and the promotion of reflection on students' teaching experiences. Through a constructivist learning process, "the student develops his or her knowledge in a process of reflection on practical situations, which creates a concern and a personal need for learning." (p. 15) The role of the teacher educator is not to impart scientific theory as guidance to students, but rather to foster *phronesis*, using students' practical experience as the base. He refers to this approach to teacher education as "realistic." Note too that Korthagen not only proposes such an approach to teacher education, but also describes in some detail how it actually works in the program in which he is involved at the University of Utrecht in the Netherlands.

Finally, both Schön and Korthagen clarify that the "reflective practice" or "realistic" approaches which they propose do not exclude a role for scientific, or expert, knowledge or

episteme in the professional learning of students. However, they both indicate that the key question is how and when that expert knowledge is used. For Schön, it may serve as a starting point in a graduated sequence of practical learning, moving from technical training to the eventual development of artistry.

> Perhaps we learn to reflect-in-action by first learning to recognize and apply standard rules, facts, and operations; then to reason from standard rules to problematic cases, in ways characteristic of the profession; and only then to develop and test new forms of understanding and action where familiar categories and ways of thinking fail. (Schön, 1987, p. 40)

Korthagen (2001) sees the teacher educator's expert knowledge, not as objective information to be transmitted to students as "answers," but rather as "an instrument of exploration of the student teacher's perceptions; it can generate questions, points of view, arguments, and such" (p. 30). In both cases, they propose approaches to knowledge and learning that are broader and more inclusive than that of the technical-rational, or scientific, approach.

Both Schön's and Korthagen's proposals are both more broadly rooted in a long tradition of experiential education, first articulated by Dewey (1938). In experiential learning learners are first immersed in the experience of the targeted learning and then are asked to reflect on and analyze their experience in order to make sense of it. Experiential education provides a purpose to the knowledge and reasoning taught in schools, provides a contextual framework for much of the curriculum (i.e., it gives meaning to school studies), and engages students in the conditions of their own reality. Thus:

- Experiential education places major importance on the knowledge of learners derived from a good deal of experiential learning, a sort of practice-to-theory approach (Dewey, 1938).
- Experiential education is defined as the process of actively engaging learners in an experience that will have real consequences (Tyler, 1949).
- By immersing themselves in direct experience, learners make discoveries and experiment with knowledge themselves instead of exclusively hearing or reading about the experiences of others (Kolb & Lewis, 1986).
- Learners also reflect on their experiences, with the goal of developing new skills, new attitudes, and new theories or ways of thinking. They test and refine that knowledge in socio-constructivist interaction with each other and with mentors who accompany them in their learning (Kraft & Sakofs, 1988).
- This process of experiential learning is a continuous process alternating between action in experience and opportunities to reflect upon that experience to make sense of it, and then returning to action to further test out and modify emerging hypotheses, followed by further reflection upon the new experience, and so on. In short, Dewey sees learning as a dialectic process between experience on the one hand and concepts, observations, and action on the other.

In summary, Kolb (1984) offers a working definition of experiential learning. "Learning is the process by which knowledge is created through the transformation of experience." (p. 38) In this view, learning is viewed as a continuous process grounded in experience as opposed to content or outcomes, knowledge is seen as a continuous transformation process of creation and re-creation rather than an independent and objective entity to be acquired or transmitted, and ultimately learning is seen as a process that transforms experience.

The Special Issue of Prior Knowledge in Teacher Education

Theories of experiential education acknowledge that learners bring existing knowledge and theory to their learning encounters, even if only crude or incorrect. While this predetermined knowledge and theory serves as an inescapable starting point for further learning, it can also be an obstacle to new learning. As Kolb (1984) indicates, "In many cases, resistance to new ideas stems from their conflict with old beliefs that are inconsistent with them." (p. 28) and he goes on to highlight the importance of beginning the learning process with learners' pre-existing knowledge.

> Put simply, it implies that all learning is relearning. . . . Thus, one's job as an educator is not only to implant new ideas but also to dispose of or modify old ones. If the education process begins by bringing out the learner's beliefs and theories, examining and testing them, and then integrating the new, more refined ideas into the person's system, the learning process will be facilitated. (p. 28)

While such an objective explanation makes perfect sense within the framework of experiential education, it may underestimate the challenge of changing learners' prior understandings through formal instruction, particularly adults with well-developed—though perhaps not consciously aware—knowledge and theory in their professional practice. Argyris and Schön (1974) shed important light not only on how to help professionals become skilful in their practice by learning new theories of action, but also on what prevents some professionals from learning to become skilful. In general, they note that professionals design their behaviour and develop theories for doing so. They refer to these theories as "theories of action" that determine professional practice. However, they found that theories of action are manifested by professionals in two ways. One is what they refer to as "theories-in-use" that form the basis of professionals' practice, but which are often tacit and implicit, and thus not accessible to conscious awareness. In other words, professionals are usually not able to explain them. On the other hand, professionals also have "espoused theories" which is how they describe and justify their professional behaviour.

In their work to help professionals become more effective in their practice by learning and using new theories of action, Argyris and Schön (1974) found that learners face several key hurdles to change.

- One is a lack of congruence between a learner's theory-in-use and his or her espoused theory, a lack of congruence which is often difficult for the learner to see. "We found that most people tend to be unaware of how their attitudes affect their behavior and also unaware of the negative impact of their behavior

on others. Their theories-in-use help them remain blind to their ineffectiveness." (p. viii)

- While learners may understand conceptually and even agree with the new theories of action which they encounter, they still hold on to their old theories that they use to determine their current practice.

> We thought the trouble people have in learning new theories of action may stem not so much from the inherent difficulty of the new theory as from existing theories that people have that already determine practice. We wondered whether the difficulty in learning new theories of action is related to a disposition to protect the old theories-in-use. (Argyris & Schön, 1974, p. viii)

Argyris and Schön explain this phenomenon by turning to Ashby's (1952) notion of "single-loop learning." That is, in order to protect their old theories-in-use, learners in a learning situation can learn, not new theories of action, but rather strategies and tactics for achieving their original objectives within their pre-existing theoretical framework, thus reproducing and strengthening their original theory-in-use and not really changing at all. Thus, their larger frame of reference remains unchanged, while any learning of new strategies on their part fits within that old frame of reference. (For example, over time some teachers may get quite good at direct instruction, but never shift to more student-centered approaches to learning.)

- On the other hand, they explain truly transformative learning of new behaviour on the part of professionals in terms of Ashby's notion of "double-loop learning." In this case, a learner's larger frame of reference, or theory of action, changes, thus leading her or him to acquire new strategies to support the new frame of reference. (An example might be that of a teacher shifting his or her theory in action on behaviour management in the classroom from control of pupils' external behaviour to fostering the development of social and emotional competence in pupils. Strategies within each respective frame of reference, and professional practice, are radically different.) However, such learning of new complex behaviour involves a good deal of unlearning and relearning and takes a good deal of time and support. Learners often have unrealistic expectations that new learning will be quick and easy. Instead, they tend to be shocked at how quickly and easily they revert to their old theories-in-use and how hard it is to incorporate new theories of action.

Thus, as important as experience is as a basis for professional learning, it is in itself no guarantee of new and more skilful learning in practice, as the title of Britzman's (2003) book about student teaching warns, *Practice Makes Practice,* rather than "practice makes perfect". Learners clearly need skilful help in order to learn well from their professional experience.

Furthermore, in the field of teacher education, there seem to be special issues of prior knowledge and theory at work for teacher education students. Lortie (1975) points out that, unlike most other professions, the work of teachers is viewed and observed extensively by virtually everyone, as a result of being pupils in school for so many years. For those people

who eventually become teacher education students, those years in school serve as a long "apprenticeship of observation" (p. 61) which serves as a base for them to develop extensive theories about the work of teachers, theories that become well established over time and which they bring as active working models to their teacher education programs. Yet Lortie goes on to point out that these working models derived from being pupils in school may be more problematic than helpful for becoming a teacher because they are based on a pupil perspective and not on that of a teacher. Furthermore, since pupils are usually not privy to a teacher's perspective, decision making, and professional knowledge, they can only imagine them at best. Thus, "what students learn about teaching, then, is intuitive and imitative rather than explicit and analytical; it is based on individual personalities rather than pedagogical principles." (p. 62) As a result, this kind of learning about teaching is not like an actual apprenticeship with access to professional knowledge and know-how. The result of this simplistic and inaccurate theory-building is that students often underestimate the difficulties of teaching and have difficulty integrating new information about teaching which they encounter in their teacher education programs. As Lortie concludes, "The mind of the education student is not a blank awaiting inscription." (p. 66)

Challenges to Implementing Reflective Practicum Approaches

A major challenge faced by professional programs in universities is trying to bridge the gap between discipline-centered academia and the practice-centered profession, to respond to the research expectations of the university and the need to prepare competent future practitioners for the profession. Schön (1987) proposed the reflective practicum as a major means of achieving that goal, yet he was clear about the challenges inherent in trying to do so. ". . . the challenge is to create a workable marriage of applied science and artistry, classroom teaching and reflective practice" (p. 171). Without this "workable marriage" the theory-practice gap will continue.

A major challenge is that of the university truly placing priority on this shift. If it is not taken seriously, it has little chance of success. As Schön (1987) points out,

> A reflective practicum is unlikely to flourish as a second-class activity. The professional school must give it high status and legitimacy . . . Coaches must be first-class faculty members, and criteria for recruiting, hiring, promotion, and tenure must reflect this priority. Moreover the process of coaching and the learning experiences of the practicum must become central to the intellectual discourse of the school. (p. 171)

A final and vital component of this change is a shift in the focus of research activity within the school. Schön proposes research that studies how students in professional programs develop (or fail to develop) artistry in their practice and how the coaching efforts of faculty have an influence (or not) on that development. The goal would be to link new insight about the knowledge-in-action and the reflection-in-action of competent practitioners to the scientific knowledge taught as professional knowledge in courses. Schön goes on to warn of the danger of not doing so:

> Otherwise the schools will find it difficult to determine how their earlier conceptions of professional knowledge and teaching stand in relation to competences central to practice and practicum; their efforts to create a reflective practicum may only produce a new version of a dual curriculum in which classroom teaching and practicum have no discernable relation to each other. (p. 171)

Implications for Teacher Education Programs

In regard to teacher education programs more specifically, theories of reflective practice or experiential education suggest several key principles for imagining an alternate role for field experiences within teacher education programs.

- If immersion in experience is the basis of learning, in this case the experience of being a teacher, then field experiences should be much more central to teacher education programs than they tend to be. Field experiences, it would seem, need to be early in a program, interspersed throughout a program, varied in kind and purpose, and generally extensive in nature, since "double-loop" learning takes a good deal of time.
- If an equally important component of experiential education is the opportunity and support for learners to reflect on their experience in order to make sense of it, then it seems that all field experiences need to incorporate such reflective opportunities structurally in a program, so that field experience does not stand alone and separate in a program.
- If students' prior knowledge is both a starting point and potential hurdle for their professional learning, then it seems that it needs to be exposed for examination and discussion at early stages of a professional program.
- If the expert's key role is one of coaching for developing reflection-on-action or fostering *phronesis*, it suggests the development of pedagogies and roles for teacher educators that are alternative to typical instructor transmission approaches based on expert knowledge.
- If practitioner knowledge is to be created, or constructed, through this reflection rather than taken on fully developed from experts, then it suggests fostering a certain kind of constructive learning process that requires groups of practicing students learning together.
- Finally, unlike the campus-based practica that Schön tends to analyze, and which are subject to a high degree of university influence and control, teacher education needs to work with schools in order to provide practical experiences for students. The closely integrated relationship between experience and reflection which is experiential education suggests the need for universities to develop a closely integrated partnership with schools in regard to field experiences, a partnership that includes shared decision making, overlapping and integrated roles, and benefits for both sides.

Insights from Teacher Education Reform and Exemplary Programs

Teacher education programs are complex and based on a number of key aspects. The most recent wave of teacher education reform has addressed a wide range of those issues, from recruitment and acceptance of students into programs, to the curriculum of teacher education, to evaluation and assessment of student progress, and so on. However, the aspect of field experience has been a key feature of calls for the improvement of teacher education. In general, the calls have been for increased practical experience for teacher education students, particularly by means of fuller partnerships with local schools as a means of providing more frequent and extensive practical experiences in teaching. The Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy (1986) supported the development of "clinical schools", the Holmes Group (1986) called for the development of "professional development schools", and Goodlad (1988) advocated "partner schools". Despite the different terminology, the general goal was the same. "The intention of this collaboration is to connect theory and practice in education so that they reciprocally inform each other." (Teitel, 1998, p. 85)

Yet despite this long-standing call for more extensive and enhanced practical experience for teacher education students, it still seems to remain a call—and a challenge—for many programs. Recent proposals for enhancement of teacher education programs reiterate much the same need. Korthagen, Loughran, and Russell's (2006) development of fundamental principles for reforming teacher education programs begins by highlighting the important base of experience in a program.

> At the heart of the intention of reflective practice is the development of the role of experience in pre-service teacher education as a central plank of all the programs considered in this study and, as such, learning from experience is critical in shaping the following principles. (p. 1025)

Darling-Hammond's (2006a) conclusions about the nature of effective teacher education programs includes as a major component ". . . extensive and intensely supervised clinical work integrated with course work using pedagogies that link theory and practice . . ." (p. 300).

Lessons about the Role of Field Experience from ExemplaryTeacher Education Programs

A very important development in recent years has been the step of moving beyond calls for reform in teacher education to examination of effective teacher education programs that exemplify those calls for reform. Several recent surveys of a small number of exemplary teacher education programs (Darling-Hammond, 2006b; Beck & Kosnick, 2006) have yielded a good deal of insight on how to prepare teachers effectively, including the central role of field experience in a program.

Darling-Hammond surveyed seven American teacher education programs that varied widely in size, structure, and location, yet were all judged to be exemplary. The operational definition of "exemplary" was based on the programs' strong reputation among employers, students' evaluations of the effectiveness of their programs, and evaluations of recent graduates' ability to establish and run effective programs for pupils. As a starting point,

Darling-Hammond points out that all these programs had a very clear vision of the kind of teacher they wished to foster. In light of the complexities of teaching nowadays and the range of learning needs exhibited by an increasingly diverse pupil population, the goal of these programs is to foster the development of teachers who are knowers and thinkers, capable of considering the many complex situations which they face in school and of engaging in complex decision making based on insightful knowledge about learners, curriculum, and pedagogy. In short, graduates of these programs are adaptive in their work with children rather than formulaic, widening the conditions for learning in their classrooms in order to help more children succeed in their learning.

Despite the differences among the seven programs, Darling-Hammond sought to highlight key, common aspects of these programs. One major focus of her survey is the content, or the "what," of the programs. She found that they addressed three major aspects of teaching in interrelated ways: knowledge of learners, conceptions of curriculum, and understanding of teaching. (p. 83). Another major focus of her survey was the process, or the "how," of the programs—the aspect that she felt was the major challenge for teacher education programs. This is the focus that deals with the role of field experience in a program and, thus, will be summarized in greater detail.

As a further preliminary note, Darling-Hammond felt that the processes of these programs were effective since they clearly addressed three major problems of teacher education. First is the problem of "the apprenticeship of observation" that shapes students' knowledge about and perspectives on teaching to a great extent before they even begin a teacher education program. Second is what Kennedy (1999) refers to as "the problem of enactment." That is, while it is one thing to know about teaching or even to begin thinking like a teacher; it is quite another to learn to *act* like a teacher. This problem has been a major challenge for teacher education programs over time and directly addresses the role and place of field experience vis-à-vis course work in a program. Third is what Darling-Hammond calls "the problem of complexity," referring to the extremely complex nature of teaching and the difficulty of helping prospective teachers learn all that they need to master in order to be effective as teachers. (pp. 35-40)

Darling-Hammond (2006a) highlights three features of these programs that tend to make them very effective.

- "The first is a tight coherence and integration among courses and between course work and clinical work in schools . . ." (2006a, p. 306). She found that these programs continually interwove courses and practica across the entire program, virtually all course work involved applications in classrooms, pedagogies were used that confronted the problems of teaching and that fostered reflection on teaching (e.g., logs/journals, research inquiries, autobiography and self-reflection, etc.), the programs integrated the traditionally separate roles of instructor, supervisor, and mentor teachers through overlapping and sharing of responsibilities, and student learning occurred in small-scale professional community.

  > The clinical experiences are also tightly tied to simultaneous course work and seminars that pose tasks and problems to be explored in the clinical setting and that support analysis and further learning about practice. This

> combination of theoretical and practical study is a particularly important change from the traditional approach, which front-loads theory, does not enable applications, and therefore does not support grounded analysis of teaching and learning. (Darling-Hammond, 2006b, p.154)

- The second feature is "extensive and intensely supervised clinical work integrated with course work using pedagogies that link theory and practice" (Darling-Hammond, 2006a, p. 300). In terms of the extent of field experiences, Darling-Hammond concludes that a total of 30 weeks of field experience would be minimal for an effective program. Indeed, the programs reviewed in her survey offer field experiences that start with a minimum of nine to fifteen weeks at a time and range up to a full school year. Participating schools were carefully chosen on the basis of two criteria. One was that they reflected well in practice the content of the teacher education program, thus providing congruent learning experiences for students. The other is that they were schools serving a diverse and challenging population of pupils—and serving them well. Field experiences were also linked with courses that employed pedagogies such as close analyses, case studies, performance assessments, and action research, all designed to link theory and practice.

> The divide is not the traditional one in which the university owns the theory and the school owns practice, but instead a more integrated set of experiences in which the school mentors rely on and impart theoretical understandings of practice while university instructors use and help develop practices that are theoretically rich but also eminently practical. (Darling-Hammond, 2006b, p. 154)

- The third feature is "closer, proactive relationships with schools that serve diverse learners effectively and develop and model good teaching." (Darling-Hammond, 2006a, p. 300) Such partnerships build a professional community of university faculty, school staff, and teacher education students working to develop not only stronger teacher education programs, but also stronger schools that succeed in helping pupils learn effectively. Students are usually placed in clusters in schools and often begin by learning to look in classrooms and move on to assume graduated responsibility for teaching during their programs.

> In these relationships, the roles of university and school staff change from the norm in which university-based instructors teach courses at the university and then send students out to learn "techniques" from school-teachers. In many cases, school- and university-based personnel co-plan the program as a whole along with courses within it, school-based teachers also work as co-instructors of university courses, some courses are taught in the schools by school-based and university-based faculty, some university faculty work in the field and are placed in the schools, and the university supports professional development for veteran teachers as well as novices. In many cases, school and university faculty and administrators are involved

> in school reform work together, with the goal being mutual renewal of the school and university, rather than "missionary work" in which university folks see it as their crusade to go out and change the schools. (Darling-Hammond, 2006a, p. 155)

In a somewhat similar survey, Beck and Kosnik (2006) surveyed seven effective teacher education programs, five American and two Australian, as well as the cohort in which they work in their own Canadian program. While they do not characterize the programs as "exemplary," they highlight the clear social constructivist approach that undergirds each of the programs and refer to this feature as a "progressive alternative" (p. 1) to the discredited traditional transmission approaches in teacher education. They identify three major characteristics that the programs share. The first is *integration*, particularly integration of theory and practice, as well as integration of all aspects of the person for learning. Second is *inquiry* as an approach to teaching and learning—as opposed to traditional transmission of expert knowledge. They characterize the approach as non-authoritarian, that is, involving "constant dialogue and co-learning, extensive opportunities for students to reflect, give input, and develop their own ideas" (p. 24). Third is *community*, a feature essential for social constructivism. While student learning is cooperative, it is also holistic, providing not only intellectual challenge but also emotional support for students to take risks, develop their pedagogy, and find personal meaning in their work.

It is under the heading of *integration* that Beck and Kosnik focus most on the role of field experience in the programs. They find that these programs strongly integrate their campus program and practica through several key strategies:

- Practicum experiences are spread across the entire program.
- The programs not only carefully select mentor teachers, but also provide ongoing professional support for them.
- Relationships with schools are based on the notion of school partnerships and students are placed in schools in clusters.
- The programs involve the same staff members both on campus and in the practicum schools.
- Students work in relatively small groups. That is, either programs are small or smaller subgroups are created within larger programs.
- Assignments, meetings, etc. are designed to link campus learning and school experience through an inquiry approach to learning in community.

A closely related and complementary feature of integration in these programs is that they model an integrated approach in their own teaching.

In addition, the authors also consider the role of field experience to a lesser extent under the program feature of *inquiry*. By inquiry the authors understand an open, non-authoritarian, questioning approach to dealing with the problems of teaching. However, it also refers to a continual inquiry into practice through a long process of action, reflection on action, returning to action with renewed insight, returning to reflection with new questions, and so on. For the authors, an inquiry approach to learning absolutely requires an extensive and continual base of experience throughout a program.

> Inquiry involves movement back and forth between theory and practice: neither can be developed effectively without the other. An inquiry-oriented pre-service program, then, has to deal constantly with questions of practice as well as theory, linking the campus program closely with the practicum. Only in this way will student teachers acquire a deep interest in theory and become reflective, critical practitioners. (Beck & Kosnik, 2006, p. 61)

While the key features for creating effective teacher education programs seem to be emerging fairly clearly from these two surveys, the authors of both surveys echo Schön's (1987) warnings about the challenges of implementing reflective practicum approaches in university programs. Both authors point out clearly an array of daunting challenges for the implementation of these features faced by most teacher education programs. The reason for such a set of challenges is that many of the features of these strong programs are based on different principles and priorities than those to which most university-based teacher education programs must respond. Only by addressing the existing principles and priorities that undergird their present practice would most teacher education programs have even a chance of implementing some of these features of effective programs.

Summary

In sum, these two recent surveys of strong teacher education programs, while somewhat differently framed, reach similar conclusions. In essence, these programs:

- offer extensive field experiences across the entire program in clustered placements in schools,
- which are always closely linked with course work that employs pedagogies designed to foster social knowledge construction and self-reflection based on students' experience,
- conducted through smaller groupings of students,
- that allow for a spiral learning model that alternates again and again between action and reflection-on-action, and
- implemented through strong partnerships and integrated staffing roles with local schools.

As such, these features match well the programmatic implications of the theory of experiential education reviewed earlier in this paper, yet at the same time present major challenges to implementation on the part of most teacher education programs that have been based on a technical-rationality approach.

Insights from Research on the Role of Field Experiences in Teacher Education

A final source of information from which we draw in answering the question about the role of field experiences in teacher education is a review of research on field experiences. However, rather than attempting a thorough review of a large body of work, we have opted to look selectively at several significant reviews of research over the past few decades, but focusing particularly on reviews of recent research.

The three editions of the *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education* provide an interesting historical perspective on the place and state of field experience in teacher education.

- The first handbook (Houston, Haberman, & Sikula, Eds., 1990) surprisingly devoted only one chapter, out of 48 total chapters, to the topic of field experiences within teacher education, "Student Teaching and School Experience" (Guyton & McIntyre, 1990), within a section entitled "Processes of Teacher Education." The authors of that chapter found that field experiences usually occurred separately from the rest of the program (much like their chapter!) and also that there were few mechanisms or structures to foster cooperation or resolve disputes among supervisors, teachers, and students.
- The second edition of the handbook (Sikula, Buttery, & Guyton, Eds., 1996) also devoted only one chapter, out of 48 total chapters, to the topic of field experiences within teacher education, "Field and Laboratory Experiences" (McIntyre, Byrd, & Foxx, 1996), within a broad section entitled "Recruitment, Selection, and Initial Preparation." However, another chapter in the same section, "Professional Development Schools" (Book, 1996), also deals somewhat with field experiences in teacher education programs. The authors noted a trend that was emerging in more recent research on field experience: an attempt to define the purposes of field experiences and the goals of teacher education as a way of considering the kind of teachers that programs sought to develop and the kind of experiences that were necessary to foster that kind of development. However, they noted that there were still insufficient data to determine if more recent approaches to field experiences were actually preparing teachers who were more reflective and effective than teachers who had followed more traditional approaches to field experiences.
- The third edition of the handbook (Cochran-Smith, Fieman-Nemser, McIntyre, & Demers, Eds., 2008) makes a departure from the first two by not only conducting straightforward reviews of recent research on particular aspects of teacher education, but also discussing the "enduring questions" of teacher education through the addition of historical documents and present-day commentaries. More interestingly, in this edition the topic of field experience (1) receives proportionally more attention and (2) attention to it is more integrated within several larger topics, making it harder to pinpoint a particular section or chapter that deals with it. This handbook is divided into nine broad sections and at least two have a large focus on field experiences,

> primarily in "Section 3 Where Should Teachers be Taught?" (Zeichner, Ed.) and partly in "Section 6 How Do People Learn to Teach?" (Fieman-Nemser, Ed.), although mention is made of it elsewhere to lesser extents. The various authors approach the topic as problematic and explore a range of approaches and options to field experience and how it fits within teacher education programs.

Clearly, with the publication of this latest handbook the topic of field experience has increased in importance, the notion of it is now a more complex and multiple one, and it tends to be considered in close relation with the rest of a teacher education program.

Another significant review of recent research in teacher education is the report of the AERA Panel on Research and Teacher Education (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, Eds., 2005). This report is organized around nine major topics, one of which, "Research on Methods Courses and Field Experiences" (Clift & Brady, 2005), deals with field experiences within teacher education programs. Once again, (1) the proportion of attention devoted to field experiences is greater than had traditionally been the case and (2) the topic is not dealt with alone, but rather in conjunction with at least part of teacher education programs. A key framing question in this chapter is the extent to which students actually apply in their student teaching the recommended practices from their methods courses. Significantly, such a framing question unquestioningly assumes a "technical-rationality" (Schön, 1987), or "theory-to-practice" (Carlson, 1999), approach to teacher education.

The authors' review of recent research on the extent to which teacher education students actually practice in their student teaching the content of their on-campus methods courses reveals a challenging situation. They note that on-campus courses can impact students' thinking about practice, "but implementing practice based on beliefs is neither linear nor simple" (p. 15). In fact, the research they reviewed provided a good deal of evidence of the difficulty of moving from intention to action for students—and even for teacher educators! 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. It was easiest for students to adopt recommended practices in their teaching when their field experiences modeled those practices, as was often the case when teacher education programs were linked with Professional Development Schools, though even in these situations students at times still experienced conflicting perspectives. The authors also point out that almost all studies were relatively short-term, that is usually within one school year, and they call for longer-term studies that follow pre-service teachers into their first years of teaching.

In summary, these sobering findings echo the earlier findings on the general ineffectiveness of teacher education programs by Wideen et al. (1998) and clearly highlight (1) the major effect on students of their "apprenticeship of observation," (2) the very challenging "problem of enactment" that students face in their teaching, and (3) the difficulty for teacher educators of fostering "double-loop," or transformative, learning for students in "theory-to-practice" teacher education programs.

Implications for the Role of Field Experiences in Teacher Education Programs

We discuss the implications for field experiences from the above three sources—approaches to learning in professional programs, exemplary programs, and the results of recent research—under the two primary aspects of experiential education—immersion in experience and learning from experience. We also flesh out our implications with insight from various school-based approaches that David has implemented over recent years and which Kevin has helped him research. Because experience as a teacher is usually provided to teacher education students in local schools, we also give special attention to the nature of university-school relationships. Finally, while field experiences in teacher education will occur predominantly in schools, they are also possible in various community settings. In general, while primarily aimed at schools, the following comments apply to community settings as well.

Field Experiences

A beginning implication is that there should be *an early and extensive field experience in a teacher education program.* If experience in the targeted professional practice is the base for learning and should be at the centre of a program according to Schön (1987), then it seems that it must occur early in a program. In addition, if Lortie (1975) is correct that a major problem with the "apprenticeship of observation" is that students develop their prior knowledge about teaching from a pupil perspective rather than from a teacher perspective, then it seems important to place students in a teacher perspective at a very early point in their program in order to begin exposing and changing that prior knowledge and perspective. Finally, Clift and Brady's (2005) review of recent research highlights how generally ineffective prior course work is in shaping student teachers' actual practice during field experiences.

Such an implication challenges the conventional wisdom and approach of providing students with a graduated approach to their field experiences during a teacher education program. That is, students often begin with some limited classroom observation, then begin some limited teaching within a shorter field experience, and eventually move on to more extended teaching responsibility in a slightly longer field experience. Such an approach does not provide much of an experiential base for a program. In addition, it is doubtful that such limited and highly scaffolded experiences will help dislodge the false impression derived from the "apprenticeship of observation" that teaching is relatively easy, since students do not have the chance to become aware of its complexity. Indeed, observation of teaching by teacher education students would be more effective *after* they have had extensive teaching experience, since they would then be able to observe through a teacher lens rather than a pupil lens.

A second implication is that *field experiences should generally be extensive in nature, be interspersed throughout a program, and make up a substantial portion of a teacher education program.* Because teaching is such a complex process and since, according to Argyris and Schön (1974), truly transformative, or "double-loop," learning takes a good deal of time, then extensive time in field experiences seem called for in teacher education programs. That is, it takes considerable time as a student teacher to be able to step into a teacher's shoes fully enough to begin experiencing—and appreciating—the complex, fluid, decision-making nature of a teacher's work. Furthermore, if experiential learning is a continual cycle of action and reflection on

action, followed by a return to action with new insight and further reflection on that action, and so on as a major means of developing proficiency, even artistry, in a complex professional practice, then students would need several occasions to be substantially immersed in practice during their program. ". . . the work of a reflective practicum takes a long time. Indeed, nothing is so indicative of progress in the acquisition of artistry as the student's discovery of the time it takes . . ." (Schön, 1987, p. 311) In addition, research evidence 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 (Baumgartner et al., 2002; Denton, 1982; Denton et al., 1982; Henry, 1983; Ross et al., 1981; Sunal, 1980). Finally, this implication echoes Darling-Hammonds' (2006a) conclusion that teacher education programs require a minimum of 30 weeks of field experiences in order to be effective.

Such an implication raises the question of whether short field experiences (that is, 3 to 5 weeks) have much value at all in a teacher education program, since it doubtful how well students can read a complex situation, get to know pupils well, and take on a good deal of teacher responsibility in such a short time.

For example, David offers an alternative approach to the third-year fall semester of McGill's four-year elementary B.Ed program based on principles of experiential education and designed to better integrate practice and theory (both capital T and small t). It basically immerses students in the experience of teaching over the entire semester from late August to mid-December in clustered groups in local schools and supports students in the construction of their knowledge during the experience through weekly seminars and the development of a professional teaching portfolio. His experience in this alternative over the past six years suggests that it takes 6 to 8 weeks for most students to be able to step into a teacher's shoes fully enough in order to begin developing a teacher perspective and experiencing the complexity of teachers' work, not only with pupils but also within a school staff and a community of parents. In this late-August to mid-December school-based experience, students tend to become teachers only during November. His previous work with "regular" student teachers in 7- to 8-week field experiences always led him to believe that it was only toward the end of those field experiences that students were ready to begin strong development as teachers—just as those field experiences unfortunately were ending. Indeed, virtually all students who complete David's alternative semester self-assess themselves as being ready for the next step of running their own classroom.

A third implication, despite the second one, is that, if experience is the base for learning, then *field experiences should be varied in nature and purpose throughout a teacher education program.* That is, in addition to the major field experiences that should be the base and anchor of a teacher education program, there are many other kinds of practical experiences that can occur in a program and that can substantially refine and improve students' development as teachers. These additional practical experiences are usually linked with individual courses and will tend to be more limited and targeted in regard to student learning in light of the goals of the course. The most common examples of these kinds of complementary practical experiences are methods courses that provide students with classroom-based experiences to help them observe and/or apply the methods that they are studying in the course. However, even foundation courses can include practical experiences for students, for example, observations of children in learning situations as part of a learning theory course. If students have had an early and extensive field experience in their program, then these kinds of more targeted experiences can help to refine aspects of a student's development, such as specific areas of practice (e.g.,

assessment and evaluation), subject areas (e.g., math or science), or age levels (e.g., early childhood education), since they will have already developed a holistic view of a teacher's work and will have an emerging self-assessment of what they need to work on in their development. In this sense, the traditional and narrow notion of "field experience" becomes blurred and extended, yielding the possibility of a range of kinds of practical experiences during a teacher education program. Once again, such an implication reflects characteristics of strong teacher education programs (Beck & Kosnik, 2006; Darling-Hammond, 2006b) that closely link course work and field experience.

For example, David teaches a methods course on improvisational drama for elementary education students. Few students have had experience with such a subject area and thus need a good deal of experience with it. As a result, he uses class time for demonstrating the approach with students, but then their assignments are classroom- or community-based ones in which they plan, conduct, and critically analyze the outcomes of their lessons with pupils.

A fourth implication is that, if "realistic" teacher education (Korthagen, 2001) is to be based on the practical issues of teaching faced by students, then *field experiences should eventually become more student-driven*. That is, as students develop as teachers during a program, they will become clearer about their needs and interests as future teachers and they would benefit from occasions to be able to pursue those needs and interests within a program. Such a step would allow students to tap into their motivation, thus bringing greater meaning and ownership to a school-based experience, as well as conferring greater autonomy and responsibility on students, or in other words, treating them more as teachers. It can also allow students to continue exploring and shaping their emerging identities as teachers. An appropriate analogy for such a student-driven field experience might be that of an honors thesis in an academic program, in which students, later in their program, find a topic of interest and develop a substantial academic project on that topic, as a sort of capstone to their program. Such an implication also erodes the traditional "cookie cutter" approach to teacher education programs—and field experiences—that all students are run through the same experiences, as an attempt to standardize a program.

For example, David offers an elective course of 3 to 6 credits to elementary students late in their program that is essentially a tailored practicum, one that they negotiate with a school whom they know and who knows them, designed to enhance the student's development as an emerging teacher as well as to help the school achieve its mission. Students may try teaching an age/grade level or subject area that they have not had the chance to teach before, they may explore related roles in a school such as resource teacher, behavior consultant, and so on, or they may work with pupils in extra-curricular ways such as setting up and running a girls' club, a homework program, or a special interest program (drama, robotics, dance, etc.) Despite the fact that virtually all students who complete David's fall term school-based project feel ready to handle their own classroom, they all also report a very deep awareness of the kind of further development that they still need and often take advantage of this tailored practicum to extend and enhance their development as teachers. This tailored experience usually becomes a strong element in how students present themselves for teaching positions and how they propose that they can contribute in unique ways to schools.

Learning from Field Experiences

In regard to helping students learn well from their field experiences, a first implication is that it seems extremely important to *always link field experiences with structured experiences in a program (such as courses, seminars, on-line discussion groups, etc.) that are designed to foster students' reflection and analysis on those experiences*. As Schön (1987) explains and Darling-Hammond (2006b) and Beck and Kosnik (2006) document, such occasions provide the opportunity to develop the knowing-in-action of students' practice by helping to foster their reflection-on-action outside of that practice. Indeed, one of the main criticisms of attempts at experiential education is the lack of substantial and effective means of reflection on those experiences (Breunig, 2005). Such structured occasions linked to field experiences seem important in light of the difficulty, in the terminology of Argyris and Schön (1974), that many learners have in changing their theories-in-use or seeing the lack of congruence between their often tacit theories-in-use and their espoused theories, despite a good deal of practical experience, thus resulting in limited "single-loop" learning. In addition, while such structured occasions might occur after a field experience, it seems ideal to provide these kinds of occasions on a regular basis concurrently with the field experience in order to increase the chances of new insight and new behavior during the experience. Thus, there seems to be little or no room for the traditional field experience that stands alone from the rest of the program. Rather, all field experiences need to be closely linked with the rest of the program since simply including more field experience in a program is not the answer in itself. The key is what is done with that experience.

A second implication addresses what is done pedagogically in these structured occasions to foster reflection and analysis on students' experience. The above review suggests that several aspects are extremely important if these structured occasions are to achieve their goals.

- One is that it seems quite important to try to *expose and examine students' prior knowledge, perspectives, and beliefs on teaching* developed from their "apprenticeship of observation" (Lortie, 1975), since they are such powerful forces in students' practice and so difficult to transform.
- Another is that *a socio-constructivist and/or self-reflective pedagogy* seems necessary in order to foster within students reflection-on-action (after Schön) or *phronesis* (after Korthagen). Furthermore, such a pedagogical approach implies *the use of assignments and student work that will help foster reflection, promote a congruent link between theory and practice, etc.,* as was true of the strong teacher education programs surveyed by Darling-Hammond (2006a) and Beck and Kosnik (2006). Such assignments include portfolios, action research, analyses of teaching and learning, and so on.
- Finally, socio-constructivism implies *groups of students working together to make sense of their experiences*. As Schön (1987) points out, students often play the role of "coach" for each other during a program and the strong programs surveyed by Beck and Kosnik (2006) all exhibited this deliberate building of community in order to foster group learning. This step would be essential in the seminars or courses addressed in this point, but also during their field experiences by clustering students in schools. Such an approach to helping students learn together, essentially as pedagogical communities of practice, prepares them for

later work in schools that are striving to become professional learning organizations.

Such a shift challenges in a major way the traditional transmission approach to teaching in teacher education programs and raises key questions about the role of the teacher educator's expertise in this pedagogy. In addition, such a shift would probably present new challenges to teacher educators in working with students who now have a good deal of teaching experience. Rather than primarily presenting students with guidelines for future teaching, the teacher educator's role becomes that of helping to foster group inquiry into their past or current teaching experience. Above all, this implication suggests that it is not enough to simply create these occasions in courses or seminars. Rather the key point seems to be how these occasions are shaped and conducted. "The coach's legitimacy does not depend on his scholarly attainments or proficiency as a lecturer but on the artistry of his coaching practice" (Schön, 1987, p. 311).

For example, students who have completed David's fall term school-based project report that the weekly seminar during the term was an equally important complement to their long immersion in teaching, since it created an occasion to step back from their daily work as teachers and reflect upon it. However, they also report that how the seminar was run was extremely important. That is, they valued the use of their teaching experience as the basis for discussion in the seminars, a flexible approach to seminar topics that mirrored their stages of developmental during the term, a problem-posing pedagogy that helped them make sense of their experience and re-vision their future teaching, and the development of a professional teaching portfolio during the semester that fostered not only the development of their professional knowledge, but also their emerging identity as a teacher. Furthermore, students reported the importance of the development of strong and healthy group relationships, or community, in the school groups and the larger seminar groups. Such relationships provided not only support within the groups, but also a feeling of safety as students often struggled with their practice and their attempts to improve it. The overall result reported by students is that they learn to think and act as teachers, rather than students.

School-University Partnerships

The implications discussed thus far have been developed entirely from a teacher education perspective. However, increased field experiences, as well as closer links between them and course work, impact local schools that provide those field experiences. Such a change implies a different relationship between universities and schools than the traditional one of simply "placing" students in local schools. This new relationship with schools is the linchpin of the above recommendations and, thus, is the most important and basic point in this set of conclusions.

As background, the most recent wave of teacher education reform in North America, particularly in the United States, that began in the mid-1980s suggested more extensive school-based experience for teacher education candidates and called for closer relationships between teacher education programs and local schools. The rationale was that each institution was under strain and criticism in regard to how well each was achieving its goals and it was proposed that they would achieve their goals better by working together in partnership rather than continuing to work relatively separately (Carnegie Forum on Education and the

Economy, 1986; Holmes Group, 1986; Goodlad, 1988). Canadian universities have also long tried to bridge the theory-practice gap**.** Upon reviewing teacher education reforms, Russell, McPherson, and Martin (2001) identified collaboration, along with coherence, as keys to teacher education reform in Canada. Despite the different terminology, the goal of the partnership was the same, namely, that teacher education reform and school reform advance hand in hand. The ultimate goal of the partnership was improved student achievement. Yet that goal was to be fostered through several avenues: strengthened teacher education, enhanced professional development, improved curriculum development, and collaborative inquiry (Osguthorpe, R. et al., 1995).

Pre-service teacher education within school-university partnerships has most often taken the form of Professional Development Schools (PDSs). Most approaches are based on a small set of common principles: (1) students usually work within targeted schools in larger than average clusters, anywhere from 4-5 up to 20-25 depending on the nature of the experience, to support each other as well as the school, (2) students usually experience longer and/or more frequent field experiences in these schools in order to more fully experience the demands of teaching and to better develop basic abilities of teaching, (3) the conceptual learning of course work is integrated with the experiential learning of practical work in the field setting, and (4) responsibility for teacher interns is viewed as a school-wide concern rather than that of a single teacher, so that students feel assigned to a school as much as to a teacher (Barnhart et al., 1995).

While there has been a proliferation of PDSs in the last few decades, research into its effectiveness is relatively recent. Most of the emerging research focuses on outcomes for teacher education students as a result of their experience in a PDS, usually based on self-reporting mechanisms, such as surveys, interviews, journal entries, and questionnaires. As Abdal-Haqq (1998) notes, this literature conveys the impression that pre-service teachers who have experienced PDS-based approaches: 1) utilize more varied pedagogical methods and practices, 2) are more reflective, 3) enter teaching with more knowledge of school routine and activities beyond the classroom, 4) feel more confidence in their knowledge and skill as professionals and subsequently experience less "culture shock" when they become practicing teachers, 5) feel themselves to be better equipped to instruct ethnically and linguistically diverse student populations and are more likely to seek employment in inner-city schools when their practica stress work in urban areas, 6) have lower attrition rates during the first few years of teaching and are more likely to "hit the ground running" when they become employed. In contrast to this highly positive picture, Hopkins, Hoffman, and Moss (1997) found that PDS interns experienced higher levels of stress than their peers in traditional settings. In addition, it has been shown that intense and long-term immersion in school settings can lead to socialization into the existing culture of the school (Wideen et al., 1998) and an accompanying dislike for reflection and theory (Cole, 1997) , thus working against reform.

Nonetheless, there seems to be widespread agreement on the potential benefits of partnerships. Bacharach and Hasslen (2001) mention the potential of school and university teachers learning from each other, particularly through experimentation and reflection in participatory research in the realities of today's classrooms. These kinds of collaboration would need to contribute to not only a more realistic teacher identity, but also one that is reflective (Loughran, 2002). However, there is also widespread recognition of the challenges and difficulties in establishing and maintaining school-university partnerships, starting with the Holmes Group (1995). Verbeke and Richards (2001) list a daunting array of issues that face

partnerships—shared goals, institutional differences, assessment and accountability, individual differences, communication, time, resources, roles and responsibilities, and evaluation. It is these challenges to universities that must be considered carefully

Traditionally, universities have decided on program changes, including field experiences, unilaterally. They then announced them to local schools and began soliciting placements for student teachers in the new organization of field experiences. On the school side, the mentoring of student teachers was often viewed by many teachers as a professional responsibility, taken on in a spirit of altruism, but nonetheless viewed as an additional task that required time and effort. In contrast, however, school-university partnership requires joint decision making, so that schools influence the university just as much as the university seeks to influence the schools. While school-university partnerships imply a rich and broad relationship in their fullest expression, it will be necessary to consider how field experiences themselves can be seen as of benefit to both parties. For, unless there is benefit to local schools from more extensive and varied field experiences, it is doubtful that they will embrace them at best or even participate in them at worst. Finally, universities are not used to shared decision making in regard to practica and programs—and may not be disposed toward it. Yet, it is doubtful that school-based teacher education reform can succeed without it.

Lessons from six years of experience with David's alternative, school-based fall semester in McGill's elementary B. Ed. program may be helpful. The project is designed to enhance the preparation of future teachers by integrating theory and practice over an entire fall semester. Students are placed in clusters in local schools and spend 15-17 weeks working in those schools from late August to mid-December, gradually stepping into teachers' shoes and taking on increasing responsibility for a classroom. Weekly seminars are held to help foster knowledge construction based on their experience. The project has been marked over the years on the student side by increased interest and on the school side by an extremely high rate of continued participation and new interest by schools and teachers over time.

As a starting point, the schools with whom David had already been working for several years planned and determined the alternative approach jointly with him. Subsequently, evaluative analyses are done with all schools and teachers after each iteration of the project with a view toward making changes to improve it. Thus, teachers feel that they have some degree of ownership and influence over the project. In terms of benefits to the schools, teachers generally feel that students are in the schools long enough to really begin developing ability as a teacher and, thus, able to really contribute to the school and classroom. They contrast this experience with the shorter field experiences in the program in which students have relatively little time to develop ability and thus remain as extra tasks for the teacher instead of becoming assets. More specifically, many teachers report that, once students develop greater ability as a teacher, they enjoy working with them as a teaching partner—developing plans together, discussing pupils together, debriefing jointly after lessons, determining report cards together, and so on. They also report that as students are able to share in and even take over some of the teacher's tasks, they are freed to take on school projects which they would normally not have the time for: participation on a committee, mounting a display of student work for parents' night, organizing a special event such as a track-and-field day or school play, and so on. Above all, they report that more of their pupils receive more individual attention and help, and thus achieve better, during the semester. Finally, they report that the clusters of students at each school often contribute to the school in broad ways that would not happen otherwise, for example, refurbishing the school library, coordinating school projects (such as

student council, Halloween festivities, etc.), conducting fund raising, offering lunchtime enrichment programs, and so on. Students clearly benefit as future teachers from this lengthy and involved experience, but so too do the participating schools and teachers.

A final important point to consider is the choice of schools and teachers with whom universities decide to work. The surveys of strong teacher education programs by Darling-Hammond (2006b) and by Beck and Kosnik (2006) indicate that they try to choose not only school sites that reflect the content of their program (e.g., diversity), but that are also strong models of that content. Such an approach is undoubtedly important, but still seems university-driven and university-centric. School-university partnerships can also build stronger schools over time and should also allow schools to influence teacher education programs. Indeed, teacher education reform and school reform need to proceed hand in hand.

To summarize this absolutely vital point about a new relationship with schools for developing and implementing enhanced field experiences, the challenge for teacher education programs seems be to learn to develop a *dialogue* with schools, rather than to continue the all-too-common and unidirectional *monologue*. We feel that this challenge would be a very substantial one for most programs, yet the very success of a reformed – and more school-based – teacher education program rests on it.

Potential Benefits

The purpose of these proposed shifts in teacher education programs is broadly to better prepare future teachers by achieving "double-loop" learning for students, that is, to foster transformative learning that helps develop their practice beyond how their "apprenticeship of observation" has shaped them. However, more specifically, the goal is first to lessen the abrupt and very difficult transition from pre-service teacher education programs into the early years of teaching. Traditionally, pre-service teacher education programs have suffered from too much theory and too little practice, while the early years of in-service learning have suffered from overwhelmingly too much practice and far too little theory or time for reflection. Ideally, the shifts described in this paper will allow for a much easier and smoother transition into teaching because so much of the traditional learning of the early years of teaching will have already occurred during a teacher education program. A second goal is that such shifts will not only help graduates succeed in their early years of teaching, and stay in the profession, but will also help them become good lifelong professional learners by being able to reflect effectively on their practice and learn well in professional community with fellow teachers.

Conclusions

We have reviewed three major sources of information in order to answer the question posed by the title of this manuscript: the arguments for two different approaches to learning in professional programs, the results of recent surveys of exemplary teacher education programs, and a selective review of recent surveys of research on field experiences in teacher education. Our conclusions, or our answer to this question, is that within teacher education programs field experiences should be:

- Early, extensive, interspersed, varied, and eventually student-driven,
- Always linked with structures that foster students' sense-making from those field experiences, utilizing an inquiry approach, such as self-reflective andsocio-constructivist pedagogies, and
- Developed and managed in a close, equal, and multi-dimensional relationship with partner schools.

We also acknowledge the challenges to implementing such an approach for many teacher education programs.

A continuing and deep legacy running through this proposal has been that of John Dewey. It may be instructive at this point to recall that he wrote *Experience and Education* in 1938 in order to explain and clarify how progressive education was different from traditional schooling, as well as to clarify what it hoped to achieve that traditional schooling had generally not achieved. Our proposal, in calling for a shift in the traditional figure/ground of courses and practica by placing field experiences at the centre of teacher education programs as reflective practicum, has essentially been a call for a "progressive" teacher education, an education that would ideally achieve much of what traditional teacher education has generally not succeeded in achieving. Unfortunately, as the historian Ellen Lageman once quipped, the history of American education in the twentieth century could best be explained by understanding that "E. L. Thorndike won and John Dewey lost" (quoted in Darling-Hammond 2006b, p. 77). Such has certainly been the case for teacher education in the twentieth century. However, might the recent winds of discontent about much of teacher education and the current beacon of exemplary teacher education programs hint that the twenty-first century might eventually be John Dewey's?

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Chapter 8

Field Experiences in the Teacher Education Programsat Nipissing University

SUSAN E. ELLIOTT-JOHNS and OLIVE RIDLER

This paper critically reviews some key characteristics of current field experience practices at Nipissing University in Ontario. During the process of researching and writing the paper, four assumptions underlying practicum placement experiences at Nipissing were identified, outlined and subsequently analyzed and discussed. These four assumptions were 1) a considerable emphasis on the importance of successful practicum experiences for all; 2) a general recognition of the importance of effectively integrating theory and practice – towards 'praxis'; 3) the critical nature of relationships between personnel involved in practicum experiences; and 4) an ongoing emphasis on the development of professional practice and teacher 'identity'. The paper concludes with suggested directions for further research into the teacher education 'continuum', and the related development of a professional teacher 'identity' over time.

Introduction

In this paper we focus attention on some formal features of the practicum placements offered through teacher education programs at Nipissing University, as well as consider some assumptions behind the planning and organization of practicum placements. The paper offers insight at both local and national levels. For example, at a local level, the paper contributes to further in-depth examinations of field experiences (the practicum) in the context of current program review/reform, as initiated under the leadership of a new Dean of Education (effective August, 2009). In a broader, national context, this work also contributes to the development of documents available to the teacher education research community, and thus supports the scholarship and practice of teacher education across Canada. A previous study conducted by Ridler (2009), identified six key issues related to factors influencing the further development of current field experiences in teacher education programs at Nipissing. Ridler's study was also utilized as a springboard for our thinking about further collaborative research.

The paper begins by providing some background to the current context of field experiences at Nipissing, including the conceptual framework in which all practicum placements are embedded. The paper continues with an examination of some key characteristics of those practicum (or field) placements. Four assumptions about the practicum placements were identified in the process of researching and writing this discussion paper, and these are outlined and subsequently analyzed, prior to the presentation of conclusions and

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suggested directions for further research. The paper closes with a brief description of the authors' future research related to specific questions in our areas of interest, i.e., the "teacher education continuum" and the development of professional teacher identity over time.

Overview of the Current Context of Field Experiences at Nipissing

Nipissing University in Ontario has its main campus in North Bay, and also operates a satellite campus in Brantford and Bracebridge. The Faculty of Education at the North Bay campus offers both Consecutive (1-year) and Concurrent (5 years) pre-service teacher education programs, as well as an "Orientation to Teaching" (OTT) program. While the OTT is not a degree program in itself, it offers a route into the one-year B.Ed program and an alternative to the Concurrent program. Programs at Nipissing for Aboriginal students who wish to become teachers also maintain a focus on developing intercultural understanding. As the Dean of Education, Sharon Rich, writes in her Dean's Message for 2009-2010, recognition of "growing into" the teaching profession is a key element of understanding teacher education as a continuum, which only *begins* with completion of a pre-service program:

> Now in our second century of teacher education in North Bay, we continue our tradition of creating and extending a learning environment that fosters a professional community. Here you will develop the critical thinking, humane values and the practical skills necessary to become a teacher and a lifelong learner. In addition, our many vibrant programs provide opportunities for those not directly involved in schools to develop and refine their understanding of teaching and learning in alternative settings. As a student in the Faculty of Education at Nipissing University, you join a tradition of excellence that informs policy and practice in education in the wider community. We look forward to working with you as you grow into your profession. (Rich, 2009)

At the Brantford campus, a well-established Concurrent program is offered in conjunction with Wilfrid Laurier University. Nipissing University and Wilfrid Laurier University signed an articulation agreement in 2002 and, since then, have offered a Laurier-Nipissing Concurrent Education program. Thirty students were enrolled in the program in 2002. Today there are more than 650 students enrolled in concurrent education. Students at Brantford have the opportunity to pursue their B.Ed degree in both the Primary/Junior and Intermediate/Senior divisions. A new concurrent program at the Bracebridge campus began in September 2009 with teacher candidates who are majoring in early childhood education.

The Conceptual Framework of Teacher Education at Nipissing

The Model of Teacher Education at Nipissing (or "conceptual framework"), has continued to evolve since the North Bay Normal School was founded in 1909 (in 2009, the Faculty of Education celebrated 100 Years of Teacher Education in North Bay). Consistently, over time, efforts have been made to ensure programs offered meet not only the needs of teacher

education candidates, but also reflect the increasingly complex academic, professional, and political contexts that influence educational practices.

Figure 1 is a representation of the Nipissing Model of Teacher Education (2008). This Model is characterized by six interconnected portals that underscore key components of *all* the teacher education programs at Nipissing. Each of the six portals (interdisciplinary program; understanding of diversity; understanding of self; understanding through performance; reflective practice; and technology), are presented as "entry points" and a means to gaining access to a successful teacher education experience – and also as a firm foundation for ongoing professional development. Consistent with the Ontario College of Teachers' (OCT) *Foundations of Professional Practice* and the Ontario Curriculum, all six portals are interdependent and continually interact with the teacher candidate's knowledge, skills, values, and contexts to support the development of effective teaching practices. At the very heart of the model, "Praxis" (Wodlinger, 1997), refers to the centrality of the ongoing and complex interplay between theory and practice, professional and practical knowledge, and internal and external influences on the development of the teacher – equally as relevant to courses completed at the faculty as to successful completion of practicum.

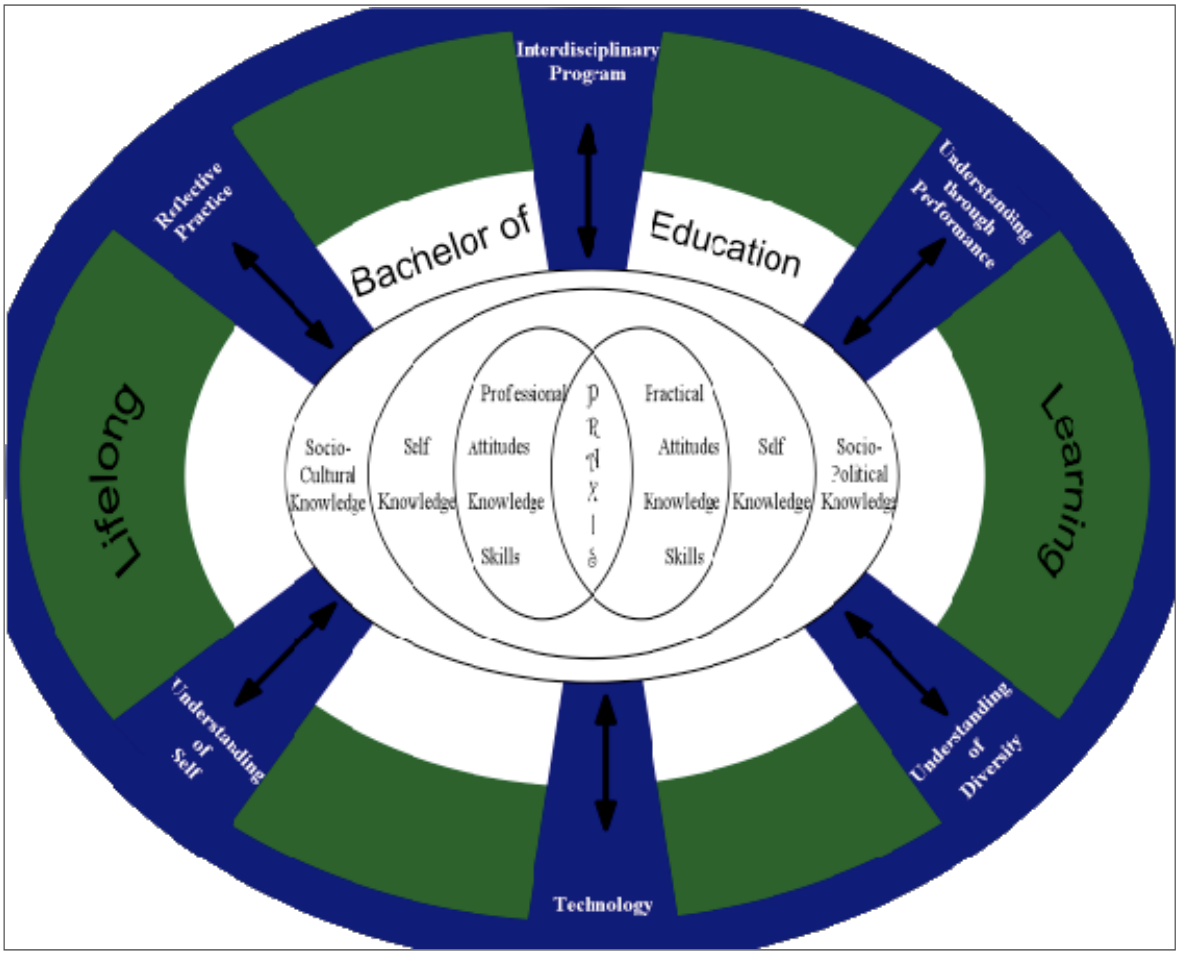

Figure 1: The Nipissing Model of Teacher Education (2008)

As a conceptual framework, the Nipissing Model is considered to be consistent with the OCT's (2008a) *Foundations of Professional Practice*, in that it actively seeks to acknowledge that teachers in contemporary classrooms need to be proactive as well as highly responsive, professional, and lifelong learners whose careers may pass through many more Portals than was perhaps the norm in previous generations.

Key Characteristics of Current Field Placements at Nipissing

Key characteristics of current field experiences at Nipissing (both at the North Bay campus, Consecutive and Concurrent programs, and at the Brantford campus, Concurrent program) include the structure and general organization of practicum placements, the criteria for, and process of, selecting associate teachers, roles and responsibilities of faculty advisors, and the requirements for successful completion of the practicum .

General Structure and Organization of Practicum Placements

Teacher candidates in the B.Ed program have the opportunity to complete their practicum in over 50 school boards in Ontario, including Public, Catholic, and First Nations schools and school boards. Faculty advisors are assigned to work with groups of teacher candidates for the entire practicum, and candidates meet with their advisors several times during their program in group settings as well as individually. Along with regular feedback from their advisor, each teacher candidate receives a minimum of two faculty evaluations both in the consecutive and concurrent programs (e.g., in the concurrent program teacher candidates will receive a minimum of one evaluation per year, and this number increases during the final year of their program). Teacher candidates who experience difficulty in their practicum will receive feedback and evaluation from more than one faculty advisor.

Prior to going out on a practicum teacher candidates also attend a one-hour class that focuses attention on expectations to be followed during the practicum. (All teacher candidates will attend a total of three hours of practice teaching instruction specific to their division).

The number of weeks allocated to practice teaching varies depending on whether teacher candidates are registered in the concurrent or consecutive program: The consecutive program comprises of twelve weeks of practicum in one year, whereas concurrent teacher candidates participate in twenty-one weeks of practicum over the course of a four year program, or twenty-three weeks of practicum over the course of a five year program. Table 1 (next page) illustrates a summary of the number of weeks allocated per year in each program.

In the majority of cases, teacher candidates complete all assigned weeks of practice teaching in their respective divisions, with one school board in two or sometimes three different schools. Due to scheduling, the Brantford campus limits its teacher candidates to ten surrounding school boards in Years 1, 2 and 3. However, exceptions to this occur if candidates are enrolled in optional courses (e.g., Education of Native Canadians, Kindergarten, Outdoor and Experiential Education, and/or International Teaching, or if they are participating in international practicum placements beyond the required forty day minimum set by OCT). Geographical boundaries for A.T.C.P. placements extend as far north as Fort Severn, as far south as Kettle Point, as far west as White Dog (at the Manitoba border), and as far east as the

Dokis Reserve in North Bay. In all cases, teacher candidates are paired with a teacher who is certified with the Ontario College of Teachers.

Year	Consecutive (1 year only)	Concurrent – North Bay (5 year)	Concurrent – Brantford (4/5 year) *4 year is being phased out as of 2007 entry	Aboriginal Teacher Certification Program (2 year) (A.T.C.P.)
1	12 weeks	2 weeks	2/2 weeks	6 weeks
2	-	2 weeks	3/2 weeks	7 weeks
3	-	3 weeks	3/3 weeks	-
4	-	3 weeks	13/3 weeks	-
5	-	13 weeks	13 weeks	-
Total	12 weeks	23 weeks	21/23 weeks	13 weeks

Table 1 : Summary of the Number of Weeks of Practicum Allocated per year in each Program

Criteria and Process for the Selection of Associate Teachers

In the spring of each year, school board personnel are contacted by the Office of Practice Teaching to request associate teachers and schools for the following academic year. In some cases, placements are arranged through school board personnel, and in other cases they are arranged by contacting principals directly. Supply and demand with individual school boards varies from one year to the next depending on the number of teacher candidates requesting individual boards. Some school boards that regularly accept a large number of Nipissing teacher candidates also have many repeat associate teachers from year to year.

Associate teachers (and faculty advisors) are regarded as partners with student teachers during the practicum experience. Some ideal characteristics of an associate teacher, for candidates in *any* program offered by Nipissing's Faculty of Education, are regarded as follows:

- to be registered with the Ontario College of Teachers and a member in good standing
- to have a minimum of one or more years of teaching experience (depending on supply and demand, it may be necessary to assign a teacher candidate to an associate teacher with only one or two years of experience)
- to demonstrate leadership skills
- to model excellence in teaching and professionalism
- to be team-players and model life-long learning

All Associate Teachers are provided with a detailed practicum information package for each placement, and Principals are also provided with all necessary information to facilitate hosting a teacher candidate (or candidates) at their school. Furthermore, an Advance

Information Form is included in the practicum package and Associate Teachers are invited to submit relevant information in advance to support their teacher candidates and prepare them for a successful practicum (e.g., a brief outline of Fields of Study, Teacher Candidate's Responsibilities, Units, Topics, Books, Learning Materials etc. and teacher's School/Home Contact Information).

During the practicum, faculty advisors will meet with associate teachers in a variety of ways. Some examples are as follows:

- visit associate teachers and principals to discuss the practicum. These meetings may be facilitated one-on-one or with small groups of associates, as necessary
- dependent on the needs of individual boards, meetings and workshops are negotiated with teacher candidates, associate teachers, and faculty members
- faculty advisors make themselves available throughout the practicum weeks in person, by phone, and/or by email, and meet informally with associate teachers to answer questions and assist in evaluation when necessary

In addition to in-person support from Faculty advisors, Associate Teachers are provided with on-line support materials (e.g., the Practice Teaching Handbook and samples of completed practice teaching evaluation forms are available on-line and these are also distributed as part of the information package). Furthermore, in order to build rapport with associates and principals in a particular area, many Faculty advisors are assigned to the same geographical route for several years.

Supervision Practices and Roles and Responsibilities of Faculty Advisors

Faculty advisors are assigned to a group of teacher candidates in a particular geographic region that they will supervise for the entire year. Faculty advisors are highly experienced practitioners and usually on part-time contract with the university; when staffing permits, full-time faculty can also act as faculty advisors, depending on workload. All faculty advisors are invited to participate in an in-service session at the start of each academic year and, at this time, they are provided with a copy of the *Faculty Advisor Supervision Handbook*. The *Handbook* outlines supervision and evaluation practices, agendas for face-to-face meetings, and other relevant information. Faculty advisors meet with their teacher candidate groups on campus several times a year as well as visiting them in schools. In the consecutive program, teacher candidates can expect to receive a minimum of two evaluations from their advisor and on-going mentoring throughout the year; in the concurrent program, there is a minimum of one faculty advisor visit in Year 3 and one in Year 5 when evaluations are shared with teacher candidates. In addition to faculty advisor support, teacher candidates currently enrolled in the Brantford program are participating in a mentoring model where first year teacher candidates are partnered with upper year candidates for support in practicum (The concurrent program at North Bay has not yet explored such an option, but may elect to do so in future).

Faculty advisors also offer support and assistance to associate teachers through individual and group meetings. Associate teacher workshops on practicum issues and, in particular, evaluation may be scheduled. At the conclusion of each practicum block, advisors complete a "Route Report" that helps to track the number of times teacher candidates were

visited by their faculty advisor and highlights information the Practice Teaching Office may need to identify practicum issues.

Questioning Our Assumptions about the Practicum at Nipissing

Brookfield (1995) discusses the notion of "assumptions" that are "taken for granted beliefs about the world and our place within it that seem so obvious to us as to not need stating explicitly" (Brookfield, 1995, p. 2). He goes on to suggest that becoming aware of the implicit assumptions that, "frame how we think and act is one of the most challenging intellectual puzzles we face in our lives. It is also something we instinctively resist, for fear of what we might discover" (Brookfield, 1995, p. 2).

As a result of extensive research and the examination of documents (specifically those gathered and presented in a written "Self-Appraisal" for the Ontario College of Teachers Program Accreditation process (*Self-appraisal*, 2008)) four significant assumptions emerged that we consider deeply embedded in the longstanding structure and organization of the practicum in education programs at Nipissing. All four of these assumptions reflected consistently recurring themes identified in program related documents, dialogue from the field (e.g., surveys of principals, associate teachers, and graduating students), and in internal dialogue with members of faculty.

We subjected these assumptions to analysis in the context of current research literature and our own reflections as teacher educators. It seems these four assumptions, or "taken for granted beliefs", are rarely challenged in terms of *why* things are still being done the same way today. As a result of our initial research for this paper, we would strongly suggest it is unclear whether or not the current structures and organization of practicum experiences are actually serving teacher candidates as well as we might continue to think.

Assumption # 1: There is considerable emphasis on the importance of successful practicum experiences for all.

Through an examination of program documentation (e.g., academic calendar, practice teaching handbooks, related areas of the faculty of education website), and by talking with many others involved in the program (e.g., members of faculty, faculty advisors, and individuals in the practice teaching office), one gains some very clear indicators of the importance of the practicum in terms of successfully completing a B.Ed program at Nipissing. For example, the Academic Calendar lists a course called "Observation and Practice Teaching" in all Consecutive and Concurrent programs. This course is worth 5 credits over either 1 year or 5 years respectively, in all divisions (P/J, J/I and I/S). Furthermore, in order to graduate with a B.Ed, and to be certified to teach in Ontario, a pass must be obtained in all five of the required Observation and Practice Teaching courses/placements. The general description of the course in the Nipissing University Academic Calendar is as follows:

> An examination of the basic components of the practicum including functions, roles, responsibilities and related skills; field experiences conducted in elementary schools… throughout the academic year. Students are assigned to schools according to their selected division of concentration. Associate teachers are

> selected annually from the staffs of the public and separate schools and certain First Nations' schools. (*Academic Calendar 2009-2010*, 2009, p. 262)

Evidence of considerable emphasis on the importance of the practicum for all resides in the successful completion of practicum being an essential graduation requirement. The candidate may complete the entire academic program successfully, but will be unable to graduate unless practicum has also been completed successfully. Additional support is made available for those who struggle (e.g., "second opinion" visits from members of faculty beyond their Faculty Advisor), meetings with other related faculty and/or school personnel may be set up, as well as with the Dean if necessary.

Assumption # 2: There is general recognition of the importance of integrating theory and practice – towards "praxis".

Observation and Practice Teaching course content, related field experiences, *and* other faculty-based courses in the program, promote a deeply rooted commitment to teacher candidates' developing the ability to demonstrate successful integration of theory in practice.

Referring back to the Nipissing Model, Portal Three ("Understanding of Self"), is specifically relevant to an understanding of how the successful integration of both faculty and school-based components works. For example, the application of teacher candidates' professional knowledge and experience in the promotion of student learning *in practice* is seen as embodied in the interactive nature of professional/practical attitudes. Course instructors will tell you they continually try to make connections between the theoretical and the practical, understanding that good theory informs practice, and vice versa, citing the development of self-knowledge as an important feature of the Nipissing Model in both theoretical *and* practical aspects of the program. An excerpt from the Final Report of the OCT Accreditation Committee pertaining to Requirement 2 (i.e., "The program has a clearly delineated conceptual framework"), further supports a general recognition of the importance of integrating theory and practice as an assumption firmly embedded in the program:

> The conceptual framework that guides the existing programs includes the application of theory into practice. Teacher candidates consistently apply theory in practice through assignments such as lesson plans, management plans, development of websites, and multimedia presentations that require teacher candidates to connect theory and practice in their coursework. The application of theoretical knowledge in the observation and practice teaching sessions is evident. (OCT, 2009)

In *theory*, personal knowledge, as seen as developed through meta-cognitive awareness of one's own life experiences and interpreted through a perceptual lens created by society and culture, provides a basis for the development of professional knowledge (Bourdieu, 1990; Bourdieu & Patterson, 1977; Palmer, 1969; Sullivan, 1990), and the ongoing development of professional knowledge about teaching increasingly enhances pre-service teachers' understanding of learning processes. As they continue to *learn about teaching* (Loughran, 2006; Russell & Loughran, 2007), they are encouraged to draw upon their experience to begin

shaping their *practice* (Clandinin, 1995; Knowles, Cole & Presswood, 1994; Ross, Cornett & McCutcheon, 1992).

In *practice*, experiential learning is built in to all the teacher education programs at Nipissing at macro and micro levels. For example, at the macro level, the teacher candidate experiences alternating periods of practicum placement and university study designed to support them as they reflect on their experiences and generate new concepts and understanding. Subsequent placements allow teacher candidates to repeat this cycle of new learning, reflection, and the application of new learning. Accountability in the form of university assignments focused on preparation for the placement and evaluations of teaching practice, further supports making explicit the "theory into practice" connection. At the micro level, the experiential learning cycle is promoted during completion of both university coursework and practicum. For example, during the practicum, teacher candidates are required to plan each lesson, teach the lesson, and then to write a reflection on his/her performance in terms of teaching success. These written reflections are intended to provide teacher candidates with opportunities to develop new concepts that further inform their planning of subsequent lessons – and, of course, to begin adopting the habit of being a reflective practitioner. An emphasis on links between coursework at the faculty and school experiences serves to underscore the vital connections continually made between theory and practice and thus reflected in various aspects of the program. The assumption is that, for theory into practice to be effective, teacher candidates need to encounter successful experiential learning. This concept is embraced across the programme at Nipissing and frequently presented as a perceived strength of students' experience both at the faculty and in school placements.

One example of a tangible connection in support of both theory and practice occurs during the Classroom Orientation Week that takes place in the very first week (4-days in September) of the Consecutive program. Recent efforts have been made by administration to discontinue this (due to challenges with the number of placements required and competition for the available placements across the province). However, to date, faculty have fiercely defended the Orientation week arguing that it is a prime time for students to observe the setting up of a classroom at the beginning of the school year, and essential classroom/school organization such as the establishment of routines and expectations in the learning community. During this week, teacher candidates also have the opportunity to familiarize themselves with the school they will be returning to for placement later in the Fall term. Thus far, Orientation Week remains in place, but it is debatable as to how much longer this will remain the case.

Assumption # 3: The critical nature of effective relationships between personnel involved in practicum experiences.

Field placements at Nipissing, as in many other teacher education programs, are designed and planned to "ease the transition" into teaching. Practicum weeks are staggered in terms of number of weeks in the schools throughout the B. Ed program, percent of teaching time is gradually increased, and there are gradual increases in expectations related to competency as a teacher. For example, teacher competencies in assessment and evaluation involve more reasonable expectations in February than in October because teacher candidates have participated in instruction in this area across their coursework at the faculty. They have also had more opportunity to learn about assessment and evaluation during school placements too. The critical transition to forming a professional teacher identity is initiated and facilitated by

opportunities to work with a range of different individuals in school contexts (e.g., students, teachers, associate teachers, faculty advisors, and administrators). These experiences support teacher candidates in beginning the process of developing their own professional identity. Skillful communications are an essential part of navigating relationships between the many different people involved in field experiences – and the potentially complex dynamics that must be fostered, sustained and maintained effectively (e.g., the relationships between Teacher Candidates and Associate Teachers; Teacher Candidates and Faculty Advisors; Faculty Advisors and Associate Teachers, Teacher Candidates, Associate Teachers and Faculty Advisors). In addition there are several lines of communication that need to be effectively maintained between the Practice Teaching Office and (sometimes) with other School Board personnel – e.g., principals, coordinators et al.

A current discussion at Nipissing is the need for more full-time Faculty to be assigned as Faculty Advisors, and thus to also conduct their research in the field. Increasingly, the role of faculty advisor is being filled by part-time, contract faculty hired specifically for that purpose. For example, at the present time only two full-time faculty act as faculty advisors out of a total of thirty-four members of the faculty in the Consecutive Program.

Proponents of having more full-time faculty in the field argue for the increased consistency in expectations of faculty during assessment and evaluation of teaching, and in links made between course content and teaching practice if more full-time faculty were going out and supervising teacher candidates. The point frequently raised is that faculty need to stay current about schools and classrooms in order to make their courses more relevant to contemporary classrooms – and that conducting practicum supervision is one way to do this. Additionally, it has been argued, practicum supervision provides opportunities to conduct classroom research. However, a number of questions and counter-arguments have also been raised, suggesting that practicum supervision does not necessarily provide the best circumstances for faculty members to conduct their research.

Teacher candidates must successfully complete all aspects of the practicum component of the program to receive their B.Ed degree and to be recommended to the Ontario College of Teachers for certification. Meetings between Teacher Candidates and their Associate Teachers are expected to take place regularly in order for them to discuss issues related to practice teaching and for ongoing mentoring. This entails hard work on the part of all those involved (especially Teacher Candidates and their Associate Teachers). Logically, the myriad of potential situations and events during placements will only be enhanced if effective communications between all parties exist.

At the end of each practicum session a comprehensive evaluation is completed by the Associate Teacher - Teacher Candidates will receive a minimum of two faculty evaluations, depending on their specific program and individual progress. In order to qualify for a Bachelor of Education degree or an Aboriginal Teacher Certificate, each candidate must be successful in all sections of the course entitled "Observation and Practice Teaching", in addition to meeting *all* requirements for their academic coursework. Final practice teaching evaluations are the result of the ratings given by the Associate Teachers and all Faculty Advisors who completed evaluations in the graded weeks.

Assumption #4: There is an emphasis on the development of professional practice and teacher identity.

Consistent once again with the Praxis model inherent in the conceptual framework (Figure 1), teacher candidates at Nipissing are encouraged to examine their tacit and preconceived understandings of learning and teaching within and across socio-cultural and socio-political contexts, and to reflect upon implications for their own development as professional teachers. The essential goal of the practicum, as described in the Practice Teaching Handbook (2009-2010), is "[to provide] teacher candidates with opportunities for growth as a professional teacher" (*Practice Teaching Handbook 2009*-2010, 2009, p. 1). For example, during practicum placements, teacher candidates are encouraged to:

> apply professional knowledge and understanding of the student, curriculum and teaching and the changing context of the learning environment to promote student learning. They conduct ongoing assessment and evaluation of student progress. They modify and refine teaching practice through continuous reflection. (Ontario College of Teachers, 2008b, p.5).

As outlined in detail in the current Practice Teaching Handbook, the goal of the practicum is seen as providing teacher candidates with opportunities for growth as a professional teacher. Therefore, practice teaching should provide opportunities:

- for involvement in classroom settings in which student teachers can relate the professional theory acquired at the Faculty to the practical aspects of teaching in the classroom
- to become familiar with the school environment and programs
- to observe the activities of learners and competent teachers who will provide models of excellence in teaching and professionalism
- to interact with students in a variety of contexts
- to critically examine their own teaching
- to practice the skills of planning and implementation, communication, and management
- to complete tasks assigned by the Faculty
- for Associate Teachers and the faculty to provide constructive feedback and evaluate the student teacher's professional growth

(*Practice Teaching Handbook*, 2009, p. 1)

The purpose of a general description of the structure and content of practice teaching experiences, and the four assumptions we see as underlying the program at Nipissing, have provided context for further analysis and the development of research questions related to practicum experiences at Nipissing. Based on this overview, the remainder of the paper will outline and discuss an initial analysis of these four assumptions, questions that were generated during the preparation of this paper, and suggest some possible directions for further research.

An Initial Analysis of Assumptions and Current Practicum Experiences at Nipissing

While efforts continue to be made to design authentic field placements that promote teacher candidates' success and their ongoing development as professional teachers, research for this paper has unsettled a number of assumptions intrinsic to the current structure and organization of the practicum.

Assumption # 1: There is considerable emphasis on the importance of successful practicum experiences for all.

While, understandably, a general recognition of the critical nature and importance of successful practicum experiences exists, to date there is very little evidence available of research examining the effectiveness of the underlying structure and organization of practicum. Questions generated in the preparation of this paper include the following:

- What do we know about the value of faculty advisers in the field?
- What do we know about the selection of associate teachers, what else can we learn, and how might these processes evolve in future?
- What kinds of meaningful opportunities for feedback result from the Associate Teacher Evaluation Forms? (e.g., anecdotal vs. checklist format; embedded aspects of ongoing professional development for practicing teachers? teacher candidates? faculty advisers?)
- Is there a greater role for the Practice Teaching Committee to play in educating faculty about the nature of practice teaching experiences, currently and historically?
- How many of our faculty (i.e., who do not currently supervise practicum placements) actually consult the practice teaching handbook and know what the expectations are?
- How might messages from the practice teaching classes also be more effectively addressed / reinforced in faculty classes?

Assumption # 2: There is general recognition of the importance of integrating theory and practice – towards "praxis".

> Effective program planning is central to good teaching. Giving priority to instruction in program planning in pre-service education is essential if beginning teachers are to develop a sound pedagogical approach. (Kosnik & Beck, 2009, p. 39).

Nipissing's Faculty of Education presents a strong commitment to continuous improvement as demonstrated by maintaining its reputation as a teacher preparation program built on a personalized ("one student at a time") experience. This is documented as being accomplished through relatively low student-faculty ratios, a focus on fostering positive relationships, and considerable attention to program planning. As supporting evidence, documents examined for

an internal program review included student surveys, faculty responses to student surveys, and Associate Teacher/Principal/Faculty Advisory surveys. Furthermore, the current undertaking in this regard, led by a new Dean of Education and an Ad Hoc Dean's Advisory Committee, is the re-conceptualization of teacher education at Nipissing – including the nature and purpose of field placements in all programs.

Similar kinds of experiences have been fostered in the structure and organization of practicum placements, evidenced as supported by the practice teaching handbook and its emphasis on lesson planning. Furthermore, consistent and quality support for teacher candidates and their associate teachers is made available from experienced faculty advisors e.g., contact time with faculty advisors before, during, and after time in the field; the opportunity for ongoing communication between associate teachers and faculty advisors; and the preparation and distribution of quality support materials, particularly in terms of assessment and evaluation practices, represent other perceived strengths of the overall practicum experience (*Self-Appraisal*, 2008, p. 5.6 - 5.7).

Kosnik and Beck (2009) present a very compelling case for program planning as a top priority for teacher education programs, "that is, creating a program of educational experiences for a class across the whole school year… this is sometimes called *program development* or *program design*, but we prefer the term *program planning* because it points to the need for prioritization and time allocation in teaching" (p. 13).

In researching this paper, we also found ourselves posing the following questions as a direct result of an analysis of Assumption #2:

- How much attention (in classes at the faculty and during practicum placements) is being given to understanding issues of time constraints and prioritization of topics?
- Templates for lesson planning are well represented in the current practice teaching handbook. What else could be examined and presented about program planning? For example, a) identifying main teaching goals; b) making decisions about what topics to emphasize in light of these goals; c) balancing structure and flexibility; d) individualizing *and* integrating the program (as Kosnik & Beck, 2009, p. 39). How is awareness of these critical elements of contemporary teaching practice included a) in faculty classes? b) in practicum experiences?
- The iTeach "lap-top program" initiative is a large part of the teacher education program at Nipissing (now in its fifth year at North Bay, and first year in Brantford). This has had a considerable influence on the integration of technology for teaching and learning in relation to the work of both teacher candidates and their professors at Nipissing. Question: What are the kinds of research being done/what could be done to track the effectiveness of this key element of the program as an integral part of faculty classes *and* practice teaching experiences?
- How else might technological support also assist us in "doing things differently"? (e.g., assistive interactive links/"hot keys" within the practice teaching handbook?) What might also be approached differently in terms of providing on-line communication links between Associate Teachers, Faculty

Advisers, and the Practice Teaching Office, specifically in place of the current use of numerous duplicated paper copies of records? (e.g., Assessment & Evaluation reports).

Assumption # 3: The critical nature of effective relationships between personnel involved in practicum experiences.

- What do we *really* know about how effective the relationships are between all the various personnel involved in practicum placements? How might we investigate further what is in place and appears to be working, in order to consolidate and enhance future practicum experiences?
- In the present climate of an ailing economy and workload issues at the Faculty, how feasible is it to have more full-time faculty members taking part in practicum supervision? What are some creative ways this could be piloted, taking into account equally the pedagogical arguments *and* the time, dollars, and cents involved?
- It should be noted there is also some overlap here with the first two questions generated in our analysis of Assumption #1 ("There is considerable emphasis on the importance of successful practicum experiences for all.").

Assumption #4: There is an emphasis on the development of professional practice and teacher identity.

We both believe strongly in the continuum of teacher education, in that we regard pre-service education as the starting point on this continuum of professional education and that expert teachers are not the inevitable result of teacher education programs (Bransford, Darling-Hammond, & LePage, 2005; Duffy, 2002). Furthermore, Hagger and McIntyre (2006) suggest that helping teacher candidates to see that high levels of expertise cannot be attained either quickly or easily is a major consideration for all pre-service teacher educators. Rather, a pre-service program guided by a clear concept of teaching and learning (Goodlad, 1994), contributes to extending and refining the experiences of teacher candidates and assists in enabling them to see "learning to teach" as a career-long process. Teacher educators must focus on providing new teachers with models of continuous improvement and "the core ideas and broad understandings of teaching and learning that give them traction on their later development" (Bransford, Darling-Hammond, and LePage, 2005, p.3).

As background, the practice teaching handbook at Nipissing presents twenty-five Practice Teaching Growth Descriptors, organized into five areas: 1) Commitment to Pupils and Pupil Learning; 2) Leadership and Community; 3) Ongoing Professional Learning 4) Professional Knowledge: (A) Planning and (B) Implementing and Assessing; and 5) Management and Communication Practices. The descriptors are, "meant to be used as observable behaviour guidelines so that anyone involved in the mentoring, supervisory or evaluation process has specific reference points that may be used to assist student teachers in their growth and development". They may also be utilized, "as a basis for on-going formative evaluation over the course of the practicum, as guiding principles for summative evaluation at the end of each week, or as a guiding framework for the final practice teaching evaluation

mark." (*Practice Teaching Handbook 2009-2010*, 2009, p. 54). Thus, these descriptors provide a guide to teacher candidates and their associate teachers in meeting the expected levels of competence in teaching and completion of current practice teaching evaluation forms (across the four categories of Exemplary, Proficient, Adequate, Does Not Meet Expectations).

Two key questions surfaced with regard to this assumption, questions that also reflect an area of research we are particularly interested in studying further. The questions are as follows:

- What does the *continuum* (of teacher education) look like at Nipissing today?
- How are practice teaching experiences contributing to laying the groundwork for future teacher development?

Conclusions and Recommendations for Further Research

In September 2009, ongoing issues related to the qualification of so many teachers in faculties of education in Ontario (who may then be surplus to market demands) continued to present pressing ethical and logistical dilemmas for us at Nipissing. In a summary of the results of a recent survey (Jamieson, 2009) published by the Ontario College of Teachers (OCT) it was noted that, "Ontario currently has a surplus of certified, qualified teachers – twice as many as can be absorbed through retirement and natural attrition" (p. 57).

The PT Office continues to experience market-related challenges (for example, 85 TCs out of approx. 700 were still without school placements for the academic year on August 26th (Orientation Week, 8-11 September) and many current concerns still tend to focus on logistical aspects of providing practicum placements, rather than looking in any depth at how to enhance the purpose and quality of those placement experiences. However, while logistics, and the ease with which practicum placements are orchestrated will undoubtedly contribute to field experiences as a whole, the task of ensuring that the purpose and quality of placement experiences does not get submerged in administrative challenges is one of critical concern. Several potential lines of inquiry were suggested by participants in Ridler's (2009) study which could be incorporated into further research into improving purpose, quality, and more effective communications for all involved in the practicum experience. This appears to be one specific area in which there is ample scope for the development of further research questions in search of creative solutions to longstanding (but, apparently, increasingly urgent) problems related simply to *providing* appropriate practice teaching experiences for all teacher candidates.

As a faculty of education we continue to grapple with some complex questions and issues such as the management of teacher oversupply, labour mobility issues, challenges seen as related to "off-shore" teacher education programs (that also access Ontario schools for the provision of practicum placements), and the increasingly limited availability of sufficient (and "top-quality") associate teachers. Suffice to say, we are not alone as a faculty in these deliberations as the same issues are rapidly becoming an integral part of the dialogue about teacher education and, specifically, field experiences at other faculties of education across Ontario. Similarly, levels of concern were also clearly demonstrated by others from provinces across Canada during roundtable discussions at the Third Working Conference on Research in Teacher Education in Canada (see www.umanitoba.ca/education/TEResearch).

As a faculty, and led by a new Dean, we are in the process of carefully examining all aspects of our current teacher education program – including the practicum component – and the potential for "doing things differently". Some potential benefits of such thorough program review/reform are already becoming self-evident. Consequently, this also presents a highly opportune time to be engaged in research related to the entire practice teaching experience and its ongoing role in teacher education programs at Nipissing.

Directions of Our Own Future Research

One important role of research is to contribute to thinking "outside the box" and to generate new and creative solutions to issues, problems, and dilemmas. As described throughout this paper, the current design and implementation of practicum placements at Nipissing are *perceived as* successful but, to date, very few efforts appear to have been made to research and explore alternatives to the structure presently in place. Further, very little research has been conducted to ascertain whether the experiences described on paper are as successful in actual practice – for example, from the perspective of the teacher candidates, associate teachers, and faculty advisers in the field.

We are particularly interested in collecting and studying pertinent data from teacher candidates across *all* programs and levels of experience *before*, *during* and *after* practicum placements in order to gain further knowledge and understanding of experiences from an "emic" perspective. We believe one such data gathering approach might be to design a survey for distribution to all teacher candidates on completion of their practicum and/or to hold focus group sessions to gain additional feedback and insights into their experiences. (At present on-line surveys of this nature only appear to be in use prior to practicum in Brantford, and these are only utilized in order to organize practicum placements, e.g., to achieve the "best possible fit" for students and practicum purposes).

A number of different questions and potential research directions have been suggested as a result of the identification and analysis of Assumptions #1 to #4, as presented in this initial discussion paper. As previously mentioned, an area of particular interest that we ourselves plan to investigate further emerged from our mutual interests in researching the following two questions (i.e., from the emic perspectives of those actually participating in the program):

1. What does the continuum of teacher education at Nipissing (and, specifically, the development of professional teacher identity) look like?
2. How are current practice teaching experiences at Nipissing contributing to laying the groundwork for future teacher development (i.e. along such a continuum)?

At the time of writing, we are finalizing work on a comprehensive design for this research. We will begin to gather data in September, 2010, with voluntary input from as many teacher candidates attending Nipissing's Faculty of Education (in both the Consecutive and Concurrent programs) as possible. We will begin by gathering data about the initial development of professional teacher identity (Hammerness et al, 2005; Korthagen & Verkuyl, 2007; Kosnik, 2007; Kosnik & Beck, 2009) and will follow up throughout the year with data collection focused on practicum experiences.

Future teacher candidates entering teacher education programs at Nipissing in September 2010 will be invited to participate in our ongoing research, and this will give us the opportunity to survey incoming candidates about their teacher identity *prior to* their participation in the program and practicum placements, as well as by analyzing data from the same Exit Survey prior to their graduation. In late August an Entry Survey requesting responses to questions about teacher candidates' perceptions of their developing professional teacher identity will be distributed during Orientation Week,. We envisage this as a longitudinal study and will design it accordingly. For example, it would be valuable to follow up with the teacher candidates who agree to participate in their first year of teaching following graduation from the program, and during/after their second and third years in the field too. In this way, we hope to further explore the development of professional teacher identity and related teaching experience in the field.

As a result of our work, we will increase knowledge and understanding about the role of practicum placements in the development of professional teacher identity. This research will also inform discussion within the faculty of education as we continue to consider practicum experiences as a vital part of the teacher education continuum at Nipissing (and practicum components in the current program review/re-conceptualization). In the context of broader teacher education reform, this work also has the potential to make further contributions to the critical dialogue around field experiences in teacher education currently in process at local and national levels across Canada.

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Chapter 9

Rethinking "Field Experiences" in an Era of Teacher Education Reform: A Governance Perspective

THOMAS FALKENBERG and JON YOUNG

This paper examines the governance of field experiences in Canadian pre-service teacher education programs. For that purpose an analytical tool to describe the governance structure of field experiences is proposed. The tool is then used to analyze the governance structure of two different models of field experiences in the teacher education program at the University of Manitoba as case-studies. Based on these case studies, the paper argues for the importance of an inclusion of a governance perspective for rethinking field experiences in a shifting context for teacher education in Canada and outlines some of the challenges that such shifting faces.

Introduction

In Canada pre-service teacher education is a provincial jurisdiction and it is university-based. The former reflects the fact that the political decision making power for educational matters lies with provincial governments rather than the federal government. The latter means that generally the requirements for teacher certification are met through the successful completion of a university degree, a Bachelor of Education degree. Certification of teachers – the condition for being allowed to teach in publically-funded schools – is the jurisdiction of the provincial government in most provinces and the jurisdiction of the profession in those provinces where there is a College of Teachers (British Columbia and Ontario). While formally Faculties of Education – as entities of universities – have the autonomy to design the program for their Bachelor of Education degree (within limitations that we will discuss below), practically it is the certification requirements that shape the programs, since the goal of almost all of those enrolling into a Bachelor of Education program is to work as a certified teacher. Part of the certification requirement in all provinces is the successful completion of a classroom practicum situated in a school. Provincial School Acts – and often professional standards – require practicing teachers to be available as cooperating teachers for teacher candidates' practica. Situated in schools, the legal jurisdiction over the practicum experiences of teacher candidates lies with the school principal and the school board in which the school is located.

This simplified outline of the "landscape" of overlapping jurisdictional responsibilities demonstrates two things. First, there exists a *governance* aspect to teacher education located in

© Authors. T. Falkenberg & H. Smits (Eds.). (2010). *Field experiences in the context of reform of Canadian teacher education programs* (2 vols., pp. 165-185). Winnipeg, MB: Faculty of Education of the University of Manitoba.

the *power structures* and *interests* that connect the different parties involved in pre-service teacher education programs - whether we give attention to this governance aspect or not. Second, the governance of teacher education in the Canadian context is complex, interlinking the powers and interests of the participants in pre-service teacher education in a variety of different ways. In this paper we want to argue – with the help of two case studies – that pre-service teacher education program reform efforts, especially those concerning field experiences[1], need to take this governance aspect of teacher education (its power structures) seriously if those efforts are to be successful in the long-run. The governance structure of a teacher education program provides the framework within which different interests play out. If a program is well established, jurisdictions assigned and accepted, and matters run in accordance with jurisdictional responsibilities, the governance structure generally stays in the background. However, if arrangements in the program are to change in such a way that responsibilities impact on each other – which generally is the case for reform proposals – then the governance structure can no longer be taken-for-granted. If, for instance, a reform proposal calls for classroom teachers to be involved in teacher candidates' field experiences outside of the formal practicum, then power relationship and jurisdictional questions such as: "who decides on the curriculum of those experiences", "who evaluates teacher candidates learning in those experiences", "who pays for the costs that incur through this new arrangement", as well as the fundamental question of "who is proposing this reform" become prominent.

Our interest in the field experiences component of pre-service teacher preparation programs stems from two inter-related observations: First, in the eyes of many teacher candidates (as well as members of the profession and the general public) it is here that 'the rubber hits the road' – that regardless of the significance one attaches to the intellectual base of teaching, it is here that one comes face-to-face with the practical reality of public school teachers' work and either does or does not demonstrate the ability to meet its initial challenges; and second, it is here where the three key players in the governance of initial teacher education – government, universities, and the profession – meet in the most concrete of ways. Underlying this interest is a belief that in Canada the educational literature and the educational discourse related to reforming field experience is grounded primarily in a curriculum or pedagogic orientation related to the integration of theory and practice and upon theories of adult learning, with insufficient consideration given to underlying matters of governance.

Put simply, our interest in this paper is, "what are the key dimensions of governance in the field experience, who controls them, and what are the implications of this for attempts to re-structure them"? In order to approach these questions we analyze the governance structure of two different cases of field experiences from the University of Manitoba using a particular analytical framework for this analysis.

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[1] The term 'field experiences' in this paper includes the practicum experiences by teacher candidates enrolled in teacher education programs, but it also captures other forms of school and classroom experiences that are offered as part of the program. For instance, in some programs in Canada some instructors offer as part of their courses field experiences outside of the practicum. Whenever we talk about 'field experiences' in this paper we refer to experiences by teacher candidates in school settings as part of their program experience. For the purpose of this paper we consider only *school-based* field experiences and not community practica and other alternative field placements.

Before we explicate this analytical framework, though, we like to outline our view of the role that governance of field experiences plays in a changing context of teacher education in Canada. This explication will provide the background for the case studies.

The Governance of Field Experiences in the Larger Context of Teacher Education Revision and Reform

In this section we want to argue that understanding the governance structure of teacher education in general and the governance structure of field experiences in particular is relevant and timely considering the changing context for teacher education in Canada.

In the literature on teacher education in the USA the questions of where teacher education should take place (Darling-Hammond, 1999; Labaree, 2008) and who will and should control pre-service teacher education (Ballou & Podgursky, 2000; Darling-Hammond, 2000; Levine, 2006) have been extensively discussed, often in response to a political climate that is very critical of, some might say threatening to, university-based teacher education (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2005, Hess, Rotherham, & Walsh, 2004). In the Canadian context university-based pre-service teacher education appears currently not to be under such an immediate threat, at least not in the same way it is in the USA. However, there are clear indicators that the locus of teacher preparation for adequate teaching is shifting in Canada from the universities to school divisions and schools – in response to a changing context. We can identify two such changing contexts, which we discuss in turn.

Shortening of Pre-Service Programs

When we say that the locus of teacher education is shifting from the university to the school division and the school, we do not, in Canada, mean that the latter take on a formalized program of pre-service teacher education as the universities are offering it. Rather we mean that if formal pre-service teacher education programs at universities get shorter, then the time that teachers begin to have the sole responsibility for teaching and even mentoring teacher candidates themselves starts earlier. If we can assume that teacher candidates are not as ready to teach after one year than they are after two years of formal teacher education, the continued education of teachers takes place 'on the job'. Where there is no formalized and supportive induction program in place, beginning teachers are left on their own to learn and develop while carrying the same full teaching responsibilities of veteran teachers. One example of a recent shortening of a pre-service teacher education program in Canada in response to changed contexts in teacher education is the pre-service teacher education program at the University of New Brunswick. The program has recently changed its teacher education program from a two-year program to a one-year program in response to contextual changes outside of the actual program (Hirschkorn, Sears, & Rich, 2009).

For two reasons, we think that *the governance* of teacher education does play an important role for understanding the quality of a shift of locus of the preparation of teachers and the impact of that shift on teacher preparation. First, when we talk about the university being the locus of teacher preparation (in form of pre-service teacher education programs) we are talking here more about the formal governance structure than the actual locus, since a good part of

any pre-service teacher education program is the practicum for which the locus is the school rather than the university. What stays the same for pre-service teacher education programs in Canada is not the locus but who has formal control (the jurisdiction) over the program experiences of teacher candidates. Second, one important impact that a shift of teacher preparation from the university to school divisions and schools has is that it implies a shift of the formal governance of teacher preparation for adequate teaching from the university to the school division and school. Analyzing this shift in locus of teacher preparation through the lens of the underlying governance structures, we claim, will help develop a deeper understanding of the qualities of this shift of locus as well as the impact of this shift.

Analyzing the governance structure of the *field experience* within university-based pre-service teacher education programs has become particularly fruitful for the analysis of this shift for two reasons; both were already mentioned in the introduction section. First, it is here that teacher candidates come face-to-face with the reality of teachers' work and either do or do not demonstrate the ability to meet its challenges. Second, it is in the practicum where most obviously the three key players on the governance of pre-service teacher education meet in the most concrete of ways.

Integrating Coursework with Field Experiences

The second changing context in the preparation of teachers in Canada is a shift from what could be called the "division of labour" in pre-service teacher education programs to more "integrated" approaches to the education of teachers (Falkenberg, in press). A greater number of instructors in Canadian pre-service teacher education programs appear to be moving toward an integration of field experiences into their university-based teacher education courses (see, for instance the second case study discussed below, and the long-standing SITE project described in Hopper & Sanford, 2007). An important question that such attempts to a greater integration of university-based course work and school-based field experiences raise is the question what governs these new and changed forms of relationships between the university and the field, and are those governance structures adequate. In the two case studies introduced below we will address this question, and we will argue, drawing on those case studies, that when matters of governance are left as an afterthought – "something for administrators to take care of" – rather than as a central element in the exploration of what is desirable and possible, the likelihood of viable and sustainable change is undermined.

Governance of Field Experiences: An Analytical Framework

The analytical framework developed in this paper uses Dale's (1997) discussion of governance that links *matters of focus* – what it is that is involved in the governance of initial teacher preparation/field experience – with *matters of jurisdiction* – on whose authority these activities are carried out. Dale (1997) suggests three broad categories of educational governance: funding, regulation and delivery. With regard to matters of jurisdiction the governance of initial teacher education in Canada (and elsewhere) is generally cast within an analysis of the interplay between three primary participants – the government, universities, and the teaching profession (Grimmett, 2008; Young, Hall, & Clarke, 2007). In particular with respect to the governance of

field experience we will suggest that each of those three primary participants will provide two domains for a total of six *domains of jurisdiction*.

Matters of Jurisdiction

The argument made here, and elaborated in more detail elsewhere (Young & Boyd, in press), can be summarized as follows: (i) that government, universities, and the teaching profession currently represent the three main parties involved in the design and delivery of pre-service teacher preparation in general and, for the purposes of this paper, specifically the field experiences component of the program; (ii) that each of these participants brings to questions of governance different core interests, structures (mechanisms through which involvement is regulated), and images of teachers' work; (iii) that each participant plays a different role in different elements of governance; and, critically for this paper, (iv) efforts to restructure the field experience by Faculties of Education which do not pay sufficient attention to the roles and interests of the other participants are likely to flounder.

The argument that the governance of teacher education in Canada is best understood as being co-constructed though the interplay of government, universities and the teaching profession requires at least some brief discussion of each of these parties. In Canada, government in this context would normally mean the provincial government that has traditionally played a governance role through such mechanisms as the funding of post-secondary education and though teacher certification.[2] Also not insignificant as part of government are school boards who actually hire the graduates of teacher education programs. Within the theoretical framework adopted in this paper there are two governmental domains of jurisdiction: the provincial government and the school boards. The recent implementation of the Labour Mobility Chapter of the *Agreement on Internal Trade* has the potential to substantially alter how provincial governments become involved in the governance of teacher education (Grimmett, 2008; Henley and Young, 2009), but a detailed consideration of this lies outside of the scope of this paper. Identifying universities as the second key partner rather than simply referring to Faculties of Education acknowledges that Faculties of Education exist within an institutional home, culture, and structure of the wider university – with core interests associated with academic freedom, institutional autonomy, and critical inquiry – and that decision making authority may be situated differently in relation to differing governance matters. The Faculty of Education and the university beyond the Faculty of Education form the two university domains of jurisdiction. Identifying "the profession" as the third partner creates some further complexities, particularly in those provincial jurisdictions without Colleges of Teachers. Individual members of "the profession" – teachers and administrators – clearly play a major role in all field experiences in Canadian Faculties of Education, but in terms of playing any *formal* or collective role in the governance of those experiences the picture is often far less clear. In the context of field experiences in teacher education a distinction in

[2] Section 3.2 of the Manitoba *Public Schools Act* further states that "programs taken in teacher education institutions in the province for the purposes of teacher education shall be subject to the approval of the minister" – a power that was implicitly drawn upon recently to require all Bachelor of Education programs to include at least three credit hours of *approved* Aboriginal Education coursework and six credit hours of Special Education/Diversity coursework. In implementing these requirements the University of Manitoba did have one proposed course not approved by the Minister.

the professional domain of jurisdiction should be made between the individual teacher as the collaborative teachers of a teacher candidate and the profession as a whole. This distinction leads to the corresponding two professional domains of jurisdiction.

Overall, then, there are six domains of jurisdiction: the province, the school boards, the faculty of education, the university beyond the faculty of education, the professional individual teacher (faculty advisor), and the professional collective.

Matters of Focus

Dale's (1997) three broad categories of educational governance: funding, regulation, and delivery are 'customized' for our examination of field experiences in pre-service teacher education to provide six areas of focus across the three categories as follows: funding; regulation (duration, curriculum, and evaluation); and delivery (staffing and site). These six areas of focus provide – as the name suggests – the *focus* with which each of the six domains of jurisdiction will be analyzed in the context of field experiences. This results in the following 6×6 matrix (Figure 1). Each of the 36 (non-shaded) cells in the matrix represents one particular focus under which one particular domain of jurisdiction for field experiences is analyzed. For instance, one area of focus is "Curriculum" (as part of the more general focus on the regulations of field experiences). Using this focus on "Curriculum" one can analyze, for instance, in what way the Faculty of Education ("Faculty"), as one domain of jurisdiction, governs the curriculum of the field experiences for teacher candidates in a particular teacher education program. (The corresponding cell suggesting this analysis is marked with "X".) For instance, through this analysis one might find out that while it is the Faculty of Education that sets out the focus of the curricular experiences in teacher candidates' field experiences, it is the collaborating teacher through the experiences that she provides to the teacher candidate in her classroom that governs what and in what order the teacher candidates experiences in her field experience.

Focus	***Jurisdiction***					
	Government		**University**		**Profession**	
	Province	**School Board**	**University**	**Faculty**	**Individual**	**Collective**
Funding						
Regulation						
* Duration						
* Curriculum						
* Evaluation						
Delivery						
* Staffing						
* Site						

Figure 1: A Governance Matrix for Examining Field Experiences in Canadian Pre-Service Teacher Education Programs.

We suggest the matrix in Figure 1 as a framework for an analysis of the governance structure of field experiences in general, and we will use this framework for an analysis of the governance structure of field experiences in two case studies in this paper. In applying this matrix an important distinction that emerges is between the formal/legal definitions of jurisdiction and the informal, 'on the ground' sets of arrangements that are negotiated both within and away from the formal provisions. This distinction will become clear in the following two case studies.

Governance of Field Experiences: Two Case Studies from the University of Manitoba

Pre-service teacher education programs/Bachelor of Education programs are offered in six post-secondary institutions in Manitoba (The University of Manitoba, The University of Winnipeg, Brandon University, Collège universitaire de St. Boniface, The University College of the North, and Red River College), each leading to teacher certification by Manitoba Education. Teacher certification requirements are laid out in *Regulation 515/88 Teacher Certificates and Qualifications.*[3] While there are certification requirements specific to the Early, Middle and Senior Years Program Streams, common to all is the possession of a first Bachelors degree, and a Bachelor of Education degree that contains "at least 60 credit hours at least 30 of which – or 24 weeks – consist of student teaching" (Manitoba Regulation 515/88, Section 5[2][b]). Put simply, the Manitoba requirement is for a two-year Bachelor of Education degree with approximately half of the program devoted to student teaching/the practicum.

At the University of Manitoba, the Faculty of Education offers a pre-service teacher education program that leads to a B.Ed. Within the program three different program streams currently exist: the Early Years Stream with a focus on teaching at the K-4 grade level, the Middle Years Stream with a focus on teaching at the 5-8 grade level, and the Seniors Stream with a focus on teaching at the 9-12 grade level. Teacher candidates take stream-specific courses with the exception of a small number of elective courses that are open to students from all streams. The program components are essentially the same for all three streams: four terms, with each term being divided into about 9 weeks of university-based course work and 6 weeks of school-based practicum; students are generally in the same practicum school for two consecutive terms. In total, 48 credit hours of university-based course work and 24 weeks of practicum experience are required for the B.Ed. program.

In this section we analyze the governance structure of two types of field experiences within the pre-service teacher education program in the Faculty of Education at the University of Manitoba: the practicum-based field experiences in the Early Years Stream and the course-based field experiences that have been provided in some courses in the Early Years Stream over the last two years. The consideration of two different types of field experiences designed *for the same students within the same program stream* will allow us more clearly to contrast the

[3] This regulation is currently under revision to bring it into compliance with the Manitoba *Labour Mobility Act* and the Labour Mobility provisions of the *Agreement on Internal Trade.* The current revisions are not expected to change significantly the requirements for teacher candidates in Manitoba teacher education institutions.

governance structures of two field experience models that have a different status in the reform of teacher education in Canada, as will be discussed in the last section of this paper.

Case 1: Practicum-Based Field Experiences

The central general features of the field experiences *through the practicum* for students in the Early Years Stream are as follows:

- Practicum-based field experiences are offered as part of a formally organized 24 week practicum in schools.
- Teacher candidates have a 5 or 6-week practicum in each of the four terms of their program, in addition to a one week in school experience at the beginning of the school year in their second year. Each practicum is planned developmentally to shift from a focus on observation to one of mentored practice.
- The supervision of the practicum experience is divided between two parties: as an experience *within a school*, the practicum is supervised by professional personnel from the practicum school, generally a designated collaborative teacher in the practicum school under the supervision of the school principal. Formally, however, the practicum has the status of a university-based course, and as such it has to be university-based personnel that are responsible for supervising the experience as it concerns the practicum as a university-based course. The university-based supervision is done by faculty advisors, who are usually term-based instructors (as opposed to full-time professors) – generally retired teachers and administrators hired specifically for the practicum supervision.

Drawing on the conceptual framework described in the previous section, Figures 2a, 2b, and 2c outline the governance structure of the *practicum-based* field experiences in the Early Years Stream. In these as well as subsequent figures we use different levels of shading to signal the relative levels of authority that the different jurisdictions have over the respective focus, with the darker the shading the greater the level of authority.

Case 2: Course-Embedded Field Experiences

In the academic years 2007/2008 and 2008/2009 a number of faculty members teaching in the Early Years Stream of the B.Ed. program in the Faculty of Education have made arrangements with one school division to teach part of their university-based courses in the setting of several of its schools. These school-based parts of the courses were characterized by the following features: (1) a number of opportunities for teacher candidates to teach in pairs a small group of students from the school; (2) the observation of this teaching by the course instructors as well as the respective classroom teachers; (3) opportunities for these classroom teachers to engage with teacher candidates in professional conversations; (4) course meetings of teacher candidates and course instructors at the respective school.

The relevant context of these experiences included:

- teachers of the selected schools volunteered to participate in the project;
- central administration in this school division promoted this possibility as an opportunity for professional development for the teachers in the division;
- the teacher candidates' timetables were scheduled in such a way that they could attend back-to back courses at the school sites (involving instructors who participated in the project) as well as later scheduled classes at the university.

Drawing on the theoretical framework described in the previous section, Figures 3a, 3b, and 3c outline the governance structure of the *course-based* field experiences in the Early Years Stream.

Focus	*Jurisdiction*					
	Government		**University**		**Profession**	
	Province	**School Board**	**University**	**Faculty**	**Individual**	**Collective**
FUNDING						
Key elements/resources: - co-operating teachers - faculty advisors - administrative costs/ school experience office (e.g. travel costs etc.) - in-school support costs (materials etc) - release time for cooperating teachers	* The provincial government is the major funder of the University of Manitoba. The funding is mainly 'block' as opposed to 'envelope' or 'per student' funding.	* School boards resource the practicum/field experiences through the provision of in-school materials and supports (i.e. secretarial).	* The University determines Faculty budgets annually through a central budget review process. * The University sets tuition fees.	* The Faculty of Education controls the funding for Faculty, Advisors and the School Experience Office.	* Individual teachers contribute their time as cooperating teachers as a part of their professional responsibility	* Manitoba Teachers Society has the most representatives on the government's advisory Teacher Education & Certification Committee (TECC)

Figure 2a: The Governance of practicum-based field experiences in the Early Years Bachelor of Education Program: Funding Focus.

Commentary (Figure 2a):
Funding: Cooperating teachers' and faculty advisors' time and expertise constitute the two key resources for the practicum. Co-operating teachers in Manitoba do not get paid for their mentoring work and this we see as an 'in kind' professional contribution. Since the *Public Schools Act* requires teachers to allow student teachers into their classroom but does not require teachers to mentor student teachers when they are in their classrooms control over decisions related to the provision of this resource we see as residing with the profession – but individually rather than collectively. The size of the provincial grant to the University of Manitoba and the university's allocation of funds to the Faculty of Education frames funding for the practicum.

Focus	*Jurisdiction*					
	Government		**University**		**Profession**	
	Province	**School Board**	**University**	**Faculty**	**Individual**	**Collective**
REGULATION						
Duration	* *Regulation 515/88* requires 24 weeks of school experience for certification.			* The Faculty of Education determines (in consultation with school principals) how the 24 weeks will be spread over two years.		
Curriculum	* The *Educational Administration Act* gives the Minister authority to approve all teacher education programs.			* *Formal authority* to define the practicum experience resides with the Faculty of Education and is mediated by the Faculty Advisor.	* *In practice* the individual cooperating teacher plays a major role in defining the practicum experience.	
Evaluation				* A pass/fail system controlled by the Faculty of Education.	* *In practice* the cooperating teacher will usually play a key role.	

Figure 2b: The Governance of practicum-based field experiences in the Early Years Bachelor of Education Program: Regulation Focus.

Commentary (Figure 2b):

Duration: In Manitoba Section 4.1 of the *Educational Administration Act* assigns to the Minister of Education the responsibility for prescribing "minimum standards of academic and professional education acceptable for the certification of teachers in the province". While this provision of the Act has not been changed, the passage of the *Labour Mobility Act* this year does complicate this as its purpose is stated as being, "to ensure that the measures used by regulatory bodies to certify individuals to work in occupations comply with the obligations of Chapter 7 (Labour Mobility) of the Agreement on Internal Trade" (Manitoba Standing Committee on

Legislative Affairs, 2009). Certification regulations in Manitoba stipulate a minimum of 24 weeks of a supervised in school practicum and it is the Faculty of Education that decides on how those 24 weeks will be spread across the program.

Curriculum: In addition to the certification powers of the Minister, Section 3.2 of the *Educational Administration Act* states, "programs taken in teacher education institutions in the province for the purposes of teacher education shall be subject to the approval of the minister". This power was exercised by the Minister of Education recently when all Bachelor of Education programs in the province were required to include a minimum of three credits of approved Aboriginal Education coursework and six credit hours of Special Education/Diversity coursework in their programs. Actual course descriptions and course outlines were reviewed, and not all of the courses proposed by the University were approved by the Minister. While such events signal the overarching powers of the Minister, for the most part the authority and the practice in the design of the practicum curriculum resides with the Faculty of Education and is developed in collaboration with members of the profession.

Focus	*Jurisdiction*					
	Government		**University**		**Profession**	
	Province	**School Board**	**University**	**Faculty**	**Individual**	**Collective**
DELIVERY						
Staffing	* *Regulation 515/88* requires that the practicum is supervised by university approved staff for certification.	* The School Boards provide support to the practicum in form of regulations for personnel to support the practicum.		* The Faculty Advisor is hired by the Faculty of Education. * The Faculty of Education places students, but this is dependent upon the cooperation of individual principals and teachers.	* Individual teachers volunteer/ agree to act as cooperating teachers	
Site	* *Regulation 515/88* mandates school placement for certification.			* Faculties of Education decide which schools to use – but are dependent upon professional cooperation.		

Figure 2c: The Governance of practicum-based field experiences in the Early Years Bachelor of Education Program: Delivery Focus.

Focus	*Jurisdiction*					
	Government		**University**		**Profession**	
	Province	**School Board**	**University**	**Faculty**	**Individual**	**Collective**
FUNDING						
Key elements/resources: - collaborating teachers - course instructor - administrative costs (i.e. travel costs, etc) - release time for collaborating teachers		* School board provided funding for release-time for collaborating teachers	* The University determines Faculty budgets annually through a central budget review process. * The University sets tuition fees.	* The Faculty of Education controls all the funding for the course connected to this field experience	* Individual teachers contribute their time as collaborating teachers as part of their own professional development	

Figure 3a: The Governance of the course-based field experiences in the Early Years Bachelor of Education Program: Funding Focus.

Commentary (Figure 3a):
"Collaborating teacher" means here those teachers who were willing to participate in and open up their classes for the course-based field experience project. Students and faculty members bore their own travel costs to and from the school sites. Faculty members contributed additional time above the regular time required for the course through meetings with school staff to discuss, coordinate and debrief the project.

Focus	*Jurisdiction*					
	Government		**University**		**Profession**	
	Province	**School Board**	**University**	**Faculty**	**Individual**	**Collective**
REGULATION						
Duration	* The *Educational Administration Act* gives the Minister authority to approve all teacher education programs.	* School Board provided permission for the project to happen, which was done with consideration of the duration of the project.		* The duration was co-constructed between Faculty members and collaborating teachers at the partner schools.	* The duration was co-constructed between Faculty members and collaborating teachers.	
Curriculum	* The *Educational Administration Act* gives the Minister authority to approve all teacher education programs.			* *Formal authority* to define the course experience resides with the course instructor. Course instructors have also *practically* co-defined the experience with the collaborating teachers and the school principal.	* *In practice* the individual collaborating teacher played a crucial role in defining the field experience through her discussions with teacher candidates (more so in some schools than in others)	
Evaluation	* The *Educational Administration Act* gives the Minister authority to approve all teacher education programs.			* Authority for any evaluation connected with the field experience lies with the course instructor.		

Figure 3b: The Governance of the course-based field experiences in the Early Years Bachelor of Education Program: Regulation Focus.

Focus	*Jurisdiction*					
	Government		**University**		**Profession**	
	Province	**School Board**	**University**	**Faculty**	**Individual**	**Collective**
DELIVERY						
Staffing	* The *Educational Administration Act* gives the Minister authority to approve all teacher education programs.			* Faculty members decided on their participation in this project. * The Dean of Education has the formal authority over the assignment of course instructors.	* Individual teachers volunteer/ agree to act as collaborating teachers	
Site	* The *Educational Administration Act* gives the Minister authority to approve all teacher education programs.	* The sites were negotiated between university course instructors, principals and individual teachers.		* The sites were negotiated between university course instructors, principals and individual teachers.	* The sites were negotiated between university course instructors, principals and individual teachers.	

Figure 3c: The Governance of the course-based field experiences in the Early Years Bachelor of Education Program: Delivery Focus.

Discussion of the Case Studies

In this paper we have presented a model for the analysis of the governance structure of field experiences in teacher education programs in the form of a thirty-six-cell matrix designed to help describe the range of governance issues (matters of focus) and the ways in whichdecision-making authority is exercised in relation to each of these issues (matters of jurisdiction). In the previous section we have used this matrix to analyze the governance structure of two models of field experiences in a particular pre-service teacher education program in Canada. In this section we discuss some insights we think the analysis of the complexity of the governance of field experience can provide, first, with reference to the challenges associated with, and differences between, the two different field experience models we have analyzed, and, second, with reference to teacher education in Canada in general.

The first insight the case studies provide is an understanding how different the governance structures of the 'standard' practicum-based field experiences model is from the course-based field experience model.

(a) Both field experiences are framed by the provincial government's *Regulation 515/88*. However, in the case of the practicum-based field experiences, the provincial government has actively exercised its jurisdictional authority over its regulatory and delivery aspects (with the exception of evaluation) – for example, specifying minimum duration, defining what constitutes acceptable school placements, and requiring university-based supervision.[4] In the case of the course-based field experience, on the other hand, this jurisdiction is far more difficult to exert for the government, since in this case the experience is offered as part of a university-based course, and – while the Minister of Education possesses the ultimate authority to approve teacher education programs (which might extend to aspects like curriculum and site of courses within that program) – it will be much more difficult to intervene with such specific teaching aspects of a university-based course. This difference points to a far greater design autonomy of the field experiences offered as part of a university-based course.[5]

(b) Connected with this first observation is the difference that the profession has a much greater jurisdiction in the regulatory and delivery aspects of the governance of the course-based field experiences, since it is the individual teacher's willingness to participate in this field experience project that makes it possible in the first place. The project would not have happened if it were not for the professions' (teacher's) willingness and interest, which gives those teachers negotiation power that they do not have to the same degree in the practicum-based model. This negotiation power brings with it a greater sense of a need for collaboration or perhaps even co-construction among the now dominant jurisdictions in this model of field experiences: the faculty and the profession (the individual teachers). This means, that the distinction between 'formal authority' and 'practical authority', that is so important a

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[4] The most recent illustration of the Manitoba government exercising its authority in this area involves the regulating Faculties of Educations' aspirations to use schools outside of Canada as placement sites for the practicum.

[5] In some circumstances this autonomy needs to be qualified. Although not enacted in Manitoba, governments can control university-based teacher education programs through different means like the definition of specific 'standards' or 'competencies' that students have to demonstrate or inspection regimes for both schools *and* faculties of education, as the case of government control of teacher education programs in England demonstrates (Whitty, Furlong, Barton, Miles & Whiting, 2007)

distinction in practical terms for the practicum-based model, does not have the same practical importance in the course-based field experience model.

(c) While the control over evaluation is in practical terms split and sometimes controversial in the practicum-based model, it is not an issue at all in the course-based model. The profession has neither a formal jurisdiction over teacher candidates' evaluations in the case of the practicum-based field experiences, nor does it play any evaluative role in the course embedded field experiences. The former is the case because practicum-based field experiences are recorded as courses and it is the university-based faculty advisor who is formally in charge of teacher candidates' evaluation in the course and all experiences connected to the course; the latter is the case because the way in which the course-based field experiences were designed and enacted, school teachers involvement with teacher candidates' work in the schools did not include any evaluative aspect of teacher candidates.

(d) Taking the 'standard model' of the practicum-based field experiences as the reference point, in the course-based field experience model faculty members contribute 'in kind' to the funding of the project in form of additional time (for planning and debriefing meetings) as well as additional travel cost (to and from the schools).

Aside from insights into the two different models of field experiences discussed in the case studies, the analysis of the governance structure of two different field experiences of pre-service teacher education programs in Manitoba provide also insights into teacher education in general in the Canadian context.

(a) The analysis in the two case studies makes clear that one needs to distinguish between 'formal jurisdiction' and 'practical jurisdiction' ('lent' jurisdiction). The law or regulations define whose jurisdiction a particular focus of the field experience is. But as the focus 'curriculum' makes clear, while the university has the *formal* jurisdiction over the curriculum of the practicum as part of a university-based program, the actual practice of enacting the practicum component of the program sees a *practical* jurisdiction in the hands of the collaborating teacher. In some respect the two field experience models inquired into in the two case studies are at opposite ends of a spectrum that sees a clear distinction between formal and practical jurisdiction as in the practicum-based model on the one side and the course-based model on the other; in the course-based model there is very little relevance of the distinction between formal and practical jurisdiction, since the existence of the very field experience depends on *both* the faculty and the profession (individual teachers).

(b) Funding is the life-blood of programming. New initiatives are often linked directly to the need for additional funding. The analysis of the funding focus in the two case studies brings to the surface the complexities of funding of field experiences and that the funding structure might be quite different for different models of field experiences, requiring different approaches to secure funding – or to realize the vulnerability of an initiative because of the funding structure.

(c) In the two Manitoba field experience models professional involvement and jurisdiction finds expression primarily through the contributions of individual teachers rather than the profession as a collective. While the Manitoba *Teachers Society Act* defines a broad mandate for the Manitoba Teachers Society in promoting and enhancing the causes of education in Manitoba, it does not specify any formal role in the governance of teacher preparation in the ways that the Ontario *College of Teachers Act* or the British Columbia *Teaching Profession Act* does. This reality points to the complexities in talking about 'the profession' as an entity of jurisdiction in teacher education in provinces without a College of Teachers.

(d) The analysis of the governance structure moves deservingly to the forefront the issue of the relationship between university, government, and the profession. Our focus on field experiences in teacher education opens up a much wider discussion of the management of the relationship between the university and the profession. It is not our intent in this paper to argue in favour of any particular set of jurisdictional relationships. We have discussed elsewhere (Young and Boyd, in press) the different core interests, purposes and contributions that each organization brings to teacher preparation. What we hope is that the paper provokes and informs the discussions around where jurisdiction might best lie and what different forms of collaboration and co-construction might properly and realistically be envisioned.

Conclusion

While it is teacher educators (at the university and in the field) who design and provide learning opportunities for teacher candidates for their learning to teach, all those opportunities are provided within a program structure. It is this program structure that regulates how often teacher candidates work with students, who supervises them during this time, how many credit hours of course work teacher candidates have to take, to what degree course work and field experiences are integrated, and so on. Understanding this structure from a *governance* perspective means understanding the power structure (the jurisdictions) that formally regulates decision making within the different elements of the program; any program leaves a lot of room for "on-the-ground" decisions that need to be made as part of the program's implementation. A program structure provides the context for learning and teaching, and it is within this context that decisions are made and interests are played out and their enactment negotiated. It is the *governance* perspective that focuses on the formal/legal and the informal/ "on-the-ground" power structure within which those decisions are made the interests are played out and negotiated.

The analytical framework provided in the first part of this paper is designed to help with the understanding of the governance structure of field experiences in teacher education programs. We hope that the use of this analytical framework to understand the governance of field experiences in two cases illustrated the usefulness of this framework for that purpose. Through the points raised in the second part of the previous section we argue for the importance of considering the governance perspective on teacher education in general and on field experiences in particular, especially in the context of teacher education reform. In any effort for program renewal, one cannot plan to develop "the best model for teacher education" without considering the governance structures involved *and* without considering how the development of "the best model" has happened in the first place.

The governance structure of teacher education in Canada provides all three jurisdictional parties in the context of field experiences with some form of *power*. In our view that is important, because each of the three parties brings some form of *wisdom* to the context of teacher education. Simplified, faculties of education (should) bring *academic* wisdom to teacher education in form of theorized understanding of teaching and a critical understanding of the larger context of schooling, the profession (should) bring *practical* wisdom to teacher education in form of contextual and practical understanding of teaching, and, finally, the government (should) bring *political* wisdom to teacher education in form of the responsibility for the public

interest in education. In our view, the governance of teacher education should be structured in such a way that the power provided to each of the three parties can and must be enacted in such a way that it allows those three forms of wisdom to come to bear in teacher education. The analytical framework that we have provided in this paper and have illustrated in two case studies should provide the tool to understand and redesign power structures (in the context of field experiences) in such a way that these three forms of wisdom can come to bear in a reformed teacher education program.

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