

**Communities of practice for the empowerment of future French second language teachers:
A critical complexity-informed perspective**

Adam Kaszuba

A thesis submitted to the University of Ottawa in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
Doctorate in Philosophy degree in Education

Faculty of Education

University of Ottawa

© Adam Kaszuba, Ottawa, Canada, 2025

Abstract

In Canada, there is an increasing concern about the rise of neoliberal priorities in initial teacher education (ITE) policy and practices. Particularly in Ontario, governments have deployed techniques of governance to reform educational systems in an effort to achieve economic goals. This has resulted in an alarming decline in the retention of early-career teachers generally, and French second language (FSL) teachers specifically. While researchers have pointed to the need to bolster Faculties of Education to support early-career teachers before they enter the classroom, they also recognize that universities are subject to their own unique pressures, courtesy of neoliberalism. Set against the backdrop of an Ontario ITE program, this thesis by articles reports on a complex case study that examined the emerging practices of 18 language-focused teacher candidates as they participated in four voluntary communities of practice (CoP) over an eight-month period between 2022-2023. In these voluntary CoPs, candidates had the chance to pursue their own professional learning goals, assert their own norms and values, and develop their own practices. Anchored in a framework of resilience governance, and drawing from principles of complexity theory-critical realism (CTCR), data were collected through a variety of sources, including recordings of CoP meetings, interviews, artifacts, and a researcher journal. Taking each CoP as a unit of analysis, data were first analyzed with regard to the elements of the candidates' practices, reconstructed into narratives, and then contextualized into a complex case study. With support from the three CoP lenses of *learning*, *innovating*, and *defending*, I present the findings through three articles which ground the candidates' practices in educational theories related to mentorship, collaborative inquiry, and resistance. Despite the benefits that these CoPs afforded, such as increased opportunities for candidates to try out new roles, to have more control over the learning process, and to question cultural norms in the ITE program, findings showed that

candidates still struggled to sustain the momentum of the groups and often reproduced dominant discourses in their practices. Ultimately, this study highlights that trying to support the autonomy of teacher candidates through policy does not offer them a means of empowerment, nor respite from the neoliberal pressures in ITE programming.

Résumé

Au Canada, on s'inquiète de plus en plus de la montée des priorités néolibérales dans les politiques et les pratiques de formation initiale à l'enseignement (FIE). En particulier en Ontario, les gouvernements ont déployé des techniques de gouvernance pour réformer les systèmes éducatifs dans le but d'atteindre des objectifs économiques. Il en résulte une baisse alarmante du taux de rétention des enseignants en début de carrière en général, et des enseignants de français langue seconde (FLS) en particulier. Bien que les chercheurs aient souligné la nécessité de renforcer les facultés d'éducation pour soutenir les enseignants en début de carrière avant qu'ils n'entrent en classe, ils reconnaissent également que les universités sont soumises à leurs propres pressions, à cause du néolibéralisme. Avec pour toile de fond un programme de FIE de l'Ontario, cette thèse par articles rend compte d'une étude de cas complexe qui a examiné les pratiques émergentes de 18 candidats à l'enseignement axé sur les langues alors qu'ils participaient à des communautés de pratique (CdP) volontaires sur une période de huit mois entre 2022 et 2023. Dans ces CdP volontaires, les candidats ont eu la possibilité de poursuivre leurs propres objectifs d'apprentissage professionnel, d'affirmer leurs propres normes et valeurs et de développer leurs propres pratiques. Ancrées dans un cadre de gouvernance de la résilience et s'inspirant des principes de la théorie de la complexité et du réalisme critique (CTCR), les données ont été collectées à partir de diverses sources, notamment des enregistrements de réunions de CdP, des entretiens, des artefacts et un journal de chercheur. En prenant chaque CdP comme unité d'analyse, les données ont d'abord été analysées par rapport aux éléments des pratiques des candidats, reconstruites sous forme de récit, puis contextualisées dans une étude de cas complexe. En m'appuyant sur les trois optiques des CdP, à savoir *l'apprentissage*, *l'innovation* et *la défense*, je présente les résultats dans trois articles qui ancrent les pratiques des candidats dans

les théories éducatives liées au mentorat, à l'enquête collaborative et à la résistance. Malgré les avantages offerts par ces CdP, tels que les possibilités accrues pour les candidats d'essayer de nouveaux rôles, d'avoir plus de contrôle sur le processus d'apprentissage et de remettre en question les normes culturelles du programme de FEI, les résultats ont montré que les candidats avaient toujours du mal à maintenir l'élan des groupes et reproduisaient souvent les discours dominants dans leurs pratiques. En fin de compte, cette étude met en évidence le fait qu'essayer de soutenir l'autonomie des candidats à l'enseignement par le biais de la politique ne leur offre pas de moyen d'autonomisation, ni de répit par rapport aux pressions néolibérales dans les programmes de FEI.

Preface

This project and all of its data collection tools received approval from the University of Ottawa's Research Ethics Board prior to the start of data collection (Ethics: S-07-22-8106/Approval: 18-8-2022, see Appendix A), and consent was obtained from the participants with regard to the use of their data for analysis and dissemination.

The design of this study builds on a professional learning opportunity which Dr. Stephanie Arnott and Dr. Mimi Masson had piloted in previous years with the now defunct *Second Language Cohort* at the University of Ottawa's Faculty of Education. With their guidance, I led the design and delivery of this opportunity, on which this dissertation reports, for the cohort during the 2022-2023 school year. Outside of the study, however, managing cohort activities for the 75 teacher candidates was a collaborative effort, and I appreciate their support during the cohort orientation event (i.e. launch of this project) as well as with reviewing follow-up emails during the first few months. I also deeply appreciate the support from Samantha van Geel, a doctorate student at the University of Ottawa who held a contract for administrative duties related to the cohort. She attended many of the community of practice meetings with me, and led two of them when I was unable to.

Acknowledgements

This thesis by articles builds on the idea that we navigate our personal and professional lives through participation in learning communities, and this way of thinking reflects my experience during this doctoral program. The completion of this thesis was only made possible through the support of my family, friends, colleagues, supervisors, and mentors and the many learning communities that we maintain together.

First, I am indebted to all of the participants at the University of Ottawa who contributed to this study, whether formally or informally. I specifically want to thank the teacher candidates - they not only dedicated their time and effort to voluntarily participate in these learning communities, but also trusted me with their stories. It was a privilege to build these communities with you and vicariously relive the experience of becoming a teacher through your challenges, successes, and accomplishments. Thank you to the participating professors who let me observe their classes, and thank you as well to the program coordinators for helping me to better understand the program's structure and schedules.

Second, I am fortunate to have been able to participate in and build learning communities with colleagues, friends, and mentors at the Faculty of Education at the University of Ottawa and beyond. I would like to acknowledge my supervisor, Dr. Stephanie Arnott, who has accompanied me on every step of this journey, and who fostered a community of doctoral students from which I was able to draw emotional support, guidance, and feedback on an ongoing basis even during the challenging times of the pandemic. In this regard, I want to give a shout out to the graduate students of #Squad Goals, including Cameron Smith, Robert Grant, Samantha van Geel, Amanda Battistuzi, and Alaa Azan. It has been an honour to go through this journey with all of you both as colleagues and as friends. I also want to thank Dr. Mimi Masson, who has been a mentor and

trailblazer for me through the doctoral process. I also appreciate her support as a member of my doctoral committee, along with Dr. Angus McMurtry, Dr. Ruth Kane, and Dr. Fiona Ell. You have all provided critical insight and constructive feedback that helped me push my thinking and writing. I am also sincerely grateful for the financial support I received from the Ontario Grant Scholarship, the Social Science and Humanities Research Council of Canada, and the University of Ottawa.

Finally, I want to thank the community of my friends and family. To Amanda Oad and Monica Speranza, thank you for your friendship over the years – you have kept me grounded and have always been a reliable source of respite. Thank you to my siblings, Andrew and Ashleigh, who remind me of the importance of family. A special thank you to my Mom and Dad for their unwavering love and enthusiastic cheerleading. And thank you to my partner, Curtis, whose ongoing support, kindness, and positive vibes have contributed immeasurably to my success.

Table of Contents

| | |
|--|-----------|
| Abstract..... | ii |
| Résumé..... | iv |
| Preface..... | vi |
| Acknowledgements..... | vii |
| Table of Contents | ix |
| List of Figures..... | xv |
| List of Tables..... | xv |
| List of Abbreviations..... | xv |
| Glossary of Terms | xvi |
| Chapter 1: General Introduction..... | 1 |
| Literature Review | 4 |
| ITE Governance in Ontario..... | 4 |
| Language Teacher Knowledge Framework. | 11 |
| Professional learning, ITE, and CoPs. | 13 |
| Theoretical Framework | 22 |
| Resilience Governance..... | 26 |
| Critical complexity for governance of Ontario FSL ITE..... | 30 |
| Critical complexity for language teacher knowledge. | 32 |
| Critical complexity for professional learning. | 34 |

| | |
|---|-----------|
| Research Questions..... | 37 |
| Methodology..... | 38 |
| Case study and complex systems..... | 38 |
| The Study..... | 39 |
| Data Collection..... | 42 |
| Data Analysis..... | 45 |
| Concluding Remarks..... | 48 |
| Chapter 2: The Learning Lens | 50 |
| Abstract | 50 |
| Introduction | 52 |
| Literature Review | 53 |
| Complex Professional Learning..... | 53 |
| Mentoring Models..... | 55 |
| Emergent Peer Mentoring..... | 56 |
| Methodology..... | 58 |
| Context..... | 59 |
| Recruitment, data collection..... | 59 |
| Positionality..... | 61 |
| Data Analysis..... | 61 |
| Findings..... | 62 |

| | |
|---|-----------|
| Phase 1 (September-October)..... | 62 |
| Phase 2 (November-April)..... | 65 |
| Discussion | 69 |
| Beyond a traditional view of mentorship..... | 70 |
| ...towards a complex view of peer mentoring..... | 72 |
| Future directions | 73 |
| References | 74 |
| Chapter 3: The Innovating Lens..... | 80 |
| Abstract | 80 |
| Introduction | 81 |
| Conceptualizing collaborative inquiry | 82 |
| Complexity-informed CI..... | 84 |
| Subject-specific CI: the case of language teachers | 87 |
| Methodology..... | 90 |
| Context..... | 90 |
| Recruitment, Data Construction..... | 91 |
| Data Analysis..... | 92 |
| Findings | 93 |
| Fun with French PLC..... | 93 |
| Universal Design for Learning PLC..... | 95 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| Classroom Management PLC. | 97 |
| Mental Health Warriors PLC. | 98 |
| Discussion and Conclusion | 99 |
| References | 104 |
| Chapter 4: The Defending Lens | 114 |
| Abstract | 114 |
| Literature Review | 116 |
| Neoliberalism, Specialized Technicians, and Ontario ITE. | 119 |
| Discourse(s) of Professionalism. | 123 |
| Learning Communities and Practices of Resistance. | 125 |
| Methodology | 126 |
| Context | 127 |
| Data Analysis. | 128 |
| Findings | 130 |
| Teachers Matter: The Discourse of Passion. | 130 |
| Teachers are Self-Sacrificing: The Discourse of Mental Health and Well-Being..... | 133 |
| Teachers Maintain Control: The Discourse of Safety. | 136 |
| Discussion & Implications | 139 |
| Professionalization as truth acts..... | 140 |
| Co-evolving discourses of professionalism and possibilities for resistance..... | 142 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| References | 144 |
| Chapter 5: Discussion | 153 |
| Article 1: Mentorship and the Learning Lens | 156 |
| Article 2: Collaborative Inquiry and the Innovating Lens..... | 162 |
| Norms of collaboration: Embracing uncertainty..... | 163 |
| Not a policy problem, an equity problem. | 168 |
| Moving forward: Landscapes of practice. | 170 |
| Article 3: Subjectivity, Resistance, and the Defending Lens | 172 |
| Resilience governance: A means of empowerment? | 178 |
| Resilience as an extension of neoliberal governmentality. | 182 |
| Concluding Remarks..... | 187 |
| References | 190 |
| Appendices..... | 216 |
| Appendix A: Ethics Approvals | 216 |
| Appendix B: Model of theoretical framework..... | 218 |
| Appendix C: Professional learning matrix and conceptual map template | 219 |
| Appendix D: Example of professional learning conceptual map | 221 |
| Appendix E: First Meeting Agenda & SMART Goals Worksheet | 222 |
| Roles | 222 |
| Resources | 222 |

Introductions 222

Identifying a felt concern 223

Establishing a shared vision..... 224

Discuss Expectations 224

Shared Vision 226

Initial Goals..... 226

Making your initial goals SMART 227

SMART Goal 228

Plan for Success 228

Reflect on Progress 229

Appendix F: Field note template..... 230

Appendix G: Interview Protocols..... 232

Appendix H: Analysis template..... 239

List of Figures

| | |
|--|----|
| FIGURE 1: Number of participants by month..... | 40 |
|--|----|

List of Tables

| | |
|---|-----|
| TABLE 1: Summary of articles. | 47 |
| TABLE 2: Phases of the project, timing of activities and data collection. | 60 |
| TABLE 3: List of participants in each PLC and their enrollment details. | 91 |
| TABLE 4: List of participants in each LC and enrollment details (abridged)..... | 128 |

List of Abbreviations

| Abbreviation | Term |
|--------------|---------------------------------------|
| CoI | community of inquiry |
| CoP | community of practice |
| CTCR | Complexity theory-critical realism |
| FSL | French second language |
| ITE | Initial teacher education |
| OCT | Ontario College of Teachers |
| PLC | Professional learning community |

Glossary of Terms

Complexity Theory: Complexity theory (or more appropriately, complexity theories) refers to a term used by theorists and researchers who base their ontology and/or epistemology around the idea that complex ideas, problems, and systems cannot be reduced to Newtonian rational mechanics (Alhadeff-Jones, 2008). Although originating in the sciences in the early 20th century, complexity concepts have been adapted to develop complexity theories as a framework to study social phenomena, like education and language learning.

Complexity Theory-Critical Realism (CTCR): Complexity theory-critical realism (CTCR) is a specific approach developed by Cochran-Smith and her colleagues (2014a;b), who combined complexity theory and critical realism to create a theoretical framework for conducting research in initial teacher education contexts.

Critical Realism: Critical realism is a term whose origin is generally attributed to Roy Bhaskar (1975/2008). It refers to theories developed by academics who build on his tradition of thinking for conceptualizing their ontology and epistemology.

French as a Second Language: French as a second language refers to domain of research that studies educational programs and policies which shape how individuals learn French as an additional language in a country with both English and French as official languages, as is the case in Canada. It also refers to the condition of individuals who have learned French through such a system, and the implications of this learning and the system on their languaging practices.

Initial teacher education (ITE): Initial teacher education (ITE), sometimes called pre-service training, refers to a program officially recognized by a governing body which is designed to prepare its participants to work as teachers, educators, or para-professionals. Although many variants of ITE exist around the world, in this dissertation, ITE refers to the typical structure of

teacher preparation that is regulated by the Ontario provincial governmental, accredited by the Ontario College of Teachers, and designed and delivered by Faculties of education. Successful completion usually results in graduates obtaining a Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) and the professional designation of *Ontario Certified Teacher*. Since 2015, these programs must be two years in length.

Legitimate peripheral participation: A term developed by Lave and Wenger (1991) to explain the process by which newcomers join a community of practice (CoP) and learn about the substantive practice from current or experienced members. As the name suggests, there are several gradations of participation that are possible depending on the current positioning of the newcomer in relation to the CoP, ranging from observation from the periphery to more interactive participation at the core.

Learning communities: As I have encountered during the research process, there exists an innumerable number of terms used to describe a group of educators who work together in a professional context, including but not limited to professional learning communities (PLCs), communities of practice (CoPs), communities of inquiry (CoI), communities of educational enquiry (Cassidy et al., 2008), teacher communities (Vangrieken et al., 2017), professional development/learning networks (Lawrence & Dubetz, 2001; Masson & Kaszuba, 2023), online professional development communities (Barab et al., 2003), peer mentoring groups (Mullen et al., 2020), and collaborative inquiry groups (Hargreaves & O'Connor, 2018a). The nomenclature becomes more diverse when considering how these terms are taken up in other languages, like French, where we see terms like *groupes de codéveloppement professionnel* (Desjardins et al., 2019), or where a PLC can be translated as both *une communauté professionnelle d'apprentissage* (Kristmanson et al., 2008) and *une communauté d'apprentissage professionnel*

(Bertrand et al., 2022). Authors may purposefully use terminological variation to maintain theoretical nuance and invite contextuality into their definition of learning communities, and as such, I have endeavored to refer to the term used by each author when citing various papers throughout this thesis.

As I develop below, my own work is mostly underpinned by research into communities of practice (CoP), but I do not use this term consistently throughout the articles, for two reasons: first, while there are theoretical differences between terms like ‘PLC’ and ‘CoP’ in practice, this difference is minimal when they are taken up in the context of teacher learning (Vangrieken et al., 2017). Second, a specific term might be needed to reflect the historical context or ‘speak’ to the current discourse within a certain line of inquiry. To elaborate, when I was working with teacher candidates during the project, we referred to the groups as PLCs as this tends to be the vernacular commonly used in the ITE program. However, when I examined program and policy documents, I more frequently found the terms ‘CoP’ or ‘CoI’. These inconsistencies can be confusing, but I no longer believe they need to be resolved through the standardization of terminology. As Nicolini et al. (2022) rightly claimed, “to advance the study of CoPs, we must resist the temptation to resurrect definitional controversies and acknowledge the poisoned chalice attached to the notion of communities” (p. 58). My choice to use different terms across the three articles (i.e. CoP in Article 1, PLC in Article 2, and teacher community in Article 3) not only reflects the discourse, framework, or historical context on which each article is based, but also signals a quiet appreciation for the proliferation of lexical variation across educational research.

Linear-based/non-linear based thinking: Linear thinking typically refers to an epistemological approach based on rationality, one which assumes that people can attribute specific causes to perceived effects (i.e. cause-and-effect thinking). In contrast to linear-based thinking, non-linear

based thinking is a concept that derives from complexity theory. It involves an epistemological approach that perceived effects cannot be directly linked to specific causes, as effects are the result of multiple causal chains which may or may not be known and observable.

Neoliberalism: Neoliberalism refers to the approach of transforming social and economic systems based on the ideology of the free market. Through the application of economic concepts, corporate and private practices, and managerial hierarchies to public assets like education, the goal of neoliberal projects is to create markets where they did not exist before (Connell, 2013). The mechanisms of neoliberalism can function at, and have effects on, both the institutional and individual levels (Flores, 2013).

Occupational professionalism: Occupational professionalism refers to the understandings of the practices of educational workers before the advent of neoliberalism, or at least in contexts where neoliberalism is not dominant. This form of professionalism originates within a professional group of educators, who, through trust and relational accountability, held the authority over what constitutes good practice and ethical action (Moore & Clarke, 2016).

Organizational Professionalism: Organizational professionalism refers to the understandings of the practices of educational workers as conceptualized through a neoliberal lens. This form of professionalism originates with policy makers and managers, who manufacture what constitutes good practice and ethical action and hold the professional group accountable to these external guidelines/expectations (Moore & Clarke, 2016).

Professional Learning: Professional learning describes the process by which teachers learn the practices associated with their profession. While previous conceptualizations of professional learning were based on the assumption that the repetition of a specific repertoire of activities and methods led to incremental and cumulative effects of learning for teachers, this dissertation

understands professional learning as a complex system that emerges as teachers and non-human elements interact in a site (Opfer & Pedder, 2011). In this sense, professional learning is a non-linear process that is produced through multiple causal pathways, each shaped by context-dependent conditions, such as local knowledge, problems, routines, and aspirations.

Resilience: One term that will be used frequently in this dissertation, but which I intentionally do not operationalize, is resilience. In a classical framing, the notion of resilience came to be understood as the inner capacity of something (e.g. a bridge in engineering or an ecosystem in ecology) to withstand external pressures and adapt to a constantly changing state of equilibrium. Thereafter, this term was adopted into social sciences and humanities to refer to the ability of a person or a society to ‘bounce back’ from external negative events, such as how a resilient woman is able to withstand the pressures of motherhood, or how the USA demonstrated resilience following the 9/11 attacks (Chandler, 2014b). In this classical understanding, resilience is a property of the subject – the subject endures based on its inner resources. In contrast, a post-classical understanding draws from concepts of complexity to describe resilience as the relationship between the subject and object. Rather than being a property of the subject, resilience is understood as “the emergent and adaptive process of subject/object interrelations” (Chandler, 2014b, p. 7). It is this postclassical understanding which has been recently taken up in literature on resilience as it applies to teacher work (Gu, 2014; Mansfield et al., 2016). For teachers, Gu (2014) suggested that:

beyond ‘bouncing back’ from adversity and setbacks... their capacity to be resilient was perceived to be driven...through the dynamic interactions between teachers’ professional assets (essentially associated with their vocation, efficacy and commitment) and the

quality of external intellectual, social and organisational environments in which they work and live. (Gu, 2014, p. 4)

Building on the idea of relational resilience in the context of initial teacher education (ITE), Mansfield et al.'s (2016) literature review and framework positioned resilience as a concept which needs to be developed with teacher candidates through explicit discussion during ITE. In addition, they suggested that resilience is built through activities which support relationship-building, wellbeing, motivation, and emotional self-awareness.

While the work on teacher resilience shares many similarities with the methodological approach taken in this dissertation, I do not operationalize the term because my intention is not to determine whether the participants' practices or the ITE program could be described as more or less resilient following an intervention. In the context of this dissertation, the type of resilience that is most relevant is the way that the term is conceptualized, studied and applied as a *policy mechanism*, such as in the work of Chandler (2014b) and Joseph (2018). These researchers conducted policy analyses to examine how resilience as a term is operationalized and reified in the fields of international peacekeeping and security. However, as far as I know, resilience as a term does not have an important presence in Ontario ITE policy, so a policy analysis is not exactly the approach undertaken here. According to Joseph (2018), "resilience derives its meaningful character from its relation to governance strategies that have various populations as their target" (p. 3). Applying this idea to a study in education means "looking at how a resilience strategy works [from a distance] by appealing to responsible behaviour and in particular, placing emphasis on strategies of learning, awareness and adaptability" (p. 4). Thus, references to resilience signify the strategies of governance that are implied when the post-classical understanding of teacher resilience is considered an ideal by the political body. To be more

specific, this study understands resilience as the governance strategies detailed in the framework by Chandler (2014a;b) and taken up in Ontario ITE policy and programs to foster the autonomy, responsibility, empowerment, and learning of teacher candidates.

Chapter 1: General Introduction

Over the past few years, French as a Second Language initial teacher education (FSL ITE) in Canada has been suffering from a growing variety of challenges (Smyth & Hamel, 2016). Although the federal government's 2018-2023 *Action Plan for Official Languages* commits to increasing the supply of FSL teachers by bolstering FSL ITE programs, this recruitment-based policy has only succeeded in “funnel[ing] warm bodies into classrooms” (Darling-Hammond & Podolsky, 2019, p. 8) without acknowledging the working conditions and attrition of FSL teachers once they graduate (Masson et al., 2019). Despite the structural differences of ITE in each province, the policy discourse surrounding these programs is among the more recent battlegrounds of educational governance across the country (Grimmett, 2009; Morales Perlaza & Tardif, 2016). On one hand, professional bodies and institutions are pushing for less regulation and more professional autonomy and respect. On the other, calls for more regulation and professional accountability from the general public are echoed by the Ministries of Education (Pinto, 2012; Walker & von Bergmann, 2013). Coupled with the recent and alarming decline of self-perceived professional autonomy among teachers across the country (Campbell et al., 2017), this state of affairs suggests that Grimmett's (2009) fear of the rise of a dominant, neoliberal discourse in Canadian ITE policymaking has become a reality. This dissertation works to ascertain the extent to which this is the case in the context of FSL ITE policymaking and practice in Ontario.

Specifically, the project explored resilience-based understandings of ITE policymaking (Chandler, 2014a) that could support professional autonomy and address early-career teacher attrition of FSL teachers. In contrast to recruitment policies, research has shown that retention policies are an evidence-based approach which require relational understanding and

collaboration between the multiple complex systems involved in the development of language teacher candidates (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014a; Darling-Hammond, 2020; Masson et al., 2019; Swanson & Mason, 2018). In the case of FSL, the need for retention is urgent, as language teachers across the world continue to endure unsubstantiated policies and a deterioration of workplace conditions (Kubanyiova & Crookes, 2016; Mason, 2017; Wernicke et al., 2023).

My motivation for studying this topic stems from my own teacher education. Like many teacher educators before me (see Britzman, 2007), my experiences with ITE led me to be critical of the education I received, as the program required only one course to be delivered in French, limited the number of FSL practicum experiences to 50%, and had no provision for additional language support. These frustrations were confirmed through my reading of the literature about what is ‘lacking’ in FSL teacher education (e.g., Salvatori & MacFarlane, 2009) and led me to examine different structures of FSL ITE (Kaszuba, 2018). Moreover, other FSL teacher candidates and I developed a community where we planned learning opportunities with the goal of developing our linguistic, intercultural, pedagogic, and professional competencies. Based on this experience – and findings presented in this thesis – I argue that this type of self-organization in communities of practice (CoPs) is a necessary facet of language teacher learning that may help to combat deprofessionalization in the face of accountability regimes (Kubanyiova & Crookes, 2016; Masson, 2018). While research shows the potential for CoPs to hone the professional autonomy development of in-service FSL teachers (Kristmanson et al., 2011), more research is required to explore how CoPs are initiated, developed, and sustained in the FSL ITE context (Kaszuba, Masson, et al., 2024).

While my original thesis proposal positioned this study as mainly responding to this need, it became clear as data collection progressed that this dissertation was diverging from how

second language teaching, learning, and education is traditionally taken up in the literature. It is true that the field of second language ITE demarcates itself from traditional ITE, in the sense that language teachers, students, and educators may find themselves in unique contextual situations (Tedick, 2005), take up unique pedagogical practices (Wright, 2010), or face unique institutional challenges that constrain their identity and work (Mason, 2017). However, since starting my doctorate, I have struggled to reconcile the field of language ITE and its unique problems with the mainstream discourse around teacher education, retention, induction, etc. as it relates to neoliberalism, given that little research exists around this issue (certainly in the Canadian context). With the support of my supervisor, I decided to reposition my research inquiry and document my emergent understandings of the intersections of these issues. As such, rather than seeing myself as a second language teacher education researcher, I now purposefully position myself as a researcher who studies professional learning, and who happens to engage language teachers as the target participant group. Critical research on mainstream issues in ITE has much to gain by studying the complexities and challenges of those marginalized by the system, and indeed, the social positioning of language teachers often leads them to be considered the “voices from the margin” (Kubota, 1998) or the “voices from the bottom rungs” (Knouzi & Mady, 2014). All of this to say that while the participants in this study are beginning language teachers, my orientation has resulted in only one article that specifically interweaves professional learning with complexities of second language teacher education (Article 2 on collaborative inquiry), and two more articles which are agnostic to these complexities (Article 1 on mentoring; Article 3 on resistance). Even without due consideration of the second language dimension, I nevertheless assert that the implications of the participants’ experiences can be applied broadly to all teacher candidates working in 21st century “superdiverse societies” (Piccardo, 2017), like Ontario. As the

saying goes, “Every Teacher is a Language Teacher,” and the research undertaken here contributes to the conscientization of this reality.

Literature Review

In this section of the proposal, I will highlight the different bodies of research that contribute to the project. First, to better understand the policy context of FSL ITE in Ontario, I will provide a brief history of the province’s ITE governance which has led to the current policy context. Connecting this to FSL ITE, I will then provide a review of the Language Teacher Knowledge Framework (Masson et al., 2021; 2024) to discuss how professionalism fits within the process of FSL teacher learning during ITE. Finally, I will synthesize findings from research examining professional learning and its impacts on ITE, particularly as it pertains to the implementation of CoPs.

ITE Governance in Ontario. Prior to 1990, Canadian ITE policy was mostly managed by higher education institutions, with “benign control” from the government (Grimmett, 2009, p. 22). Soon thereafter, this arrangement came under scrutiny as neoliberal forms of governance began to treat ITE as a policy problem (Grimmett, 2009). The notion that teacher quality was linked to a country’s economic competitiveness became pervasive and, consequently, governments believed that they could improve teacher quality through accountability measures in ITE programs (Cochran-Smith, 2021; Rigas & Kuchapski, 2018). However, despite the push for government control over ITE policy, institutions (in this case, universities and faculties of education) and stakeholders in the profession still garner influence over the governance of these programs, albeit to different degrees in each province and territory. Young and Boyd (2010) highlighted modes of governance which reflect three social systems involved in ITE: the professional, the political (the dominant mode in Ontario, as described below), and the

institutional. Within a professional mode of governance, power is delegated by the government to a self-regulating body that is elected by its members. Within a political mode of governance, institutions must align their ITE programs with professional competencies and organizational structures which are regulated and controlled by the government. Finally, within an institutional mode of governance, universities retain control over changes in ITE programs without consultation from the government or the profession. Neoliberal discourse manifests differently and to varying degrees within each of these systems (Hall, 2011), so as they interact, social injustices toward marginalized groups, such as potential FSL teachers, become magnified (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014a). In fact, despite a decade of research on the development of ITE policy in Canada (Grimmett, 2009; Rigas & Kuchapski, 2018), and despite the recorded three decades of FSL teacher shortages (Lapkin et al., 2009; Masson et al., 2019), examination of the impact of neoliberal governance on FSL ITE remains virtually absent from the literature (Arnott et al., 2017). My project aimed to respond to this gap.

In Ontario (the context of the study), the impact of neoliberal reform from the 1990s pervades ITE policymaking today. At this time, in a policy context of professionalization (Morales Perlaza & Tardif, 2016), the Ministry of Education attempted to deregulate teacher education through market forces, moving the locus of policy control away from institutions and into the hands of the profession. Thus, following recommendations from the Ontario Royal Commission on Learning, the Ontario College of Teachers (OCT) was created in 1996 (referred to henceforth as the “OCT” or “the College”). The OCT Act gave external accountability over accreditation of ITE programs to the OCT, the standards for which are listed in Ontario Regulation [O. Reg.] 347/02 (Government of Ontario, 2002).

Since the formation of the OCT, additional accountability strategies have been implemented by the province to monitor the compliance of institutions. For example, the Higher Education Quality Council of Ontario was established in 2005 as a means to scrutinize and set-up funding criteria for ITE programs (Walker & von Bergmann, 2013). In terms of accreditation, the regulation 343/02 set up a list of core content requirements that Ontario ITE programs must include (for a full list, see Campbell, 2023) In addition, the O. Reg. 283/13, filed in 2013, was layered on top of the requirements necessary for ITE programs to attain accreditation, organized under *Curriculum Knowledge*, *Pedagogical Instructional Strategies Knowledge*, and *Teacher Context Knowledge* (Government of Ontario, 2013). The shift to a teacher knowledge framework or competency model for program accreditation reflected a growing trend for standards-based ITE across Canada. In this model, policy aimed to identify the specific professional knowledge, skills, and values that teachers need to have ‘acquired’ upon graduation (Darling-Hammond, 2017; Rigas & Kuchapski, 2018).

The current ITE policy climate in Ontario is heavily influenced by such neoliberal ideals. Walker and von Bergmann (2013) describe the Ministry of Education’s organizational approach as managers, where the government acts as a “CEO, bringing the country back under control after the neoliberal [Mike] Harris era and managing diverse bodies and reforms” (p. 85). Within the management hierarchy, the OCT, as a quasi-autonomous body set up by the government (Basu, 2004), simply serves as a mechanism for the neoliberal state to implement and legitimize policy mandates in a way that appears palatable to the profession (Morales Perlaza & Tardif, 2016). Therefore, despite the College’s discourse being grounded in professionalism and the government’s discourse in deregulation, O. Reg. 283/13 is an example of the growing

overregulation of and the increasing control over ITE policy in the province (Campbell, 2023; Grimmett, 2009).

Overregulation in the OCT's accreditation process, premised entirely on external accountability, risks leading to both the provincial standardization of ITE programs (Petrarca & Kitchen, 2017) as well as superficial responses from ITE programs (Cochran-Smith, 2021), which in turn have severe impacts on all teacher candidates' professional learning. Standards tend to reduce teacher learning to a mastery of discrete skills (Richards, 2008) which can be packaged into professional learning experiences that are based on predetermined learning objectives (e.g., Kane et al., 2010). In the case of FSL teachers, discrete skills, such as language proficiency and professionalism, risk becoming commodified (Flores, 2013) through the codification of program requirements and their subsequent implementation in ITE's different modalities (e.g., workshops, coursework, and practica). For example, teacher candidates are more likely to develop superficial concepts of professional skills through provincially-mandated workshops than through ongoing coursework (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009; Dunn, 2011). However, coursework is not immune to neoliberal influence, as the accreditation process may require that the content of the course reflect provincial curriculum and associated ideologies (Rigas & Kuchapski, 2018). Although teacher candidates practica experiences are inconsistent across the province, it is common for them to be exposed to organizational professionalism (Cherubini, 2009; Grierson et al., 2011). Without sustained critical reflection of the type of professional learning that occurs across different modalities, the current approach to professional learning in ITE initiates teacher candidates into the province's managerial discourse, the consequences of which reduces their professional autonomy, and subverts their values to

economic imperatives through disciplinary mechanisms (Ball & Olmedo, 2013; Rigas & Kuchapski, 2018; Servage, 2009).

Despite the acknowledgement of a predominantly neoliberal landscape, a top-down, imposed policy approach has not been completely totalizing in Ontario. One of the leading scholars on professional learning in the province, Carol Campbell (2018; 2021; 2023), has documented in detail the extent to which governments have attempted to acknowledge and include educational stakeholders in the policy process since the turn of the century. Between 2003-2018, for example, the Ontario Liberal government set up a Partnership Table between government officials and key stakeholders like the OCT, teacher unions, parent groups, students, and school boards. By working collaboratively with multiple diverse actors, the Partnership Table reflected a more relational approach to policy development, and participants recognized this fact: “it wasn’t just a change in policy, but it was also change in how we do policy” (Campbell et al. 2017, p. 105). As part of their mandate, members of the Partnership Table co-developed policies related to the province’s processes on teacher development, including the New Teacher Induction program (NTIP), the Annual Learning Plan, and the Teacher Performance Appraisal (Campbell, 2021). With regard to ITE, Campbell (2023) noted that it was the last part of the educational system to be addressed on the agenda. One of the primary policy changes that was made involved increasing the required length of the ITE program from two semesters to four semesters in 2015, and in doing so, doubling the amount of candidate’s practice teaching to a minimum of 80 days. Although the reasoning provided for the increased program length focused on increasing the quality of education of the candidates, the implications of this change are still being studied (Jack & Nyman, 2019). For example, a present concern is that this

change is contributing to the ongoing teacher shortage in a post-pandemic world (Campbell, 2023).

Although there have been some positive policy advancements, maintaining relationality in the policy process was challenging. In the years leading up to 2013, before the change in Liberal party leadership, the stakeholders of the Partnership Table recognized there was a shift in the degree of their involvement. As Campbell (2021) reflected:

the approach to partnership working had shifted from genuine co-creation and co-development from the outset of policy ideas to becoming a process where stakeholders were brought in at a later stage in the policy development with consultation meetings that were about information sharing pre- and/or during implementation. (p. 78)

In an effort to restore a sense of agency amidst a diminishing role, the OME and stakeholders renewed their agreement to work with one another through the premise of “collaborative professionalism,” resulting in the 2016 Policy and Program Memorandum (PPM) 159 which highlighted (among other things) the importance of shared responsibility and ideas, the centrality of trust, and the creation of opportunities for collaboration at various administrative levels (Campbell, 2018). However, since the 2018 change from Liberal to Conservative governance, the spirit of collaborative professionalism, as well as the continued operation of the Partnership Table, has not been upheld (Campbell, 2023).

Overall, the approach to governance of Ontario educational systems since the start of the 21st century have been increasingly neoliberal in flavor (Parker, 2017; Pinto, 2012). Specifically, one can see how the governance approach has resulted in Ontario ITE experiencing its own “era of accountability” (Cochran-Smith et al., 2018), where the “the sources of accountability expectations [are increasingly] external to the programmes being held accountable” (Cochran-

Smith, 2021, p. 12) through pressures from standards, accreditation requirements, and financial chokeholding (Campbell, 2023). At the same time, initiatives like the Partnership Table and the policy on collaborative professionalism demonstrate that neoliberal governance has co-existed alongside a more relational form of governance which has attempted to bring together the professional, the political and the institutional in policymaking over ITE. Unfortunately, the Ontario case shows us that relational approaches are fragile and that such arrangements are ultimately subject to the power, control, and coercion of the political body. Thus, if we hope to transition from neoliberal to a more relational governance – or to use the terminology of Chandler (2014a), from neoliberal to *resilience* governance – we must recognize that this transition is fraught, non-linear, and not always guaranteed; if the intended goal is relationality, the inherent challenges of neoliberalism require us to rethink how to go about governing complex systems such as ITE. This thesis explores promising approaches to addressing these challenges through resilience thinking. Based on the premise that “people are better adapted to the future than are social institutions and their representatives” (Beck, 2002, p. 161), resilience approaches reject formal institutions as a means of making change and instead aim to govern life through people and the micro-knowledge and micro-tactics that they develop through their social practices in everyday life (Chandler, 2014b). Here, by shifting the focus of governance onto the practices of FSL teacher candidates, this thesis adopts the belief that these candidates are capable of self-organizing in such a way as to govern themselves and, in doing so, emancipate themselves from the challenges of neoliberalism that lead to their working conditions and attrition.

The spirit of collaborative professionalism may be suspended at the policy level in Ontario, but it is still alive and well in the professional practices of teachers across the province

(Hargreaves & O'Connor, 2018b). Thus, in the following section, the notion of collaborative professionalism will not be treated as an artifice of governance, but rather as an important component of FSL teachers' knowledge framework.

Language Teacher Knowledge Framework. It has long been established that the knowledge base of language teachers is different than that of their mainstream colleagues (Kubanyiova & Crookes, 2016; Tarone & Allwright, 2005). Yet, these knowledges are often not addressed in the Ontario ITE accreditation process, and by extension, are generally ignored in ITE programs (Bayliss & Vignola, 2007; Kaszuba, 2018; Smith et al., 2023). Although the lack of standards allows for more flexibility in curriculum design, the inconsistencies between FSL ITE programs across the province have been under scrutiny (Masson et al., 2019; Smith et al., 2023), especially given that over 25% of graduates from these programs do not meet school board hiring criteria (Jack & Nyman, 2019).

While previous studies have focused on developing FSL teacher candidates as language learners (Christiansen & Laplante, 2004; Gagné & Thomas, 2011), they have been critiqued for not simultaneously developing the candidates' professional practice (Arnott et al., 2017). In particular, research has called for developing the professional identity of FSL teacher candidates by giving them opportunities to develop alternative ideas of what it means to be competent as language teachers (Masson, 2018; Wernicke, 2017). To address this gap, the Canadian Association of Second Language Teachers (CASLT) commissioned a report (Masson et al., 2021) to review the research literature for the essential components of ITE for preparing candidates effectively to become second language teachers (with an emphasis on FSL). Based on the findings of this report, Masson et al. (2024) developed a framework for language teacher knowledge that does not reduce this knowledge to discrete skills, i.e., not reducing teacher

learning to the acquisition of knowledge and implementation of best practices (Faez, 2011). Although this new framework separates the knowledge bases into four “pillars” - including language proficiency, intercultural competence, pedagogical knowledge and skills, and collaborative professionalism - it positions these competencies as interdependent. Moreover, compared to previous frameworks (e.g. Salvatori & MacFarlane, 2009), collaborative professionalism is considered an additional category of expertise that is necessary in building a language teacher’s professional competence. It is recommended that all teachers develop a collaborative professionalism (Hargreaves & O’Connor, 2018b), but the inclusion of this pillar in the framework suggests that what collaborative professionalism looks like for second language teachers may be different from colleagues in other disciplines (e.g. Jacquet & Dagenais, 2010).

Over the past decade, researchers in FSL ITE have explored how to overcome the linear-based thinking which has manifested itself across the different knowledge bases of language teachers. In line with the ‘critical turn’ in language ITE (Kubanyiova & Crookes, 2016), approaches such as ‘critical multilingualism’ (Dunn, 2011; Thomas, 2017), ‘critical multiculturalism’ (Dunn, 2011; Ragoonaden, 2011), and ‘critical pedagogy’ (Faez, 2011) invite language teacher candidates to reflect on deeply held beliefs (Kubanyiova, 2018) and past experiences with language teaching and learning that contribute to the current enactment of their practice. In a similar vein, collaborative professionalism, a term coined by Hargreaves and O’Connor (2018b), signals an inquiry-based stance that teachers adopt to critically and collaboratively reflect on their concept of professionalism and plan action through learning communities. Given the growing concern that prospective teachers are increasingly following the dictates of neoliberal policy (Grimmett, 2021), it is necessary to foster such a stance among

candidates so that they may recentre their principles around collegial responsibility and professional judgement which they can then carry forward into the profession.

Research has demonstrated the potential for a PLC model to foster collaborative professionalism among FSL teachers by providing them a space to develop their own practice and mentor one another (Kristmanson et al., 2011). Moreover, by allowing candidates to initiate their own inquiry projects and engage in collegial discussions, this model creates spaces which authorizes a discourse of professionalism against those set up in neoliberal policies, and in doing so, allows candidates to engage in alternative ways of being and knowing that contrast those often reproduced in traditional professional learning structures (Ball & Olmedo, 2013; Bullough, 2012; Kemmis et al., 2014b). Overall, by adopting the concept of collaborative professionalism as a component of the knowledge framework of candidates, I explore how resilience governance works *through*, rather than *over*, the practices of educational actors (Chandler, 2014b). In particular, through the detailed examination of participants' autonomous professional learning in CoPs (Johnson & Golombek, 2020), this thesis elaborates the complex and simultaneous processes involved in the emergence of their collaborative professionalism, and the extent to which such processes allow candidates to challenge the imposed neoliberal architecture of ITE.

Professional learning, ITE, and CoPs. ITE programs are often conceived as the initial step in an ongoing professional learning process (Gambhir et al., 2008). According to Le Cornu (2016), there has been shift in the literature on the purpose of ITE programs. Whereas previous structures focused on 'traditional' experiences based on unidirectional knowledge transfer from more experienced teachers and faculty members to less experienced teacher candidates (Korthagen, 2001), more recent approaches adopt a social constructivist paradigm, privileging structures which allow for the co-construction of knowledge between ITE actors. In particular,

the learning community, or the CoP, features as a key element within this paradigm – it is a model that allows for candidates to have more autonomy over the processes and outcomes of their learning. As a professional experience, the learning community invites candidates to become more aware of the processes of collaboration that are necessary for learning and knowledge generation, including but not limited to leadership (Bond, 2013), mentoring (Le Cornu, 2005), resilience (Mansfield et al., 2016) and collaborative inquiry (Schnellert & Kozak, 2019). In this framework, candidates are ideally inclined to enter into relational ways of being and knowing with colleagues as they become conscientious of how their actions impact the learning of others. Ultimately, the purpose of the CoP underscores the importance of guiding candidates to value the learning of their colleagues as much as their own, and in doing so, develop their collaborative professionalism (Le Cornu, 2016).

Communities of practice has been subject to three waves of theorization since their introduction to the field. In their systematized review, Nicolini et al. (2022) categorized these waves as research which adopts *learning*, *innovating* and *defending* lenses regarding the purposes of CoP. Although the authors' article draws from research conducted in management studies, their categorization of CoP through these lenses is adopted as a key structural framework for this thesis; thus, I summarize in detail their arguments below and connect their ideas to studies conducted in the educational context.

CoP Learning Lens. According to Nicolini et al. (2022), the learning lens follows from the original line of inquiry from Lave and Wenger (1991). The learning lens proposes that the purpose of CoPs is to develop competences in practice and act as socialization mechanisms for newcomers to a practice to perpetuate knowledge sharing across generations. Key to this lens is the notion that CoPs are constituted by a core group of experts or veterans of a practice as well as

by novices or newcomers who engage through ‘legitimate peripheral participation’. Experts or mentors may be positioned as the knowledge holders who engage in knowledge transfer to the novices, but this process allows for them to also reflect on their practice and learn. Moreover, research using this lens recognizes that newcomers are essential to bring new perspectives and knowledge to the group, and that expertise can shift as the practice changes. Often, members draw from their real life experiences to reflect on tacit knowledge and assumptions that underlie the group’s practice.

From a methodological standpoint, research adopting a learning lens in educational contexts may use CoP as an analytic framework to study the interactivity of groups of practitioners. For example, although not expressly using CoP, Westheimer (1999) adopted a social theory of communities combined with ethnographic techniques to observe and compare the types of professional communities in which teachers engaged at two different middle schools. While both schools had a commitment to working as professional communities, Westheimer noted that these communities were dissimilar: while one teacher body had adopted a more liberal approach based on individual responsibility, hierarchy, and an instrumental function, the other was more collective in the sense that, among all staff members, there was a shared responsibility, shared leadership and an intrinsic value to the community. In a more recent study, Campbell et al. (2022) used a CoP framework to study the leadership practices of elementary teachers at a school. They found that teacher leader work occurs across overlapping CoPs that exist simultaneously in a school setting (i.e. teacher CoP, teacher leader CoP, and school leader CoP), where common competences and performances are valued across the CoPs and link them together. In both of these exemplary studies, the authors use CoP to observe and theorize about

the dynamics and relationships of teacher practices in communities, but do not intervene or ‘set-up’ the CoP themselves.

CoP Innovating Lens. In contrast to the previous section, Nicolini et al., (2022) argued that in an innovating lens, CoPs take on an instrumental purpose to generate value creation. Through the innovating lens, CoPs function to support continuous improvement of an institution whereby members are encouraged or directed to act as agents of change or creators of best practice. In this way, CoPs may be adopted by institutions or firms as a managerial tool and can be used prescriptively to support an entity’s organizational/innovation goals, to generate ideas, to improve practices, and to prevent unpredictable behavior. For innovating CoPs, research explores elements which may increase the capacity of the CoP to add value through creating spaces of trust and reciprocity or circulating complex technical practices widely within an organization. In particular, CoPs may be implemented as a way for community members to seek advice or address immediate problems in their shared practice, and outcomes can be evaluated based on performance. However, due to the frequent hierarchal implementation and control over innovating CoPs, the autonomy of members in these communities may be limited with regard to the processes and outcomes of the shared practices. Nicolini et al. (2022) suggested that while there is some overlap between the learning and innovating lens, in the sense that innovation can derive from community learning, innovating CoPs are ultimately established and managed by organizations.

Innovating CoPs are likely the most prevalent in today’s school systems. With the shift to neoliberal policymaking and its associated accountability practices, educational systems across the world have enforced a view of teaching as implementing a curriculum and best practices as determined by the state to improve student learning (Sahlberg, 2015). From an innovating lens,

CoP approaches may be inscribed into policy documents and set up by school administrators as an initiative for reform (e.g. Rucinki, 2016; Smith & DuFour, 2012), and teachers may be held accountable to produce results, such as through documentation and improved student learning (Ball, 2003; Servage, 2009). This instrumentalist, organizational or bureaucratic (Talbert, 2009) view of CoPs may make it challenging for schools to foster collective (Westheimer, 1999) professional learning cultures which prioritize teachers' interests and occupational autonomy.

According to Talbert (2009):

accountability systems push in both directions, and school districts find themselves in the position of having to resolve competing paradigms and pressures for improvement.

System leaders who place priority on nurturing PLCs – developing their capacity to make sound collective judgments to address student learning needs – are challenged to take a stand against the curriculum implementation model of change. (p. 558)

A shift to the innovating lens as a predominant approach to CoPs has been documented in Canada. In a study by Grimmer and D'Amico (2008), the authors wanted to study the impact of the 2001 policy change towards accountability in British Columbia and its subsequent effect on the professional culture (i.e., PLCs) that teachers experienced. Based on the results of questionnaires and interviews conducted with 80 teachers, the findings indicated that “teachers report engaging less in professional collaboration during the first decade of the 21st century than was found by previous studies conducted during the 1990s” (p. 24). In particular, the authors noted that the government's emphasis on accountability has resulted in conditions where teachers have less time during the day to dedicate to “the kind of collaborative activities that presume a collective purpose and time spent inquiring together” (p. 28). This decline in teacher's professional autonomy has continued across Canada (Campbell et al., 2017), as the implications

of neoliberal policies begin to manifest in more alarming ways. In Ontario, for example, Morris et al. (2023) argue that current reform seeks to control teacher subjectivities by linking their sense of professionalism to the development of professional capital through participation in learning communities.

Methodologically, research conducted through an innovating lens may implement and study CoPs to enact change and reform in educational systems. Researchers may choose to observe a CoP initiative which was set up by school leaders or intervene themselves to initiate and study teacher learning through CoPs. These types of CoPs are typically characterized by pre-set schedules, session formats, and objectives. In their review, Vangrieken et al. (2017) found that 9 of the 36 CoP studies involved what they called “formal communities,” where CoPs were set up through an initiative (usually the government’s) to train teachers on standards and best practices within a limited time period, with few resulting in a sustained CoP once the initiative ended. Consistent with the idea that innovating CoPs rely on administrative control, Smith & DuFour (2012) “sent every principal and a cadre of teacher leaders to participate in a workshop” in an effort to “create a guiding coalition of leaders who understood the goals and concepts of implementing PLCs” (p. 25). In another example, the study by Owen (2014) could fit into the innovating lens category. The author studied PLCs set up at three different Australian schools to evaluate their stage of development and inquire into whether teachers embraced “the importance of professional learning and professional learning communities in supporting innovation” (p. 62). As the focus of CoPs through an innovating lens is on student learning, pre-set objectives usually limit discussions to teaching practices.

CoP Defending Lens. As Nicolini et al. (2022) explained, the defending lens has emerged from a critique of CoPs as spaces of harmonious socializing, and research conducted through this

lens positions these spaces as fraught with power dynamics, friction, and micro-conflicts which factor into the dynamics of the members and their capacity for learning or innovation. In the defending lens, the socialization and induction practices of the CoP risk to perpetuate inequalities between members and pre-shape the practice trajectory. Resistance is a key theme through the defending lens: as CoPs develop a professional identity and legitimacy, they may also develop forms of countercultural power and practices within their organization. In this way, “CoPs [can] react to and occasionally resist management intervention” (Nicolini et al., 2022, p. 38), by creating safe spaces that allow members to assert their ethical and moral framework against imposed organizational culture and agenda. Nicolini et al. (2022) suggested that the defending lens does not reject the idea that CoPs may need managerial support, but rather suggest the role of management is more of “maintenance,” to create the conditions which allow local practices to thrive as the learning needs of members are addressed.

Methodologically, the defending lens is consistent with a second set of studies in the review by Vangrieken et al., (2017), called *formative* CoPs. In these CoP, there is no pre-set agenda or goals, as these are established between members on an ongoing basis depending on the needs of the group. By entrusting educators with such autonomy, formative CoPs authorize a discourse of occupational professionalism unique to the participating members which allows them to ‘defend’ their interests against the organizational professionalism imposed on them in neoliberal contexts (Grimmett, 2021; Hall & McGinity, 2015). These CoPs are always voluntary, and usually involve a rotation of leadership responsibility between members and the researcher. While formative CoPs are often initiated by teachers, some top-down support can be beneficial to guide the inquiry practices of the teachers (e.g. Cherkowski & Schnellert, 2018). Moreover, while formative CoPs are commonly studied with practicing teachers, less research is available

regarding the implementation of such a model in the ITE context as such models are typically integrated into courses (e.g., Bond, 2013; Hoaglund et al., 2014). Of most relevance to the proposed study is research by Hoaglund et al. (2014), who implemented a PLC model to combat teacher attrition in Alabama and develop the professional learning practice of teacher candidates. Across three semester-long courses, the participants met several times where they participated in activities such as data analysis, problem solving, research, and the examination of student work. The researchers planned a series of scaffolded professional learning experiences to guide teacher candidates to develop the necessary skills to collaborate effectively, so that “while they were functioning as a PLC, they were also learning how to function as a PLC” (p. 526). While the CoPs enacted in this study follows a similar structure, it is important to note that the CoPs were conducted outside of courses and thus allowed for candidates to engage voluntarily and have more control over the topics.

To summarize, learning communities or CoPs are a socio-constructivist approach which have been taken up in ITE programs to facilitate professional learning among candidates and to build a relational responsibility and collaborative professionalism in their social practices (Le Cornu, 2016). Frequently, neoliberal governance may rely on an innovating lens, or a managerial approach while designing policy so that professional learning is constructed in such a way that CoPs can support pre-determined outcomes and meet the government’s economic priorities (Servage, 2009; Talbert, 2009). As ITE programs and actors are subject to these neoliberal pressures, CoP efforts in ITE may similarly conform to an innovating lens (e.g. Kaszuba, Masson et al., 2024). Nevertheless, alternate CoP models may offer the possibility for candidates to develop a practice which counteracts the dominant cultural trends and the imposed ways of being and knowing that may occur in traditional models of learning in ITE (LeBouthillier &

Kristmanson, 2023; Vangrieken et al., 2017). In this thesis, I take up a formative CoP model in an effort to support candidates in developing practices of resistance against traditional learning forms. While this approach may be best aligned with a defending lens, it is important to note that the learning, innovating, and defending lenses of CoP are not discrete – in fact, Nicolini et al. (2022) supported searching for those spaces where overlap occurs between them. Regardless of the CoP model being used, my stance is that all three of these lenses offer productive vantage points to analyze and theorize teacher candidates' practices of collaborative professionalism within a framework of resilience governance. As such, I have structured the thesis so that each of following articles aligns itself with one of these lenses.

Lastly, it is important to distinguish the understanding of resilience in this thesis in relation to how it is applied to other professional learning studies in the ITE context. As teacher candidates develop their collaborative professionalism, they experience what Gu (2014) has called relational resilience. Contrary to previous beliefs that have connected resilience to personal traits, Gu and Day (2013) posit that resilience is a social practice that allows teachers to maintain equilibrium and agency in complex social systems. In their review of the literature on resilience in the ITE context, Mansfield et al. (2016) found that ITE programs are called on to i) support candidates in facilitating professional relationships based on mutual empowerment and support; ii) include content and skills-training related to social-emotional learning such as self-regulation, assertiveness and empathy; and iii) offer professional experiences to build candidate's understanding of these concepts. In their resilience framework for ITE, they propose five themes (i.e., Building resilience, relationships, wellbeing, motivation, emotions - BRiTE) which should be taken up in ITE, and indeed, this framework has been applied with success in multiple contexts in Australia (Mansfield et al., 2020). While many of the themes in the BRiTE

framework overlap with the spirit of collaborative professionalism and CoPs, it is important to clarify that the notion of resilience in this thesis is not a framework of competences, skills, and topics to be taken up during professional learning in ITE; rather, the form of resilience referred to here, as will be developed in the following section, is a form of governance underpinned by critical complexity (Chandler, 2014b) which works through the practices of ITE actors.

Theoretical Framework

Complexity theory has infiltrated the discourse in educational research, such that many studies which take its principles into account (Davis & Sumara, 2012). Complexity theory focuses on the study of systems and how they change, develop, evolve, and learn (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014a). These systems are open, meaning they interact with their environment, but certain boundaries are discernable, and in fact necessary, in order to make the system meaningful (Cilliers, 2016). Complex systems are considered non-linear (Cilliers, 2016), meaning that specific cause-and-effect sequences cannot be comprehensively identified by studying the system. This feature distinguishes simple and complicated systems from complex systems: whereas the individual elements of the former can be analyzed and the results added together, complex systems cannot be modelled in their entirety; any attempt to simplify the system would require the omission of certain elements or relationships, resulting in an incomplete representation (Obsorg et al., 2008). Positive feedback loops, or recurrence, happen within the pattern of interactions; in other words, a certain interaction can influence itself, changing the way in which those elements are able to interact with each other in the future (Cilliers, 2016). It is impossible to capture the complexity of the system in any of the single elements within it. For this reason, complexity science researchers prefer to focus on the whole and relationships rather than isolated individual parts (Cilliers, 2016; Cochran-Smith et al., 2014a). To elaborate on this

focus, Cilliers (2016) described the difference between complicated and complex systems: in complicated systems, the whole is equal to the sum of the parts – all of the elements can be taken apart but the functioning of the system can still be understood; in complex systems, taking apart the system results in losing key aspects and interactions which made the system work. In other words, as elements interact in complex system, their whole is more than the sum of their parts (e.g. bacteria, the brain, or social systems [Cilliers, 2016]). As these elements interact, they produce unpredictable outcomes, but patterns of interactions emerge. This emergence is a form of self-organization, resulting in a discernable structure in the system (Fenwick, 2012). Moreover, self-organization means that the system is self-reproducing or auto-poietic: while it changes and adapts to its environment as new information and patterns of interaction emerge, it maintains its integrity.

The emerging understanding of complex educational systems may be complemented by the concepts borrowed from other disciplines (Davis & Sumara, 2005). At the same time, to better understand the limitations of applying complexity thinking to the professional learning and knowledge of teachers, we must develop a critique of these systems (Osberg et al., 2008; Cochran-Smith et al., 2014b). While some frameworks have developed a critical complexity through the lens of postmodernism (Cilliers, 2016), Cochran-Smith et al. (2014b) united complexity theory with critical realism (i.e. CTCR) as a framework for “exploring how ITE programs and pathways function as complex systems and why their outcomes are so uncertain” (p. 105) Like complexity theory, critical realism is not a single theory but groups together the works of multiple researchers (originating with Bhaskar, 1975/2008) who generally seek alternatives to positivism and postmodernism as a way of understanding the world.

In building CTCR, Cochran-Smith et al. (2014b) recognize that there is a stratified reality including beliefs systems, social interactions, organizational structure, and contingent causal mechanisms. In this stratification, the key difference between a postmodern critical complexity (e.g. Cilliers, 2016) and CTCR is around the relationship between agency and structure. Critical realists categorically distinguish structure and agency, and do this to “avoid the treatment of agency as being only a secondary effect of structure rather than causally influential” (De Souza, 2016, p. 218). In this framing, reality is stratified into the empirical, actual, and real domains:

empirical domain is made up of incidents that researchers can observe, participate in or experience in the empirical world (Bhaskar, 1975/2008). The actual domain represents events that are distinct from those observed empirically and can include unobserved events and phenomena (Bhaskar, 1975/2008). The central aspect of the stratified ontology of critical realism is the real domain. This domain is unobservable. The point is that the real domain consists of structures and mechanisms representing causal tendencies that might or might not be activated, implying that causality is not linear in critical realism (Brøns Kringelum & Brix, 2020, p. 34)

Investigating causation means trying to understand the underlying causal chains operating at these different levels. Human agents engage in the flow of actions by acting in accordance with ideas that reproduce and transform the social structure of society, and agency implies that humans have the capacity to initiate certain causal sequences (Yang, 2021). Following the initiation of a causal mechanism, it is possible to study the beliefs, perceptions, and interpretations of agents, as these are conceptualized as *empirical* phenomena that emerge thereafter (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014b). However, while a causal mechanism may have led to the emergence of a certain phenomenon, the mechanism cannot be reduced to the events that are

generated by it (Brøns Kringelum & Brix, 2020). This means that the researcher plays an interpretative role when identifying causal mechanisms, but needs to ensure transparency in the research process so to not reduce these mechanisms to that which can only be observed through the empirical.

Cochran-Smith et al. (2014b) conceptualize ITE through CTCR as multiple overlapping complex systems, including individuals (teacher candidates, teacher educators), classrooms and schools, ITE programs and pathways, the larger professional policy environment, as well as intersecting social systems of inequalities based on race, culture, language, class, and gender. These systems are not nested within one another, but rather take on all other systems as their environment (Walby, 2007). Thus, when new policies and pedagogical frameworks are introduced into the complex system of ITE, they may initiate causal chains and feedback loops within the different stratified systems (Ell et al., 2019).

Traditionally, program stakeholders can map standards, policy and pedagogical frameworks onto the curriculum in a top-down fashion, spread across the courses, practicum, and workshops (Osberg et al., 2008). In this sense, representational epistemology guides the way in which a retention policy and corresponding frameworks (i.e., language teacher knowledge framework) are introduced. In this framing, research interventions are then conducted with the teacher candidates in order to assess the impact of changes to the curriculum (e.g., Thomas, 2017). Interviews are used as practical tools to study the development of individual teaching practices (Gibbs et al., 2017), which in turn inform program stakeholders of future changes that could be made to the mapping of the ITE elements. In contrast, research into ITE that uses a CTCR framework focuses “on the identification and exploration of complex ‘causal’ or ‘generative’ mechanisms, which are part of teacher education as a complex system” (Cochran-

Smith et al., 2014b, p. 112). When policy and corresponding knowledge frameworks are introduced, CTCR researchers argue that they have causal power and may initiate causal sequences and feedback loops, but these sequences belong to the real domain. Actors, like teacher candidates will interact with each other and these professional learning elements in novel and unpredictable ways, and their social practices will emerge as all of these elements cohere together (Strom & Viesca, 2021). In this study, teacher candidates' social practices, including their knowledge and beliefs about those practices, are events in the empirical domain which are triggered by causal mechanisms in the real domain. As a researcher, I am able to observe, experience, and participate in these practices and thus collect empirical data. By analyzing these practices and connecting them with phenomena from the actual domain, it is possible to make interpretations about causal mechanisms which exist in the real domain. Moreover, given that these practices might be the result of multiple causal mechanisms, the generation of an event might not be reducible to one theory (Brøns Kringelum & Brix, 2020). By studying the social practice through the three lenses CoP framework (i.e. learning, innovating, defending), it is possible to interpret complementary mechanisms through different educational theories.

Overall, the shift to a critical complexity framework based on CTCR provides an excellent base to study ITE. In the same vein, principles underlying this shift can be observed in literature on neoliberalism and governance, as well as in previous studies in FSL ITE. In the following section, I describe the *resilience governance* framework, and then I review current frameworks used to study FSL ITE in a critical light. Finally, I explain how CTCR applies to each of the three bodies of research listed in the literature review.

Resilience Governance. This study pulls from an understanding of governance by Chandler (2014a;b), who constructed the notion of resilience through a critical complexity lens

based on concepts taken from authors such as Cilliers, Lyotard, and Foucault. From his viewpoint, neoliberalism was developed as a response to top-down liberalist approaches to governance once these revealed themselves as inadequate following the first World War. According to Chandler, neoliberalism was the first step in bringing complexity into governmental reasoning and functioned by casting the population as a closed complex system in which the government, as an unentangled observer, must intervene through policy. In this view of governance, complexity is an epistemological problem: the government must overcome their knowledge gaps by uncovering the deterministic causal sequences that occur through social interaction (Chandler, 2014a). For example, by focusing on the ‘supply and demand’ of teachers through recruitment policies, government intervention into ITE uses cause-and-effect market mechanisms to increase the output of graduating teachers. By imposing standards on ITE, government intervention creates path dependencies based on the assumption that the most ‘efficient’ interactions between ITE actors will increase the quality of teaching (Ell et al., 2019). In this practice, the government remains external to the complex system in which it intends to intervene. As I examine in Article 3, when educational actors perform under neoliberal governance, they tend to integrate neoliberal thinking into their ways of knowing and being (Ball & Olmedo, 2013; Hall & McGinity, 2015). This in turn reproduces the atomization of professional networks, the reliance on ‘performances,’ and the adherence to accountability in these educators’ understanding of their work (Ball, 2003; Connell, 2013).

In contrast, a resilience governance ontologizes complexity and brings it into governmental reason: the government recognizes that they are part of the governed subject, and policy-making becomes an ongoing process of relational understanding (i.e., external and internal accountability mechanisms) rather than an uncovering of hidden determinism. As

Chandler (2014a) explained, “contingent outcomes only reveal concrete causality after the event and are impossible to know beforehand” (p, 50), which implies that instrumental interventions, like recruitment policies to increase the supply of teachers, are illogical from a critically complex perspective. While retention might be a more laudable objective (Masson et al., 2019), it is important to be cautious of the fact that increased retention is still an instrumental policy outcome (Cochran-Smith et al., 2018). In a resilience framework, policy goals must derive from the processes, practices and capacities which already exist among educational actors, and outcomes like increased recruitment and retention become secondary effects. Due to the emergent nature of complex systems, all policies are eventually bound to fail; therefore, governance becomes a task of tracing the new relationships and practices which emerged that may have led to these policy failures and using these understandings to guide the course for future policy decisions (Chandler, 2014b).

Key to resilience governance are educators’ social practices. People engage in social practices, or patterns of (inter)actions, that make their lives recognizable from one day to the next (Kemmis et al., 2014b). Under neoliberal governance, social practices are treated as products of economic relations, and thus can be shaped through economic interventions. In contrast, resilience thinking views social practices as the “active reproduction of ideas and cognitive frameworks” (Chandler, 2014b, p. 83) which emerge through patterned interactions of human and non-human elements in a complex system (Kemmis et al., 2014b; Strom & Viesca, 2021). Actors realize “the capacity to work through understanding the concrete context in which social practices and everyday ‘tactics’ produce problematic consequences” (Chandler, 2015, p. 31). Rather than dictating what these practices must look like, resilience-based policies value the

agency of actors in the system to self-adapt, self-organize, and *become*¹ in such a way as to inform the social practices of their own governance. By enabling actors in this way, educational systems are able to more rapidly ‘bounce back’ from policy failures because the governing process has empowered stakeholders to develop and leverage practice mechanisms to address emerging and ongoing social problems. As a stakeholder, ITE can support the active use and reproduction of resilient practices by creating the conditions which allow for teacher candidates to develop these patterns of interaction over time.

This value transition from neoliberal to resilience governance provides a basis for shedding a more critical light on relevant FSL ITE research that has adopted a complexity framework. For example, the most recent approach for adopting critical complex frameworks (Cilliers, 2016) in relevant (L2) ITE research has involved the convergence of postmodernism with complexity (e.g. Davis & Sumara, 2012; Muhling, 2016; Thomas, 2017). For example, Muhling (2016) developed a conceptual framework based on the work of complexity theorists (Davis & Sumara, 2012) to explain the mentoring relationship between associate teachers and teacher candidates through complexity constructs. Similarly, Thomas’ (2017) theoretical framework united complexity theory with the critical theory of Pierre Bourdieu in order to explain the unique nature of FSL teacher candidate language development trajectories through the program. In her analysis, she provided a list of supports identified by the teacher candidates which they believe contributed to their language proficiency.

Two limitations of these kinds of complex approaches to educational research in FSL ITE are apparent (Cochran-Smith et al 2014a;b). First, both studies focused on parts of FSL ITE instead of looking at the system as a whole - Muhling focused on the professional learning

¹ Please see Article 2 for a more detailed description of this term.

practice between only two actors in the ITE program, and Thomas focused on one knowledge domain (i.e., language proficiency). Without connecting specific parts of FSL ITE to the whole, such as professional learning in practicum to professional learning in courses, the resulting view of the relationships between actors in the system are fragmentary. When FSL ITE is cast as a nested complex system and studied in fragments, this approach does not challenge how the structure of the program is informed by neoliberal policy decisions which may reproduce social inequalities towards FSL teacher candidates and impact their learning and practice. Second, both studies result in descriptions of what ITE *is* rather than how ITE *works*. By using complexity theory to create *post-hoc* descriptions of what happened, the corresponding research paradigms limit our ability to explore the generative capacity of ITE to produce new outcomes through the introduction of new initiatives. To better align with the critical complexity of resilience governance (Chandler, 2014b), I propose adopting a theoretical framework that combines complexity theory with critical realism to study ITE (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014a;b).

Cochran-Smith and colleagues (2014a) developed a framework based on critical realism and complexity theory (CTCR), with the goal of using it to “guide the transformation of key aspects of teacher education and study that transformation” (p. 14). Below, I highlight how critical complexity perspectives (like CTCR) informed this project’s understanding of FSL ITE governance in Ontario, the language teacher knowledge framework, as well as the professional learning of teacher candidates (see Appendix B for a model of the theoretical framework).

Critical complexity for governance of Ontario FSL ITE. While complexity-thinking can be present in both neoliberal and resilience governance, it may be appropriate to consider complexity-thinking in ITE as

a continuum between the governing rationalities of actually existing neoliberalism (as a set of regulatory policy practices where the object of intervention is constructed in terms of complexity) and resilience-thinking (where governance is no longer a matter of intervening in an external problematic but of self-reflexive understandings of entanglement). (Chandler, 2014b, p. 51)

As we saw in the case of Ontario, educational governance approaches have shifted back and forth along this continuum over the past three decades, although they may be located presently at the more neoliberal end (Campbell, 2023). At the neoliberal end, ITE may be considered the “object of intervention constructed in terms of complexity,” as ITE is considered ‘nested’ within the larger geopolitical context. Walby (2007) challenges this conceptualization of systems because it requires a presumption of determinate interconnections between them, or a hierarchy between the political and institutional. In her view, complex systems are overlapping, but non-nested and non-saturating, and thus inequalities that occur within one system do not directly map onto another. With this in mind, the CTCR framework, which draws from Walby (2007), may place itself at the resilience-based end of the continuum as it views ITE policy as deriving from three complex, non-nested systems: the political, the professional, and the institutional. Applying this to FSL, the social inequalities towards FSL teacher candidates would not be viewed as a sum of the inequalities that occur within each system; rather, they would be considered amplified as the systems overlap (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014a). Thus, FSL teacher attrition would be seen as a result of problems deriving from the web of interrelations between agents in these systems. Resilience-thinking suggests that there is no possibility for the political to intervene in the professional and the institutional in order to resolve a problem like the FSL teacher shortage. Rather, “the governance of complexity...needs to reject the artifice of imposing goals and

direction on the world and instead seeks to find its goals in the processes, practices, and communicative interactions of the world itself” (Chandler, 2014b, p. 37). Therefore, with regard to ITE accreditation, accountability based solely on externally-imposed standards implies a governance intervention using hierarchical claims to knowledge of what is ‘right’ and ignores the emergent adaptability of institutions and the profession. Cochran-Smith (2021) emphasized the importance of relational understanding in ITE through the balance of external and internal accountability mechanisms. In her view, the content of ITE programs cannot be fully pre-determined because it emerges from dialogue between all involved stakeholders of ITE governance. As a stakeholder group, FSL teacher candidates have agency to co-construct knowledge through collaborative inquiry, knowledge which can be used to inform future changes to ITE program content (Sharma, 2020). In this way, the perspectives of FSL teacher candidates constructed during a CoP could serve as both “self-reflexive understandings of entanglement” (Chandler, 2014b, p. 51) and a mechanism of internal accountability to the institution.

Critical complexity for language teacher knowledge. One point of convergence between postmodern and critical realist interpretations of critical complexity is that the extent of our understanding of knowledge systems is predicated on the extent of our understanding of language (Cilliers, 2016; Lopez & Potter, 2005). As Cilliers (2016) explained, “our models and understanding of the world are always mediated linguistically, and that the model of language is an excellent one for describing other complex systems” (p. 30). Similarly, critical realism accepts that “human society is an object of investigation which possesses features analogous to (or identical with!) language; and theory and knowledge are ‘language-borne’” (Lopez & Potter, 2005, p. 8). In practical terms, I interpret these statements to mean that teacher candidates’

understanding of language may influence how they understand other complex systems and practices, like teaching and professional learning.

As Canada becomes an increasingly diverse society, the conception of what it means to know multiple languages has also changed from a complexity perspective. Whereas a linear view positions languages as autonomous systems in the speaker's head, a complexity-informed view understands the plurilingual speaker as having multiple intersecting, complex, language systems that interact to produce the speaker's language repertoire (Piccardo, 2016). Many FSL teacher candidates still view languages as separate, hierarchical systems (Byrd Clark et al., 2014). Understanding languages as separate systems may influence how candidates understand professional practices: the duality of expert/learner, where knowledge is transmitted unilaterally, is predominant and can be reproduced in professional relationships, such as teacher/student, associate teacher/teacher candidate, researcher/teacher, and mentor/mentee (Bullough, 2012; Knouzi & Mady, 2017; Muhling, 2016). Moreover, skills and identities related to candidates' professional competence, such as leadership, mentoring, learning-practice, and resilience, may also be considered innate rather than relational (Strom & Viesca, 2021). Without a reconceptualization of language, then, FSL teacher candidates may not have an explicit 'cognitive framework' with which they can challenge linear-based assumptions in their other social practices and knowledge domains.

Regardless of whether FSL teacher candidates have a hierarchical or plurilingual view of languages, there is a tendency for FSL educators to also be learners of French themselves, and thus have likely explicitly experienced learning a second or even a third language over an extended period of time, unlike many of their 'monolingual' peers (I acknowledge that nobody can really be described as monolingual [Yildiz, 2012]). Through this learning process, there is a

higher probability that these candidates have more profoundly reflected on their understanding of languages and the language learning process. Therefore, by participating in a CoP, candidates may engage in a form of resilience as they (re)produce cognitive frameworks and social practices of language learning in their professional learning. As Article 2 will show, one of the participating candidates was able to explicitly recognize and verbalize this connection. Although it is outside of the scope of this thesis to test the validity of this claim beyond anecdotal data, acknowledging the similarities between complex views of language learning (i.e., plurilingualism) and complexity-informed professional learning as a basis to CTCR research in ITE provides a motivation for selecting language teacher candidates as the primary participant group.

Critical complexity for professional learning. As Cochran-Smith et al. (2014) explained, complexity tends to critique linear models of cause-and-effect. However, the authors suggested that “rejecting linear notions of cause and effect is not the same as rejecting the idea that things have causes or rejecting the search for causal mechanisms as an aim of research” (p. 20). CTCR upholds that educational actors retain the ability and agency to initiate causal sequences in ITE, while acknowledging, like resilience-thinkers, that they do not have control over the outcomes. It is only once the system has emerged to a new state that research animated by CTCR can go back and trace the causal mechanisms that led to that emergence. In this sense, “CT-CR studies of teacher education [do not] tell us what to do, but [show] us where to look and what processes to trace as teacher candidates learn to enact practice” (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014a, p. 23).

This CTCR view of causality informed how CoPs and professional learning were conceived, initiated, and studied in this thesis. To recall, the learning lens suggests that CoP

theory can be used to do a *post-hoc* analysis of practices which naturally occur between groups of practitioners; whereas the innovating lens suggests that CoPs can be intentionally set-up with groups of educators to achieve specific outcomes (Nicolini et al., 2022). As I interpret it, the learning lens paradigm, traditionally conceived, is strictly analytical and does not allow CoP as an intervention; in contrast, the innovating lens is typically an intervention based on linear cause-and-effect thinking. CTCR then might best fit with the defending lens and the formative CoPs adopted in this study. While stakeholders can initiate a causal sequence by creating the conditions for CoPs to emerge, they cannot guarantee their emergence as they have no control over the outcomes (Pyrko et al., 2017).

To elaborate on this process, when non-linear (i.e., complex) dynamics come into play, teacher candidates (and non-human actors), as elements in the CoP, interact in ways which are unpredictable. They must respond to these interactions by selecting from a series of choices that are not always consciously known or visible. Once the choice is made, it is irreversible because the feedback loop means the next interaction will also be novel and lead to a series of different choices. This unpredictability results in the contingency of practice: trajectories to develop a practice are unique because they require candidates to make a series of choices over the CoP initiative without necessarily having evidence to justify those choices nor control over the outcomes (Fenwick, 2012; Opfer & Pedder, 2011). Moreover, an emergentist epistemology of teacher education curriculum implies that there should not be predetermined content in these CoPs (Cochran-Smith, 2021; Osberg et al., 2008). With this in mind, I supported the emergence of the practice of candidates by allowing them to select and negotiate which topics they wanted to explore during the CoP. The emergence of the CoP required candidates to commit to engaging with one another and to maintaining this relationality if they wanted to achieve their goals. In

this way, candidates had full control over both the processes and outcomes of their professional learning practice, which required them to become responsible for the series of choices they consistently had to make. Through interviews, they reflected on the implementation of their practice, paying attention to the unpredictable consequences and recognizing that their professional learning practice was the product of their collective efforts. As I traced back the processes that enabled and constrained the emergence of the CoP, I was able to examine the ways candidates interacted with one another (i.e., learning – Article 1), to what extent the CoPs facilitated knowledge generation (i.e., innovating – Article 2), and what facets of the practice authorized candidates' own discourses of professionalism (i.e., defending – Article 3).

In summary, CTCR insights informed multiple aspects of this project. In its current form, FSL ITE in Ontario is influenced by neoliberal values in governance. Although neoliberal governance is a form of complexity, this project aimed to challenge top-down approaches to policymaking by suggesting that complexity (particularly critical complexity) needs to be ontologized and brought into government reason as well. This transition to resilience governance in policymaking requires us to work *through* the practices of ITE actors rather than *over* them. We must acknowledge that the institutional and the professional are not nested within the political; rather these three systems in ITE governance are overlapping but non-saturating. ITE policy, like accreditation, is decided and evaluated through relational accountability mechanisms which are both external and internal to the institutional system. As Cochran-Smith et al., (2014a) maintained, “a linear view of policy implementation might trace the impacts of a policy chronologically, from its promulgation to evidence of its impact. On the other hand, CTCR suggests that the introduction of new policy into a teacher education program may initiate the process of self-organisation” (p. 25). When teacher knowledge frameworks and CoP policy are

introduced into an ITE system, the goal is not to determine whether these policies lead to the intended outcomes, such as improved teacher quality or increased rates of retention. Instead, the goal is to “trace the internal activity of teacher professional learning as it is unfolding” (Johnson & Golombek, 2020, p. 125) by analyzing how professional learning practices develop and how these processes are facilitated or hindered by the larger context or system of ITE.

Research Questions. Based on the above problematization and using the proposed theoretical framework, this thesis collectively worked to address the following research questions:

- 1) How do participating FSL teacher candidates' understanding of their professional learning practice evolve during their ITE program?
- 2) What are the types of variation in the professional learning practices of second language teacher candidates as they work in voluntary learning communities?
- 3) To what extent do candidates develop practices of resistance against discourses of professionalism in a formative CoP?

Specifically, the three articles explore different processes and factors: in Article 1, I explore the types of mentoring relations and roles that candidates unintentionally assumed in the learning communities. In Article 2, I examine how the integration of different knowledge areas (i.e. language proficiency, intercultural awareness, pedagogical knowledge and skills, collaborative professionalism) allowed candidates to elicit novelty in their professional learning practices. In Article 3, I explore how different parts of the ITE system (i.e., professional learning workshops, practicum) interact with and influenced practice development in the CoP. Overall, through these articles, the thesis intends to demonstrate the multifaceted processes involved in

professional learning during ITE as well as enable polyvocality in FSL teacher candidates' practices, in an effort to leverage their practices and inform the policymaking process.

Methodology

This project adopted a qualitative inquiry approach following the logic of case study and informed by principles of action-research. Qualitative researchers are interpreters who gather people's interpretations of their experiences and meanings they attribute to these experiences through multiple methods of data collection (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Yazan et al., 2016). By studying patterns that occurred across the collected interpretations through the investigation, I created a report or 'thick description' of my rendition of the constructed realities of the research participants (Yazan et al., 2016). One of the ways to present these thick descriptions in CTCR is through complex case studies (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014a).

Case study and complex systems. There is significant overlap between case study approach and the CTCR framework used in this project (Anderson et al., 2005). First, a professional learning practice, the object under examination, exists within the open complex system of ITE. Both case study researchers and complexivists agree that changes to this practice cannot be studied through linear, cause-and-effect mechanics, but rather through multiply sequenced and coincidental simultaneities (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014a; Stake, 2005). Second, the boundaries of the system are negotiated between actors within that system. The case study researcher cannot decide which teacher candidates work together, how they work together, or which professional learning elements they choose to bring into the practice. Moreover, whereas traditional case study aims to study phenomenon within a bounded case, complex case studies require the examinations of interdependencies across boundaries in the system (Anderson et al., 2005). The system of a professional learning practice emerges against a backdrop of other

systems both within and outside ITE that may influence the causal pathways generating the practice event. In the context of this study, I felt it necessary to observe other learning events outside of the CoP meetings, such as courses and workshops, as this contextual information was able to inform me during my interpretation of the generative mechanisms that may have resulted in the case of candidates' practice within the CoP.

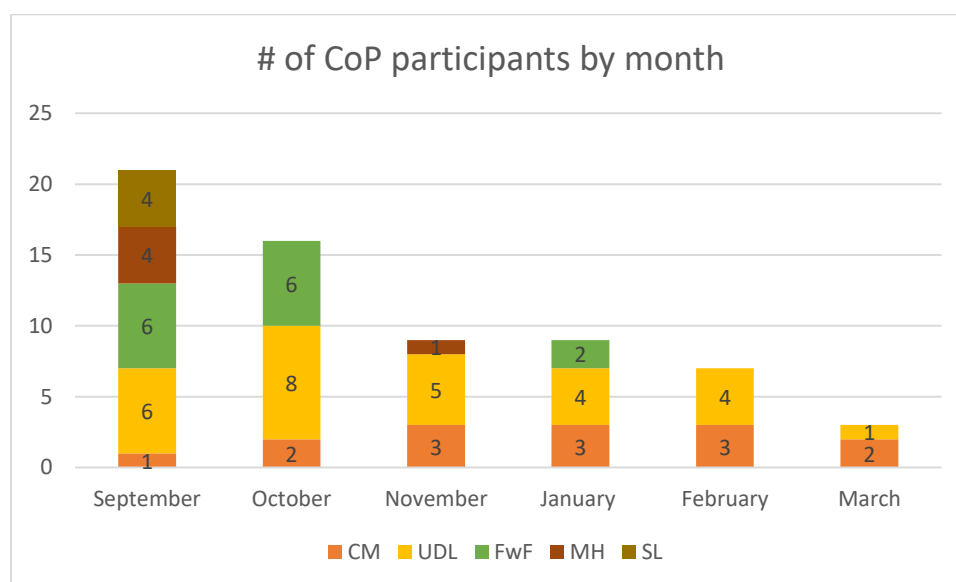
Third, studying the complexity of a professional learning practice means that there can be little control over the outcomes. Only teacher candidates have the power to change their own practice in local settings. Researchers cannot take an objective stance; rather, they become an element within the bounded system and develop relations with teacher candidates. Due to the coevolutionary nature of complex systems, my role in the ITE system changes as the system changes itself, a change which can be influenced by my presence throughout the research process (Anderson et al., 2005). I may have shared common goals, visions, and objectives, with participants, but it was prudent to exercise critical self-reflection to delineate the extent to which my goals overlap with that of the participants.

The Study. The intention of the research study was to create the conditions for teacher candidates to work together and possibly develop CoPs around an inquiry topic that reflected their needs and interests, and then study the types of practices that emerged through their work. The study was launched during a cohort orientation event at the beginning of the 2022 academic year, where I presented the concept of the CoP to Year 1 candidates and showed examples from previous years. I offered the approximately 70 candidates the opportunity to initiate these self-led professional learning sequences by inviting them to propose themes and voluntarily form groups. After the event, I catalogued the CoP into a registry which allowed candidates to change groups or create new ones. Following the orientation, I also contacted the groups to ask them to identify a

point of contact – someone who would schedule the planning of the first session. Of the 16 potential CoPs, five held initial meetings, and four held subsequent meetings.

FIGURE 1: Number of participants by month

Tally of CoP meeting events by month and number of participants in each meeting. These numbers include any participating teacher candidate, whether they were recruited to participate in the study or not.



Legend (CoP Names): CM – Classroom Management; UDL – Universal Design for Learning; FwF – Fun with French; MH – Mental Health Warriors; SL – Sociolinguistics

Recruitment for the project occurred with participants in the four CoPs that held a second meeting. Participation in the project was tiered. On the consent form, candidates could indicate participation in the project in three different ways: first, they could consent to me collecting and using any artifacts produced and shared during the CoP; second, they could consent to me transcribing the video recordings and using this data; third, they could participate in two interviews. Of the 25 candidates who participated at least once in a CoP, 18 candidates consented to release artefacts and CoP recordings as part of this study. Figure 1 shows the number of

candidates participating in the CoPs each month, including both recruited and non-recruited participants.

Generally speaking, candidates met once a month either in person or virtually throughout the academic year (September to March) up to a total of 6 meetings. As per Table 1, the project was divided into two phases across which spirals of inquiry (i.e. planning, acting, and reflecting) could occur (consistent with the ITE programs' conceptual framework – Timperley et al., 2014): during the first phase, which occurred during the first two CoP meetings, I structured the sessions with collaborative activities such as conceptual maps (see Ell et al., 2017 and Appendix C and D) and SMART goals (see Ross et al., 2016 and Appendix E). In the second phase, the sessions were unstructured: candidates had opportunities to work on their professional learning goals, report on their progress, and discuss their experiences. Phase 2 lasted from CoP meetings three to six. For a description of the phases and corresponding activities, please refer to Article 1. For a list of participants and their corresponding CoPs, please see the table in Article 2.

There were two main changes made to the original research proposal for this study. First, I had intended for the participant group to be second-year candidates, but ended up recruiting mostly first-year candidates. The Year 1 orientation offered an excellent opportunity to recruit new candidates for the CoPs and this study, whereas the orientation for the Year 2 candidates did not present the same potential, since there was not a dedicated time for the cohort leads to do activities with them beyond a quick presentation. I did reach out to the Year 2s and shared the PLC registry with them, but scheduling problems prevented any of the Year 2s from having blocks of free time during the week which lined up with those of the Year 1s. Eventually, one Year 2 did join for one of the CoP meetings in March, but this was a one-off occurrence. This Year 2 candidate is a participant in this study.

Second, I had intended for there to be a Phase 3 of the project, during which I would have conducted a third interview with Year 2 candidates who graduated from the program. Since none of the participants who had agreed to do the interviews were in Year 2, Phase 3 was not possible. Instead, I submitted a modification to the ethics proposal (see Appendix A) to allow for data collection in the CoPs to continue into the second year. While candidates attempted to plan additional CoP meetings, none of these were ultimately successful and no further data collection occurred.

Data Collection. In order to attain trustworthiness in the results, qualitative case study research requires the use of multiple data collection methods, which I describe in more detail below.

System mapping. In collaborative inquiry projects, the main objective is to collect data which focuses on change and evolution of practice by concentrating on tracing “participants’ understandings, their practices, and the situation in which these are constituted” (Kemmis et al., 2014b, p. 74). Essentially, data produced by teacher candidates from events in the empirical domain are collected and then iteratively revisited with them so to guide them to reflect on their previous understandings of their practice, verbalize possible changes, and become more conscience of the transformative nature of their ideas, beliefs, values, processes, and actions. In order to capture this type of data, system mapping is a possible method that aligns with the CTCR framework (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014a).

Here, system mapping as a data collection tool functioned as a useful starting point and contextualization for the study. The following system mapping activity enabled me to get a sense of how the candidates’ understanding of the different professional learning elements in ITE emerged over the course of the study period. Specifically, participants were asked to work together

during the CoP to outline different elements in the ITE program which contribute to their professional learning practice, as well as determine how these different elements interact. This activity was adapted from the OCT's Professional Learning Framework (OCT, 2016), as well as from Ell et al.'s (2017) system mapping project. Teacher candidates were presented with a matrix of possible professional learning elements (see Appendix C), which they manipulated to develop into their own conceptual maps of professional learning practice. Candidates completed this system mapping activity twice: once during the first PLC, and once during the final PLC or during Interview 2 (see Appendix D for a completed example). Candidates provided justifications for why they organized maps the way they did. By asking candidates to complete the maps twice, I was able to document the emergence of their understanding of what constitutes useful professional learning, specifically in relation to their goals

Fieldnotes. For this project I took field notes on participant sayings, doings, and relatings during five courses (some multiple times, resulting in 10 fieldnotes based on the fieldnote template) in the ITE program (see Appendix F for field note template). I attended these courses to access contextual information about other learning communities in which the candidates were participating. Using an adapted version of Kemmis et al. (2014b) "invention for analyzing practices," my fieldnotes consisted of reflections and reactions to what happened during the event, who was involved, and to what extent the practices I saw were, taking terms from Kemmis et al. (2014a), rational, reasonable, productive, sustainable, just and inclusive. As seen in Article 3, fieldnotes provided context about what was happening in other parts of the program that may have influenced the professional practices in the PLCs. By triangulating this data to that collected through other methods, field notes increased the trustworthiness of the findings (Ward et al., 2020).

CoP Recordings. It has been demonstrated that “good things” happen when CoPs are implemented in doctoral student projects; however, “we need more rigorous research that tests the actual models of PLCs that have been proposed” (McClendon Patrick et al., 2016, p. 171). It would be impossible to take sufficiently detailed notes in a researcher journal about the happenings in CoPs that could meet this call for rigour. Thus, I recorded the 18 CoP meetings (via video and/or audio) and then transcribed and coded the texts. These recordings and transcripts were the primary source of data I used to examine teacher candidate’s professional learning practice as it was unfolding. Moreover, since these recordings always involved multiple participants, they allowed me to analyze the data using each CoP as a unit of analysis.

Interviews. Semi-structured interviews (see Appendix G for interview protocols) were conducted with individual teacher candidates on two occasions throughout the project: once as a follow-up to the first phase of the project (i.e., after the second CoP meeting, with eight participants), and once as a follow up to the second phase of the project (i.e., after the last CoP meeting, with five participants). Open-ended questions in the interviews served two purposes: first, they probed into candidate experiences working in the CoPs as well as candidate reflections on the artifacts that they had produced. Second, through the use of stimulated recall, where I played back 1-2 minute recordings from the CoPs during the interviews, I was able gain insight into how candidates interpreted their understanding of the practice as it was occurring, and in doing so, better understand the nature of teacher cognition (Gass & Mackey, 2016).

Researcher Journal. While my supervisor and colleagues were able to act as critical friends (Loughran & Brubacker, 2015) during the research process, this thesis was ultimately a solo endeavor which required me to make choices. By keeping a researcher journal, I was able to reflect on issues and ethical considerations that emerged while making these choices (Annink,

2017). Throughout the 31 entries, I recorded my thoughts, emotions, and reactions to events that occurred during the CoP meetings, interviews, and at other moments in the program. These entries allowed me to reflect on how unequal power relations affected the generation of qualitative data and what I could do to minimize the effects of my positioning as researcher. In line with an emergent analytical approach, the journal entries also served as a first opportunity to analyze data in tandem with ideas and concepts that I pulled from relevant literature.

Data Analysis. Coherent with common approaches to qualitative research, data analysis occurred concurrently with the unfolding of the study. I often used reflections from my researcher journal to inform next steps of the project and pulled from these notes as I began the formal data analysis process. Once all the data was collected and transcribed, I began the analysis by analyzing the transcriptions through a common heuristic (see Appendix H). This table is adapted from Kemmis et al. (2014b) “invention for analyzing practices,” and invites the researcher to organize data sources the following elements:

- Social practice
 - sayings – what the candidates said about the practice;
 - doings – what the candidates did during the practice;
 - relatings – how the candidates related to one another during the practice);
- Practice architectures
 - cultural-discursive – what dominant discourses in the program influenced the sayings;
 - material-economic – how did resources or set-up of physical and virtual spaces impact the doings;

- social-political – what programmatic policies or expectations influenced the relatings)

This heuristic allowed me to analyze different data sources (i.e., interviews, CoP recordings, fieldnotes) in the same way and receive a similar ‘output’. I then used the completed outputs to reconstruct the narrative of the project and the professional trajectory of each CoP.

When conducting data analysis through a CTCR lens, the goal is to understand the simultaneities of influences from multiple elements on the professional learning practice of teacher candidates (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014a). While I had initially analyzed all the data in the same way based on the heuristic, the next step was to examine the narratives through the three CoP lenses (Nicolini et al., 2022). This approach allowed me to connect actions and ideas to different educational theories and make interpretations about the concurrent, generative mechanisms that resulted in the emergence of these practices (Brøns Kringelum & Brix, 2020).

Article 1 – Learning Lens. In a learning lens, a CoP framework is used to describe how knowledge sharing occurs in practices of candidates as they are emerging during the project. In this article, I collated the data analyses from Phase 1 and Phase 2, and then compared these two cycles of data to explore the change that occurred in the respective sayings, doings, and relatings of the candidates as the CoPs evolved. In this article, I connected knowledge-sharing to educational theories on mentoring (e.g. Pennanen et al., 2016), and how this aspect of candidates’ professional learning practice influenced the emergence of the CoP between these two phases.

Article 2 – Innovating Lens. In an innovating lens, the objective of CoPs is to create value, generate ideas, and meet institutions goals. To develop this article, I connected the innovating lens to the literature on collaborative inquiry (e.g. DeLuca et al., 2017). I used complexity concepts to compare the narratives of the four CoPs and pinpoint areas of difference

and uniqueness in their practices, using this as a way to demonstrate the knowledge-making capacity in each of the inquiry communities (Macintyre Latta et al., 2020).

Article 3 – Defending Lens. In a defending lens, the participants leverage the CoP as a way to defend their interests against imposed institutional goals. To prepare this article, I connected the ‘defense of interests’ lens to the literature on teacher subjectivity and resistance. I began with identifying empirical events of resistance in the narratives, where candidate thoughts and actions created tension and power struggles with/against the dominant discourses in the program (Ball & Olmedo, 2013). I then traced these instances of resistance back to other sources of data to establish possible causal connections between different parts of the ITE program that triggered such a response.

TABLE 1: Summary of articles.

| Article/Lens | Citation | Research Question |
|---------------------------------|--|--|
| Article 1 – The Learning Lens | Kaszuba (submitted). “Anyone can be a mentor”: Tracing teacher candidates’ understanding of their emerging mentoring practice and identity. <i>International Journal of Mentoring and Coaching in Education.</i> | How do participating FSL teacher candidates’ understanding of their professional learning practice (with regard to mentoring) evolve during their ITE program? |
| Article 2 – The Innovating Lens | Kaszuba (submitted). Towards variation in the professional learning practices of language teacher | What are the types of variation in the professional learning (i.e. collaborative |

| | | |
|--------------------------------|--|--|
| | candidates: A complexity-informed perspective on collaborative inquiry. <i>Canadian Modern Language Review [Best Graduate Paper Competition]</i> . | inquiry) practices of second language teacher candidates as they work in voluntary learning communities? |
| Article 3 – The Defending Lens | Kaszuba (in press). The allure of professionalism: Teacher candidate subjectivity and resistance in neoliberal times. <i>Critical Education</i> . | To what extent do candidates develop practices of resistance against discourses of professionalism in a formative CoP? |

Concluding Remarks

Within a neoliberal policy context, ITE programs repeat and normalize discourses which view FSL learning as subsidiary to other content areas (Byrd Clark, 2011; Mason, 2017; Sanford et al., 2015). As a result, the structures of these programs fail to offer opportunities which respect the unique developmental pathways of FSL teacher candidates' professional learning practice. As candidates transition to the profession, this professional marginalization becomes ever more acute, often leading to increased attrition (Knouzi & Mady, 2014; Masson, 2018). By investigating resilience-based understandings of policy and practice, this study aimed to provide more nuanced understandings of the simultaneities of influences which impact the professional learning processes of teacher candidates, as well as to explore alternative models which create conditions for FSL teacher candidates to feel empowered to break these normalizing discourses in their contexts. Following the presentation of the three articles in the subsequent chapters, I conclude with additional interpretations about the candidates' professional learning practices by looking at

the in-between spaces of each of the CoP lenses (Nicolini et al., 2022). In an effort to advocate for featuring candidates' voice in the policymaking process, I conclude by drawing from their experiences to suggest future research directions.

Chapter 2: The Learning Lens

Kaszuba (submitted). “Anyone can be a mentor”: Tracing teacher candidates’ understanding of their emerging mentoring practice and identity. *International Journal of Mentoring and Coaching in Education*.²

Abstract

Purpose

In this research paper, I created and tested a model of peer mentoring at a Canadian Faculty of Education which created spaces for candidates to voluntarily pursue interests through inquiry in communities of practice (CoP). The study offers insight into how teacher candidates’ conceptualization of mentoring changed as they participated in the model under study.

Methodology

First-year teacher candidates (n=18) participated in four voluntary CoPs over eight months. In addition to audio recordings of the CoPs, the data draws from two rounds of interviews, and notes from a researcher journal. The analysis examined candidates’ understanding of their practices based on performances and recognition.

Findings

The findings demonstrate how candidates’ understanding of mentoring changed throughout the year. While candidates used criteria such as quantity of experience to identify potential mentors in the initial phase, continued participation in the CoPs eventually resulted in candidates identifying each other as mentors. Nevertheless, candidates still struggled to recognize themselves as mentors.

² In-text citations and references are formatted according to the guidelines of the *International Journal of Mentoring and Coaching in Education*.

Originality

Although previous models of peer mentoring in ITE have shown potential for teacher candidates to try out new roles and identities (e.g. Ambrosetti et al., 2017), the findings from this study are unique because they demonstrate how a mentoring practice can emerge between candidates in the same year.

Keywords

Initial teacher education, peer mentoring, teacher candidate, communities of practice, complexity theory, Faculty of Education, professional learning, collaborative inquiry

**“Anyone can be a mentor”: Tracing teacher candidates’ understanding of their
emerging mentoring practice and identity**

Introduction

Becoming a teacher is a challenging and complex journey that requires relationship-building with actors across educational spaces (Cochran-Smith *et al.*, 2014). While the value of having a support network of professional relationships with colleagues is well-documented, studies have shown that initial teacher education (ITE) actors continue to enact more traditional orientations during professional experiences, including transmission-oriented learning and pre-defined role expectations (Hobson *et al.*, 2009; Molitor *et al.*, 2018). In response, researchers have called for a reconceptualization of professional experiences in ITE centering on the learning community, where a commitment to reciprocal learning relationships characterized by trust, respect, and critical dialogue serve as a foundation for interactions between ITE actors (Le Cornu, 2016). Different learning community models have been proposed that converge around the idea that teacher candidate learning is best supported via collaborative practice and professional identity development (Grierson *et al.*, 2011; Korhonen *et al.*, 2017). However, not much is known about how such learning communities develop over the long-term, with most studies capturing the final state of an emergent learning community.

This article documents the dynamic phases of an ITE learning community over the course of one academic year (i.e., an 8-month period). Specifically, candidates were invited to participate in voluntary communities of practice (CoP) that took place outside of their coursework. Within these communities, the goal was for candidates to develop mentoring relationships as they engaged in action research projects. After providing an overview of the paradigm shift to a complex notion of professional learning and mentorship in ITE, I describe the study and detail findings showing

participating candidates' change in their performance and recognition of mentoring, which reveals that what candidates understand as their role in mentoring does not always align with what they do. Findings suggest that explicit reflection on the concept of 'mentor' is required in order to expand traditional views in the ITE context and beyond.

Literature Review

ITE programs are commonly tasked with providing professional experiences which attend to the unique learning trajectories of teacher candidates (Opfer and Pedder, 2011). Learning communities have been established as a productive way to support such learning in ITE (Le Cornu, 2016); nevertheless, the implementation of a learning community model as a way to build relationships between actors faces multiple challenges. One way to better understand these challenges is via complexity theory (Cochran Smith *et al.*, 2014).

Complex Professional Learning. Although teacher learning has commonly focused on training teachers to acquire best practices, recent understandings highlight the centrality of socially constructed knowledge, where teachers collaborate to develop practices that are responsive to their context, well-being and previous beliefs and knowledge (Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 2009; Korthagen, 2017). The social constructivist tradition, which emanates from learning communities or communities of practice (CoP) developed by Lave and Wenger (1991), has been adopted as an approach to professional learning in educational systems (Le Cornu, 2016; Darling-Hammond, 2017). However, this approach is critiqued for both being too focused on the individual, and for failing to consider how practices may be pre-defined by the constraints of the system (Kemmis *et al.*, 2014b). Particularly in ITE, teacher educators may struggle to implement socio-constructivist approaches within a system that is designed to "centre their 'instruction' around predictability, patterning, control, linear-thinking and universality" (Ramiah, 2014, p. 63). While the tenets of

socio-constructivism are still valuable, recent scholarship integrates complexity theory and conceptualizations of professional learning as a response to its shortcomings (Fenwick, 2012; Strom and Viesca, 2021).

Generally speaking, complexity theory focuses on the study of systems and how they change, develop, evolve, and learn and is commonly used in educational research in the ITE context today (Cochran-Smith *et al.*, 2014). From a complexity perspective, professional learning involves a series of elements, such as actors, concepts, and events, which emerge together while interacting in complex adaptive systems (Osberg *et al.*, 2008). A certain degree of diversity between elements is necessary to allow for novel interactions to take place (Davis and Sumara, 2005). The emphasis is on the relationships between elements in a system, and because these elements are constantly interacting in unpredictable ways, it is impossible to model a system in its entirety without losing some of its complexity (Osberg *et al.*, 2008). Therefore, to study complex social practices such as mentoring, it is important to consider how these practices are jointly produced by teachers as they collectively work together (Strom and Viesca, 2021).

Rejecting simplistic cause-and-effect understandings of knowledge, complexity researchers recognize uncertainty as an inherent feature of complex professional learning (Cochran-Smith *et al.*, 2014). It is impossible to predict and control what will influence the learning of teachers the most, and therefore one should not pre-determine the content and objectives of their learning. As teachers interact with ideas and their environment, knowledge emerges and creates feedback loops which impact their future choices, leading to the self-organization of the system (Osberg *et al.*, 2008). Through this ongoing decision-making process, teachers ultimately create their own professional trajectory (Opfer and Pedder, 2011). From this perspective, professional learning thus involves supporting teachers in two ways: first, by guiding them to become aware of

the effects of their actions in complex systems; and second, by providing them with support to understand their role given the unpredictable outcomes of their practice (Fenwick, 2012).

While many studies in ITE use complexity theory to describe or interpret what is happening, fewer studies have used this theory as a framework to initiate and study change (Cochran-Smith *et al.*, 2014). In response, this study adopted a complexity-informed CoP design to guide transformation in the ITE context. Since developing CoP is the same process as fostering relational mentoring (Le Cornu, 2005), I examine the literature related to mentoring below.

Mentoring Models. The mentorship model is a common way to support beginning teachers (Le Cornu, 2005). Given the potential for mentoring to provide socio-emotional support, increase self-confidence, reduce isolation, improve retention and contribute to pedagogical knowledge, there has been an increased focus on mentoring opportunities for new teachers across Canada (Hobson *et al.*, 2009; Kutsyruba *et al.*, 2020). In the traditional view, mentoring involves the transmission of knowledge from a more experienced mentor to a less experienced protégé. Such transmission-oriented views promote a unidirectional socialization of beginning teachers into the existing cultures of schooling (Richter *et al.*, 2013).

Socio-constructivist views of learning have challenged this traditional view of mentoring. From this perspective, mentoring is considered a collaborative and reciprocal practice, where mentoring partners engage in the active construction of knowledge in their social environment (Le Cornu, 2016; Richter *et al.*, 2013). Rather than focusing on the transmission of knowledge, terms such as “peer mentoring” (Le Cornu, 2005), “peer group mentoring” (Korhonen *et al.*, 2017), and “triad mentoring” (Ambrossetti *et al.*, 2017) have emerged as alternative forms to mentoring in ITE, signaling the value of equal and collegial mentoring relationships between two or more actors, where any of the mentoring partners can learn during the interactions. Generally, the idea that all

actors engage in reciprocal learning relationships is central to the shift to the CoP model in ITE (Le Cornu, 2016).

In Ontario (the context of this study), traditional views of mentorship have been present in ITE programs since the first teacher education institution opened. As part of their preparation, candidates served as “untrained apprentices”, where learning is accomplished through observation of an experienced teacher in the classroom – and such internships remain at the “heart” of ITE programs today (Smyth and Hamel, 2016). Despite ITE’s shift to socio-constructivist approaches in the 2000s, the legacy of the traditional view of mentorship is still prevalent in program delivery today (Rigas and Kuchapski, 2018). For example, although a triad mentoring model (i.e. a practicum model which places one first-year and one-final year candidate in the same classroom as a mentor teacher) can change traditional experiences of mentoring roles (Ambrosetti *et al.*, 2017), Grierson *et al.* (2011) found that trying to implement this paradigm shift in practicum received some pushback, where traditional mentor/mentee labels limited candidates’ ability to engage in collaborative practices. The authors also suggested that reciprocal learning, such as co-teaching, may not have been sufficiently modelled in ITE courses. Yet, since these courses are increasingly led by sessional instructors like retired teachers and administrators, they may be delivered “with little awareness of the overarching philosophy” (Kitchen and Petrarca, 2022, p. 21) of socio-constructivist mentoring. In response, calls have been made for developing more sustainable mentoring practices “that value time for reflection and dialogue, professional development, and community” (Molitor *et al.*, 2018, p. 252) for all involved ITE actors. The emergent peer mentoring CoP used in this study responds to this call.

Emergent Peer Mentoring. According to Ambrosetti *et al.* (2014), mentoring is a complex multifaceted process which is still being conceptualized for the ITE context. Building on this

assertion, and recognizing the limitations of socio-constructivist thinking, I join other researchers in suggesting that complexity theory offers productive ways to consider how practices like mentoring emerge in ITE (Cochran-Smith *et al.*, 2014). Because ITE is a complex system with several intersecting parts, candidates' conceptualization of mentoring is the aggregate of their professional experiences across all of these parts (Le Cornu, 2016). However, in traditional 'parts' like courses and practicum, there are multiple constraints which may limit the authenticity of candidates' mentoring experiences (Jenkinson and Benson, 2017). Time- and goal- bounded objectives limit the extent to which candidates can perceive the effects of their actions over the long-term and experience professional learning as unpredictable (Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 2009). Implicit understandings of roles in traditional settings may reinforce power relations and competition between actors, and thus the reproduction of transmission-oriented thinking (Ambrosetti *et al.*, 2014).

Rather than relying on traditional experiences, complexity-informed peer mentoring embraces the idea that candidates can initiate and lead their own professional learning sequences during ITE (Cochran-Smith *et al.*, 2014). By creating the conditions for CoP to emerge, actors and concepts come together and interact in unpredictable ways. Without any pre-defined objectives, emergent CoP are adaptable to the professional learning needs of candidates, as they offer a space for them to pursue learning which meets their needs and interests. Unpredictability implies that participation must be voluntary, that risk-taking is necessary, and that successful outcomes are not guaranteed. Candidates recognize that they must work together to define their common goals, values, and objectives, and experience how their (in)actions may impact their colleagues' learning (Le Cornu, 2016). Without any pre-defined roles, objectives, or hierarchies, candidates must commit to self-organization, negotiate meaning, and provide mentoring as they interact with their

colleagues to resolve issues that may arise (Ambrosetti *et al.*, 2014). As candidates move in and out of various roles, the way(s) in which they construct their professional identity in relation to the CoP is a dynamic, non-linear, and uneven process (Saldana, 2017).

Essentially, the complexity-informed peer mentoring described above is premised on two criteria: A) it is voluntary; and B) the objectives are not pre-defined. While previous studies meet one of these criteria, it is challenging to find studies which meet both. For example, Kent and Simpson (2009) invited candidates to participate in CoPs involving bi-weekly two-hour seminars to reflect on their practicum experiences and learn effective teaching strategies. Although the CoP were offered outside of the ITE program's requirements (i.e. criterion A), the authors pre-defined the content of each session following state standards. In contrast, Korhonen *et al.* (2017) investigated how candidates experienced participation in peer mentoring groups alongside novice and experienced teachers. Because there were no pre-defined objectives (i.e. criterion B), the authors found that mentoring practices of each CoP evolved differently, ranging from discussions that were informal and atheoretical to ones that were collegial, integrative of theory and critically reflective. However, candidate participation was not voluntary as the initiative was connected to a required course component.

Combining ideas from previous research, this study fills the gap because it meets the two criteria described above. Candidates from the same year of the ITE program were given the opportunity to form a voluntary peer mentoring CoP outside of courses and practicum, and without experienced teachers, to do self-directed learning around a theme of their choice. The findings detail the evolution of the peer mentoring practices in each CoP through the examination of the types of roles and interactions in which candidates engaged.

Methodology

This study reports on data collected during an 8-month project that took place during the 2022-2023 academic school year. This study adopts a qualitative inquiry approach, follows the logic of case study, and is informed by the principles of action research (Kemmis *et al.*, 2014a; Merriam and Tisdell, 2016). For case study research, it is important to define the boundaries of the case and identify intrinsic issues and contexts which emerge from it (Stake, 2005). By studying patterns that occur across the collected interpretations through the investigation, I created “thick descriptions” of my rendition of the how candidates construct their experiences in the emergent CoP (Yazan *et al.*, 2016).

Context. In the province of Ontario, the standards of professionalism require that ITE programs (referred to as “Members”) help develop teacher candidates in the following two areas: “Members promote and participate in the creation of collaborative, safe and supportive learning communities”; and “Members refine their professional practice through ongoing inquiry, dialogue and reflection” (Ontario College of Teachers [OCT], n.d.). Building on these standards, the Faculty of Education where this study took place grounds their ITE program using the conceptual framework of ‘communities of inquiry’. The accreditation document suggests that candidates may participate in several polymorphous CoPs – during courses, practicum, or elsewhere. In addition to these CoPs, the program also uses the cohort system as a structure. There are three divisional cohorts, including Primary/Junior (P/J), Junior Intermediate (J/I), and Intermediate/Senior (I/S), as well as several thematic cohorts. This article focuses on the emergent CoP offered as an additional professional learning initiative in the context of one of the thematic cohorts.

Recruitment, data collection. Once approval was received by the institution’s Research Ethics Board (Ethics: S-07-22-8106/Approval: 18-8-2022), the research study was launched during a cohort orientation event, where I presented the concept of the CoP to the candidates and

invited them to propose themes and voluntarily form groups. The findings report on three CoPs which held at least two meetings following this event.

Of the 25 candidates who participated at least once in a CoP, 18 candidates consented to release artefacts and CoP recordings as part of this study. In addition to video recordings of these meetings, a researcher journal and fieldnotes offer insights into the mentoring practices that candidates developed during the CoPs. Eight candidates consented to participate in the initial interviews, and five agreed to do a follow-up interview. During these interviews, I asked questions related to mentorship such as “who took on a mentorship role?”, “what does mentorship mean in the context of this CoP?”, and “is there a difference between the terms leader, mentor, and facilitator?”.

Generally speaking, candidates met once a month either in person or virtually throughout the academic year (September to April) up to a total of 6 meetings. As per Table 1, the project was divided into two phases across which spirals of inquiry (i.e. planning, acting, and reflecting – Kemmis *et al.*, 2014a) could occur. During the first phase, which occurred during the first two CoP meetings, I structured the sessions with collaborative activities such as conceptual maps and SMART goals. In the second phase, the sessions were unstructured: candidates had opportunities to work on their professional learning goals, report on their progress, and discuss their experiences. Essentially, the second phase served as a canvas for candidates to adopt, try out, and develop new identities and practices (Johnson and Golombek, 2020). Phase 2 lasted from CoP meetings three to six.

TABLE 2: Phases of the project, timing of activities and data collection.

| | Pre-Phase | Phase 1 | Phase 2 |
|--------------------|---|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| <i>Description</i> | Meeting with all candidates in the cohort | Structured CoP meetings (2) | Unstructured CoP meetings (3-6) |

| | | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|--|--|
| <i>Timing</i> | Orientation day and first two weeks of program | September-October | November-March |
| <i>Activities and data collection</i> | Identifying common concerns in second language education, planning CoP themes and creating groups. | Conceptual Maps SMART Goals Interview #1 | SMART Goals reflection and follow up Unstructured discussions Interview #2 |
| | Sign-up/restructuring of CoPs via digital CoP registry list. | | |

Source: Authors own work

Positionality. As both CoP facilitator and researcher during these meetings, I had a dual set of responsibilities to maintain while ensuring that my actions were always to the benefit of candidate learning. Recognizing the implicit power relations between myself and the candidates, yet endeavoring to enter into collegial and reciprocal relations, my positionality could be described as “an insider in collaboration with other insiders” (Gibbs *et al.*, 2017, p. 10). Throughout the project, I often served as expert who provided knowledge, specialized discourse, and feedback related to the professional learning initiatives of the candidates. At the same time, my goal was to create mediational spaces for candidates to feel safe while trying out and taking up new mentoring identities and practices (Johnson and Golombek, 2020). To achieve this goal, I effectively became a part of the relational mentoring web of each CoP. My role as mentor often shifted from facilitating group interactions, to collaborating on projects, and to coaching (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2016) so that I could offer differentiated support depending on the needs of the inquiry group.

Data Analysis. Mentoring is a social practice and can be analyzed as such (Pennanen *et al.*, 2016). I began data analysis using Kemmis *et al.*’s “invention for analyzing practices” (p. 39). As they explain, this table is divided into elements of practice which provide “a set of topics or viewing platforms from which to consider a practice as it happens” (p. 224). This tool was useful as a heuristic because it allowed for different forms of data (i.e. interviews, CoP meetings,

observations) to be analyzed in same the way. I identified key episodes in the data which were characteristic of the sayings, doings, and relatings of the participants' mentorship practices in each phase. Analytic memos (Saldaña, 2015) were used to track my ongoing understanding and interpretation of the data as it related to the practices of the candidates and the influences from the cultures of learning already present in the ITE. I then used these episodes and memos to reconstruct a chronological narrative of each CoP (Merriam and Tisdell, 2016). By comparing the practice elements that emerged between Phase 1 and Phase 2, the findings revealed a comparison of change in the performances and recognition of mentoring as they evolved throughout the project.

Findings

In this section, I present a synthesis of the mentoring practices for three of the inquiry groups, named the Fun with French (FwF) CoP, the Universal Design for Learning (UDL) CoP, and the Classroom Management CoP. This synthesis is organized in relation to the two phases of the project (see Table 1 above). It is possible to recognize the marked shift in the candidates' performances and recognition of between Phase 1 and Phase 2 which emerges in relation to each CoPs' unique mentoring practice.

Phase 1 (September-October). In the first phase of the project, the CoP groups each held two meetings. During these sessions, candidates engaged in the activities to discuss their previous experiences with professional learning related to each of their topics, established a shared vision, and proposed inquiry projects in relation to this vision. Generally, I played a central role in facilitating the sessions during this phase. Given the variety of backgrounds, interests, and approaches to working with one another, I had to adapt my role with each of the groups to meet their needs. As I reflected in my journal, "in [the CM] PLC, I really felt myself entering into a coaching role, whereas in the other PLCs, I felt more like a facilitator" (Research journal – Entry

2022.10.22). Consistent with this observation, there were some noticeable differences in who tried out mentoring roles in each CoP. In the CM CoP, which consisted entirely of P/J candidates, it was primarily me who managed turn-taking and provided feedback. In contrast, the mentoring dynamic in the UDL CoP was different given the balance of P/J and I/S candidates. The I/S candidates appeared to occupy this CoP space more comfortably and interact with one another more often compared to their P/J colleagues. In Phase 1 in particular, they demonstrated more fluidity in their use of specialized discourse; for example, Zayn, an I/S candidate, was already able to express his concept of professional learning: “when I think of professional learning it's like workshops specifically designed for imparting specific skills and tasks” (UDL CoP #1). I/S candidates were also more readily able to make connections between the CoP and previous collaborative learning experiences. When the P/J candidates contributed, they seemed unsure and less verbose; they took on listening roles more often and tacitly agreed to the shared vision established by their colleagues. In all of the CoP, the conceptual map and SMART goals activities facilitated mentoring, as candidates felt inclined to help each other decode different educational terms. Nevertheless, these mentoring moments were rare during this phase, even after my prompts and encouragement.

Across all three CoPs, candidates referred to the quantity of experience and the expert/novice divide as primary criteria of mentorship. Despite the fact that I presented myself as a facilitator of the CoPs, candidates across all CoPs used these criteria as a way to identify me as the mentor:

In the case of our groups, you take on both roles. Because you facilitate the meetings and you have that whole structure in place, but also we all kind of see you as a mentor because you have more experience than we do. You know a lot more about this whole CoP, how it works...so we see that as an example (Pascale – Interview #1).

I find that you've taken on a strong role doing [mentorship] because when you ask us questions and we give you answers, you'll prompt us in another direction, so that it benefits us more... Whereas if your facilitation wasn't there...the discussions would be all over the place (Thomas – Interview #1).

As seen in these quotes, candidates relied on my expertise as the facilitator to provide the structure and momentum of the CoP meetings. At the same time, their acknowledgement of my expertise led them to also position me as a mentor, based on the criteria that the person having “more experience” occupies this role. As candidates tried to overlay the dyadic mentor/mentee framework onto the CoP, they recognized some commonalities between the roles of facilitator and mentor, but also some confusion in distinguishing the two terms. That there were more than two people meant that the traditional criteria for mentorship could no longer fully apply to the dynamics they experienced in a group setting. This dissonance was most evident in Tran’s response:

[We are not mentors] quite simply because we are all first year students starting here. Here's where I see more of a mentorship: those people who have been in the classroom 10+ so many years who have so many experiences. And there's one person, Priyanka, I could see her being a mentor because of her wealth of experience that she brings (Tran – Interview #1).

In this response, Tran evokes a traditional view of mentorship based on quantity of experience. Using this criterion, she suggests that first year candidates cannot be mentors; yet at the same time, she recognized that her colleague Priyanka, who is also a first year candidate, has more experience and can act as a mentor. The emergent CoP setting created the conditions for candidates like Tran to test their conceptualization of mentorship as they begin to recognize the experience and expertise of their colleagues.

Phase 2 (November-April). During Phase 2 of the project, there were no pre-defined objectives or activities, which meant that candidates had more autonomy over the structure and direction of the CoP meetings. Given this autonomy, the mentoring practice in each CoP continued to follow a unique trajectory. Although the trajectories were unique, there were three notable conditions of the candidates' practice: below, I show examples of mentoring and contextualize them in relation to *vulnerability*, *diversity*, and *inconsistency between the performance and recognition of mentorship*.

Vulnerability. Vulnerability acted as a stimulus to building mentoring relationships in the CoPs. Because there were no expectations with regard to attendance or outcomes of their projects, the low-pressure environment created a space where candidates felt safe to keep attending: “there was a lot of times where me or other people didn't have much to present. And that was fine...that helps take a weight off my back” (Flora – Interview #2). An environment attentive to socio-emotional needs allowed for a space of trust and respect between the candidates, and such a space permitted the vulnerability for them to try out new mentoring roles and identities. For example, during the fourth meeting of the UDL CoP, a salient mentoring moment that occurred. As candidates were discussing their practicum experiences, one P/J candidate, Aki, who had mostly taken on a listener role during the previous meetings, took centre stage as she expressed her frustrations about her associate teacher (AT):

Aki: My AT doesn't give me a lot of positive feedback, which is kind of hard at times...she just gives critical criticism.

Arthur: Is there a way for you to be like, oh, actually, what did you think about that? If they're not going to give you positive feedback, put them on the spot.

Pascale: I would honestly send an email because that [may be] easier for you than trying to just squeeze it into [a conversation].

Amelia: And you also know you're not alone in that. I've heard my other student teacher in the room...she got so much criticism at the beginning. It depends on the AT. So if you could tell her in any way, maybe she'll see it differently.

Aki: I will try throughout the next few weeks (UDL CoP #4)

The previous discussions triggered Aki to express her vulnerability, which led to an informal mentoring sequence between members as they tried to reflect on possible solutions. Although the group had diverged from its discussion about UDL, the unpredictable nature of the emergent CoP, combined with the low pressure environment, created conditions for the development of a mentoring practice where candidates felt comfortable seeking and providing support for one another through vulnerable moments. Their mentoring practice was similarly enabled through the diversity in the CoP membership.

Diversity. Because these emergent CoP were both voluntary and interest-based, they created spaces for interaction between people that may not have occurred elsewhere in the program. In the UDL CoP, the participants reported that they appreciated learning with members from different divisions. Since P/J and I/S candidates take no courses together in the program, these CoP sessions allowed members like Arthur “to hear some perspectives from people who were not with me all the time. Like people who are in primary-junior, I think was really nice, because I don't think I'm going to encounter people in primary-junior again” (Arthur – UDL CoP #6). Similarly, unexpected relationships developed between members of the CM CoP even though all the candidates were P/J. As Thomas mentioned, “before the CoP, I didn't really spend that much time with Dominique” (Thomas – Interview #2). These new connections opened up new

possibilities for mentoring as candidates recounted lived experiences from their respective placements.

In contrast, the FwF CoP had a noticeably less diverse membership as Tran, Priyanka, and Sarah took courses together and already interacted with each other frequently. As a result, the members felt that their interactions during the emergent CoP were redundant in relation to the ways they were interacting with each other in the program. This challenge led Sarah to admit that the “the only valuable part was you [the facilitator], because you were giving us mentorship, you were guiding us and making us see things in a different light” (Sarah – Interview #2). As seen in the next section, although members’ interactions could be characterized as mentoring acts, there was not always a clear idea about who the ‘mentor’ was.

Inconsistency between performance and recognition of mentorship. Although there were many noticeable acts of mentoring during Phase 2, the candidates did not always recognize their role in this mentorship. For example, in the FwF CoP, Priyanka and Tran took turns sharing the mentor role during their interactions.

Tran: I don't know everybody is just laid back, malgré la directrice [despite the principal]. Elle a...how do you say retired?

Priyanka: Elle a pris sa retraite [She is retired].

Tran: Oui, elle a pris sa retraite en décembre [Yes, she retired in December], she was laid back, relaxed. Mais maintenant il y a un autre qui [But now there is another who], she seems to be more about...

Priyanka: Micromanaging.

Tran: Getting everybody on board. The other one was kinda like, do what you want.

Priyanka: "I'm out the door".

Tran: Exactly! So maybe now we will see more...

Priyanka: Leadership. (FwF CoP #3)

In the above performance of mentorship, Priyanka and Tran engaged in relational mentoring as they critically reflected on their experiences with one another. Despite this salient mentoring performance, the candidates did not readily recognize the relational nature of the mentoring. During her second interview, I asked Priyanka to reflect on the roles that were being assumed in the above exchange. She indicated that she saw Tran as the mentor in that moment.

Facilitator: Was there mentorship happening in any capacity?

Priyanka: Um, I suppose [Tran] was mentoring you and I.

Facilitator: Were you doing any mentorship during that moment?

Priyanka: No. I was gladly receiving the information. (Priyanka – Interview #2)

As seen in this exchange, Priyanka did not readily see herself providing mentorship to Tran. For Priyanka, mentorship seems to be a role that someone takes on when they are leading the conversation, rather than a fluid practice that occurs in the moment-to-moment interactions between members in group. In this sense, Priyanka's *performance* of mentorship reflects a more relational understanding when compared to her articulated *understanding* of mentorship. Similarly, Tran did not see herself taking on an active role of mentor during the CoP:

Most people were coming from backgrounds where they will have been in the classroom for a long time in different roles, and for me, it wasn't the case. So I felt...that I wasn't in a position to offer. I didn't trust what I could offer (Tran – Interview #2)

In this passage, Tran still alluded to the criterion of more experience in her definition of mentorship, and used this criterion to reject the idea that she could act as a mentor. While

candidates seemed to have shifted to identifying primarily their colleagues as mentors instead of the facilitator during Phase 2, they still struggled to assume this role themselves.

Interestingly, I also observed the inverse to the performance and recognition mismatch. Although each CoP developed a unique mentoring practice, acts of relational mentoring were more prevalent in the UDL and FwF CoPs. In the CM CoP, I continued to be the primary facilitator of turn-taking and I prompted a lot of the reflection in Phase 2. In fact, I was unable to discern a relational mentoring episode for the CM CoP that could be equated to the ones shown above. Nevertheless, for Thomas, the CoP experience changed the way that he thought about mentoring. When I asked him who was taking on a mentorship role, he responded:

I feel like when we have these discussions, we're having them between each other. It's almost like we're being mentors for each other, and we're helping ourselves expand our knowledge, share ideas, so more than just being part of a community, there's this mentorship aspect...this idea that anyone can be a mentor (Thomas – Interview #2).

Discussion

Mentoring remains an essential component of teachers' professional learning. In this article, I offer a complexity-informed perspective of peer mentoring groups in an attempt to trace the development of teacher candidates' mentoring practices over time. While most of the candidates held on to a traditional view of mentorship based on expert/novice labels and quantity of experience in their recognition of mentoring during Phase 1, their ongoing interactions in the inquiry groups challenged this traditional view. Not only did candidates begin to recognize mentorship in their peers, they also stepped into the role of mentor during Phase 2. Still, the findings show inconsistencies between the candidates' performances and recognition of relational

mentoring, which might signal the need for more explicit reflection to move beyond a traditional view of mentorship. I discuss these ideas below.

Beyond a traditional view of mentorship...Consistent with findings of comparable peer mentoring initiatives (Ambrosetti *et al.* 2017; Korhonen *et al.*, 2017), participation in these CoP allowed most candidates to develop relationships of trust, respect, reciprocity, and vulnerability. Much like the results of Korhonen *et al.* (2017), a lack of pre-defined outcomes combined with guided support allowed participating candidates to gain authentic experiences around self-led professional learning. In contrast, however, the findings here show that candidates were able to develop these mentoring practices even when the CoP were voluntary and did not include experienced teachers. Candidates voluntarily took risks by participating in these CoP and by trying out and adopting new identities and practices. Notably, candidates experimented with mentoring one another, and as the CoP progressed, their mentoring performances became more adept, complex, and relational.

Similar to Grierson *et al.* (2011), candidates in this study relied on traditional criteria of mentorship, like mentor/mentee labels, to make sense of their mentoring experiences. However, in contrast to Grierson *et al.*, these labels did not appear to limit the amount of collaboration between participants in this study. While candidates used expert/novice labels to identify me as primary mentor during Phase 1, they were able to participate in a relational mentoring practice as the project shifted into Phase 2. For candidates like Tran and Thomas, they were also able to eventually recognize acts of mentorship from their colleagues. Reported shifts in their understanding of who could be a mentor supports the idea that “the process undertaken by learning communities is a mentoring one” (Le Cornu, 2005, p. 358). The emergence of CoP relies on the increase in

mentoring acts between all members, which in turn demands the kind of change to one's traditional view of mentoring as demonstrated by Tran and Thomas.

Nevertheless, I argue that more explicit reflection on the concept of "mentor" is required in order to change traditional views during ITE. Even though participants viewed their colleagues as possible mentors, findings show that this understanding was accessed through a traditional view of mentorship. In other words, while participants may have replaced me with their colleagues as the 'more experienced person' in the equation, some did so while maintaining the belief that they were still the novice. They struggled to recognize their complicity and potential to contribute in a relational mentoring paradigm. Campbell *et al.*'s (2022) noticed a similar trend, with participating teachers demonstrating a hazy image of their roles until "peers helped them clarify the notions of selves" (p. 191). They note that internal (i.e. personal) recognition and external (i.e. social) recognition are separate but interdependent constructs with regard to teacher identity-making in CoP. Viewed through this lens, the findings of this study become concerning: at the internal level, many of the candidates like Tran and Priyanka did not see themselves as mentors even after engaging in mentoring relationships throughout the project. At the external level, there were no explicit exchanges between candidates where they identified each other as mentors, even though they made such remarks privately during the interviews. Although this kind of emergent CoP created opportunities for authentic mentoring experiences, more explicit activities, such as the ones detailed in Jenkinson and Benson (2017), might be necessary for candidates to collaboratively reflect on their conceptualization and recognition of relational mentoring. Such explicit reflection might help candidates shift towards a complex view of their mentoring practice, as I describe in more detail below.

...towards a complex view of peer mentoring. Mentoring is a complex process and is still being conceptualized in the context of ITE (Ambrosetti *et al.*, 2014). As I have attempted to demonstrate in this article, complexity theory has the potential to guide transformations in ITE in order to support personalized professional learning (Cochran-Smith *et al.*, 2014). Complexity concepts may also be a useful way to make sense of the unintended consequences and variability in outcomes of ITE and CoP, like those seen in this study. For a complex system to emerge, there must be *diversity* between elements (Davis and Sumara, 2005). As can be observed in the FwF CoP, all of the members had classes with one another, and the ways they could interact in the CoP were redundant to the types of interactions they were already having. In contrast, the UDL and CM CoP included members who had not previously interacted with one another, notably between P/J and I/S candidates, and this diversity allowed for novel mentoring interactions to occur. Arguably, and in contrast to the FwF CoP, these novel interactions are what contributed to the sustained emergence of these CoP. Whereas other mentoring structures like triad mentoring are purposefully designed to account for diversity by pairing candidates from different years (Ambrosetti *et al.*, 2017; Grierson *et al.*, 2011), the findings of this study demonstrate that candidates in the same year can take on relational mentoring roles. Reciprocity between P/J and I/S candidates remains an untapped source of novel interactions and information exchange in the context of this study, and perhaps at other Faculties of Education as well. Therefore, future research could create and study opportunities for sustained collaborative inquiry between these groups.

The professional trajectories of candidates in these CoP were different, unpredictable, and yet successful in their own way. In other words, the findings reflect “equifinality”, that is, how “apparently very different experiences that, under some circumstances and for some persons, lead to notably similar outcomes” (Cochran-Smith *et al.*, 2014, p. 24). Although there were no pre-

determined learning objectives, these emergent CoP demonstrate that there are “more than one successful process, structure, or configuration of processes and structures” (Anderson *et al.*, 2005, p. 679), which can support candidate learning such that they develop values, skills and dispositions in relation to the province’s professional standards. Missing from this study, and what is fundamental to complexity research, is how experiences across different modalities may contribute to the candidates’ change, or lack thereof, to their concept of mentoring. Although many of the candidates in this study were experiencing practicum through the triad mentoring model, design constraints limited the opportunity to explore how that experience may have influenced candidates’ recognition of “mentor” as they participated in the CoP.

Future directions

Overall, the findings of this investigation provide important insights for the field of teacher education regarding how candidates develop their mentoring practices and identities. Given the potential for personalized learning, this study shows how emergent CoP can provide opportunities for candidates to challenge their traditional views of mentoring as they engage in collaborative inquiry at the university. In future studies, it would be interesting to investigate an emergent CoP model which voluntarily brings together mentor teachers, novice teachers, and candidates as a way to complement practicum-based peer mentoring. Not only would such a structure allow for authentic mentoring experiences for candidates, it would also increase membership diversity and support the professional learning of future pre-service mentors (Molitor *et al.*, 2018). By allowing all involved members to explicitly identify, reflect on, and reframe their concept of mentoring, such opportunities may help disrupt the traditional view of mentoring and create sustainable peer mentoring communities in and beyond ITE.

References

- Ambrosetti, A., Dekkers, J. and Knight, B. A. (2017), “Mentoring triad: an alternative mentoring model for preservice teacher education?”, *Mentoring and Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, Vol. 25, No. 2, pp. 42–60. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13611267.2017.1308093>
- Ambrosetti, A., Knight, B. A. and Dekkers, J. (2014), “Maximizing the potential of mentoring: a framework for pre-service teacher education”, *Mentoring and Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, Vol. 22, No. 3, pp. 224–239. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13611267.2014.926662>
- Anderson, R. A., Crabtree, B. F., Steele, D. J. and McDaniel, R. R. (2005), “Case study research: The view from complexity science”, *Qualitative Health Research*, Vol. 15, No. 5, pp. 669–685. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732305275208>
- Campbell, T., Wenner, J. A., Brandon, L. and Waszkelewicz, M. (2022), “A community of practice model as a theoretical perspective for teacher leadership”, *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, Vol. 25, No. 2, pp. 173–196. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13603124.2019.1643500>
- Cochran-Smith, M. and Lytle, S. L. (2009), “Teacher research as stance”, Noffke, S. E. and Somekh, B. (Ed.s), *The SAGE Handbook of Educational Action Research (Chp. 3)*, Sage Publications, London, pp. 39-49. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9780857021021.n2>
- Cochran-Smith, M., Ell, F., Ludlow, L., Grudnoff, L. and Aitken, G. (2014), “The challenge and promise of complexity theory for teacher education research”, *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 116, No. 5, pp. 1–38. <https://doi.org/10.1177/016146811411600407>
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2017), “Teacher education around the world: what can we learn from international practice?” *European Journal of Teacher Education*, Vol. 40, No. 3, pp. 291–309. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2017.1315399>

- Davis, B. and Sumara, D. (2005), “Challenging images of knowing: Complexity science and educational research”, *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, Vol. 18, No. 3, pp. 305–321. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09518390500082293>
- Fenwick, T. (2012), “Complexity science and professional learning for collaboration: A critical reconsideration of possibilities and limitations”, *Journal of Education and Work*, Vol. 25, No. 1, pp. 141–162. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13639080.2012.644911>
- Gibbs, P., Cartney, P., Wilkinson, K., Parkinson, J., Cunningham, S., James-Reynolds, C., Zoubir, T., Brown, V., Barter, P., Sumner, P., MacDonald, A., Dayananda, A. and Pitt, A. (2017), “Literature review on the use of action research in higher education”, *Educational Action Research*, Vol. 25, No. 1, pp. 3–22. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09650792.2015.1124046>
- Grierson, A., Cantalini-Williams, M., Wideman-Johnston, T. and Tedesco, S. (2011), “Building scaffolds in the field: the benefits and challenges of teacher candidate peer mentorship”, *Brock Education Journal*, Vol. 20, No. 2, pp. 85–103. <https://doi.org/10.26522/brocked.v20i2.171>
- Hobson, A. J., Ashby, P., Malderez, A. and Tomlinson, P. D. (2009), “Mentoring beginning teachers: what we know and what we don’t”, *Teaching and Teacher Education*, Vol. 25, No. 1, pp. 207–216. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2008.09.001>
- Jenkinson, K. A. and Benson, A. C. (2017), “The assessment and mentoring program (AMP): Final year pre-service physical education peer mentors perceptions of effective mentoring”, *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, Vol. 17, No. 2, pp. 35–44. <https://doi.org/10.14434/josotl.v17i2.20769>

- Johnson, K. E. and Golombek, P. R. (2020), “Informing and transforming language teacher education pedagogy”, *Language Teaching Research*, Vol 24, No. 1, pp. 116–127.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168818777539>
- Kemmis, S., McTaggart, R. and Nixon, R. (2014a), *The action research planner: Doing critical participatory action research*, Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-4560-67-2>
- Kemmis, S., Wilkinson, J., Edwards-Groves, C., Hardy, I., Grootenboer, P. and Bristol, L. (2014b), *Changing practices, changing education*, Springer Singapore.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-4560-47-4>
- Kent, A. M. and Simpson, J. L. (2009), “Preservice teacher institute: Developing a model learning community for student teachers”, *College Student Journal*, Vol. 43, No. 2, pp. 695-704.
- Kitchen, J. and Petrarca, D. (Ed.s). (2022), “Initial teacher education in Ontario: The four-semester teacher education programs after five years”, *Canadian research in teacher education: A polygraph series (Vol. 12)* [eBook], Canadian Association for Teacher Education/Canadian Society for the Study of Education. Available at
<https://prism.ucalgary.ca/items/3d7496b2-2738-4d45-b383-ae1fc02e6e9>
- Korhonen, H., Heikkinen, H. L. T., Kiviniemi, U. and Tynjälä, P. (2017), “Student teachers’ experiences of participating in mixed peer mentoring groups of in-service and pre-service teachers in Finland”, *Teaching and Teacher Education*, Vol. 61, pp. 153–163.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2016.10.011>
- Korthagen, F. (2017), “Inconvenient truths about teacher learning: towards professional development 3.0”, *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, Vol. 23, No. 4, pp. 387–405. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13540602.2016.1211523>

- Kutsyuruba, B., Walker, K. D., Matheson, I. and Bosica, J. J. (2020), “Understanding early career teachers’ needs: findings from the pan-Canadian survey”, *Teacher Learning and Professional Development*, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 15–36. Available at <https://journals.sfu.ca/tlpd/index.php/tlpd/article/view/73>
- Lave, J. and Wenger, E. (1991), *Situated learning: legitimate peripheral participation*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Le Cornu, R. (2005), “Peer mentoring: engaging pre-service teachers in mentoring one another”, *Mentoring and Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, Vol 13, No. 3, pp. 355–366. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13611260500105592>
- Le Cornu, R. (2016), “Professional experience: learning from the past to build the future”, *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, Vol. 44, No. 1, pp. 80–101. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1359866X.2015.1102200>
- Merriam, S. B. and Tisdell, E. J. (2016), “Qualitative data analysis”, *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation (4th ed.)*, pp. 201–220, Jossey-Boss, San Francisco, CA.
- Molitor, S., Parker, L. and Vetter, D. (2018), “Mentoring for all: building knowledge and community”, *Journal of Professional Capital and Community*, Vol. 3, No. 4, pp. 242–255. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JPCC-12-2017-0035>
- Ontario College of Teachers (n.d.), *Standards of practice*, available at <https://www.oct.ca/public/professional-standards#:~:text=The%20five%20Standards%20of%20Practice,teacher%20education%2C%20mentoring%20and%20research> (accessed 20 September, 2023).

Ontario Ministry of Education (2016), *Mentoring for all*, available at

<https://www.principals.ca/en/professional-learning/resources/Documents/MentoringforAll-2016.pdf> (accessed 14 October, 2023).

Opfer, D. and Pedder, V. D. (2011), “Conceptualizing teacher professional learning”, *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. 81, No. 3, pp. 376–407.

<https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654311413609>

Osberg, D., Biesta, G. and Cilliers, P. (2008), “From representation to emergence: Complexity’s challenge to the epistemology of schooling”, *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, Vol. 40, No. 1, pp. 213–227. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-5812.2007.00407.x>

Pennanen, M., Bristol, L., Wilkinson, J. and Heikkinen, H. L. T. (2016), “What is ‘good’ mentoring? understanding mentoring practices of teacher induction through case studies of Finland and Australia”, *Pedagogy, Culture and Society*, Vol. 24, No. 1, pp. 27–53.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/14681366.2015.1083045>

Ramiah, A. R. (2014), “Complexity thinking in ALL practice”, *Journal of Academic Language and Learning*, Vol. 8, No. 3, pp. 62–71. Available at

<http://journal.aall.org.au/index.php/jall/article/view/350>

Richter, D., Kunter, M., Lüdtke, O. , Klunsmann, U. , Anders, Y. and Baumert, J. (2013), “How different mentoring approaches affect beginning teachers’ development in the first years of practice”, *Teaching and Teacher Education*, Vol. 36, pp. 166–177.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2013.07.012>

Rigas, B. and Kuchapski, R. (2018), “Educating preservice teachers in a neoliberal era: specialized technicians or public intellectuals?”, *Alberta Journal of Educational*

Research, Vol. 64, No. 4, pp. 393–410.

<https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.11575/ajer.v64i4.56361>

Saldaña, J. (2015), *The coding manual for qualitative researchers* (3rd ed.), Sage.

Saldana, J. B. (2017). “Mediating role of leadership in the development of communities of practice”, McDonald, J. and Cater-Steel, A. (Ed.s), *Communities of Practice: Facilitating Social Learning in Higher Education*, pp. 281–312, Springer Singapore.

<https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-2879-3>

Smyth, E. and Hamel, T. (2016), “The history of initial teacher education in Canada: Québec and Ontario”, *Educação and Formação, Fortaleza*, Vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 88–109.

<https://doi.org/10.25053/edufor.v1i1.1606>

Stake, R. E. (2005), “Qualitative case studies”, Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln Y.S. (ed.s), *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research* (3rd ed.), pp. 443–466, Sage.

Strom, K. J. and Viesca, K. M. (2021), “Towards a complex framework of teacher learning-practice” *Professional Development in Education*, Vol. 47, No. 2-3, pp. 209–224.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2020.1827449>

Yazan, B. and De Vasconcelos, I. C. O. (2016), “Three approaches to case study methods in education: Yin, Merriam, and Stake”, *Meta: Avaliacao*, Vol 8, No. 22, pp. 149–182.

<https://doi.org/10.22347/2175-2753v8i22.1038>

Chapter 3: The Innovating Lens

Kaszuba (submitted). Towards variation in the professional learning practices of language teacher candidates: A complexity-informed perspective on collaborative inquiry. *Canadian Modern Language Review* [Best Graduate Paper Competition]

Abstract

Creating conditions which allow for the autonomy of educators during professional learning has been a key focus in educational research in recent years. Much evidence supports that collaborative inquiry (CI) is a model which can foster this autonomy by prioritizing teachers' concerns, needs, and interests in the professional learning process. By working on problems they encounter in their daily experiences, groups of educators are able to develop unique professional learning practices that attend to their context. Through the lens of complexity, this study examines how variation emerged in the CI practices of four groups of teacher candidates who shared the common discipline of language teaching. The data was collected with participants through interviews, video recordings, and artifacts, and then reconstructed into a narrative case study to showcase the unique learning trajectories of each of the CI groups. I discuss the nuances between these trajectories and the implications for CI initiatives with language educators.

Key Words:

collaborative inquiry, professional learning, French second language, language teachers, second language teacher education, initial teacher education, complexity

**Towards Variation in the Professional Learning Practices of Language Teacher Candidates:
A Complexity-Informed Perspective on Collaborative Inquiry**

Introduction

The province of Ontario (Canada) has been subject to a series of reforms over the past 15 years which have aimed to develop teacher-led professional learning initiatives embedded within a wider system focused on professional development (Campbell, 2015; Darling-Hammond, 2017). In an effort to emphasize a relational approach to professional learning, the policy and program memorandum (PPM) 159 was negotiated and co-developed by teacher unions and the Ministry of Education as a way of working with one another, based on the premise of collaborative professionalism. The vision of collaborative professionalism in the PPM aims to foster democratic environments for educators, where there is a shared responsibility in transforming workplace culture (Campbell, 2018). Collaborative professionalism requires that all stakeholders in education are intentionally involved to develop collaborative working relationships built on mutual trust and respect. It assumes that the professionalization pathway cannot be standardized, i.e. that professional learning opportunities should be adapted to meet the needs of the involved educators. The purpose of this approach is to promote teacher autonomy in the face of professional learning imposed by administrative bodies, a problem that is common in educational systems operating under neoliberal pressures (DeLuca et al., 2017; Morales Perlaza & Tardif, 2016).

One of the key tenets of collaborative professionalism is collaborative inquiry [CI] (Hargreaves & O'Connor, 2018). Collaborative inquiry is a relatively new professional learning framework which involves teachers working together to refine their pedagogical practice through evidence-based learning and discussions (DeLuca et al., 2015; 2017). While multiple studies

have demonstrated the positive impact of the CI approach to professional development for practicing teachers, the use of CI frameworks to support teacher candidates is a recent phenomenon (e.g. Sanford et al., 2020; Schnellert & Kozak, 2019), based on the premise that initial teacher education has a role in preparing candidates with these skills before they arrive in the profession (Kane & Francis, 2013). Given its recency, few studies have provided observational evidence of what CI looks like when enacted by teacher candidates. This study fills this gap by reporting on a CI initiative with language-focused teacher candidates at a Faculty of Education in Ontario. Candidates had an opportunity to voluntarily participate in learning communities and develop a CI practice. Based on data from observations, interviews, and video recordings, the findings show the diversity of CI practices that these candidates developed and enacted over the academic year. Building on these findings, I discuss the uniqueness of the FSL context (Arnott et al., 2022) with regard to CI initiatives through the lens of complexity.

Conceptualizing collaborative inquiry

This study is framed in the literature relevant to collaborative inquiry [CI]. CI is considered a form of professional development where educators participate in a group to inquire into a shared problem in their practices (DeLuca et al., 2017). In such a setting, multiple stakeholders, including administration, teachers, paraprofessionals, researchers, and teacher candidates mutually engage in a cycle of inquiry over an extended period of time (DeLuca et al., 2015; Nelson et al., 2012). Typical steps in this cycle involve some sort of dialogic sharing, goal-setting and action, as well as reflecting on outcomes following implementation of that action (DeLuca et al., 2015). By implementing this cycle, teachers are able to use their professional context as a site of learning, by developing a process for responding to problems and issues that

emerge from their day-to-day experiences and becoming more conscious of the unintended outcomes of their pedagogical choices (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009; Kemmis et al., 2014a).

Generally, studies have conceptualized CI through a socioconstructivist lens (DeLuca et al., 2015). Positioning inquiry as an epistemological stance, many studies base their understanding of CI on the idea that “learning to teach [is] a process that occurs within inquiry communities and throughout the professional lifespan” (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009, p. 43), where knowledge is co-constructed between the members of these communities. As Grimmett (2021) noted, adopting an inquiry stance allows educators to “cultivate the habits of mind, values, or ground rules of a particular discipline or practice that make up the distinctive perspectives exhibited by that discipline or practice” (p. 154). Through the inquiry as stance lens, CI differentiates itself from activities like action research, which might be considered an instantiation of inquiry (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009).

Within the socioconstructivist model, an emphasis is placed on the idea that CI is a practice produced at the level of the group and cannot be reduced to any individual’s dispositions or actions (Horn & Little, 2010; Kemmis et al., 2014b). Thus, research into CI typically takes as a unit of analysis a group of educators, referring to them as a “community of inquiry” (Nelson et al., 2012), a “professional learning community [PLC]” (Cherkowski & Schnellert, 2018), or a “community of practice” (Schnellert & Kozak, 2023). Going further, this article adopts the understanding that CI is a “practice changing practice” (Kemmis et al., 2014a, p. 2), or a practice of *professional learning* in which a group of educators engage to make changes to other practices. Although professional learning and teaching could be analyzed as separate practices (Kemmis et al., 2014b), Strom and Viesca (2021) use the hyphenated term “teaching-practice” to signal how these educational practices overlap and influence one another.

The notion of a teaching-practice is theoretically underpinned by complexity theory (Strom & Viesca, 2021). While complexity has been used to theorize professional learning for quite some time (Fenwick, 2012), it's use in the CI literature is limited. Some CI researchers (e.g. Cherkowski & Schnellert, 2018; DeLuca et al., 2017) have referenced a complexity-informed professional learning studies (i.e. Opfer & Pedder, 2011) in their interpretation of data, and this article aims to elaborate these connections by adopting complexity as a framework to conceptualize and analyze CI practices between groups of language teacher candidates.

Complexity-informed CI

Complexity theory focuses on the study of systems and how they change, develop, evolve, and learn (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014). This theory has become popular in education, where studies draw on complexity concepts as a lens to describe how systems like classrooms, schools, and universities function (Davis & Sumara, 2006). Complexity has been used extensively to conceptualize ITE programs and their actors (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014; Davis & Sumara, 2012; Ell et al., 2019; Sanford et al., 2015, 2020), and thus lends itself well to this study of teacher candidates. The novelty of the study, however, is the application of complexity to theorize CI practices at the level of the learning community in the ITE context. Accordingly, I draw on relevant key concepts from complexity-informed professional learning (i.e., self-organization, non-linearity, becoming, learning-practice) to organize and situate previous findings in the literature on CI.

From a complexity perspective, professional learning involves a series of elements, such as actors, concepts, and events, which are mutually dependent and mutually constitutive, and they emerge together while interacting in complex adaptive systems such as schools and universities (Osberg et al., 2008). These interactions are unpredictable and uncontrollable, and

therefore the types of relationships that the elements form and the outcomes of the practice cannot be predetermined (Fenwick, 2012). A CI practice emerges through these unpredictable interactions. This characterization of CI is consistent with the idea that complex systems *self-organize*: educators may voluntarily self-select to form learning communities and inquire into certain concepts or events that emerge from their professional practice (Butler & Schnellert, 2012). While the self-organization of the groups is unpredictable, the initial conditions of the site enable and constrain the types of relationships and types of practice that these actors can engage in (Kemmis et al., 2014b). For example, in their study with 292 elementary teachers, DeLuca et al. (2017) noticed that the conditions of the site “can lead to diverse teacher inquiries” (p. 76) across a province even when the same CI framework is being used.

The development of diverse CI practices is not only shaped by the condition of the site, but occurs through the *non-linear* trajectories of the CI groups (Opfer & Pedder, 2011). As Fenwick (2012) explained, professional learning involves ongoing decision-making as actors interact with one another. As members make these decisions, they create their own path of practice development, which likely diverges from the paths made by other inquiry groups. Horn and Little (2010) demonstrated how the CI practices between two groups of teachers led to different types of “generativity”, an outcome which results from the groups’ orientation and how they make use of the contextual resources. Similarly, the CI groups in Stagg-Peterson et al. (2011) developed practices related to subject-based interests, including reading, music, and French immersion. The non-linear nature of CI has led to general calls to avoid “one-size fits all” to teachers’ professional learning (Campbell, 2018). Moreover, given these non-linear trajectories, CI groups with diverging practices may need differentiated support from researchers and administrators who facilitate them (Cherkowski & Schnellert, 2018).

To describe this non-linearity another way, Strom and Viesca (2021) characterized complex professional learning as a continual state of *becoming*. The notion of *becoming* captures the idea that a practice is continuously in a state of ongoing differentiation, such that there is no “final form” for the practice to attain. The contextual nature of the practice means “it is simply not possible to ‘train’ teachers to implement pedagogies or produce student learning in ways that will be consistently the same across settings” (p. 221). Thus, the notion of *becoming* contrasts some approaches in the literature which aim to categorize CI practices against a set of criteria or developmental phases (e.g. Nelson et al., 2012; Owen, 2014), as such criteria or phases may signal the idea that all CI groups can and will follow the same developmental path. What results is a complexity-informed approach to CI that creates friction when implemented in neoliberal contexts, where government mandates and policies may demand specific outcomes, high fidelity practices, and accountability to produce auditable results for their professional learning investments (DeLuca et al., 2017; Talbert, 2009; Strom & Viesca, 2021).

Lastly, complexity theory would posit that different types of practices form different systems. Kemmis et al. (2014b) identified three distinct educational practices, including student learning, teaching, and teacher (professional) learning. As research has found, the ability to teach does not mean that teachers are intuitively capable of doing professional learning like CI as they must learn the knowledge, skills, and dispositions needed to make their CI practice effective (DeLuca et al., 2017; Kane & Francis, 2013). The term “learning-practice” signals the idea that the practices of teaching and professional learning may be analytically different, but that these practice systems interact and co-produce one another (Strom & Viesca, 2021). In other words, CI can lead to meaningful changes in a group of educators’ teaching practice (Butler & Schnellert, 2012); however, from the view of complexity, it is important to not misinterpret the relationship

between the different practices through the logic of cause and effect (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014). It is difficult to trace direct, linear impacts of CI initiatives on changes to educator's teaching practices, and even less so on changes to student learning (DeLuca et al., 2017).

Although improved student achievement almost ubiquitously features as the primary indicator of success in CI initiatives (Butler & Schnellert, 2012; Carr & Cravens, 2023; Nelson et al., 2012; 2017), others have argued that indicators such as teacher agency, moral imagination and the quality of relationships, may be more appropriate to assess the effectiveness of CI interventions (Cherkowski & Schnellert, 2018; Korthagen, 2017; Kubanyiova, 2018) from a complexity perspective.

CI practices have been well-documented, but more observational evidence of what they look like, especially for subject-specific groups of educators, have been called for (DeLuca et al., 2015; 2017). With a complexity-informed view of CI in mind, the purpose of this study is to demonstrate the non-linear trajectories of teacher candidate CI practices as they work together in learning communities. In particular, this study pushes the notion of non-linear trajectories by showing the “ongoing differentiation” that can continue to proliferate in CI practices even within a group of subject-specific teachers. The CI practices of language educators will be used as an example. Below, I examine the literature on CI initiatives with second language (L2) educators, namely French second language (FSL) teachers.

Subject-specific CI: the case of language teachers

As Campbell (2018) noted, “a focus on specific subject knowledge in combination with pedagogical content knowledge is an important element of effective teacher professional learning” (p. 77), and the flexibility inherent to CI allows for educators to develop a practice centred on their subject-specific knowledge. For decades, researchers have argued that language

teachers have sets of pedagogical and content knowledge unique to their discipline which should be accounted for in their professional development (Faez, 2011). According to a recent knowledge framework proposed by Masson et al. (2024), second language teachers need to develop in four areas: language proficiency, intercultural awareness, pedagogical knowledge and skills, and collaborative professionalism. While Hargreaves and O'Connor (2018) would argue that all teachers need to develop their collaborative professionalism, the inclusion of this area in the framework underscores the idea that what collaborative professionalism – and by extension, CI – looks like for language educators may be different from their colleagues. For example, in a study by Jacquet and Dagenais (2010), the authors found that French immersion teachers collaborated more frequently than colleagues who worked in an English-stream or Francophone school. The ways in which these teachers collaborated were also statistically different – for example, they were more likely to engage in the creation of pedagogical material. The authors surmised that the unique needs of the French immersion teachers (e.g., lack of resources available in the target language) resulted in more collaboration. Indeed, as Arnott et al. (2022) found, human and material resources, as well as opportunities to work on language proficiency, are consistently identified needs of FSL teachers across Canada, an issue which is compounded by the fact that professional development is often not designed to address these needs (Masson et al., 2019).

When it comes to professional development, language teachers are often required to participate in generic activities that are disconnected from their subject area (Masson, 2018). In the case of FSL, since teachers are commonly the only ones in their school, they may feel isolated or that their knowledge is devalued while working with generalist colleagues (Knouzi & Mady, 2014). By grouping language teachers during CI initiatives, the understanding is that their

common experiences, practices, and concerns will more readily result in mutual engagement, a joint practice, and a shared repertoire, dimensions which are necessary for the establishment of a learning community (Wenger, 1998). Language teachers may also benefit from increased professional confidence through the opportunity to collectively practice working in the target language (Fraga-Cañadas, 2011; Wernicke, 2017). As Burns (2009) noted, participation in a learning community is more likely to have a productive impact on the pedagogical knowledge and skills of language teachers than inquiry initiatives that are conducted alone.

Engaging language teachers in CI initiatives through a learning community is not new. Kristmanson et al. (2011), co-led a series of participatory action research PLCs with language teachers where they worked on pedagogical problems that they encountered in their language teaching practice, such as writing or encouraging student autonomy. Cammarata and Haley (2018) led a 15-month CI initiative with French immersion teachers based on a Lesson Study design. Masson (2018) worked with FSL teachers in an online learning community to collaboratively reflect on their professional practice and combat feelings of isolation. Across all of these studies, it is important to note that they either a) only elaborated on the CI practice of one singular group of language teachers, b) used standardized approaches in their version of CI, or c) focussed on the experiences of individuals. These tendencies are similarly evident in FSL research in the initial teacher education context (e.g. Arnott & Vignola, 2018; Lemaire, 2013; Le Bouthillier & Kristmanson, 2023). In contrast, generalist CI studies typically compare the emerging practices between multiple groups of teachers (e.g. Cherkowski & Schnellert, 2018; Horn & Little, 2010) to allow for more nuance about how a certain CI initiative works in that context (Nelson et al., 2012). Therefore, in an effort to increase ties between the field of FSL inquiry-based professional learning and that of CI, this study compares and contrasts the CI

practices between multiple groups of language educators. In particular, the study aimed explore the types of variation in the CI practices of second language teacher candidates as they work in voluntary learning communities.

Methodology

This study reports on data collected during an 8-month research project that took place during the 2022-2023 academic school year. This study adopts a qualitative inquiry approach, follows the logic of case study, and is informed by the principles of CI (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Timperley et al., 2014).

Context. To become a teacher in Ontario, candidates must complete a 2-year B.Ed ITE program at an accredited faculty of education (Campbell, 2023). The faculty of education at which this study took place develops the conceptual framework of the ITE program around ‘communities of inquiry’. The student guide program document suggests candidates may participate in several different communities of inquiry throughout the program. To be able to integrate themselves into these communities, the focus of Year 1 of the program is developing the candidates’ professional inquiry through their coursework and practicum experiences. Candidates are encouraged to develop their adaptive expertise through different professional learning experiences, and become familiar with Timperley et al.’s (2014) CI model.

As part of these inquiry communities, the program also uses the cohort system as a structure for grouping teacher candidates. There are three divisional cohorts, including primary/junior (P/J – Kindergarten to Grade 5), junior intermediate (J/I – Grade 4 to Grade 10), and intermediate/senior (I/S – Grade 9 to Grade 12), as well as several thematic cohorts. In one of these cohorts, candidates focus on additional language learning contexts and many are enrolled in the French second language specialization, where they take additional courses to

receive an FSL teaching qualification when they graduate. The inquiry groups (called PLCs) were offered as an additional professional learning initiative in the context of this cohort.

Recruitment, Data Construction. With a complexity theory in mind, this research project was launched during a cohort orientation event, where I invited candidates to propose themes and voluntarily form groups. Of the 16 potential PLCs, five held initial meetings, and four held subsequent meetings. The findings focus on the four PLCs which held at least two meetings.

Recruitment for the research project began after the second PLC meeting. Of the 25 candidates who participated in at least one PLC session, 18 consented to release artefacts and PLC recordings as part of this study. Eight candidates consented to participate in the initial interviews (*), and five of these candidates agreed to do a follow-up interview (**). In addition to video recordings of these meetings, a researcher journal and fieldnotes offer insights into the CI practices which candidates developed. As Table 3 shows, nine of the 18 candidates who consented were in the FSL specialization (one of these candidates participated in two different PLCs). Anyone not in the FSL specialization either expressed interested in teaching FSL or were not involved in any FSL component related to the program.

TABLE 3: List of participants in each PLC and their enrollment details.

| Professional Community | Learning | Participants | FSL Specialization |
|-------------------------------|----------|--------------|--------------------|
| Fun with French | | Priyanka** | |
| | | Tran** | |
| | | Sarah** | X |
| | | Candice | X |
| | | Pascale* | X |
| Universal Design for Learning | | Ndidi | X |
| | | Arthur | X |
| | | Zayn | |
| | | Pascale* | X |

| | | |
|----------------------|-----------|---|
| | Ming | X |
| | Flora** | X |
| | Aki | |
| | Amelia* | |
| Classroom Management | Thomas** | |
| | Dominique | X |
| | Cheyenne | X |
| | Farnaz | |
| Mental Health | Georgia | |
| | Eli* | |

*= participated in the initial interview; ** participated in both interviews.

Generally speaking, candidates met once a month either in person or virtually throughout the academic year (September to March) up to a total of six meetings. The sessions were structured based on cycles of inquiry (i.e. planning, acting, and reflecting) (Timperley et al., 2014) across which candidates had opportunities to develop and work on their professional learning goals, report on their progress, and discuss their experiences. Throughout the meetings, I often served as a facilitator and an expert who provided knowledge, specialized discourse, and differentiated support related to the professional learning initiatives of the candidates (Cherkowski & Schnellert, 2018).

Data Analysis. I began data analysis using Kemmis and colleagues' "invention for analyzing practices" (2014b, p. 39). As they explain, this table is divided into elements of practice which provide "a set of topics or viewing platforms from which to consider a practice as it happens" (p. 224). This tool was useful as a heuristic because it allowed for different forms of data (i.e. interviews, CoP meetings, observations) to be analyzed in same the way. I identified key episodes in the data which were characteristic of the sayings (i.e. what candidates said about the practice), doings (i.e. what candidates did during the practice), and relatings (i.e. how candidates related to each other) in the each of the groups' CI practices. Analytic memos (Saldaña, 2015) were used to track my ongoing understanding and interpretation of the data as it

related to the practices of the candidates and the influences from the cultures of learning already present in the wider ITE program. I then used these episodes and memos to reconstruct a chronological narrative of each PLC group (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). In this way, the purpose was to set up a case study of the CI initiative based on thick descriptions of the candidates' experiences in doing CI (Stake, 2005; Yazan et al., 2016). This narrative case study approach allows for reframing candidates' professional learning away from predetermined outcomes and towards polyvocality in the PLCs' knowledge-making capacities (Macintye Latta et al., 2020).

Findings

In this section, I describe the membership, CI practices, and reflections of the four PLCs which met at least twice during the project: the Fun with French PLC, the UDL PLC, the Classroom Management PLC, and the Mental Health PLC. Collectively, these narratives demonstrate the high degree of variation across the CI practices of the PLCs in this context.

Fun with French PLC. The Fun with French (FwF) PLC came together to explore an issue that members encountered during their practice while working in FSL contexts. Over the course of the project, the PLC met three times and saw eight members participate in at least one of these meetings. All of the members were interested in eventually teaching FSL at the P/J level. The meetings were conducted primarily in French, with occasional switching back and forth between French and English.

During the first meeting, the members established a common vision for their CI by sharing their experiences working and learning in FSL contexts. Candidates highlighted the challenges that they have felt with pedagogical approaches to FSL teaching and supporting

student learning. It was clear that they were able to recognize the commonalities between their experiences and quickly identify a shared problem in their practice.

By the second meeting, the candidates had been in the ITE program for two months and were becoming more familiar with the FSL teaching context through their courses. The collective inquiry of the group quickly took shape when one participant, Tran, shared that she was struggling to organize her resources and her goal was to “essentially juste trouver une façon pour organiser les ressources... » (FwF PLC #2). Many of the other members quickly sympathized with Tran’s concern, recognizing that they struggled to find-FSL specific resources and felt unprepared to start practicum in FSL settings. Most of the members agreed to creating a digital resource list via Google Docs, where everyone would add their FSL resources; however, they struggled in assigning responsibility for the creation of this document, and they could not agree on how many resources each of them should add. By January, the momentum of the PLC had been lost and the resource list never materialized. During the last session, members shared their practicum experiences and showed each other resources they had used during practicum, which partially attended to their common vision.

In reflecting on the group’s CI, members recognized the limitations of resource sharing as useful to addressing their concerns. Tran commented that their approach could have been better designed:

I still felt we needed a more fine-tuned [approach], although that's what we decided. But I still didn't feel comfortable just throwing something out there, without knowing where is it going to go. So, after the PLC, I was still thinking, there still has to be some method to the madness (Tran – interview #2)

Tran struggled with the unpredictable nature of CI, and this struggle made her less confident to propose alternative ideas when the resource list did not work out. For Sarah, she noted that the value of their enactment of CI diminished by the time she started practicum, because she gained access to multiple resources there: “by the time we decided that we're going to put all these resources together...we're almost starting practicum. We decided too late” (Sarah – Interview #2). She commented that other focuses, like “understand[ing] what French culture looks like in Ontario” (Sarah – Interview #2) may have ultimately been more useful to her learning. The challenge, however, is that both Tran and Sarah recognized the need to shift their inquiry focus only after the CI initiative concluded. None of the members commented on how doing CI allowed them to further build quality relationships with one another, but appreciated the CI meetings as a way to maintain their language proficiency in French. In contrast to the descriptions that follow, this PLC seemed to represent the most traditional approach to doing CI in FSL, where the focus was specifically on issues related to FSL pedagogy.

Universal Design for Learning PLC. The UDL PLC, nicknamed the nUDLers, came together to explore an interest around the theme of *universal design for learning* [UDL]. It met for a total of 6 times during the school year and participation varied from 1-8 members at the meetings. Candidates came from both the P/J and I/S divisions, and many were enrolled in the FSL specialization.

During the first meeting, the members discussed their previous experiences with professional learning at their workplaces, in summer camps, and through participation in student committees. They compared these experiences in an attempt to identify aspects of professional learning they enjoyed or disliked, and used these discussions to negotiate the structure of their CI. In comparison to the FwF PLC, this UDL PLC agreed to taking on individual action research

projects, which, during the meetings, they said they would share in the format of “a round table, where when we meet, we can split the meeting into chunks...so I did this research and I found these resources and here's what I learned about how to make it the most successful...and then that counts as like a PLC” (UDL PLC #1). In the second meeting, candidates’ action research topics varied further, and included asking practicum colleagues about their experience with UDL; planning a workshop for their colleagues with an invited expert; creating a self-assessment rubric of UDL practices, integrating game-based learning. In follow up sessions, candidates reported on their progress of their goal (or lack thereof), shared their experiences, received feedback, and refined their goals. Many of the candidates were successful in meeting their goals. Others, like Amelia, recognized that “it's not going anywhere for me...I think UDL was too broad” (UDL PLC #4), but appreciated the opportunities for relationship-building that the learning community offered her. In contrast, Pascale, who participated in both the FwF and UDL groups, preferred the broadness of the latter’s inquiry topic:

The UDL group is quite a bit different than the Fun with French one...the UDL is also more broad, there's a lot of subgroups you can have as part of that versus Fun with French...there's not too many ways you can branch that out. Because I have my idea about the workshop for the UDL group, I'm more engaged in the UDL one right now...

(Pascale – Interview #1).

Unlike the FwF PLC, the UDL group’s inquiry topic was not directly related to FSL, yet the candidates benefitted from having this shared language teaching background. While discussing their personal projects, they often contextualized their feedback to their experiences in the FSL setting. Moreover, because they shared knowledge of the French language, candidates felt comfortable switching between English and French during the meetings.

For both the FwF and UDL groups, members primarily used the PLC space to address issues related to their teaching practices. In contrast, the following PLCs show that while teaching practices are always a topic of discussion, sometimes they take a backseat to the candidates' other goals.

Classroom Management PLC. The classroom management (CM) PLC came together to develop classroom management strategies in preparation for practicum. The group met for a total of 6 times and participation varied from one to three candidates. All of the members had learned English and/or French as an additional language.

Unlike the previous groups, the CI of this PLC was not exploratory in nature; rather, candidates attended meetings with the intention of seeking both professional and socio-emotional support so that they could manage practicum expectations. Due to the explicit nature of their goals, the first two meetings were primarily dedicated to discussing candidates' previous experiences with classroom management as well as sharing techniques which they could use in their practicum. In later meetings, the discussions primarily centred around candidates' reflections on their practicum experiences and success with meeting their goals. They recalled their attempts to implement classroom management strategies, as well as frustrating or unexpected situations that occurred. Candidates compared the differences in their practicum contexts, ranging from generalist placements, to FSL, to special needs, and how these differences affected the types of strategies they used and the relationships they established with students and colleagues. In their discussions, the members appreciated CI primarily as a means to build relationships with one another and as a way to develop confidence in their practice.

Like the previous PLCs, having similar language teaching experiences allowed candidates in this PLC to discuss challenges inherent to the FSL context, like class sizes and the

teacher shortage. Moreover, Thomas commented that the members' common experiences of learning a second language set the group up for success. He compared the challenges of learning a second language to doing CI:

The PLC is kind of providing that same support that we got when we were struggling to learn a language. Being able to have a support network to help us work on those weaknesses or reinforce those strengths is a great way to be able to develop our classroom management skills, just like how we were able to develop our language skills through the support that we were provided (Thomas – Interview #2).

As seen in Thomas' comment, central to this PLC's trajectory was the development of a support network, and the members' common language learning experiences provided a structure and motivation for maintaining this network. Similarly, members in the following PLC also aimed to find means to support one another during the ITE program, but leveraged the PLC space in a different way to achieve this goal.

Mental Health Warriors PLC. The Mental Health Warriors (MHW) came together to address their commonly felt concern about sustaining positive mental health for both themselves and their students. The group met three times, and each meeting saw one to four participants.

During the meetings, candidates shared their experiences with mental health education and their perspectives on what a mental health practice meant for educators. Some candidates talked about their personal struggles with mental health, their experience working in group homes, and their experience with trauma-informed teaching. They shared strategies that they had used and experienced which had a positive impact on their own well-being. One of the key points of debate during the meetings was whether the focus of the group's CI should be on developing strategies to support the mental health of their students or on working to create a

community in the program to support the mental health of themselves and their colleagues.

Compared to the other PLCs, this debate led candidates to consider practices beyond teaching as their object of study. In essence, they wanted to leverage CI as a way to improve the practice of mental health in the profession:

I think it's important for us to maybe just have an open space to talk about practicum experiences...What kind of strategies are you using to kind of combat the stress of the job...now that we've actually got a little bit of exposure, have a conversation about coping [and know] that we have a support network to lean on (MHW PLC#3).

Like the FwF PLC, the group developed a common project to achieve their goal: they decided to plan a movie night to watch “Inside Out” (Docter, 2015), and use the movie as a springboard to talk about mental health in the program and in their pedagogical practice. The event had five people in attendance. While the group had good intentions and ideas for their inquiry, the members’ often struggled to find time to meet and the PLC dissolved after this social event. Moreover, there was no evidence that the group considered the implications of their practice in the context of second language learning and teaching, likely because no one was in the FSL concentration.

Discussion and Conclusion

A key component to fostering the collaborative professionalism of educators is creating professional learning experiences in which they have the opportunity to develop their practice of CI (Hargreaves & O’Connor, 2018). Educators will develop a diverse array of inquiries when they have the autonomy to draw from their professional experiences, concerns, and interests as they negotiate a shared problem which they want to address (Cherkowski & Schnellert, 2018; DeLuca et al., 2017). For language educators, such autonomy means allowing for the integration

of subject-based knowledge into their professional learning (Campbell, 2018; Masson et al., 2024). As shown in these findings, however, there is no uniform way in which language educators choose to interact with this subject-based knowledge. Rather, the four varying PLC narratives demonstrate how ongoing differentiation continues to occur in CI practices even within a group of educators sharing a common discipline. By examining this differentiation through the lens of complexity, it was possible to assess the types of variation that were produced across the CI practices (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014). In particular, four types of variation were evident: 1) variation in the approach to CI; 2) variation in how the groups encountered and responded to failure; 3) variation in the topic of CI; and 4) variation in the practice under study. I elaborate on these four types of variation below.

First, consistent with other CI initiatives (Cherkowski & Schnellert, 2018; Horn & Little, 2010) the findings in this study demonstrate how educators self-organized into groups based on a mutual concern or interest, and how their CI practices diverged in unpredictable and non-linear ways. While all the groups were able to establish a common vision, there was variability in their approach to CI: the FwF and MHW groups wanted to collaborate on a common task, such as creating a resource list or planning a social event, whereas the UDL and CM groups carried out individual action research projects around a similar theme, but leveraged the inquiry group as a way to share their progress, co-construct meaning from their experiences, and plan future changes. Interestingly, the PLCs which pursued a common task were less successful with sustaining their learning community, having only met three times, whereas the PLCs with individual tasks continued to meet throughout the academic year. Although there is not enough data to make the generalization that the individual task approach is more conducive to a CI initiative with teacher candidates, complexity thinking reminds us that the success of CI practices

is always localized in time and space (Strom & Viesca, 2021). While the common task approach was less successful for the inquiry groups in this study, it may well be successful for a different group of members at the same university, or for the same group of members in a different context (Jacquet & Dagenais, 2010). Still, it is impossible to know beforehand which approach may be most conducive to any given group of language educators, so it would be inappropriate to use this data to establish and impose “best practices” for doing CI (DeLuca et al., 2017).

Second, another way to interpret the variability in the practice trajectories is to reframe what ‘failure’ means in CI. Particularly for the FwF PLC, their approach to CI – the collaborative creation of an FSL resource list – did not lead to the intended outcome and resulted in the dissolution of the inquiry group, which could be seen as a failure. This example reveals how quickly the lack of material resources in FSL comes to monopolize the attention of language educators. This group’s focus shifted from motivating students in FSL to securing resources for their practicum when they recognized the latter as a more immediate concern only after starting the program. While these foci are not mutually exclusive, it is worth highlighting that such a dramatic shift did not occur in the other inquiry groups. This shift showcases how the systemic challenges unique to the FSL context activate “survival-based” thinking during professional learning (Arnott et al., 2022). In this case, the lack of material resources is a pressing concern which impeded momentum and solidarity between FSL educators as they did CI. In other words, the FwF group’s response to the concern resulted in a learning community that “was perceived as a place for finding resources rather than for having conversations...there was not enough mutual engagement that could sustain a shared practice” (Pyrko et al., 2017, p. 402). However, rather than viewing this instance of CI as unsuccessful, a complexity lens might lead us to consider that it is still *becoming* – that this ‘failure’ is part of the CI cycle of language educators who choose to

engage in resource sharing with one another. For Sarah and Tran, it was only after they experienced the outcomes of resource sharing that they were able to reflect on what approach or topic would have been more productive for their learning. In this sense, failure is a part of the sequence of events in the PLCs' professional trajectories, and variation manifests when failure inhabits different steps in that sequence. Unfortunately, allowing for failure as part of the CI process requires time, can hinder morale, and may not be looked upon favorably in neoliberal contexts where observable results are paramount (Cherkowski & Schnellert, 2018; DeLuca et al., 2017).

Third, the findings show variation in the CI topics which candidates in a similar discipline wanted to explore. It might be unsurprising that a group of FSL educators aimed to foster motivation for language learning among students. However, the other topics – UDL, classroom management, and mental health – were perhaps more unexpected given that they did not focus explicitly on language teaching and learning. Because candidates were not confined to explore a topic specifically related to second language pedagogy, they were able to prioritize and integrate other professional interests and concerns as they developed a practice of CI, while still maintaining the flexibility to attend to the FSL context. For Flora, she was able to develop her FSL teaching practice under the umbrella of UDL, and Dominique was still able to reflect on the particularities of classroom management strategies in an FSL classroom. These members benefitted from working with peers who had similar language learning and teaching experiences because they could receive feedback on FSL-related issues from them, even if the subject of FSL was not expressly the main focus of the group. Moreover, candidates felt confident to alternate between speaking English and French knowing that they would be understood by (most) of their peers.

While professional learning should take into account the subject-based needs of educators (Campbell, 2018), the findings in this study demonstrate that differentiation in CI does not stop at the level of the subject. Whereas socioconstructivism suggests that educators with similar experiences and disciplines should be grouped together (Wenger, 1998), complexity goes further by suggesting that they should not be limited to exploring topics traditionally associated with that discipline (Strom & Viesca, 2021). This conceptualization of differentiation contrasts calls for more pre-organized “Differentiated Induction” for novice teachers in Ontario, which asserts that “each professional learning community will have predetermined learning targets. In concert with administrators, [novice] teachers have the opportunity to choose between: (a) literacy; (b) numeracy; (c) special education; and (d) Core French as their learning focus” (Jackson, 2019, p. 57). In contrast, as these findings show, ongoing differentiation of CI topics and practices can and will continue to occur even within a group of subject-specific educators, and professional learning supports such as induction should allow for this flexibility.

Fourth, as CI is a “practice changing practice” (Kemmis et al., 2014a), there was variability in which practices the groups had set out to change. According to the theoretical framework guiding these participants’ ITE program (i.e., Temperley et al., 2014), candidates are encouraged to put student learning at the centre of their inquiry process, a focus which parallels broader CI initiatives in the literature (DeLuca et al., 2017; Nelson et al., 2012). While I never explicitly said that candidates had to adopt this focus, most of the PLCs were naturally inclined to select topics with student learning in mind (e.g. FwF, UDL, CM). In contrast, the Mental Health PLC had to negotiate to what extent the focus of their CI should be on developing practices for their own well-being or for that of their students. That they chose to centre their own mental health breaks from the CI paradigm, as such a focus “might not be readily viewed as

an effective use of PLC time if the marker for success is only student achievement” (Cherkowski & Schnellert, 2018, p. 244). Through the lens of complexity (i.e. learning-practice, Strom & Viesca, 2021), it could be inferred that if educators use CI to problematize issues like their well-being, such an approach may indirectly but positively impact student achievement in ways which are unpredictable and likely unmeasurable (Ell et al., 2019). Allowing educators to go beyond the practices of teaching and student learning as objects of study in their CI may help them develop autonomy over the processes and outcomes of their professional learning (Cherkowski & Schnellert, 2018). Such autonomy may help combat teacher attrition, a problem which disproportionately affects language teachers (Luthar & Mendes, 2020; Masson et al., 2019).

Future studies should aim to examine how diversity manifests in the CI practices of educators within similar disciplines over a longer period of time in order to further nuance our understanding of the uniqueness inherent to the professional learning processes in each discipline. It is only by allowing this diversity to flourish in professional learning that we can support the vision of collaborative professionalism as the *modus operandi* of the Ontario educational system.

References

- Arnott, S., & Vignola, M.-J. (2018). The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) in French immersion teacher education. *Journal of Immersion and Content-Based Language Education*, 6(2), 321–345. <https://doi.org/10.1075/jicb.17008.arn>
- Arnott, S., Smith, C. W., Battistuzzi, A., Culligan, K., Dicks, J., Kristmanson, P., Masson, M., Spiliotopoulos, V., & Wernicke, M. (2022). Identifying requirements and gaps in FSL teacher training: Recommendations and guidelines (research report). Canadian Association of Second Language Teachers.

Burns, A. (2009). Action Research in Second Language Teacher Education. In A. Burns & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (Issue January, pp. 289–297). Cambridge University Press.

<https://doi.org/10.1017/9781139042710.038>

Butler, D. L., & Schnellert, L. (2012). Collaborative inquiry in teacher professional development. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28(8), 1206–1220.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2012.07.009>

Cammarata, L., & Haley, C. (2018). Integrated content, language, and literacy instruction in a Canadian French immersion context: a professional development journey. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 21(3), 332–348.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2017.1386617>

Campbell, C. (2015). Leading system-wide educational improvement in Ontario. In A. Harris and M. Jones (eds.) *Leading futures: Global perspectives on educational leadership* (pp. 72–104). Sage.

Campbell, C. (2018). Developing teacher leadership and collaborative professionalism to flip the system: Reflections from Canada. In D.M. Netolicky, J. Andrews, C. Paterson (Eds.), *Flip the System Australia: What Matters in Education* (pp. 74–84). Routledge.

<https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429429620>

Campbell, C. (2023). Policy turns in teacher education: The case of Ontario, Canada, during the twenty-first century. In D. Mifsud & S. P. Day (Eds.), *Teacher Education, Learning Innovation and Accountability* (pp. 25–45). Springer International Publishing.

https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-28620-9_2

- Carr, O. G., & Cravens, X. (2023). Teaching without boundaries: interviews exploring the adaptation of collaborative inquiry to the American context. *Gates Open Research*, 7, 1–21. <https://doi.org/10.12688/gatesopenres.14168.1>
- Cherkowski, S., & Schnellert, L. (2018). Teacher, team, and school change through reciprocal learning. *Teacher Development*, 22(2), 229–248.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13664530.2017.1338197>
- Cochran-Smith, M. & Lytle, S. L. (2009). Teacher research as stance. In S. E. Noffke & B. Somekh (Eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Educational Action Research* (pp. 39–49). Sage Publications. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9780857021021.n2>
- Cochran-Smith, M., Ell, F., Ludlow, L., Grudnoff, L., & Aitken, G. (2014). The challenge and promise of complexity theory for teacher education research. *Teachers College Record*, 116(4), 1–38. <https://doi.org/10.1177/016146811411600407>
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Qualitative Inquiry & Research Design* (3rd ed.). Sage.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2017). Teacher education around the world: What can we learn from international practice? *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 40(3), 291–309.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2017.1315399>
- Davis, B., & Sumara, D. (2006). *Complexity and education: Inquires into learning, teaching, and research*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
- Davis, B., & Sumara, D. (2012). Fitting teacher education in/to/for an increasingly complex world. *Complicity: An International Journal of Complexity and Education*, 9(1), 30–40.
<https://doi.org/10.29173/cmplt16531>

- DeLuca, C., Bolden, B., & Chan, J. (2017). Systemic professional learning through collaborative inquiry: Examining teachers' perspectives. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 67*, 67–78. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2017.05.014>
- DeLuca, C., Shulha, J., Luhanga, U., Shulha, L. M., Christou, T. M., & Klinger, D. A. (2015). Collaborative inquiry as a professional learning structure for educators: A scoping review. *Professional Development in Education, 41*(4), 640–670. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2014.933120>
- Docter, P. (Director) (2015). *Inside Out* [Film]. Walt Disney Pictures and Pixar Animation Studios.
- Ell, F., Simpson, A., Mayer, D., McLean Davies, L., Clinton, J., & Dawson, G. (2019). Conceptualising the impact of initial teacher education. *Australian Educational Researcher, 46*(1), 177–200. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13384-018-0294-7>
- Faez, F. (2011). Developing the knowledge base of ESL and FSL teachers for K-12 programs in Canada. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 14*(1), 29–49. <https://journals.lib.unb.ca/index.php/CJAL/article/view/19865>
- Fenwick, T. (2012). Complexity science and professional learning for collaboration: A critical reconsideration of possibilities and limitations. *Journal of Education and Work, 25*(1), 141–162. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13639080.2012.644911>
- Fraga-Cañadas, C. P. (2011). Building communities of practice for foreign language teachers. *The Modern Language Journal, 95*(2), 296–300. <https://doi.org/10.1111/J.1540-4781.2011.01183.X>
- Grimmett, P. P. (2021). *Restoring Soul, Passion, and Purpose in Teacher Education*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003057345>

- Hargreaves, A. & O'Connor, M. (2018). Collaborative professionalism: When teaching together means learning for all. Corwin.
- Horn, I. S., & Little, J. W. (2010). Attending to problems of practice: Routines and resources for professional learning in teachers' workplace interactions. *American Educational Research Journal*, 47(1), 181-217. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831209345158>
- Jackson, T. (2019). Differentiated induction: An enhanced model for the New Teacher Induction Program. In *The Organizational Improvement Plan at Western University*.
<https://ir.lib.uwo.ca/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1072&context=oip>
- Jacquet, M., & Dagenais, D. (2010). Perspective croisée sur la collaboration professionnelle des enseignants dans trois contextes scolaires en Colombie-Britannique. *Erudit.Org*, 45(3).
<https://www.erudit.org/en/journals/mje/1900-v1-n1-mje1663516/1003575ar/abstract/>
- Kane, R. G., & Francis, A. (2013). Preparing teachers for professional learning: is there a future for teacher education in new teacher induction? *Teacher Development*, 17(3), 362–379.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13664530.2013.813763>
- Kemmis, S., McTaggart, R., & Nixon, R. (2014a). *The Action Research Planner: Doing Critical Participatory Action Research*. Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-4560-67-2>
- Kemmis, S., Wilkinson, J., Edwards-Groves, C., Hardy, I., Grootenboer, P., & Bristol, L. (2014b). *Changing Practices, Changing Education*. Springer Singapore.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-4560-47-4>
- Knouzi, I., & Mady, C. (2014). Voices of resilience from the bottom rungs: The stories of three elementary core French teachers in Ontario. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 60(1), 62–80. <https://doi.org/10.11575/ajer.v60i1.55764>

- Korthagen, F. (2017). Inconvenient truths about teacher learning: Towards professional development 3.0. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, 23(4), 387–405.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13540602.2016.1211523>
- Kristmanson, P. L., Lafargue, C., & Culligan, K. (2011). From action to insight: A professional learning community's experiences with the European Language Portfolio. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics / Revue Canadienne de Linguistique Appliquée*, 14(2), 53–67. <https://journals.lib.unb.ca/index.php/CJAL/article/view/19857>
- Kubanyiova, M. (2018). Language teacher education in the age of ambiguity: Educating responsive meaning makers in the world. *Language Teaching Research*, 24(1), 49–59.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168818777533>
- Le Bouthillier, J., & Kristmanson, P. (2023). Becoming a French second language teacher: Supporting confidence and competence. *Second Language Teacher Education*, 2(1), 21–42. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1558/slte.24011>
- Lemaire, E. (2013). L'intégration du Portfolio européen des langues en milieu ouest-canadien minoritaire et universitaire. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 69(4), 487–513.
<https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.1273.487>
- Luthar, S.S., & Mendes, S. H. (2020). Trauma-informed schools: Supporting educators as they support the children. *International Journal of School & Educational Psychology*, 8(2), 147–157. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21683603.2020.1721385>
- Macintyre Latta, M., Schnellert, L., Ondrik, K., & Sasges, M. (2020). Modes of being: Mobilizing narrative inquiry. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 26(10), 1222–1232.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1077800418786309>

- Masson, M. (2018). Reframing FSL teacher learning : Small stories of (re)professionalization and identity formation. *Journal of Belonging, Identity, Language, and Diversity*, 2(2), 77–102. https://bild-lida.ca/journal/volume-2_2-2018/reframing-fsl-teacher-learning-small-stories-of-reprofessionalization-and-identity-formation/
- Masson, M., Azan, A., & Battistuzzi, A. (2024). Centering social justice and well-being in FSL teacher identity formation to promote long-term retention. *In Education!*, 29(2), 54-77, <https://doi.org/10.37119/ojs2024.v29i2>
- Masson, M., Knouzi, I., Arnott, S., & Lapkin, S. (2021). A critical interpretive synthesis of post-millennial Canadian French as a second language research across stakeholders and programs. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 77(2), 154–187. <https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr-2020-0025>
- Masson, M., Larson, E. J., Desgroseilliers, P., Carr, W., & Lapkin, S. (2019). *Accessing opportunity: A study on challenges in French-as-a-second-language education teacher supply and demand in Canada*. Office of the Commissioner of Official Languages. <https://www.clo-ocol.gc.ca/en/publications/studies/2019/accessing-opportunity-fsl>
- Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2016). Qualitative case studies. In *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation* (4th ed., pp. 37–40). Jossey-Boss.
- Nelson, T.H., Slavit, D., & Deuel, A. (2012). Two dimensions of an inquiry stance toward student-learning data. *Teachers College Record*, 114(8), 1–42. <https://doi.org/10.1177/016146811211400807>
- Opfer, D., & Pedder, V. D. (2011). Conceptualizing teacher professional learning. *Review of Educational Research*, 81(3), 376–407. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654311413609>

- Osberg, D., Biesta, G., & Cilliers, P. (2008). From representation to emergence: Complexity's challenge to the epistemology of schooling. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 40(1), 213–227. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-5812.2007.00407.x>
- Owen, S. (2014). Teacher professional learning communities: Going beyond contrived collegiality toward challenging debate and collegial learning and professional growth. *Australian Journal of Adult Learning*, 54(2), 54–77. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1033925.pdf>
- Morales Perlaza, A., & Tardif, M. (2016). Pan-Canadian perspectives on teacher education: The state of the art in comparative research. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 62(2), 199–219. <https://doi.org/10.11575/ajer.v62i2.56221>
- Pyrko, I., Dörfler, V., & Eden, C. (2017). Thinking together: What makes Communities of Practice work? *Human Relations*, 70(4), 389–409. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726716661040>
- Saldaña, J. (2015). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. Sage.
- Sanford, K. J., Hopper, T. F., & Starr, L. (2015). Transforming teacher education thinking: Complexity and relational ways of knowing. *Complicity: An International Journal of Complexity and Education*, 12(2), 26–49. <https://doi.org/10.29173/cmplct23817>
- Sanford, K., Hopper, T., Robertson, K., Collyer, V., & Lancaster, L. (2020). Link2practice: A model of ongoing teacher and teacher candidate professional Learning. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 66(3), 325–346. <https://doi.org/10.55016/ojs/ajer.v66i3.56973>
- Schnellert, L., & Kozak, D. (2019). In situ hybrid spaces as generative sites for teacher preparation. *McGill Journal of Education*, 54(1), 1–23. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.7202/1060860ar>

- Schnellert, L., & Kozak, D. (2023). Inservice teachers' experiences within a university/school district teacher education partnership: Collaborative inquiry, generative tensions, and emergent praxis. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 136(December), 104362.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2023.104362>
- Stagg Peterson, S., Marks Krpan, C., Swartz, L., & Bennett, J. (2011). University faculty, colleagues and teachers' federation as mentors in collaborative action research. *McGill Journal of Education*, 45(2), 255–272. <https://doi.org/10.7202/045607ar>
- Stake, R. E. (2005). Qualitative case studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research* (3rd ed., pp. 443–466). Sage.
- Strom, K. J., & Viesca, K. M. (2021). Towards a complex framework of teacher learning-practice. *Professional Development in Education*, 47(2–3), 209–224.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2020.1827449>
- Talbert, J. E. (2009). Professional learning communities at the crossroads: How systems hinder or engender change. In *Second International Handbook of Educational Change* (Issue January 2009, pp. 555–570). <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-90-481-2660-6>
- Timperley, H., Kaser, L., & Halbert, J. (2014, April). *A framework for transforming learning in schools: Innovation and the spiral of inquiry*. Centre for Strategic Education, Seminar Series Paper No. 234.
<https://www.educationallleaders.govt.nz/content/download/74475/611763/file/Spiral%20of%20Inquiry%20Paper%20-%20Timperley%20Kaser%20Halbert.pdf>
- Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice: learning, meaning, and identity*. Cambridge University Press.

Wernicke, M. (2017). Navigating native-speaker ideologies as FSL teacher. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 73(2), 208–236. <https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.2951>

Yazan, B., & De Vasconcelos, I. C. O. (2016). Three approaches to case study methods in education: Yin, Merriam, and Stake. *Meta: Avaliacao*, 8(22), 149–182. <https://doi.org/10.22347/2175-2753v8i22.1038>

Chapter 4: The Defending Lens

Kaszuba (in press). The allure of professionalism: Teacher candidate subjectivity and resistance in neoliberal times. *Critical Education*.

Abstract

Multiple discourses circulate in society which construct a vision of what professionalism looks like for teachers. When these discourses are put into practice in initial teacher education programs, teacher candidates feel compelled to integrate them without critically examining their underlying assumptions. Based on a Foucauldian framework, this study explores how teacher candidates in an Ontario Faculty of Education interacted with the language of dominant discourses as they constructed a collective identity and practice while participating in voluntary, emergent learning communities. Three discourses of professionalism emerged in the practices of the candidates: the discourse of passion, of mental health and well-being, and of safety. Through notions such as best practices and ‘truth acts’, I discuss how the discourses shape the candidates’ subjectivity, and in doing so, limit possibilities for resistance.,

Key Words:

Neoliberalism, professionalism, initial teacher education, learning communities, practice of resistance, discourses

The Allure of Professionalism: Teacher Candidate Subjectivity and Resistance in Neoliberal Times

Introduction

With the rise of globalization, Canada has joined other countries in viewing education as a way to improve their economic competitiveness, and thus view teachers as pivotal to meeting these goals (Rigas & Kuchapski, 2018). In an effort to improve teacher quality, government attention has been directed at policies used to control the outcomes of initial teacher education (ITE) programs (Young & Boyd, 2010). Especially following the pandemic, policies have been created to reinforce normative discourses about the role of the teacher (Phelan & Morris, 2021). These discourses not only work to govern educational systems, but they also work to produce the teacher subject (Holloway & Brass, 2018).

Based on the premise of improving the professionalism of graduating candidates, policies built around corporate and management ideologies, such as accountability, have been integrated into ITE programs (Cochran-Smith et al., 2018). These policies circulate language which narrowly define the roles, relationships, and practices that candidates can adopt to construct how they think about their work (Ball, 2003). As these notions are unlikely to be questioned through traditional delivery approaches, which commonly feature in ITE programs, there is a risk that candidates are socialized into these managerial discourses and hierarchical relationships (Reid & O'Donaghue, 2004; Rigas & Kuchapski, 2018). While some studies have shown how such neoliberal discourses shape teachers' subjectivity (Hall & McGinity, 2015; Holloway & Brass, 2018), few, if any, have demonstrated in detail how this process unfolds for teacher candidates during their ITE program.

This study reports on data from an 8-month project conducted with teacher candidates in an Ontario ITE program. Candidates participated in learning communities (LC), where they engaged in self-led learning around a theme of their choice (Author, xxxx). Drawing on different forms of data, including video recordings, interviews, and observations, this study aimed to investigate how dominant discourses circulate in an ITE program and how candidates interact with them across learning contexts. While traditional learning structures diminish the role of teacher training to the acquisition of knowledge and techniques, this study examined how LCs offer spaces for candidates to resist dominant discourses through critical and collaborative discussions (Grimmett, 2021). This paper begins with a review of neoliberalism and the impacts of neoliberal reform on ITE. I then review common discourses of teacher professionalism in the Ontario context. Lastly, I describe how LCs can work to make space for candidates to resist against imposed subjectivities. The findings show mechanics that shape the subjectivity of the candidates, as well as gradations of resistance that participating they developed against the discourses as they constructed their professional identity in the LC. Although the LC model can allow for candidates' subjectivity-making process to become apparent, findings suggest that it does not automatically lead to resistant practices.

Literature Review

Over the past 30 years, educational systems have been impacted by neoliberalism as a dominant ideology and practice of government (Sahlberg, 2015). With the rise of the knowledge economy, governments have prioritized economic growth and efficiency as a way to compete with other countries on the global stage (Connell, 2013). Although neoliberalism takes on unique characteristics in different countries (Rigas & Kuchapski, 2018), governments generally hold the belief that education is an investment because it increases the productivity of individuals, and is

key to economic output (Tan, 2014). Thus, governing bodies implement reforms to open up public assets like education to the logic of the market (Hall, 2011). These reforms work through what Foucault calls governmentality, which is a form of control that emphasizes “governing from a distance by encouraging free conduct” (Joseph, 2013, p. 42). As part of these reforms, policymakers deploy different policy technologies to reorganize the public sector around the values, culture, and ethical systems of the private sector (Ball, 2003). In particular, these policy technologies function by encouraging individuals to be free to take responsibility for their own life choices while simultaneously shaping the conditions in which this freedom can be exercised (Johnson, 2013). Educational actors are governed to make choices consistent with competitive rules of conduct, such as monitoring their productivity, efficiency, and output.

Recent research explores how policymakers use discourses as a policy technology to compel teachers to adopt different ways of thinking about their professionalism (Morales Perlaza & Tardif, 2016; Morris et al., 2023). Drawing from Foucault, Moore and Clarke (2016) defined discourse as a “technology that not only delimits meanings but also attempts to construct realities and shape identities” (p. 672). They argued that policies disseminate discourses around professionalism which pre-define the ways in which teachers can think about their roles, relationships, and practices in educational systems. These policies reinforce the idea that professionalism is a non-negotiable yet essential characteristic of the good or effective teacher and offer standardized forms of professionalism as ways for teachers to assert their subjectivity (Ball, 2003; Moore & Clarke, 2016). As teachers act and learn in neoliberal systems, they ‘take up’ the logic of these discourses and their role in increasing the economic output of the state. While teachers might not agree with the forms of professionalism being offered, their desire to act and be seen as a professional coerces them to buy in to the neoliberal ways of thinking and

being, and they may even become “themselves the bearers and disseminators of discourse” (Moore & Clarke, 2016, p. 672).

A few studies have explored how the process of subjectivisation to dominant discourses unfolds in the teaching profession. Reviewing interview data from two previous studies, Hall and McGinity (2015) analyzed how neoliberal educational policy shaped the ways that teachers in the U.K. understood their work. In particular, they noticed how teachers accepted neoliberal reforms without much resistance. Even though teachers talked about their professionalism in relation to the concepts of trust and autonomy, in reality they constructed their professional identity around compliance and deference to authority. Similarly, the study by Holloway and Brass (2018) reanalyzed interview data from American teachers that were collected a decade apart. Looking at the data from a critical lens, they demonstrated how newer teachers openly embrace the concepts of marketization, management, and performativity in their construction of a subjectivity. They found that teachers used market ethics to define their value, placed the wellbeing of the students and the school above themselves, and accepted their place in the management hierarchy.

Despite the quasi-totalizing nature of neoliberal discourses, studies have shown that there are still spaces in which teachers can develop practices of ‘resistance’ or ‘counter-conduct’ against the imposed professionalism (Ball & Olmedo, 2013; Norman, 2023). As teachers confront the implications of official policy in practice, they encounter moments of contingency that allow them to assert their own ethical judgements, attitudes, and values that subvert the governing logics (Norman, 2023). While these studies demonstrate how *practicing* teachers embrace or resist against dominant discourses as they construct their subjectivity, few have shown how this process unfolds for teacher candidates (e.g. Kaszuba et al., 2024). This study

addresses the gap by examining how the discourse of professionalism is operationalized into ITE, and how candidates take it up as they establish a professional identity.

Neoliberalism, Specialized Technicians, and Ontario ITE. The impacts of neoliberal reforms have resulted in what Cochran-Smith et al. (2018) refer to as the ‘era of accountability’ in ITE programs. These programs, conceived as ‘graduate factories,’ are required to produce quality teachers by demonstrating evidence of their impact on the learning of both students and teacher candidates (Ell et al., 2019). Based on the assumption of a direct, causal relationship between teacher education and student learning, policies aim to pre-define the knowledge, skills and dispositions that candidates need to be efficient, and hold ITE programs accountable to train them accordingly (Cochran Smith et al., 2014). This instrumental and technocratic approach has reshaped the nature of teacher preparation, by reducing training to the acquisition of a set techniques related to the best practices defined by the state (Giroux, 2013). In the technocratic view, ITE programs train candidates as “specialized technicians,” who are expected to implement reform initiatives, observe official policy, and adopt pedagogical practices based on management, regulation, and control (Giroux, 2013; Grimmer, 2021).

Deriving from behavioural psychology, the specialized technician view conceptualizes teachers as actors “who gain the competencies within the scope of effective teaching, needs to be guided, controllable, and accountable, sticks to standards, and focuses on implementing more than thinking” (Sari & Yolcu, 2017, p. 14). The primary goal of the specialized technician is to promote student comprehension of content knowledge while not questioning assumptions underlying “knowledge, values, and identities that are produced with particular sets of classroom social relations” (Giroux, 2013, p. 461), the governing assumption being that all good teaching can be characterized by the same set of professional standards and practices (Connell, 2009;

Campbell, 2018). The result of this conceptualization ultimately limits candidates' autonomy as it prefigures how they understand the structure of relationships that they can establish with administration, colleagues, students, and themselves (Grimmett, 2021).

Consonant with the type of teacher work implied by the term, 'technician' takes its root in the Ancient Greek word *tekhnē* which signals an approach to reasoning where one develops effective procedures for achieving a pre-determined end (Carr, 2006). However, Foucault (2014) also locates *tekhnē* as a term used to describe governmentality deriving from Christian culture:

the expression of Technē technēs remains a typical, almost ritual expression by which the art of government is constantly characterized up until the seventeenth century: Technē technēs, supreme art, will designate political art in general, and it will designate especially the art of governing men in general, be this in the collective form of a political government, or in the individual form of spiritual direction... Technē technēs then is the art of directing souls (p. 51)

In this text, Foucault (2014) explored how Christianity developed the technique of governing people through processes which reorganized the relationship between truth and subjectivity. He argued that governance functioned through two regimes of truth, which were mechanisms by which individuals reproduced historically and socially constructed truths related to the religion: the first regime, 'faith', implied an individual's unquestioned obligation to believe in a truth; the second regime, 'confession' involved an individual reflecting and searching inside their soul to find and then exteriorize, or profess, a truth from within. This second regime of truth was a necessary act in the context of Christian governance, as confession compelled individuals to reproduce certain assertions "that [do] not belong exactly to the realm of the true or false" (Foucault, 2014, p. 96) By professing truths through confession, the individual constituted

themselves in relation to certain assumptions or practices consistent with Christianity's norms and values. Translated into modern terms, *technē technēs*, as a governmentality (Lemke, 2002) serves as a mechanism for establishing obedience by encouraging individuals to be 'free' to profess their truth, while simultaneously creating the conditions and assumptions associated with the regime of truth in which they make this confession. Thus, this form of governmentality compels technicians to assert their freedom and responsibility by committing truth acts which reproduce norms and values associated with the dominant discourse.

Acting under neoliberal pressures, candidates are socialized as specialized technicians as they interact with discourses of professionalism across different modalities in ITE (Evans, 2010). Program requirements compel candidates to understand value based on productivity and performance to standards, and guide them towards competitive and individualist practices (Kaszuba et al., 2024). Care becomes a contractual obligation as candidates are expected to put their students' interests above their own (Servage, 2009). Moreover, the time- and goal- bounded structure of ITE programs results in a notion of professionalism based on control and predictability (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009; Sanford et al., 2015). Candidates have less time to engage in first-order activities, such as informal collaboration, self-motivated inquiry, and critical reflection as they try to meet the demands of the second-order activities – documentation and assignments centered around performance management (Ball, 2003; Sanford et al., 2015). Professional experiences initiate candidates into the management hierarchy where they defer their autonomy to their practicum supervisors and principals (Cherubini, 2009). Candidates working in such systems become ontologically insecure, unsure whether they are doing enough or the right thing (Ball, 2003). Having this constant anxiety with oneself, they may find solace in the regime of truth presented by the discourses of professionalism – they cannot know

themselves about what it means to be professional, rather professional experiences in ITE create opportunities to for them commit truth acts to prove that they are discovering the prescribed truths of the profession (Foucault, 2014; Kaszuba et al., 2024).

In Ontario (the context of this study), it remains to be seen whether candidates are being trained as specialized technicians (Rigas & Kuchapski, 2018). The impact of neoliberal reform from the 1990s pervades provincial ITE policymaking today (Pinto, 2012). In a policy context of professionalization, the Ministry of Education set up the Ontario College of Teachers (OCT), effectively moving the locus of policy control away from institutions and into the hands of the profession (Morales Perlaza & Tardif, 2016). As part of their mandate, the OCT implemented a standards-based model of teacher knowledge which ITE programs needed to reflect in their programming in order to be accredited (Government of Ontario, 2013). Although the OCT may be autonomous, there is concern that this body acts as a mouthpiece for the government, circulating discourses of professionalism that are constructed around neoliberal priorities (Rigas & Kuchapski, 2018). In particular, the Ontario narrative provokes teachers' desire to be considered as professionals by linking their agency to the acquisition of professional capital, and thus contains their subjectivities as they buy into reform initiatives centered on competitiveness for the global economy (Morris et al., 2023). Although Ontario ITE programs are intended to support their candidates in developing practices of critical and collaborative inquiry, funding cuts have reduced their ability to do so (Rigas & Kuchapski, 2018). Current analyses on the impact of the professionalism discourse on Ontario ITE programs remains superficial (Morales Perlaza & Tardif, 2016), and this study responds to this issue by examining the internal activity of professional learning as well as how candidates interact with these discourses on a daily basis.

Discourse(s) of Professionalism. A discourse of professionalism with neoliberal roots is not monolithic – as it circulates, it diversifies into new contexts and develops new mechanisms of diffusion (Hall, 2011). Research has shown that discourses of professionalism in Ontario are circulated in three ways: through the mass media, national policies, and professional standards, and each vehicle characterizes this professionalism uniquely (Parker, 2017; Phelan & Morris, 2021). These discourses must be recontextualized into the policy of ITE programs, and then recontextualized again into the local practices of ITE actors (Moore & Clarke, 2016). In other words, these discourses undergo modifications as they are operationalized in the ITE program, which these modifications manifest as new ways of interacting or new ways of being (i.e. identities; Fairclough, 2013). It is through the operationalization of the discourse that candidates are subjectivised into the dominant discourse (Brant-Birioukov, 2020; Moore & Clarke, 2016). I explore three dominant discourses of professionalism below.

First, as part of teacher education’s era of accountability, one of the tools used to promote reform from a neoliberal lens was through the dominant narrative about the ‘crisis’ of education and the failure of teachers and teacher education (Cochran-Smith et al., 2018). Particularly in Ontario, the creating and selling of the crisis narrative was distributed and reinforced as a “brand” through mass media (Parker, 2017). This narrative was particularly effective because it built on the consensus that ‘teachers matter’, i.e. that teachers play the most important role in students’ achievement (Cochran-Smith et al., 2018). If this idea is held to be true, then the logic suggests that a professional is one who recognizes that their actions alone have the most significant impact on student learning, and a lack of student learning or classroom management can be attributed to failures of the teacher. This logic places teachers at the heart of the “risk/safety discourse” (Phelan & Morris, 2021), where they are considered both the cause of and

cure for education's ills. ITE practices reinforce the idea that the accomplished professional is an individual, but neglect to identify how performance must be attributed to collective efforts of all actors involved in schooling (Connell, 2009).

Second, high teacher attrition rates have been attributed to heavy personal and professional workloads with which Ontario teachers are increasingly burdened (Karsenti & Collin, 2013). Despite the intensification of neoliberalism in post-secondary contexts and the concomitant increase in self-reported mental health challenges (Rigas & Kuchapski, 2018; Best Practices in Canadian Higher Education, 2019), teacher self-care is not often featured as a core component of professional standards (Mansfield et al., 2016). The fact that teachers are overworked is taken up as part of a normative discourse in policy discussions. In their analysis of the Association Canadian Deans of Education (ACDE) position paper on post-pandemic recovery, Phelan and Morris (2021) noted how the paper frames the teacher (candidate) as self-sacrificing:

Teachers' "concerns" about workload are figured as individual factors enmeshed in what it means to be a teacher, neatly resolving any need for workload concerns to be recognized and taken up as a systemic problem (or as injustice). Self-sacrifice and a willingness to overwork are here lauded as "capabilities"—what teachers can do—that "government and post-secondary institutions" must then account for and harness in order to ensure that teachers continue "leading the educational response" (p. 49)

According to this narrative, being a professional means understanding that self-care is associated with individual factors and actions (i.e. eating healthy, getting enough sleep), rather than supporting candidates in understanding how contextual factors, like workload, can impede their successes at achieving well-being (Ainsworth & Oldfield, 2019).

Third, standards deploy rhetoric to inscribe the discourse of professionalism within other discourses, such as choice, responsibility, honesty, and collectivity (Moore & Clarke, 2016). In Ontario, the standards define the teacher in relation to the ‘learning community’ (LC), where they have an obligation to improve themselves through ongoing learning, engage in collaboration, and adhere to the pre-defined ethical standards. When ITE programs promote the idea that professional capital can only be acquired in this way, candidates participate in LCs as a way to perform their professionalism, without actually demonstrating the qualities of care, respect, trust, and reciprocity (Kasuzba et al., 2024). Although the LC can serve neoliberal priorities, other conceptualizations offer spaces for candidates to develop practices of resistance (Grimmett, 2021). Below, I explore these contrasting views of LCs and describe how they inform the methodological framework of this study.

Learning Communities and Practices of Resistance. LCs have been widely adopted as an organizational structure in ITE to socialize teacher candidates into the practices of the profession (Le Cornu, 2016). However, not all LCs are the same. In their review of the literature, Vangrieken et al. (2017) distinguish between ‘formal’ and ‘formative’ LCs. In the former, often delivered as professional learning workshops, the teacher is treated as a technician by a learning structure based on “pre-set goals directed towards achieving the targets set by the educational standards by the time the [community] stops its activity” (p. 52). In contrast, ‘formative’ LCs might be described as an emergent phenomenon where actors spontaneously interact and develop relationships through mutual engagement in activities which involve “collaborative inquiry” (DeLuca et al., 2015) over an extended period of time. These formative communities support practices of resistance, as they “take the form of an alternative (to neoliberalist policy dictates) figured world that proposes and authorizes a discourse of professionalism and pedagogy framed

around teacher-initiated inquiry and ongoing collegial deliberations” (Grimmett, 2021, p. 154). With support, formative LCs open spaces which allow candidates to author an identity based on their own distinctive ethical framework, to make explicit the discourses informing these identities, and to develop collaborative practices that align with that identity (Johnson & Golombek, 2020).

Candidates enact practices of resistance when they recognize the contingency of professional learning and put their ethical framework into practice (Ball, 2016; Fenwick, 2012). Candidates may question assumptions underlying the dominant narratives (Giroux, 2013). Candidates may engage in disidentification, a process of “managing and negotiating but not assimilating nor rejecting dominant ideology” (Phelan & Morris, 2021, p. 53). They may also be empowered to take risks which require themselves to step outside of their sense of self within the hierarchical relations of the ITE program (Ball & Olmedo, 2013). In a formative LC, candidates may seek out collaborative and critical relationships with colleagues, and collectively reflect on how their practices may have unintended outcomes, such that they are unjust, unproductive, or unsustainable, using these reflections as a means for next steps of action (Kemmis et al., 2014). This conceptualization of the formative LC, and the possibility it offers for resistance, informs the methodology of this study. By analyzing the candidates’ practices, this study investigates the gradations of adoption and rejection of the neoliberal discourses by teacher candidates in the professionalization process, and the place of the formative LC within that resistance. In particular, this study responds to the following research question:

1. To what extent do candidates develop practices of resistance against discourses of professionalism in a formative LC?

Methodology

Context. In the province of Ontario, the standards of professionalism require that ITE programs help develop teacher candidates in the following two areas: “members promote and participate in the creation of collaborative, safe and supportive learning communities”; and “members refine their professional practice through ongoing inquiry, dialogue and reflection” (Ontario College of Teachers [OCT], n.d.). Building on these standards, the faculty of education at which this study took place develops the conceptual framework of the ITE program around ‘communities of inquiry.’ The accreditation document (OCT, 2020) suggests that candidates participate in several polymorphous LCs – during courses, practicum, or outside the institution – wherein participation allows candidates to develop their skills of collaborative inquiry and professional collaboration.

With this framework in mind, I invited teacher candidates to participate in voluntary formative LCs outside of the ITE program’s expectations. The intention of these formative communities was to “open a space in which we might begin to understand the daily experiences” of candidates during ITE, where their identities and “the power relations in which the [candidate] is imbricated come to the fore” (Ball & Olmedo, 2013, p. 86). Although these communities offer a space for practices of resistance, their unpredictable nature does not guarantee that candidates will be able to “take an active role in their own self-definition as a ‘teaching subject’” (Ball & Olmedo, 2013, p. 86). It is through analyzing their practices that I aimed to trace how candidates encounter discourses in the program, and how they associate with them as they construct a professional identity. In addition to observations of different learning events during the program (i.e., courses, workshops), I collected data through video recordings of the LC meetings and interviews with participants. As an “insider in collaboration with other insiders” (Gibbs et al., 2017, p. 10), I facilitated these meetings and kept a researcher journal to track my ongoing

reflections during the project. The names of participants and formative LCs are indicated in Table 4.

TABLE 4: List of participants in each LC and enrollment details (abridged)

Names of the formative learning communities, participants, their year of study, and concentration.

Only participants mentioned in the findings of Article 3 are listed.

| Formative learning community | Members/participants | Year of study | Concentration |
|--|----------------------|-----------------|---------------------|
| FWF LC – Fun with French | Priyanka | 1st | Primary/junior |
| | Tran | 1st | Primary/junior |
| | Sarah | 1st | Primary/junior |
| UDL LC – Universal Design for Learning “nUDLers” | Flora | 1st | Primary/junior |
| | Ming | 2 nd | Primary/junior |
| MHW LC – Mental Health Warriors | Eli | 1st | Primary/junior |
| CM LC – Classroom Management | Georgia | 1st | Intermediate/senior |
| | Cheyenne | 1st | Primary/junior |
| | Thomas | 1st | Primary/junior |
| | Dominique | 1st | Primary/junior |

Data Analysis. The methodology of this study is informed by the Foucauldian analysis developed by Stephen Ball (Ball & Olmedo, 2013) and contextualized into an extended case study. In this framework, an analysis focuses on “practices, with the aim of grasping the conditions which make these acceptable at any given moment” (Foucault, 1991, p. 75). I began data analysis using Kemmis et al.’s “invention for analyzing practices” (2014, p. 39). As they

explain, this table is divided into elements of practice which provide “a set of topics or viewing platforms from which to consider a practice as it happens” (p. 224). This tool was useful as a heuristic because it allowed for different forms of data (i.e. interviews, LC meetings, observations) to be analyzed in same the way. I identified key episodes in the data which were characteristic of the sayings, doings, and relatings of the candidates’ practice. Thereafter, I reanalyzed the data using an “approach [which] takes as a starting point specific forms of resistance” (Ball & Olmedo, 2013, p. 86). In particular, the aim was to identify a “set of cases that represent a particular type of struggle against/with” (Ball & Olmedo, 2013, p. 86) the discourses of professionalism.

To create contrast between the different practices that candidates encountered during the study, the analysis adopted the logic of an extended case study (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014). Whereas traditional case studies “bound the case” and study phenomenon within those boundaries (Stake 1995), extended case studies seek to study the interdependencies that occur across boundaries in a system. In the context of ITE, by studying different LCs, the goal is to trace “relationships between ideas and learning opportunities and exploring the links that are created among the different parts of the program” (Cochran-Smith et al., 2016, p. 75). By focusing on these relationships rather than individual elements, more emphasis is placed on the collective practice of candidates over individual practices, and how these are shaped by the learning environment (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014). Centering the extended case study around the formative LCs, I analyzed the episodes to identify key ones where candidates expressed incoherent subjectivities within the different program structures (Creswell, 2013; Jackson & Mazzei, 2013) and compared how thoughts or actions associated with these subjectivities emerged crossed boundaries. In the findings section, I “plug in” the theory to the data in an effort

to create new understandings about how data and theory inform one another (Jackson & Mazzei, 2013).

Findings

As ITE actors recontextualize the discourses of professionalism through their local practices, these discourses take on new forms, shapes, and produce new identities and ways of interacting (Moore & Clarke, 2016). In this section, I organize the findings around three topics which characterize how the discourses became operationalized in ITE: passion, mental health and well-being, and safety. The episodes provide examples of how candidates encounter each discourse, and then how candidates took it up in their practice during the formative LCs.

Teachers Matter: The Discourse of Passion. Across the professional learning opportunities in the ITE program, there was one episode where the ‘teachers matter’ discourse was particularly salient. This episode occurred during one of the workshops that the candidates had planned as part of their goal in relation to the formative LC. Candidates had invited a teacher-professor to come and present a workshop on their practices around equity, diversity and inclusion. During this workshop, the presenter began by saying that effective teachers need to be ‘passionate’ and then required each participant to verbalize what their passion was for teaching. As I reflected in my research journal:

Teacher candidates were expected to profess their passion, that they would only be successful if they have a passion for teaching... she [also] said that all teachers have superpowers. Cheyanne shared a story about how, in Cameroon, she paid for a students’ tuition when the students’ parents were no longer able to afford it. This action was praised... We celebrate failure of the system through examples of mutual support such as this for services which should already be available (Research journal entry – 2023.01.28)

During this workshop, candidates were confronted with the ‘teachers matter’ discourse, operationalized as the maxim ‘teachers must have a passion’ in order to be effective. The presenter interpellated candidates to make a truth act (Foucault, 2014) about their passion by sharing a story or justification to prove that they were finding this truth. There was little resistance to the individualizing and contextual nature of this discourse: when Cheyanne shared her story about how her passion informed her actions, the presenter praised this action instead of triggering a collaborative reflection about the socio-educational differences between Canada and Cameroon that lead to such an outcome (Apple, 2011). The discourse plays on the candidates’ desire to be seen as a professional through their passion (Moore & Clarke, 2016). The problematic outcome of this logic is that if a candidate fails or is ineffective, then it is because they did not have *enough* passion, placing blame on their individual practices.

During one of the formative LC sessions, there was a poignant moment which illustrated the “double-edged sword” (Cochran-Smith et al., 2018) of the teachers matter discourse. One of the candidates referred to the notion of passion as a way to shame and blame her colleagues’ lack of competency:

- Tran** You need to...be engaging, a teacher who is invested in what you're doing. Je pense trop souvent [I think that often], teachers, they're just here for their money or a good vacation. And I think that takes away from the teaching.
- Priyanka** I don't know anyone who works for the government that says, "I love my job!". But I do think that if you want to impact the lives of children and make them better people in general, you need to be in it.
- Tran** It's the nature of the job. You can do your government work without being [invested].

Priyanka Can you really say that [government workers] make a big difference?

Tran Often you find the people who burn out tend to be the ones who aren't...as invested maybe, or one foot in one foot out. So you always see the negatives. This is not to say that great, amazing teachers don't burn out too, but I find...si tu commences avec une idée comme negative [if you start with a negative idea], you're already in a downwards spiral. But if you're with the marigolds, or if you try to be a marigold, you surround yourself with positive thinkers, people who encourage, people who support. Then chances are you're doing better at your job (FwF LC #3)

This episode demonstrates how candidates adopt the discourse of passion as they construct their professional identity, and how the discourse creates social cleavages through judgement, competition, and toxic positivity (Ball, 2003; Lemke, 2002). Using binaries (e.g. positive/negative thinkers), Tran blames teachers for being lazy and not choosing the profession for the right reasons, rather than reflecting on how the system can lead teachers to feel demotivated or disinvested. At this moment in the ITE program, Tran's takes up the discourse to reflect on her experiences in practicum and develop a sense of self. Tran constructs her vision of the professional as one who is invested and always positive, as these traits supposedly provide safeguards against burnout. She aggrandizes teachers' work over other professions, and this falls back on the idea that teachers are passionate, that teachers matter – as Tran clarifies, “it's the nature of the job.”

This moment of tension reveals how candidates assume the idea that professionalism requires a consistently positive outlook and investment in what they do. The desire to be seen as a professional means “they may need to convince *themselves* of the possibility of helping to

bring about the better world they envision, in spite of the fact that [neoliberal policy] may be working against the realization of that vision” (Moore & Clarke, 2016, p. 669). At the same time, the discourse of the passionate teacher demands that they create hierarchies of value between their professional situation and others. Passion and investment become metrics for candidates to judge colleagues and “call out those who reveal themselves to be less than ‘professional’” (Morris et al., 2023, p. 533). In this process, the teachers matter discourse is assumed by candidates in their construction of a professional identity. Although the LC created a space for candidates to make their professional identity explicit, this episode demonstrates how candidates did not resist or disidentify with the dominant narratives. They did not reflect on the wider socio-political context and how these conditions shape the nature of teachers’ work and limit alternate possibilities for being. As described further in the next section, the discourse of passion masks critical discussions around the causes of teacher burnout, mental health, and well-being.

Teachers are Self-Sacrificing: The Discourse of Mental Health and Well-Being. During the program, there was a ‘formal’ LC (i.e., workshop) offered to candidates on how to manage their mental-health and well-being. During the one-hour session, candidates listened to a presenter talk about ways for them to address these issues through self-care. Following the workshop, there were two contrasting episodes which showed how the discourse of mental-health and workload is picked up by candidates in the construction of a professional identity. For Flora, she referenced the ideas delivered during that workshop:

So my goal...it's actually really interesting because yesterday I went to a presentation about well-being and we were talking about how we have so many hats to wear as a teacher, how do we put ourselves first even though we want to keep working, we want to keep doing more, there's always something extra we can do to help our students. But at

what point do we need to say, I need to stop, so we can give ourselves the time to rest, and give our best the next day. For me, it kind of looks like healthy eating, healthy sleep.

(Flora – Interview #1)

As seen in this episode, Flora uses the language of self-sacrifice to describe how self-care techniques can increase her productivity as a teacher. Flora embraces the language of the dominant discourse by constructing her notion of professionalism around the norm of the teacher who is willing to overwork. She commits a truth act (Foucault, 2014) by confessing that teachers “want to keep doing more”. She then inserts herself into the discourse by constructing personal goals for herself centered around this truth. In contrast, one of the candidates, Eli, struggles with mental health concerns already, and recognized the problematic way in which the workshops framed self-care:

[The facilitator] did a presentation [on] self-care, but it really wasn't that great for me because he just listed...what you can do for your mental health as a teacher. And it was kind of just the stuff that I already do. Like I do yoga, I have a diffuser, I have meditation. And I basically just left that workshop and I was wondering, what is the school going to do for us if we have a mental breakdown? So if I need a break as an elementary school teacher, are they going to recognize that we all have mental health problems, burnout, all that stuff? Or are they just going to say have a gratitude journal and go to yoga. (Eli – Interview #1)

In this episode, Eli is beginning to disidentify with the dominant discourse as she questions how the notions of self-care presented in the workshop prefigures the way teachers can think about mental health. The workshop shifts the responsibility for social risks such as mental health “into the domain for which the individual is responsible and transforming it into a problem of ‘self-

care” (Lemke, 2002, p. 59). In other words, mental health challenges and feeling overworked is part of one’s professionalism (Phelan & Morris, 2021) and can be neatly resolved by resorting to these individual self-care techniques. In this sense, teacher candidates are technicians who implement self-care ‘best practices’ to ensure that they can maintain their productivity and value to the state. Moreover, mental health and self-care is packaged into content which is delivered during one-off workshops such as these, rather than treated as an ongoing issue. As Eli attested, the content provided during the workshop did not help candidates reflect on the school’s or school board’s role in supporting teachers’ mental health, nor the wider social context which leads teachers to face mental health challenges in the first place.

In contrast to the workshop, there were a few notable discussions around mental health during the formative community meetings. Eli had initiated an LC around mental health and candidates discussed the purpose of why such a community was important. Candidates mentioned the importance of treating mental health as an ongoing issue which demands relationship building, reflection, and sharing between colleagues.

But I think it's important for us to maybe just have an open space to talk about practicum experiences, especially when we're in the heart of it. And also asking how are you guys feeling? What kind of strategies are you using to kind of combat the stress of the job?

Now that we've actually got a little bit of exposure, have a conversation about coping.

(Georgia – MHW LC #2)

After these discussions, candidates felt empowered to move to action, as they planned a movie night to watch *Inside Out* (Docter, 2015) and use it as a springboard to reflect on the implications for their own mental health. In this sense, the formative community allowed for candidates to begin resisting against the way that the dominant discourse frames mental health concerns.

Having this autonomy was a contributing factor to some candidates' well-being: "the [LC] is something that is for my well-being...it's important to think of taking time for yourself, but at the same time the [LC] has that secondary function of being a supportive community that I can turn to if I'm not having a great day" (Thomas – Interview #2). As seen in these responses, the move from reflection to action demonstrates how this type of LC might enable candidates to develop practices of resistance. The formative community created spaces for them to feel safe as they problematized the dominant discourse, reflected on their ethical framework, and activated alternate forms of professionalism through their practices.

Teachers Maintain Control: The Discourse of Safety. In another 'formal' LC, candidates attended a workshop presentation focused on their responsibilities concerning classroom safety. During the presentation, they learned about the ongoing concerns regarding increasing levels of violence in Ontario classrooms since the pandemic (Elementary Teachers' Federation of Ontario, 2023). Thomas summarized how the candidates' role in safety was presented to him:

There was a lot of talking about documentation, talking about forms, talking about what your responsibilities as a teacher are with safety and having a safety mindset and it seems like a lot of really important information, but how you actually see that in practice is harder to figure out (Thomas - CM LC #4)

As seen in this episode, Thomas evokes the long-standing issue of the theory-practice divide in teacher education (Korthagen et al., 2001). The way that the candidates learn about safety reinforces their role as technicians as they come to understand safety issues through "the separation of conception from execution [and] the standardization of school knowledge" (Giroux, 2013, p. 461). As a truth act (Foucault, 2014), candidates feel compelled to confess their

commitment to care for students (Servage, 2009) by acknowledging the necessity of a “safety mindset”. In this framing, professionalism means knowing the best practices associated with disciplinary behaviours and the ‘second-order activities’ (i.e. documentation; Ball, 2003) related to safety, and having this knowledge will supposedly translate to their practicum contexts.

Expanding on Thomas’ concerns, another candidate mentioned that the workshop does not cover the breadth of harassment that she had experienced: “[The workshop] was very specific to aggressive violence. What about verbal aggression? If a student says that you're an [expletive]...how do you respond to that in an appropriate way?” (Ming – UDL LC #5).

Candidates want to know what it means to be professional when dealing with specific situations of physical violence and harassment, but since safety is framed as standardized school knowledge, they avoid critical discussions around these topics. As Thomas observed,

I would probably not talk with other teacher candidates about [safety] because, one, unless something bad happens at your school, there's not really a need to or a desire to do so; and, two, everyone knows how important safety is. And because of that, everyone already has an idea of how it should be done. And those ideas are usually reinforced by the policies at the school. And because everyone is at different schools, or even different school boards, it varies. So I wouldn't necessarily want to talk about these things

(Thomas – Interview #2)

In this framing, Thomas demonstrates how the ideas presented by the safety discourse prefigure his relationships with his peers. Following the premise that “good teachers observe official policy without question” (Grimmett, 2021, p. 136), he acknowledges that candidates may feel disallowed to make any statement which contradicts the permitted truth acts defined by the professional standards and policies, as such explicit statements may indicate that the candidate is

not on the path to finding this truth of professionalism. In contrast, the formative community provided a setting for candidates to begin trying out new professional identities and relationships as they discussed those unsayable things:

But in the [LC], there's no risk. There's an opportunity to talk about things that you don't necessarily talk about...I don't think there are like any real rules related to these [LCs]. So there's more freedom to explore things that you might not necessarily explore in a normal conversation with your peers (Thomas – Interview #2)

Interestingly, although Thomas uses “risk-free” language to describe the formative LCs, his description of them demonstrates possibilities for risk-taking (Biesta, 2016). In many of the formative LCs, candidates freely recalled their experiences and approaches to classroom safety, creating a mutual dialogue and collaborative thinking around their concerns. Many of the candidates described their role as they recounted these experiences:

We have had a student who is like a safety concern. In those situations, my job is honestly just making sure that the class can continue and is running smoothly, to get the class back on track. And we have normally have the principal or EA deal with that particular child (Dominique – CM LC #4)

We had stressful situations in the past two weeks. I had to evacuate my classroom six times because we had a violent student. Grade one...imagine, six times! But my AT was like, ‘Oh, you're so calm and collected’. But it's because I was a manager, and I was a director. So I'm used to being put in these types of situations (Sarah – Interview #2)

As we can see in the examples, these situations were crucial moments in the construction of the candidates’ sense of professionalism. Dominique describes her response to such disruptions as “getting the class back on track” – i.e., minimizing the impact of disruptions on classroom

productivity. For Sarah, despite recognizing the absurd quantity of disruptions, her identity as a manager is legitimized (Servage, 2009) in how she handled the stressful situations. In both of these cases, rather than critically reflecting on what happened, the candidates must insert themselves into the discourse by acknowledging their commitment to care for students through the safety protocols and by deferring to the organizational hierarchy.

Although the formative community created a space for candidates to process traumatic events like these and reflect on the actions of all involved actors, the discourse and policy around safety limits the field of action. Candidates act as technicians when they rely on the transmission of knowledge from documents or from more experienced individuals to address these concerns. At no point during the formative community did candidates reflect on “what kind of safety is desirable and at which point the desire for safety becomes uneducational” (Biesta, 2016, p. 2), nor on the larger social context and issues which result in classroom violence becoming normalized.

Discussion & Implications

In teacher education’s era of accountability, the dominance of neoliberal thinking over educational governance is increasing in many Western contexts (Cochran-Smith et al., 2018; Rigas & Kuchapski, 2018). Political bodies intervene into ITE by designing policies to ensure students have access to ‘quality’ teachers who are equipped with a laundry list of competencies and skills (Campbell, 2023). As ITE programs try to meet the list of requirements, some of the content is delivered through traditional formats like the formal LC. In this study, it was evident that the formal LC generated and validated specific discourses of professionalism and ways of knowing which influenced candidate’s vision of teacher work in line with the notion of the specialized technician. Consistent with findings in other studies, many of the candidates not only

integrated the language of the discourse in their construction of a professional identity, they often left underlying assumptions, official policy, and organizational relationships unquestioned (Hall & McGinity, 2015; Holloway & Brass, 2018; Kaszuba et al., 2024). The ability to implement teaching practices based on management, regulation, and control (Giroux, 2013) was most evident in the discourse of safety. Moreover, as mental health becomes a prominent topic in ITE, the specialized technician may also feel responsible to manage their well-being (Lemke, 2002) through standardized approaches so that they remain accountable to the government's investment in them.

In this study, I have endeavored to show how neoliberal discourses are operationalized in an ITE program. The episodes presented here, centered around the narratives of passion, mental health and well-being, and safety, reveal the multifaceted face of professionalism discourse and how it works to delimit meanings and pre-shape the subjectivity of candidates in line with that of the specialized technician (Moore & Clarke, 2016). Not only does this happen through promoting teacher work as the acquisition and implementation of standardized skills and best practices, this analysis shows that neoliberal interventions into ITE also compel candidates to make truth acts (Foucault, 2014). I elaborate on this idea in the next section.

Professionalization as truth acts. A technique of governance in Christian cultures involved the interpellation of truth acts, where institutional gatekeepers compelled individuals to exteriorize their truths as a way to legitimize themselves in the eyes of the institution, and in doing so, reproduce the assumptions associated with those truths. As Foucault (2014) argued, this interpellation forms the basis of subjectivity in Western societies:

this obligation to tell the truth has never ceased to exist in Christian culture, and probably in Western societies. We are obliged to speak of ourselves in order to tell the truth of

ourselves. In this obligation to speak about oneself you can see the eminent place taken by discourse. Putting oneself in discourse is in actual fact one of the major driving forces in the organization of subjectivity and truth relationships in the Christian West... There will always have to be this inflection of the subject towards its own truth through the intermediary of perpetually putting oneself into discourse (p. 311)

As secular as they may intend to be, ITE programs and actors in Western contexts are historically conditioned in part by Christian approaches to subjectivity. Thus, it is appropriate to extend the operationalization of the specialized technician so that it includes the notion of governance through truth acts. Put simply, in addition to shaping teacher candidates as specialized technicians through best practices and means-end reasoning (Carr, 2006), the subjectivization of candidates also has recourse to a technique which compels them to commit truth acts to reproduce the discourses of professionalism. Professional standards circumscribe the scope of professionalism, such that the ‘professional’ teacher is defined as one who is active and responsible; then, professional experiences in ITE create opportunities for candidates to demonstrate this responsibility through more or less explicit forms of confession, whereby candidates put on display their truths, and the associated norms and values, to show that they are on the recognized path to professionalism. This process was most evident during the workshop where the expert required candidates to profess and justify their passion for teaching contingent on specific parameters around the notion of passion. Similarly, candidates professed their commitment to care for students (Servage, 2009) by inscribing themselves and their actions into the safety discourse and by acknowledging which statements contradict the permitted truth acts, and thus the permitted norms and values, of professionals. To be clear, these truth acts are a form of performativity, in the sense that candidates “learn to talk about [themselves] and the

relationships, purposes and motivations in these new ways” (Ball, 2003, p. 218). But while performativity may be “new” to the twenty-first century educational landscape, it is certainly not new to the collective conscience of the Christian West. By situating Western ITE programs within their historical context, it is possible to view the technique of governance through truth acts as indirectly exploiting a pre-existing framework for a regime of truth already established within educational actors. Candidates – whether they are domestic or international – may arrive at the program with this socio-cognitive framework of truth which can then be reactivated as they begin developing a notion of professionalism. In doing so, the truth acts limit resistance and ensure the candidates’ compliance to neoliberal priorities.

Co-evolving discourses of professionalism and possibilities for resistance. This study shows that by analyzing the discourses of professionalism in the plural, we may begin to understand how they function to limit resistance. Each of the different narratives – passion, mental health, safety – predefines a particular structure of relationships which a candidate is expected to establish with superiors, colleagues, students, and themselves when addressing issues related to that topic. In this sense, each narrative presents a set of pre-defined social relations, and each set of social relations functions as its own system, with a spatial and temporal reach beyond ITE, rather than as a ‘part’ of the ITE program (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014; Walby, 2021). As the discourses of professionalism presented by mass media, policies, and standards interact in ITE, they may coevolve to produce new neoliberal subjectivities and barriers to resistance. It is at the intersection of these multiple overlapping systems that candidates construct their identity as professionals. Even if candidates are able to begin developing a practice of resistance against the narrative of mental health and well-being, for example, they still must contend with how they position their professional identity, and what it means to resist, relative to

the circulating notions of passion and safety. They may feel inclined to invest their energy in questioning a set of relations required by one of the discourse systems, yet remain uncritical to the set of relations offered by the others. In this way, the “individual energies and potential for resistance are absorbed” (Morris et al., 2023, p. 533) as candidates are compelled to develop their professional capital in line with the multiple discourse systems.

If we hope to support candidates in the development of a practice of resistance, it is important to ask what a professional identity may look like for candidates who disidentify with the dominant discourses. Would questioning the unintended outcomes of a blind passion, self-care techniques, or some safety protocol risk candidates “exposing [them]selves to censure or ridicule or marginalization?” (Ball, 2016, p. 1141). What happens when the candidates’ practices of resistance or truth acts conflict with the ITE programs’ performance and graduation expectations? As Connell (2009) questioned, “would a student teacher who concluded that the current system...actively interferes with learning...meet the professional standard?” (p. 219). Further studies might continue to explore how the formative community model may support candidates through the disidentification process.

It is important to note that many of the discourses of professionalism were encountered during workshops. In the context of this study, the program expected candidates to attend these ‘formal’ LCs, based on the premise that they are a means for them to develop and demonstrate their responsibility to ongoing learning. Dressed in such a discourse, these workshops “take on something of the function of a Trojan horse that includes within its terms of acceptance an agreement...to the implementation of certain externally imposed curricula” (Moore & Clarke, 2016, p. 674) – in this case, in line with Ontario’s educational standards. These instantiations of inquiry are a common professional learning approach that risks limiting new teachers’ adoption

of a critical inquiry stance (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009). In contrast, the formative LCs opened spaces for candidates to begin developing a practice of resistance by sharing experiences, discussing concerns, and expressing opinions that they may not have felt at liberty to do at other moments with their colleagues. In the case of mental health, candidates revealed a remarkable capacity to resist the normative discourse by asserting their ethical framework through action and planning a learning event for their colleagues (Ball, 2016). However, self-led learning was not always to their benefit: as seen in the discourse of passion, the workshop that the candidates planned resulted in them inviting a guest speaker who reinforced a neoliberal technique of the self with regard to professionalism. Although these formative LCs functioned as a counter-balance to other professional experiences, further support to develop candidates' critical inquiry is still necessary for them to reflect on deeply entrenched myths about the teacher's role which continue to permeate teacher education programs (Grimmett, 2021). Rather than promoting the idea that all LCs are equal and beneficial, it may be prudent to guide candidates in the evaluation of LCs, so that they can apply their critical inquiry skills to their professional learning experiences.

References

- Ainsworth, S., & Oldfield, J. (2019). Quantifying teacher resilience: Context matters. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 82, 117–128. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2019.03.012>
- Anderson, A. L., & Marshall, C. (2009). *Activist educators: breaking past limits*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203892589>
- Apple, M. W. (2011). Global crises, social justice, and teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 62(2), 222–234. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487110385428>

- Ball, S. J. (2003). The teacher's soul and the terrors of performativity. *Journal of Education Policy*, 18(2), 215–228. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0268093022000043065>
- Ball, S. J. (2016). Subjectivity as a site of struggle: refusing neoliberalism? *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 37(8), 1129–1146. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01425692.2015.1044072>
- Ball, S. J., & Olmedo, A. (2013). Care of the self, resistance and subjectivity under neoliberal governmentalities. *Critical Studies in Education*, 54(1), 85–96. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17508487.2013.740678>
- Best Practices in Canadian Higher Education. (2019). *An Environmental Scan of Canadian Campus Mental Health Strategies*. Toronto, ON: Author. <https://bp-net.ca/program/an-environmental-scan-of-canadian-campus-mental-health-strategies/>
- Brant-Birioukov, K., Ng-A-Fook, N., Kane, R. (2020). Reconceptualization teacher education in Ontario: Civic particularity, ethical engagement, and reconciliation (chp. 2). In R. Kane, Ng-A-Fook, N., W.F. Pinar, A.M. Phelan (eds.) *Reconceptualizing teacher education: A Canadian contribution to a global challenge* (pp. 39–66). University of Ottawa Press. <https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctvxcr8wz>
- Biesta, G. J. J. (2016). *The Beautiful Risk of Education*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/https://doi-org.proxy.bib.uottawa.ca/10.4324/9781315635866>
- Campbell, C. (2018). Developing teacher leadership and collaborative professionalism to flip the system: Reflections from Canada. In D.M. Netolicky, J. Andrews & C Paterson (Eds.), *Flip the System Australia: What Matters in Education* (pp. 74–84). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429429620>

- Cherubini, L. (2009). Teacher candidates' perceptions of school organization: Fundamental inconsistencies between expectations and experiences. *McGill Journal of Education*, 44(2), 213–228. <https://doi.org/10.7202/039033ar>
- Cochran-Smith, M., Carney, M. C., Keefe, E. S., Burton, S., Wen-Chia Chang, Fernandez, M. B., Miller, A. F., Sanchez, J. G. & Baker, M. (2018). *Reclaiming accountability in teacher education*. Teachers College Press.
- Cochran-Smith, M., Ell, F., Grudnoff, L., Haigh, M., Hill, M., & Ludlow, L. (2016). Initial teacher education: What does it take to put equity at the center? *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 57, 67–78. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2016.03.006>
- Cochran-Smith, M., Ell, F., Ludlow, L., Grudnoff, L., & Aitken, G. (2014). The challenge and promise of complexity theory for teacher education research. *Teachers College Record*, 116(4), 1–38. <https://doi.org/10.1177/016146811411600407>
- Cochran-Smith, M. & Lytle, S. L. (2009). Teacher research as stance. In S. E. Noffke & B. Somekh (Eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Educational Action Research* (pp. 39–49). Sage Publications. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9780857021021.n2>
- Connell, R. (2009). Good teachers on dangerous ground: Towards a new view of teacher quality and professionalism. *Critical Studies in Education*, 50(3), 213–229. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17508480902998421>
- Connell, R. (2013). The neoliberal cascade and education: An essay on the market agenda and its consequences. *Critical Studies in Education*, 54(2), 99–112. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17508487.2013.776990>
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Qualitative Inquiry & Research Design* (3rd ed.). Sage.

- DeLuca, C., Shulha, J., Luhanga, U., Shulha, L. M., Christou, T. M., & Klinger, D. A. (2015). Collaborative inquiry as a professional learning structure for educators: a scoping review. *Professional Development in Education, 41*(4), 640–670. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2014.933120>
- Docter, P. (Director) (2015). *Inside Out* [Film]. Walt Disney Pictures and Pixar Animation Studios.
- Elementary Teachers' Federation of Ontario (2023). *ETFO member survey shows violence pervasive in schools*. Retrieved from <https://www.etfo.ca/news-publications/media-releases/etfo-member-survey-shows-violence-pervasive-in-schools>
- Ell, F., Simpson, A., Mayer, D., McLean Davies, L., Clinton, J., & Dawson, G. (2019). Conceptualising the impact of initial teacher education. *Australian Educational Researcher, 46*(1), 177–200. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13384-018-0294-7>
- Evans, L. (2010). Professionals or technicians? Teacher preparation programs and occupational understandings. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice, 16*(2), 183–205. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13540600903478458>
- Fairclough, N. (2013). Critical discourse analysis and critical policy studies. *Critical Policy Studies, 7*(2), 177–197. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19460171.2013.798239>
- Fenwick, T. (2012). Complexity science and professional learning for collaboration: A critical reconsideration of possibilities and limitations. *Journal of Education and Work, 25*(1), 141–162. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13639080.2012.644911>
- Foucault, M. (1991). Question of method. In G. Burchell, C. Gordon, & P. Miller (Eds.), *The Foucault Effect: Studies in Governmentality* (pp. 73–86). The University of Chicago Press.

- Foucault, M. (2014). *On the government of the living: Lectures at the Collège de France, 1979-1980*. Picador.
- Gibbs, P., Cartney, P., Wilkinson, K., Parkinson, J., Cunningham, S., James-Reynolds, C., Zoubir, T., Brown, V., Barter, P., Sumner, P., MacDonald, A., Dayananda, A., & Pitt, A. (2017). Literature review on the use of action research in higher education. *Educational Action Research*, 25(1), 3–22. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09650792.2015.1124046>
- Giroux, H. A. (2013). Neoliberalism's war against teachers in dark times. *Cultural Studies - Critical Methodologies*, 13(6), 458–468. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1532708613503769>
- Grimmett, P. P. (2021). *Restoring soul, passion, and purpose in teacher education*. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003057345>
- Hall, D., & McGinity, R. (2015). Conceptualizing teacher professional identity in neoliberal times: Resistance, compliance and reform. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 23(88), 1–21. <https://doi.org/10.14507/epaa.v23.2092>
- Holloway, J., & Brass, J. (2018). Making accountable teachers: the terrors and pleasures of performativity. *Journal of Education Policy*, 33(3), 361–382. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02680939.2017.1372636>
- Jackson, A. Y., & Mazzei, L. A. (2013). Plugging one text into another: Thinking with theory in qualitative research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 19(4), 261–271. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077800412471510>
- Johnson, K. E., & Golombek, P. R. (2020). Informing and transforming language teacher education pedagogy. *Language Teaching Research*, 24(1), 116–127. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168818777539>

- Joseph, J. (2013). Resilience as embedded neoliberalism: a governmentality approach. *Resilience*, 1(1), 38–52. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21693293.2013.765741>
- Kaszuba, A., Masson, M., Arnott, S., Grant, R., & Friesen, B. (2024). Negotiating policies and standards: An exploratory practice into discourses of accountability in Canadian Teacher Education. In M. Kohout-Diaz & M.-C. Deyrich (Eds.), *Inclusive Educational Ethics, Facing the Facts* (pp. 128-146). Brill Sense. https://doi.org/10.1163/9789004705968_009
- Karsenti, T., & Collin, S. (2013). Why are new teachers leaving the profession? Results of a Canada-wide survey. *Education*, 3. 141–149. <https://doi.org/10.5923/j.edu.20130303.01>.
- Kemmis, S., Wilkinson, J., Edwards-Groves, C., Hardy, I., Grootenboer, P., & Bristol, L. (2014). *Changing Practices, Changing Education*. Springer Singapore. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-4560-47-4>
- Korthagen, F.A.J., Kessels, J., Koster, B., Lagerwerf, B., & Wubbels, T. (2001). *Linking Practice and Theory: The Pedagogy of Realistic Teacher Education* (1st ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781410600523>
- Le Cornu, R. (2016). Professional experience: learning from the past to build the future. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 44(1), 80–101. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1359866X.2015.1102200>
- Lemke, T. (2002). Foucault, governmentality, and critique. *Rethinking Marxism*, 14(3), 49–64. <https://doi.org/10.1080/089356902101242288>
- Mansfield, C. F., Beltman, S., Broadley, T., & Weatherby-Fell, N. (2016). Building resilience in teacher education: An evidenced informed framework. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 54, 77–87. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2015.11.016>

- Moon, B., Morash, M., & McCluskey, J. (2021). Student violence directed against teachers: victimized teachers' reports to school officials and satisfaction with school responses. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 36*(13–14), NP7264–NP7283.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260519825883>
- Moore, A., & Clarke, M. (2016). 'Cruel optimism': teacher attachment to professionalism in an era of performativity. *Journal of Education Policy, 31*(5), 666–677.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/02680939.2016.1160293>
- Morales Perlaza, A., & Tardif, M. (2016). Pan-Canadian perspectives on teacher education: The state of the art in comparative research. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 62*(2), 199–219. <https://doi.org/10.11575/ajer.v62i2.56221>
- Morris, J., Coutre, J.-C., & Phelan, A. (2023). Riding fences: Anticipatory governance, curriculum policy, and teacher subjectivity. *Canadian Journal of Education/Revue Canadienne de l'éducation, 46*(3), 517-544. <https://doi.org/10.53967/cje-rce.5833>
- Norman, P. (2023). Good teachers and counter conduct. *Critical Studies in Education, 64*(4), 301–317. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17508487.2022.2142627>
- Ontario College of Teachers (2020). *Accreditation committee decision - Faculty of Education University of Ottawa*. <https://www.oct.ca/public/accreditation/decisions>.
- Ontario College of Teachers (n.d.). *Standards of practice*.
<https://www.oct.ca/public/professional-standards/standards-of-practice>
- Parker, L. (2017). Creating a crisis: Selling neoliberal policy through the rebranding of education. *Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy, 183*, 44–60.
<https://journalhosting.ucalgary.ca/index.php/cjeap/article/view/31168>

- Phelan, A. M., & Morris, J. D. (2021). Teaching and teacher education for a post-pandemic canada: context, crisis, critique and complication. In D. Mayer (Ed.), *Teacher Education Policy and Research* (pp. 43–56). Springer. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-16-3775-9_4
- Pinto, L.E. (2012). *Curriculum reform in Ontario: “Common-sense” policy processes and democratic possibilities*. University of Toronto Press.
<https://doi.org/10.3138/9781442661554>
- Reid, A., & O’Donoghue, M. (2004). Revisiting enquiry-based teacher education in neo-liberal times. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20(6), 559–570.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2004.06.002>
- Rigas, B., & Kuchapski, R. (2018). Educating preservice teachers in a neoliberal era: Specialized technicians or public intellectuals? *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 64(4), 393–410. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.11575/ajer.v64i4.56361>
- Sahlberg, P. (2015). *Finnish Lessons 2.0 What Can the World Learn from Educational Change in Finland?* Teachers College Press.
- Sanford, K. J., Hopper, T. F., & Starr, L. (2015). Transforming teacher education thinking: Complexity and relational ways of knowing. *Complicity: An International Journal of Complexity and Education*, 12(2), 26–49. <https://doi.org/10.29173/cmLCt23817>
- Sari, M., & Yolcu, E. (2017). Views of pre-service teachers on profession: Technician or professional? *International Online Journal of Educational Sciences*, 9(1), 13-26.
<https://doi.org/10.15345/iojes.2017.01.002>
- Servage, L. (2009). Who is the “Professional” in a professional learning community? An exploration of teacher professionalism in collaborative professional development settings.

Canadian Journal of Education/Revue canadienne de l'éducation, 32(1), 149–171.

<https://journals.sfu.ca/cje/index.php/cje-rce/article/view/3038>

Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Sage.

Tan, E. (2014). Human capital theory: A holistic criticism. *Review of Educational Research*, 84(3), 411–445. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654314532696>

Vangrieken, K., Meredith, C., Packer, T., & Kynndt, E. (2017). Teacher communities as a context for professional development: A systematic review. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 61, 47–59. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2016.10.001>

Walby, S. (2021). Developing the concept of society: Institutional domains, regimes of inequalities and complex systems in a global era. *Current Sociology*, 69(3), 315–332. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0011392120932940>

Wallner, J. (2013). Internal answerability and intergovernmental policy learning: Accountability in Canadian mandatory education. In L. A. White, P. Graefe, & J. M. Simmons (Eds.), *Overpromising and underperforming?: Understanding and evaluating new intergovernmental accountability regimes* (pp. 238–256). University of Toronto Press. <https://doi.org/10.3138/9781442695290>

Young, J., & Boyd, K. (2010). More than servants of the state? The governance of initial teacher preparation in Canada in an era of school reform. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 56(1), 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.11575/ajer.v56i1.55379>

Chapter 5: Discussion

To be clear, we're trying to ascertain the strategic direction of humanity's struggles for the future. If this message really exists, no matter what it is, it must have a concrete meaning. We can't take vague, ambiguous information and turn it into strategic direction...I'm sure the true meaning behind these three stories is buried very deeply, and this makes the interpretations even more vague and ambiguous. The difficulty we are facing isn't that we can't get anything useful out of these three stories, but that there are too many plausible interpretations, and we can't be certain of any of them.

Death's End - Cixin Liu (2016, p. 353)

Across the world, there is an increasing concern about how educational policies are constructed through neoliberal logics and the subsequent repercussions on ITE (Cochran-Smith et al., 2018; Sahlberg, 2015). Over the past few decades in Ontario, there has been a recognizable increase in how ITE is governed through accountability mechanisms which treat ITE as a problem which needs to be resolved through policy (Campbell, 2023; Rigas & Kuchapski, 2018). These policy changes have resulted in standardizing measures and financial challenges which have led ITE programs and their actors to be increasingly exposed to the neoliberal rhetoric. Although some relational approaches have been authorized and tested within the same timeframe (Campbell, 2023), the current governance approach risks treating ITE as a system which needs to be understood and resolved through external political intervention (Chandler, 2014a). ITE is a complex system, and as I argue in this thesis, how this complex system is conceived in relation to its professional and political counterparts is a defining feature of how neoliberalism functions in this context. To move beyond a neoliberal governance demands a reframing of how we think about and intervene within ITE, and the complexity theory-critical realism (CTCR) framework

provides such an alternative for supporting more resilience-based understandings and approaches to governance. In order to address the ‘wicked’ and often unyielding problems in ITE, complexity-informed resilience thinking wants us to foster the social practices of ITE actors as produced through the mechanism of learning communities. As shown in the three articles, FSL teacher candidates have the capacity to self-organize and develop unique professional learning practices when the ITE program provides specific and localized conditions for these learning communities to emerge – these conditions included a diversification of possible relations, a bilingual facilitator, reflective activities on professional learning, physical/digital workspaces, ‘safe’ spaces to speak one’s truth, and a great deal of encouragement. Moreover, by animating the design and analysis of this project through a CTCR framework, the results make more transparent the practice mechanisms which underlie the learning communities, and in this way, allow us to reflect on “how things work” in the complex system of ITE (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014a). Overall, by fostering more relational approaches to doing policy work with candidates, by creating the conditions for them to assert their subjectivities through their social practices, and by embracing their knowledge-making capacities as a possible means of self-empowerment, the approach in this thesis is consistent with Chandler’s (2014a;b) complexity-informed and resilience-based understandings of governance.

By working *through* rather than *over* the practices of candidates, resilience thinking suggests that interventions into the complex system of ITE should allow candidates to empower themselves and thus possibly emancipate themselves from the problems of neoliberalism which they experience during their professional journeys. While the three articles demonstrate possible practice mechanisms which may lead to candidates’ autonomy or self-empowerment (i.e. mentoring, collaborative inquiry, resistance), it is necessary to recognize the ongoing pressures

from neoliberally-inclined cultural practices and policies that pervade the ITE system and limit the voluntary CoP as a meaningful and attractive learning option. Sure, the analyses in the articles (at least Article 1 and 2) paint an optimistic picture of the benefits of emergent CoPs; however, the data available to be analyzed disguises the more concerning reality: it is important to recall that only four of the 16 original learning communities - and only 25 of the 75 possible candidates – ultimately coalesced into groups that resembled what we could consider CoPs. Only three candidates participated in the final CoP meeting. Statistically, that is a failure. And even in these four ‘successful’ CoPs, candidates still struggled to prioritize and find value in this form of learning against the weight of their personal responsibilities and professional expectations related to the program. Thus, whether candidates’ practices, identities, and subjectivities as developed through the CoPs can be linked to a sense of autonomy or self-empowerment is a remaining question. To address this question in more detail, I explore in this discussion the limitations of using CoPs by reflecting on additional dimensions of candidates’ practices through the learning, innovating, and defending lenses.

In this thesis, I structured the articles around the three-lenses framework of CoPs (Nicolini et al., 2022). This framework, which was originally developed based on a literature review of management studies, is recontextualized here into the domain of teacher education. Therefore, how their framework is interpreted in this thesis may not be representative of how the three frames were conceptualized around their original literature. Like with any complexity study, it is essential to be critical of how concepts and frameworks are borrowed from other disciplines (Davis & Sumara, 2005). By analyzing the articles through these lenses, this thesis is simply a foray into how these lenses may apply to the teacher education context, and further development through a literature review may be appropriate to align current professional

learning research with this theoretical model. That being said, there is one particular point of overlap between the CTCR model and the three-lenses framework that I would like to highlight: as Cochran-Smith et al. (2014a) argued, research into ITE should avoid studying specific ‘parts’ like practicum or courses. In the same vein, I believe the three-lenses framework is useful to study CoPs in a less fragmentary way; rather than focusing only one conceptual ‘part’ of the CoP, like knowledge sharing, the three lenses allowed me to examine how knowledge sharing, knowledge creation, and defense of interests are all simultaneous and overlapping mechanisms that should be taken into account when studying CoPs. Nicolini et al. offer further lines of inquiry in their discussion of this framework, and below, I will use these as a starting point to reflect on what it means to do generative CoP work with teacher candidates, as well as pinpoint areas of tension between the lenses. Included in the discussion through the lenses are future directions for doing CoP research and links to new questions that have emerged for me during this project. Lastly, I connect the findings to our understanding of complexity-informed governance along the neoliberal-resilience continuum and the implications for ITE.

Article 1: Mentorship and the Learning Lens

To recall, the learning lens of CoPs stems from the work of Lave and Wenger (1991) who used community concepts to analyze the practices of knowledge-sharing and apprenticeship among practitioners. Through this lens, CoPs were researched via ethnographic approaches and only used analytically to study practice rather than as an interventional technique; in other words, there is no cause or effect – CoPs just are. Some educational studies follow this approach by using CoP to understand the practices of educational actors (e.g. Campbell et al. 2022). While the original learning lens can offer a productive view for recognizing what qualifies as a CoP,

Nicolini et al. (2022) remind us to acknowledge the history of CoP theory in order to be cautious of how we apply this theory to research:

historically and conceptually, [CoPs] derive from (and are exemplified by) the study of craft-based, pre-industrial occupations (e.g. midwifery, tailoring, butchery, navigation - Lave & Wenger, 1991). In other words, the original notion of CoPs was rooted in a world that is disappearing or may never have existed (p. 43)

They continue by asking the question, “Do CoPs still exist?” (p. 44). By taking into account how CoPs were historically developed, one might suggest that pre-industrial occupations may have resulted in the emergence of CoPs without any external intervention. In the case of education, while we were not yet talking about CoPs in the mid-20th century, teachers certainly developed a relational approach to working with one another that allowed for the emergence of an internal, autonomous, or occupational professionalism (Moore & Clarke, 2016). However, it is important to ask whether there exists a possibility to redevelop a naturally occurring occupational professionalism in the 21st century neoliberal context in schools and universities. Language schooling, education, and teacher work are always embedded in and connected to policies, politics, and their institutions (Kubanyiova & Crookes, 2016), and any study that examines professional learning through a CoP lens must accept this reality (Vangrieken et al., 2017). Consistent with a resilience framework, it is important to recognize that educational CoPs nowadays are always *already* shaped through some intervention, that “there is therefore no such thing as non-intervention... intervention is seen to take place indirectly through the institutional frameworks and agreements” (Chandler, 2014b, p. 128). The learning lens, traditionally conceived, may no longer be completely applicable to doing CoP work with teachers, in the sense that we cannot simply use CoP concepts and tools to describe a naturally emerging

practice. There will likely be interventional aspects to take into consideration, and as Article 1 shows, such considerations can be consistent with what CTCR proposes.

By animating this study through CTCR, this project respects the idea that CoPs cannot be “set-up” (Pyrko et al. 2017) or forced onto actors as there are no cause-and-effect mechanisms that can lead to their emergence. However, as ITE actors, the candidates and I still retained the agency to intervene and initiate a causal sequence that may have led to a CoP (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014a)³. Once the CoPs emerge, it is possible to trace the practice mechanisms which may have influenced their emergence. In this way, while the project required some causal forces at the start by creating the conditions for the CoPs, there was no expectation that what was produced was in fact a CoP. Then, by going backwards to trace candidates’ practices, I was able to analyze features of the practice that allowed for knowledge-sharing to occur – which is in line with the original intention of the learning lens. To put it another way, I did not start this thesis with the expectation to write an article about mentorship, but the learning lens allowed me to analyze the knowledge sharing interactions and identify mentoring as a practice mechanism that was necessary for CoP development among teacher candidates. That mentoring acts mediate the emergence of CoPs in ITE is not a new idea (Le Cornu, 2005), but the complexity framework animating this thesis allowed me to recognize mentoring as a mechanism of self-organization between candidates as they work together in a complex system of a CoP. Mentoring in this project allowed for candidates to share tacit knowledge about what works and what does not; they ‘shared’ not in the sense of direct knowledge transfer, but rather the knowledge was rediscovered and reproduced as candidates engaged with one another in the CoP context

³ It is important to reiterate that the purpose of the analyses was to identify practice mechanisms that occurred in these emerging CoPs, and not to ascertain whether the groups could indeed be qualified as CoPs. For further analysis on the CoP-ness of the groups, see Kaszuba (in press).

(Nicolini et al., 2022; Pyrko et al. 2019). As candidates engaged in mentoring acts, they fluidly adopted mentor and mentee roles, which in turn allowed them to perpetuate and exploit knowledge between themselves, between different learning communities in ITE, and even across generations. This finding is consistent with how mentoring is generally perceived in educational research and by educational actors (e.g. Hudson et al., 2013)

Unlike most mentoring studies, however, because this project was not set up as a mentorship initiative, roles such as ‘mentor’ and ‘mentee’ were not prescribed or expected from the candidates as they engaged in the CoP. Candidates tried out and adopted these roles as the project progressed and where the need arose. Thus, these CoP allowed for the creation of professional experiences for language teacher candidates to try out new identities and take up aspects of professionalism which most resonate with them (Johnson & Golombek, 2020; Le Cornu, 2016). If maintaining fluidity in identity risk-taking and adoption is an ideal, the results of Article 1 lead me to question how future mentoring initiatives might be constructed in ITE. I wonder: if we cannot setup CoPs, and CoPs are mediated by mentoring acts, then it is possible to intentionally setup any mentorship program or mentoring relationship? As I described in Article 1, practicum is a prime example of an initiative where mentorship is intentionally (attempted to be) setup between two or more educational actors: practicum structure in Ontario typically places teacher candidates in classrooms with assigned mentor teachers over a specific block of time, or alternatively, triad mentoring brings together Year 1 and Year 2 candidates to work simultaneously in the same classroom with one mentor teacher (Grierson et al., 2011). Numerous studies have shown the potential for bi- (or multi-) directional mentorship to take place within a dyad or triad model, even where mentoring identities are being assigned (Ambrosetti et al., 2017; Coppola et al., 2021; Muhling, 2016; Kissau & King, 2015). While there is potential for a

relational mentoring practice, Hobson et al. (2009) remind us that “this potential is often unrealized” (p. 214) especially when mentor teachers do not have previous training in doing mentoring and have not explicitly reflected on their role (Ambrosetti et al., 2014), which is more than likely the case in a system like Ontario with high teacher turnover and teacher shortages. Moreover, there is always an underlying power relationship between the mentor and mentee that may limit the possibility for bidirectional learning (Ambrosetti et al., 2014; Asención Delaney, 2012). From a complexity perspective then, does assigning roles in mentoring initiatives limit the possibility for the self-organization of actors in the complex system of a CoP (given that a CoP can exist between two, three or more people)? And if this self-organization is limited, then can we really foster emergent CoPs, where candidates are able to try out different identities, in traditional settings like courses and practicum?

I ask these questions in light of research which has highlighted the need to include teacher candidates in school-based CoPs as an alternate form of learning (Hudson et al., 2013; Korhonen et al., 2017; Molitor et al., 2018 Schnellert & Kozak, 2019). In the Ontario case, Molitor et al. (2018) brought together experienced mentor leaders, less experienced mentor teachers and teacher candidates over a two-day period to complete an activity where participants reflected on the roles of mentors and mentees. While the intention of their study was to explore ways to support mentor teacher learning and not necessarily empower teacher candidates to embrace a mentoring identity, the question remains whether such a structure can feasibly do both. As shown in Article 1, even in a CoP with a flatter power structure, it took a long time and was not necessarily guaranteed that candidates recognized their peers as mentors, and even less likely that they recognized themselves as mentors. Would candidates then be able to try out fluid mentoring identities in a situation which includes both mentor teachers as well as individuals in

the next echelon of power, these mentor leaders? My intention here is not to critique the structure proposed by Molitor et al., but rather to show the challenge, and perhaps paradox, of creating the conditions for the autonomy of teacher candidates during CoP against the backdrop of pre-assigned roles and implicit power relations. I believe that practicum through a CoP framework could be a productive alternative to the dyad and triad models which are commonly used in Ontario ITE, but future research might question the extent to which such a model meets the criteria of allowing candidates to experiment with new roles and identities (Johnson & Golombek, 2020).

Nevertheless, integrating multiple members with different levels of experience does align with the other finding in Article 1, which is the importance of membership diversity to support the sustainability of CoPs in an ITE setting. I concede that the data in this thesis are not sufficient to make the generalization that CoPs must include such diversity in order to be sustainable (for further discussion on this point, see Vangrieken et al., 2017), but at the same time, I acknowledge that new relations and types of mentoring acts were able to occur in the CoP when there were greater differentials between the positioning of involved members. In Article 1, I suggest that building future CoP between P/J and I/S candidates would be an excellent starting point to allow for increased diversity, but other forms of diversity are possible: first, as mentioned above, including educators at different stages in their careers, such as candidates, beginning teachers, and experienced teachers has shown significant potential for new ways of learning, relating and interacting both in Canada and abroad (Hudson et al., 2013; Korhonen et al., 2017; Schnellert & Kozak, 2019); second, research projects which bring together teacher candidates from multiple ITE programs have been studied as an effective way to engage FSL teacher candidates with one another (Byrd Clark et al., 2014), and is similarly an excellent way to support membership

diversity, and by extension, collaborative professionalism, through inter-institutional partnerships (Campbell, 2018); and third, connecting teacher candidates with one another through professional organizations, teacher unions, or non-governmental organizations could also be a mechanism to establish CoPs with diverse membership (e.g. Santos & Hoeh, 2022). Such partnerships in the creation of CoPs has been found to be an effective approach in the Ontario context (Stagg-Peterson et al., 2011), but further studies might examine how these CoPs function when teacher candidates are included.

Article 2: Collaborative Inquiry and the Innovating Lens

The innovating lens is often associated with a managerial approach to setting up CoPs (Nicolini et al., 2022). Through this lens, CoPs might deploy cause-and-effect logic and are used instrumentally to effect change, add value, or attain specific outcomes that are not necessarily set by the members who are involved. Given that a non-negligible number of studies investigating CoP for professional learning adopt specific outcomes (Vangrieken et al., 2017), it is clear that the innovating approach to doing CoPs with teachers is prevalent in North American contexts likely because how well it fits within linear models of thinking, the hierarchical framework of school workplaces, and the overzealous focus on reform (Talbert, 2009).

While CoPs (or PLCs) feature as a core component in Article 2, I framed this article in the literature review through research related to collaborative inquiry rather than CoPs. This choice reflects a form of pushback against neoliberal ways of thinking about systemic approaches to implementing teacher collaboration; rather than framing CoPs as a technical intervention – as a skill or an action to improve practices and meet the organization’s innovation goals – the framework of this article is based on the assumption that CoPs emerge when emphasis is placed on fostering a collaborative inquiry *stance* with teacher candidates – an

attitude, a set of values, and a recognition of the importance of inquiry communities in the professional learning process (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009). As Cochran-Smith and Lytle (2009) explained, “this assumption clearly talks back to and challenges current initiatives to boost students' achievement through teachers' wholesale participation in mandated professional development based on scientifically researched or scripted curriculum and instruction” (p. 7). By examining collaborative inquiry as a stance, more focus is placed on how candidates develop and assert their own values during the CoP process, and this ideally ‘talks back’ against the neoliberal framing of CoPs.

For example, while CoPs conducted through a traditional innovating lens aim to promote group cohesion by establishing shared values (Nicolini et al., 2022), these values might be pre-determined by the organization itself. In contrast, since there were no preordained values that candidates had to adopt to work in the CoPs in this thesis, these candidates had to embrace a significantly higher degree of uncertainty as they explored what it means to have an inquiry stance, and what values they wanted to forefront in this stance, when collaborating with one another. Thus, there is an incompatibility between the traditional innovating lens and complexity-informed CoPs: in particular, the incompatibility manifests in the difference between guiding groups to collaborate in reference to an external set of professional norms versus allowing candidates to assert their values during the collaboration process. This incompatibility creates a challenge for envisioning how we might ‘work’ the innovating lens in a complexity framework. I discuss some of these points of friction below.

Norms of collaboration: Embracing uncertainty. One of the common conditions for CoP success, as identified in the literature, are the norms of collaboration, as factors such as trust, respect, and leadership often set the basis for the degree of collaboration that may occur in

a CoP (Hargreaves & O'Connor, 2018a; Talbert, 2009; Vangrieken et al., 2017). The challenge with CoPs constructed through an innovating lens is that the norms of collaboration are often unwritten or taken for granted. As Nicolini et al. (2022) pointed out, managerial interventions often construct CoPs as “consensual, close-knit, and harmonious craft-based forms of socializing within (and co-exist with) formal organizations” (Nicolini et al., 2022, p. 45). Since trust, respect, and leadership are necessary qualities for the proliferation of learning communities, they may become part of an organization’s professional learning objectives in an effort to foster CoPs. These instrumental objectives in turn ignore or undermine the ‘negative’ aspects of collaboration, such as tension and conflict, that are likely to be present and even necessary when doing professional learning through a community model (Vangrieken et al., 2017). Within a neoliberal policy framework, these desirable qualities become reified through the professional standards (of the OCT, in the Ontario context) (Moore & Clarke, 2016). As the professional standards are recontextualized into ITE, there is a risk that ITE programs must then work to ‘produce’ teachers with these qualities (Ell et al., 2019). The cause-and-effect nature of the innovating lens then may influence how CoPs are constructed in ITE: rather than trust, respect, and leadership being the necessary conditions to make CoP function, these qualities instead become the outcomes of CoP work (Kaszuba, Masson et al., 2024) and the unwritten norms of collaboration. From an innovating lens perspective, ITE programs may deploy CoPs to support candidates’ acquisition of these norms in an effort to facilitate unidirectional socialization into a pre-determined culture of professionalism, one which avoids tension or conflict. Since the focus is on the acquisition of desirable qualities, it is easy to see how candidates may conceive of CoP participation as a practical tool to access more professional capital (Gibbs et al., 2017; Morris et al., 2023) rather than as an emancipatory structure. Across the three articles, there were certainly moments when

desirable qualities like trust, respect, leadership and vulnerability emerged in the candidates' practices and contributed to the development of the CoP; but whether the expression of these qualities can be linked to a sense of empowerment or emancipation remains to be seen. Arguably, one aspect that is missing from the CoPs is an analysis of their causal link to the ITE programs' professional culture. Consistent with the principles guiding the analysis (Kemmis et al., 2014b, p. 38), CoP participants were initiated into the practices of the site (i.e. ITE program) and became enmeshed with its corresponding practice architectures (i.e. the cultural discursive, material-economic, and socio-material arrangements). Despite their emerging practices being linked to the practice architectures, these practices did not seem to have any impact on those arrangements. Like the work by LeBouthillier and Kristmanson (2023), the CoP offered opportunities for FSL candidates to critically reflect on the cultural practices (i.e. the practice architectures) of ITE. Yet, the set-up of these CoP did not necessarily allow candidates to *change* those cultural practices. Put another way – we granted candidates more responsibility to manage their professional learning, but did not grant any power to affect change. Thus, we might ask: Is it possible to support the empowerment of candidates if there is no meaningful or explicit connection between their inquiry actions and the broader institutional culture? And if there is no connection between inquiry and cultural change, did these CoP allow candidates to assert their autonomy or develop an inquiry stance in ways which they would not have otherwise been able to through the traditional professional experiences? As I note in Article 3, while the CoP created spaces for candidates to begin questioning certain cultural norms, ultimately they did not lead to any sustainable changes to the ways in which candidates chose to collaborate with one another.

Perhaps one meaningful impact on the norms of collaboration that could be deduced from the data is that the emergent CoP invited more uncertainty into how candidates needed to

collaborate to make the groups function (which is consistent with complexity-based professional learning, Fenwick, 2012). As seen in Article 2, because there were no pre-established outcomes or norms of collaboration for these CoPs, the way(s) candidates chose to collaborate had a more significant influence on the success and viability of the CoP. While candidates reported there being no overt forms of disagreement or conflict during the CoPs, the CoPs were far from sites of harmonious socializing and of linearly increasing unity. Amidst the backdrop of uncertainty as to the purpose, direction, and significance of their CoP, planning a time to meet and voluntarily taking on responsibilities was a common challenge for candidates, but these concerns were rarely raised during the CoP meetings themselves. As Priyanka recognized, the uncertainty around the norms of collaboration resulted in the dissolution of her CoP:

I could have absolutely pushed people to get together to meet up, but you kind of want it so that everybody would like to meet up...I guess nobody really wanted to take on that leadership role to get everyone organized to get together (Priyanka – Interview #2)

While there are other factors which influenced candidates' participation in the CoP (e.g., time), Priyanka's reflection brings up a challenge that needs to be addressed while trying to support teacher candidates as they embrace uncertainty in a voluntary structure like the emergent CoP. When a CoP initiative is implemented in the context of a course, the norms of collaboration imply that candidates must manage tension and conflict, for better or for worse, because they have to finish the assignment and complete the course (Bond, 2013; Kaszuba, Masson, et al., 2024). But in these voluntary CoP, candidates do not have to deal with uncertainty and can avoid tension and conflict. Pascale recognized this challenge:

For those of us here, the amount of structure is fine, but maybe for the people who aren't attending anymore, they required more structure to stay interested. They like to be

guided, to know what they're doing. But that goes against the whole point of the CoP (Pascale - UDL CoP #5).

It is possible that many of the candidates chose to no longer participate in the CoP due to the uncertainty around the norms of collaboration, and this is problematic because “trying to avoid confrontation, and being reluctant to disagree with powerful participants, could lead to inappropriate or ineffective teaching practices becoming dominant” (Vangrieken et al., 2017, p. 55). The general absence of empirical data on the theme of conflict speaks volumes here: since conflict may not resonate with the candidates’ ideal form of professionalism as defined by the professional standards, then any conflict experienced during these CoPs may actually lead them to consider voluntary CoPs as a less appropriate way to develop their professionalism (Kaszuba, Masson et al., 2024; Moore & Clarke, 2016) and subsequently drop out from the project. Some questions that stem from this reasoning include the following: How do we differentiate participant drop-out due to time or due to conflict? Do candidates actively avoid conflict (and on that note, are they risk-averse when it comes to collaborating [Biesta, 2016])? How do we support candidates to embrace tension during a voluntary CoP when that tension can easily be avoided by leaving? More importantly, how do we collect data on candidates embracing tension if they choose to avoid it (i.e. moving tension from the actual to the empirical domain [Bhaskar, 1975/2008])? Overall, breaking from the neoliberal model of the ‘ideal’ norms and conditions of collaboration under an innovating lens means including uncertainty, conflict, tension, and risk as key elements of those norms; however, the results of this thesis reveal the challenge of guiding candidates to embrace this uncertainty while also respecting their autonomy through voluntary participation.

Not a policy problem, an equity problem. My decision to classify Article 2 under the category of the innovating lens may at first appear odd. After all, my methodological approach clearly states that I want to avoid cause-and-effect ways of implementing CoPs, so the approach in this project does not completely align with the paradigm of CoPs that an innovating lens originally intends. However, I consider this article an appropriate way forward for taking up the innovating lens in professional learning research. I discuss this idea in more detail below.

Although the original approach to doing CoPs through an innovating lens may be structured around cause-and-effect logic, Article 2 shows the purpose of innovating CoPs – knowledge and value creation – can still be accessed through a complexity lens. To reiterate the logic of the CTCR framework, “rejecting linear notions of cause and effect is not the same as rejecting the idea that things have causes or rejecting the search for causal mechanisms as an aim of research” (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014a, p. 20). Similarly, rejecting managerial approaches to doing CoPs does not mean rejecting innovation and knowledge creation as possible outcomes of CoP work. By examining the variation in the professional trajectories of the candidates’ CoPs based on specific and localized initial conditions, I was able to focus on the mechanisms that allowed for these trajectories to deviate from one another “rather than [on] the production of generalizable correlations between processes and outcomes” (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014a, p. 18). In particular, candidate practices show us how knowledge generation can occur beyond what normative discourses about the candidates’ role might lead us to expect them to do. In other words, when we talk about knowledge or value creation through CoP work, we do not want to limit the contributions of candidates to expressing novelty and creativity only in their teaching practices (Kemmis et al., 2014b). As candidates work together in CoP, they may bring in knowledge, practices, beliefs, and values that extend beyond just teaching: for example, the

Mental Health Warriors' approach to supporting mental health demonstrates how we can support the candidates' social practices to solve problems which concern themselves, and these approaches may be more relationally based than what may be possible within the confines of traditional ITE programming.

Moreover, by analyzing the candidates' professional trajectories, we can distinguish where managerial forms of CoPs are incompatible with how CoPs may actually function. Nicolini et al. (2022) highlighted the notion of time as one of the areas of contention between the learning lens and the innovating lens. They explained,

when aimed at fostering innovation, CoPs are expected to operate within the compressed time typical of modern capitalist organizations rather than the extended temporality typical of craft-based occupations around which CoPs initially were conceived. The time taken for a CoP to emerge is rarely considered: what happens to a CoP and its underpinning identification and learning processes when time is compressed? (p. 47)

The notion of compressed time is brought up in other studies doing CoPs with teachers (Cherkowski & Schnellert, 2018; Kaszuba, Mady et al., 2024). As seen in Kaszuba, Mady et al. (2024), pressures from administration to 'fit' CoP initiatives within a specific timeframe may actually limit the types of value that members can associate with CoPs. As the authors found, while CoPs can bring out a potential value for participants, the compressed timeframe limited possibilities for actual changes to practice. Similar challenges are present for candidates who work in CoPs during ITE. By analyzing CoP professional trajectories in Article 2, the results demonstrated how the compressed nature of time in the ITE program contradicts the temporality of developing a collaborative inquiry stance with teacher candidates. Some might even argue that developing a CoP within a two-year time frame is an unrealistic goal, which reflects the need to

consider ITE as only an initial and incomplete first step to further professional learning after graduation (Kane & Francis, 2013; Korhonen et al., 2017). As I discuss in Article 2, not all the CoPs developed linearly, so factoring in time for ‘failure’ or for the natural ebbs and flows of CoP unity is an aspect to take into consideration when planning how much time is necessary to dedicate to CoP development. If we were to allow for non-linearity in CoPs, then how much time would be necessary for candidates to eventually complete a full collaborative inquiry cycle? Although some candidates were able to complete what could be considered a traditional inquiry cycle within the eight months of the project (Kemmis et al., 2014a), it is important to remember that these candidates were generally the exception and not the rule. As Pascale reminded us in the quote above, “for those of us here, the amount of structure is fine, but maybe for the people who aren't attending anymore, they required more structure to stay interested” (UDL CoP #5), which infers that the candidates who were successful in maintaining this project until the end were the ones who were probably already familiar with inquiry, already comfortable with uncertainty, and already confident with autonomy. If we want to ensure that CoPs in ITE are accessible to all, allowing more time and space for the inquiry cycle might be necessary to accommodate the learning trajectories of less experienced and less confident candidates. From this viewpoint, fostering CoPs in ITE is not actually a policy problem, but an equity problem (Cochran-Smith et al., 2016). By creating more equitable conditions, candidates may feel more inclined to experiment with the norms of collaboration – with trust, respect and leadership, but also with uncertainty, risk, and tension – when CoP implementation is accompanied by accommodations that meet their learning needs.

Moving forward: Landscapes of practice. While the narratives presented in Article 2 focused on single CoPs and their practice trajectory, these groups were ultimately not working in

isolation because their practice was influenced by other CoPs happening at the same time. I begin to explore in Article 3, for example, how the ‘formal’ CoPs in which candidates had to participate validated certain epistemic knowledge and discourses which influenced the type of practice the candidates developed in their emergent ‘formative’ CoPs. Similarly, I also mention in Article 1 the need to examine how mentoring practices during practicum influence the type of knowledge sharing that happens in these emergent CoPs. This shift to focusing on how thoughts and ideas emerge across CoP boundaries reflects the goal of CTCR research and the need to examine the multiple intersecting parts of the ITE program instead of just studying them in isolation (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014a; 2016). Such a shift is consistent with a more recent approach to studying CoPs through an innovating lens, which suggests that CoPs take place within Landscapes of Practice (LoP). In an LoP frame, individuals must navigate working across multiple epistemic boundaries that emerge between different CoPs across organizations (Nicolini et al., 2022; Pyrko et al., 2019). If candidates are indeed exposed to multiple CoPs during ITE across different organizations (like the school and university), then using an LoP framework may be an appropriate way forward to study this model of professional learning in teacher education.

In particular, if we want to increase diversity in CoP membership through inter-institutional collaboration, through professional organizations, or through school-university partnerships, then an LoP framework “brings a helpful perspective on mutual dependencies between different local communities across epistemic boundaries” (Pyrko et al., 2019, p. 485). As Pyrko et al. argued, creating opportunities for individuals to navigate across an LoP allows them to develop relationships with different CoPs. Moreover, when CoP members can connect their situated practices in a CoP to a broader LoP, this process may help legitimize that practice in relation to the larger ontological field. For FSL teacher candidates, having their practices,

linguistic or otherwise, legitimized by the larger field may help to create professional value and to develop a sense of confidence and autonomy (Kaszuba, Mady, et al., 2024; Wernicke, 2017).

Article 3: Subjectivity, Resistance, and the Defending Lens

Challenging the harmonious view of CoPs in the innovating lens, the defending lens suggest CoPs are fraught with power dynamics (Nicolini et al., 2022). CoPs construed through a defending lens accept that “one of the main functions of CoPs is to secure and defend the power positions of a given practice and its members” (Nicolini et al., 2022, p. 34) against the encroachment of managerial oversight and manipulation. As I had indicated in the introduction, the model of CoPs in this thesis is most consistent with the way that the defending lens construes them, and moreover consistent with the CTCR framework and its implications for causality. To reiterate, while it is necessary to intervene to create suitable conditions, CTCR rests on the belief that CoPs develop and emerge through the mechanisms of self-organization between the elements in the system. Unlike Article 1 and 2, however, Article 3 integrates the idea of power struggles within these CoP as candidates try to enact their practice. As seen in Article 3, neoliberal values underlying the dominant discourses in ITE influence the way candidates conceive of and enact their subjectivity in these CoP, positioning them into a power struggle over the concept of professionalism. This power struggle between different forms of professionalism is consistent with larger discussions about the authority that teachers have over their professionalism under neoliberal regimes. For example, Moore and Clarke (2016) distinguish between occupational and organizational professionalism. Where occupational professionalism “tended to originate within the professional group itself, and involved authority based on trust and relational notions of accountability” (p. 671), professional standards manufacture an organizational professionalism around neoliberal values that prioritize individual freedom,

success, autonomy, and competition in meeting predetermined educational outcomes. The policy rhetoric of this new professionalism contains “rem[a]inders” (Moore & Clarke, 2016) from the old professionalism, such as trust, respect, leadership, but also integrity, critical thinking, reflection, inclusion, and so on. I highlight this distinction between organizational and occupational professionalism to problematize the challenge of applying the defending lens to teacher candidates working in CoPs: is it possible for candidates to ‘defend’ an occupational professionalism while enrolled in ITE?

As Nicolini et al. (2022) pointed out, a point of tension arises between the innovating and defending lens when discussing the body of expertise from where a CoP’s practice emerges. While the defending lens posits that insider experts carry and perpetuate an uncodified body of knowledge to which newcomers need to be socialized, the innovating lens disrupts this process:

Innovation activities can undermine the socialization process by disrupting traditional ways of doing things and affecting existing knowledge traditions, changing traditional tools of the trade and artifacts of the practice, thereby reducing the effectiveness of defending mechanisms (p. 48)

The managerial approach to doing CoPs over the past two decades has noticeably and concerningly disrupted the type of professionalism which teachers may have tried to uphold in the past. In recent studies on teacher resistance, teachers appear to be more frequently adopting the neoliberal rhetoric and organizational professionalism in their conceptualization of their work, which in turn, reduces their autonomy (Hall & McGinity, 2015; Holloway & Brass, 2018). For example, in the study on teachers in the UK by Hall & McGinity (2015), the authors found:

[teachers] have been successfully reduced through marketization, metricization and managerialism to compliant operatives where their remaining professionalism is nothing but a manufactured and managerialist discursive co-option (p. 12)

As I address in Article 3, whether this is the case with teacher candidates remains an underdeveloped area of research. As Kaszuba, Masson et al. (2024) found in their study, the way that one candidate engaged in PLCs in a course reflected a view of professionalism in line with scientism, managerialism, and acts of caregiving. If candidates are quick to adopt neoliberal understandings of teacher work, then one might ask whether they are arriving in the program with predispositions to organizational professionalism already. And if they embrace this new professionalism from the outset of the program, then against which interests are we hoping that they might defend in emergent CoPs? One of the challenges with only engaging teacher candidates in these CoP is that very few of them, if any, had exposure to older, more autonomous, indeed more occupational forms of professionalism, rendering the idea that their CoP can 'defend' against neoliberal values untenable. Article 3 demonstrates clearly that this is the case: while the CoPs did create a space for some forms of resistance to the new professionalism, it was more likely that neoliberal discourses were left unchallenged or even reinforced through this structure. Including insiders (i.e. in-service teachers) in these CoP may be necessary to reintroduce certain occupational notions of professionalism that may be missing within the ITE program, and reinforces my previous proposal of bringing together educators with various levels of experience into these emergent CoPs.

That said, there is no guarantee that recruiting active teachers into these CoP would ensure occupational values are reintroduced, as those teachers might too be conditioned by extensive (or on the contrary, by minimal) time working in a system under neoliberal pressure.

Herein lies another point of contention, this time between the learning and defending lenses. As Nicolini et al. (2022) explained,

Most studies of CoPs from these lenses focus on large organizations where full-time employment is or was the norm. The notion of the future of work leads to investigations into how situated learning and protection of expertise are being affected by the demise of the employment relations prevalent in the XX century (p. 47).

With the implementation of corporate practices into education, many new teachers may be contracted through supply or a long-term appointment (LTO), and these newer norms of employment relations affect the previous knowledge-sharing processes that occurred in the ‘naturally’ emerging school-based CoPs of the past. As Talbert (2009) reminds us, “teacher turnover undermines social cohesion and sustained teacher collaboration” (p. 558). In addition to this, these new teachers do not necessarily have experience working in CoP structures to the extent that they have built up their own practices of resistance. In a study by Frank et al. (2021), the authors conducted surveys with cohorts of teachers within the first 5 years of the profession in Ontario between 2016 and 2021. They found that only 23% of permanent teachers in these cohorts had access to an in-person CoP, and only 16% had access to an online CoP. Moreover, access to CoPs for professional learning were relatively lower for both teachers on LTO and doing supply work. These statistics show that the majority of new teachers in the profession do not have experience working in a CoP (and what’s more, the logic governing these CoP is unclear). If we are to develop CoPs through the defending lens, we cannot assume that simply pairing teacher candidates with more experienced teachers will allow future teachers to develop practices of resistance, to defend their power positions, or to assert an occupational professionalism against the neoliberal regime. Likely, future CoP need to offer opportunities not

only for teacher candidates, but also for practicing teachers to (re)develop a collaborative inquiry stance and to create spaces which authorize their own discourses of professionalism.

Since the demise of employment relations has also impacted the Canadian neoliberal university (Grimmett, 2021; Rigas & Kuchapski, 2016) leading to a proliferation of adjunct professorships, it would be interesting as well to examine how professors may reinforce neoliberal discourses and organizational professionalism through their courses in the ITE program. As I bring up in Article 3, candidate experiences in ‘formal’ learning communities, like workshops and courses, authenticates certain epistemes because invited speakers or part-time professors may not be familiar with the overarching philosophy of the program (Kitchen & Petrarca, 2022). While I did not include data from course observations in the analyses, I did recognize how some of the professors’ practices reinforced neoliberal discourses and practices. Among many examples in my researcher journal, this one stands out the most:

The second question that was posed was “what are the characteristics of effective teachers”. This question immediately sets off alarm bells in my head, because it brings back the discussion to a focus on character traits of teachers (i.e. individualism) rather than a discussion on the conditions which allow for teachers to do their practice effectively. I’m not sure if [the professor] is knowingly reproducing a discourse around individual practice, but alas this question is doing just that. TCs mentioned traits like “flexibility”; no one mentioned “collaborative”. Interestingly, a TC brought up a situation where a vice-principal had brusquely yelled at a student in the corridor, and the TC was unsure how to respond in such a situation. At this point, [the professor] mentioned the protocol one can follow to report such an incident – talking with the AT, the principal, the union representative – describing what [the professor] refers to as the “hierarchy”. Yes,

we want to be honest in describing the setup of the school system, but this discourse only serves to reinforce the hierarchical practices. If I were to redo this activity, I think it would be necessary for TCs to consider what the characteristics of teachers, principals, and schools might be in order for them to be effective in their work. In a critical complexity lens, we want TCs to imagine the role of the principal and be critical of their role and actions as well, in the same way, we want them to be aware of the environment they are in and how this might limit their ability to effectively do their work... Moreover, many professors mentioned the concept of “adaptive expertise” and “action research”, but due to time constraints, never discussed this topic in detail. The concepts most relevant to becoming critical reflective practitioners seem to be glossed over in favour for individual teacher traits. In this way, the course is not really doing what it intends to do – [instead of] setting up teacher candidates for success to be “adaptive experts”, and, ideally, public intellectuals, [it provides them] with a discourse that favours the neoliberal norms. Once again, this isn’t done *willingly*. The professors have good intentions; in fact, they stated that they want the course to not be stressful for the TCs, and it’s clear that they want to provide them the time and support to succeed, but I think they are doing this at their own expense. The teacher educators are similarly trapped. [Research journal entry #2022.10.20].

Future studies might examine in more detail adjunct or seconded professors’ practices and their relation to how candidates understand professional learning. One area of study could examine how reflection assignments are designed and introduced across the multiple courses in ITE. By examining the content of the reflections, we can examine how candidates are called on to make ‘truth acts’ about professionalism through their writing (see Article 3). Moreover, we might

examine how program expectations legitimize this form of knowing by exploring whether the nature of these reflections fall into the realm of ‘second-order activities’ (Ball, 2003), where candidates are merely producing work to meet the performative requirements of the program (e.g. Kaszuba, Masson et al., 2024) rather than as a meaningful vehicle to help candidates assert their subjectivity. In this sense, we might analyze how reflexivity has become a neoliberalized rem[an]der of what used to be integral to occupational professionalism.

Resilience governance: A means of empowerment?

In this thesis, I draw from Chandler’s (2014b) view of critical complexity to explore how policy works under neoliberal forms of governance. In the theoretical model, I suggest that complexity in ITE can be envisioned as a continuum between neoliberal and resilience governance based on how the political, professional, and institutional bodies are conceived in relation to one another. At the neoliberal end, these bodies are positioned as concentric circles, with the institutional ‘embedded’ within the professional and the political. In this embedded model, neoliberal approaches consider ITE as a complex system in which the political must intervene through policy in order to attain specific outcomes in line with economic priorities. This approach continues to reproduce the practices that contribute to the era of accountability (Cochran-Smith et al., 2018) in Canadian ITE. According to Cochran-Smith et al. (2018), ITE accountability initiatives function under the three-part logic that “‘holding teacher education accountable’ will boost the quality of initial teacher preparation programmes and institutions; boosting the quality of initial teacher preparation will increase the overall level of teacher quality, defined especially in terms of students’ achievement; and, higher levels of student achievement will ensure both the prosperity of individuals and the long-term economic health of the nation” (p. 15). As the results of Article 3 suggest, when teacher candidates work in ITE

under such accountability regimes, they enact practices, ways of thinking and being that reproduce the dominant paradigm of the specialized technician role of teacher work.

In contrast, at the resilience end of the continuum, governance approaches ontologize complexity by recognizing their complicity in complex systems. Instead of trying to manage the complexity of the institutional through top-down policy mandates and interventions intended to uncover the hidden causal mechanisms in ITE, the governing body recognize themselves as subject to the realities of complexity and work towards developing relational approaches with the governed. At the resilience end, I construe the relationship between the political, professional and institutional with help from Cochran-Smith et al.'s (2014) CTCR framework: these bodies are three overlapping but non-saturating systems (Walby, 2021), who must engage in a relational accountability with one another (Cochran-Smith, 2021) to address persistent problems that continue to plague ITE. In this view, there are parts of each system, particularly the institutional, that reside outside of the purview of the political and professional as these parts cannot be captured by an external view. In addition, by working through the social practices of actors, by devolving responsibility and power down to the individual- and community-level, complexity-based resilience thinking suggests that governance functions by allowing life to govern itself. Actors take up the responsibility to empower themselves by developing practices which can resolve the issues they encounter. Resilience governance creates the conditions in which actors can emancipate themselves from the throes of neoliberalism...or so the theory goes.

Applying resilience-thinking to ITE, I worked with teacher candidates in this project to develop their own social practices through the model of CoPs. However, as I have questioned throughout this discussion, it remains to be seen whether the candidates' practices could be equated to a form of self-empowerment. On one hand, candidates had more autonomy to select

topics that were relevant to them, engage in types of professionalism that they thought were appropriate, and occasionally assert beliefs and values in such a way that conflicted with the discourses of professionalism promoted by the ITE program. On the other, the relative lack, and in fact, decrease of participation during the project points to a larger issue. Most of the candidates did not choose these voluntary CoP as a way to express their professionalism, and even for those that did, they faced numerous contestations to the legitimacy of these CoP: they struggled to maintain the momentum of the CoP until the end of the year as program demands increased exponentially; they struggled to find or create value in these CoP; and they struggled with developing internal norms of collaboration (or at least feeling open to engage in conversations about them throughout the meetings). The fact that none of the candidates were successful at maintaining the CoP into Year 2 also suggests that these CoP were perhaps not practical, and certainly not sustainable beyond the first year of the ITE program. Despite working *through* the practices of teacher candidates, could one say that these candidates were really empowered? Was this resilience governance in action?

A more relational form of governance has existed in Ontario, where the government worked with stakeholders in the institutional and professional to do policy work in education a different way (Campbell, 2018). Although the potential impact of the 2016 policy of Collaborative Professionalism, and subsequent changes to ITE, was unfortunately cut short by the switch to a Conservative government in 2018 (Campbell, 2023), this previous form of policy work was arguably more in line with resilience-thinking than what this thesis could hope to accomplish. This thesis' project was not the result of a benevolent government deciding to restart the Collaborative Professionalism agenda, deciding to retract their self-appointed omnipotent control over ITE policy, and instead allow the ITE program to develop an internal form of

accountability based on the experiences of teacher candidates. Rather, this project involved institutionally-based cohort leaders who offered voluntary professional learning experiences to a group of candidates in a system that was mostly unchanged and still under pressure from two decades of neoliberal policymaking and accountability measures. Candidates engaged in the project despite the overwhelming demands placed on them from the ITE program, in addition to confronting pressures of neoliberal policies in their personal lives (i.e. in the actual domain, Bhaskar, 1975/2008), such as: managing the rising costs of tuition, rent, and other expenses; finding and maintaining jobs in addition to their full-time studies; raising children and families (a burden disproportionately faced by female candidates); maintaining a work-life balance, their mental and physical health, and sense of well-being; or trying to integrate into an unfamiliar and perhaps unwelcoming culture as immigrants. Despite all this, some of these candidates willingly took on additional work by engaging in the CoPs. Perhaps some of the participants gained something from this experience which will benefit them in their professional lives; however, the limitations of the data do not allow me to speculate further on this point. Still, to summarize my general feeling from working with these candidates as a CoP facilitator, more often than not I had the impression that these candidates made a substantial investment of time and energy into something which did not yield notable returns: to borrow market logic, these candidates arguably came to the conclusion that they were not able “to maximize their utility under [the] prevailing circumstances” (Tan, 2014, p. 416) of these CoPs. It is not too bold to claim that these CoPs hardly moved the needle on the neoliberal-resilience continuum.

Ultimately, I argue that these CoP did not do much to allow for candidates to empower themselves within an ITE program that suffers under the pressures of neoliberal policies. While these CoP allowed power relations in which candidates are imbricated to come to the fore, they

did not allow candidates to begin to challenge and rearrange those power relations, nor make any meaningful impact on the institutional culture. Gratuitously, I believe the CoPs in this thesis are a proof of concept for how an ITE program can integrate professional learning design which is outside the accountability mechanisms of standards and policies to which the program is beholden. In other words, the knowledge sharing, knowledge creation, and defense of interests' mechanisms presented in Articles 1, 2 and 3 could fall into that space of the institutional circle which is not overlapping with the professional and political. As such, I posit that these voluntary CoPs cannot be governed through external intervention, because what happened in the CoPs cannot be meaningfully captured nor reproduced through top-down policy mandates. Nevertheless, in their current form, these CoP are a far cry from a means of candidate self-empowerment. Empowerment would mean letting candidates have the autonomy to choose what they do with their autonomy. Empowerment would require the ITE program (and by extension, the government) to devolve both responsibility *and* power down to the level of the candidates (Joseph, 2016), but unfortunately, these candidates were only burdened with more responsibility.

According to Joseph (2013), this lack of empowerment is a main limitation of using a critical complexity framework to construe how resilience functions as a means of governance. Joseph, a critic of Chandler (2014b)'s resilience framework, offers another view of resilience through the lens of governmentality to explain what might be happening when we endeavor to empower individuals to be active and responsible through policy. Below, I engage with Joseph's thinking to offer a counterbalance to the framework proposed in this thesis and offer additional insight into what might be happening as we work with candidates in voluntary CoP.

Resilience as an extension of neoliberal governmentality. Before I go further in this analysis, I want to note that like the CoP framework, the concept of resilience which Chandler

(2014b) and Joseph (2013) explore draws from examples centered in international peacekeeping efforts or national security policies. In these instances, they analyze how resilience as a term is conceptualized, ranging from a hollow buzzword to more detailed descriptions of an actionable concept. Unlike how the concept is taken up in their body of literature, this thesis did not examine how resilience is treated as a term in Ontario ITE policy. The continuum proposed in the introduction is a useful way to conceptualize how complexity is taken up in governance and to make the distinction between previous ways of conceptualizing ITE to the framework of CTCR. Moreover, I believe the implied mechanism of how resilience governance functions can be compared to what policies on professional learning, collaborative professionalism, and CoPs are hoping to accomplish in the context of ITE (i.e., to develop the conditions for the emergence of the social practices of candidates so that they may empower themselves to break from normalizing neoliberal discourses). In line with Chandler's resilience framework, candidates are called on to confront the uncertainties of complex educational systems by "show[ing] their own initiative as active and reflexive agents capable of adaptive behaviour." (Joseph, 2013, p. 39), who have autonomy and responsibility over their own professional learning. These CoPs allegedly created the conditions for candidates to express their autonomy and prove themselves to be active agents.

As Joseph (2016) argues, the literature on resilience falls into two approaches. The first approach, or the mainstream approach, operates under conditions of complexity and "emphasizes a view of resilience as opportunity and possibility" (p. 371). This is the approach that I have generally taken up in the framework of the thesis, as well as applied to my thinking in Articles 1 and 2. The second approach, to which Joseph adheres, adopts a critical understanding and positions resilience as mostly consistent with the principles of neoliberal governmentality:

From a governmentality perspective, it can be seen why a resilience-based approach should place such emphasis on things such as awareness, preparedness, information sharing, informed decision-making, understanding our roles and responsibilities, showing adaptability to our situation and having the psychological ability to ‘bounce back’ if things go wrong. These fit with neo-liberal approaches that put emphasis on us as having the freedom, but also the responsibility, that comes with governing ourselves in appropriate ways. Resilience, seen in relation to governance, is about encouraging active citizenship where people, rather than being dependent on the state, take responsibility for (if not necessarily control of) their own well-being...Resilience, therefore, is part of a process that not only frames the world in a certain way, but also helps construct a particular type of subject that operates according to the norms and values of such a framing. This subject will be evaluated according to its resourcefulness and ability to cope in the face of adversity. (Joseph, 2018, p. 24)

As I mention in Article 3, Joseph’s view of neoliberal governmentality means “governing from a distance”, where governmentality devolves responsibility onto individuals, and neoliberalism manufactures the environment in which they are able to take up this responsibility, or make choices. I believe this second approach focused on the mechanisms of resilience offers a more convincing view of what was happening as ITE tries to ‘empower’ candidates through CoP.

First, let us return to the notion of Collaborative Professionalism. As I state in the introduction, Collaborative Professionalism was an agreement that policymaking over ITE should (continue to) be carried out through more relational approaches between the institutional, professional, and political (Campbell, 2018; Hargreaves & O’Connor, 2018b). This relational approach emerged from, and perhaps renewed the Ontario government’s commitment to

‘ontologize complexity’ by being critically reflexive on their entanglement in these overlapping complex systems when it comes to policymaking. However, the cancellation of this form of relational governance combined with the inclusion of the concept of collaborative professionalism in knowledge frameworks of language teacher candidates (Masson et al., 2021) is, as Joseph would argue, in line with the goals of neoliberal governmentality. Although collaborative professionalism and CoPs can be described as agent-centred, in the sense that they rest “on the collective skills and capacities [of] teachers and other professionals” (Hargreaves & O’Connor, 2018b, p. 13), they arguably function by “lowering expectations of what Western governments are prepared to do” and “moves away from direct intervention or provision of resources in favour of ‘empowering’ local subjects” (Joseph, 2013, p. 44). The Ontario government is no longer obliged to engage meaningfully and directly with stakeholders; it can instead manage ITE from a distance by encouraging institutional actors, like teacher candidates, to be responsible for their professional learning through the development of their collaborative professionalism. While candidates may now have the autonomy, and indeed, responsibility, to make choices for themselves with regard to their professional learning, the neoliberal conditions of the ITE program compel candidates to express their autonomy in specific ways. Certain choices are constructed to be more attractive than others, and the emergent CoPs in this thesis were the less attractive choice.

It is important to remember that the ongoing development of these CoP cannot be attributed to a single choice that candidates made at the beginning of the year. Consistent with complexity understandings (Fenwick, 2012), candidates make a series of choices that define their professional trajectories throughout the ITE program. Participants in this study had to repeatedly make a choice to continue engaging in the CoP throughout the duration of the academic year.

Their choices amounted to two different outcomes: for the first outcome, the pressures of the accountability mechanisms in ITE begin to weigh on candidates as they must perform the expectations as defined through the accreditation document and professional standards, such as completing assignments, attending courses and workshops, and meeting the criteria of practicum. Because the work that candidates do in the emergent CoP cannot be connected to any of these prescribed forms of professional learning, and because “there is often no opt-out option” (Joseph, 2018, p. 171), continuing to participate in the emergent CoP no longer seems like a productive, useful, or practical choice. The accountability mechanisms – responsabilization combined with monitoring and surveillance (Ball, 2003; Joseph, 2018) – guide candidate behaviour to prioritize the type of work in ITE that is consistent with the norms and values of neoliberalism, and these emergent CoP were outside of those norms. Candidates were able to ‘survive’ the uncertainties of the complex CoP by showing their own initiative as active agents who adapted their behaviour and chose the more ‘guaranteed’ and ‘worthwhile’ ways to express their professionalism. For the second outcome of these CoP, I return to the argument developed in Article 3; that is, candidates may continue to choose developing their emergent CoP, but the thematics of the CoP begin to assume neoliberal tones, where discussions and activities end up reproducing neoliberal discourses or ways of interacting.

Overall, while the intended purpose of a CoP policy may be to encourage candidates to empower themselves and be active, responsible professionals, in reality, the conditions of the program favour specific types of CoPs and choices: “the discourse talks of putting local people ‘in the driving seat’ when in reality the direction of the journey has already been decided” (Joseph, 2013, p. 48).

Concluding Remarks

When I began this doctoral project, I truly believed autonomous and voluntary CoPs were a professional learning model that allowed candidates the opportunity to empower themselves while working through an ITE program. After all, I certainly felt empowered when I had launched such a CoP during my professional journey through ITE. In fact, I still believe that these CoPs are a useful way to develop educators' professionalism, but the results of this thesis has led me to be more cautious in how I view professional learning policies, teacher knowledge frameworks, and standards and their relation to the empowerment and autonomy of educators. As neoliberal ways of viewing the world modernize themselves and creep into all aspects of our lives, they attach themselves to values and concepts that we believe we want to uphold: as Moore and Clarke (2016) observed, terms we associate with these values "circle the revised concept...like moons around a newly formed planet" (p. 671). Communities of practice, collaborative professionalism, professional capital, trust, honesty, respect, autonomy, safety, well-being, reflexivity, uncertainty...all of these terms risk becoming moons, circling around the concept of teacher professionalism as it is taken up, revised, mutated and manufactured through educational policy created under neoliberal governance.

While complexity offered me new perspectives for thinking about how to construct voluntary CoPs and how to envision the structure of ITE programs, the main contribution of this thesis, I believe, is the exposition of the limits of using complexity theory to understand how ITE works, specifically when it comes to understanding governance and power. By analyzing how a CoP policy functions when it is applied to the complex system of ITE, one can see the extent to which neoliberal values continue to pervade teacher education, even if the policy claims to operate under the guise of autonomy and empowerment. This is not to say that CoPs, the CTCR

framework, and the notion of resilience-based governance are unhelpful perspectives which should be tossed out; on the contrary, it was only through the application of these concepts in practice that I was able to identify the veiled power relations in this ITE program. Yet, as Joseph (2018) suggests,

governance does indeed occur through complexity, but only partially in the way it is understood by Chandler. Moreover, this governance through complexity reinforces existing techniques of governance with the supposed shift from governments to people a reinforcement of governmentality and therefore the technologies and techniques of governance that are available to the state (p. 181).

In other words, complexity-informed interventions in ITE do not allow us to move beyond neoliberalism; rather, we are always evolving with it. With regard to ITE policy in Ontario and its implications for institutional practices, it seems that a dominant neoliberal paradigm has taken hold and influences the discourses that we use to construct what constitutes the professionalism and autonomy of teacher candidates. Given that governance through complexity may reinforce governmentality, we need to remain vigilant in how we use complexity to conceptualize and understand systems like ITE. To be fair, the ‘critical’ part of critical complexity is intended to do exactly that. However, rather than debates on whether this critical component should be viewed through the lens of postmodernism (Cilliers, 2016) or through critical realism (Cochran-Smith et al., 2014) – i.e Chandler’s neoliberal-resilience continuum – it may be prudent to develop future investigations into ITE through the two understandings of resilience proposed by Joseph (2016), where the possibility and opportunity afforded by complexity, like in Articles 1 and 2, are counterbalanced by the critical governmentality-informed view, such as that described in Article 3.

Lastly, as I had begun to develop in Article 3, our view of complexity, resilience, professionalism, empowerment, autonomy and their accompanying regimes of truth may ultimately be limited by our Western, Anglo-Saxon views of the world (Joseph, 2018; Foucault, 2014). If we really wish for teacher candidates to empower themselves, it may be necessary for Ontario ITE to step outside of these discursive frameworks and embrace other perspectives, like the University of Ottawa has begun to do with indigenous teachings (Brant-Biroukov et al., 2020). Countries like Germany and France also have interests, ideas and beliefs in their policy discourses that deviate from the neoliberal notion of resilience (Joseph, 2018). Not only this, but alternative views of language and plurilingualism in these countries may also shape the way that professionalism is conceived through ITE policy and taken up by language teacher candidates. Overall, by examining how the construction of ITE policy in different contexts and through different frameworks reaches down into the practice development of teacher candidates working in learning communities, we may begin to envision alternate ways that we can support their self-empowerment.

References

- Alhadeff-Jones, M. (2008). Three generations of complexity theories: Nuances and ambiguities. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 40(1), 66–82. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-5812.2007.00411.x>
- Ambrosetti, A., Dekkers, J., & Knight, B. A. (2017). Mentoring triad: an alternative mentoring model for preservice teacher education? *Mentoring and Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, 25(1), 42–60. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13611267.2017.1308093>
- Ambrosetti, A., Knight, B. A., & Dekkers, J. (2014). Maximizing the potential of mentoring: A framework for pre-service Teacher Education. *Mentoring and Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, 22(3), 224–239. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13611267.2014.926662>
- Anderson, R. A., Crabtree, B. F., Steele, D. J., & McDaniel, R. R. (2005). Case study research: The view from complexity science. *Qualitative Health Research*, 15(5), 669–685. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732305275208>
- Annink, A. (2017). Using the research journal during qualitative data collection in a cross-cultural context. *Entrepreneurship Research Journal*, 7(1). <https://doi.org/10.1515/erj-2015-0063>
- Arnott, S., Brogden, L. M., Faez, F., Péguret, M., Piccardo, E., Katherine, R., Taylor, S., & Wernicke, M. (2017). The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) in Canada: A research agenda. *Language Testing and Assessment*, 1, 417–426. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-02261-1_29
- Asención Delaney, Y. (2012). Research on mentoring language teachers: Its role in language education. *Foreign Language Annals*, 45(SUPPL.1), 184–202. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2011.01185.x>

- Ball, S. J. (2003). The teacher's soul and the terrors of performativity. *Journal of Education Policy*, 18(2), 215–228. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0268093022000043065>
- Ball, S., & Olmedo, A. (2013). Care of the self, resistance and subjectivity under neoliberal governmentalities. *Critical Studies in Education*, 54(1), 85–96. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17508487.2013.740678>
- Barab, S. A., Makinster, J. G., & Scheckler, R. (2003). Designing system dualities: Characterizing an online professional development community. *The Information Society*, 19, 237–256. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511805080.007>
- Basu, R. (2004). The rationalization of neoliberalism in Ontario's public education system, 1995–2000. *Geoforum*, 35, 621–634.
- Bayliss, D., & Vignola, M. J. (2007). Training non-native second language teachers: The case of anglophone FSL teacher candidates. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 63(3), 371–398. <https://doi.org/10.3138/K2U7-H14L-5471-61W0>
- Beck, U. (2002). Freedom's children. In U. Beck & E. Beck-Gernsheim, *Individualization: Institutionalized individualism and its social and political consequences* (pp. 156–171). Sage.
- Bertrand, F., Pasco, D., & Reffay, C. (2022). Les communautés d'apprentissage professionnelles en éducation : une revue de la littérature. *Revue Des Sciences de l'éducation*, 48(3), 1–54. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.7202/1103274ar>
- Bhaskar, R. (1975/2008). *A realist theory of science*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203090732>
- Biesta, G. J. J. (2016). *The beautiful risk of education*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/https://doi-org.proxy.bib.uottawa.ca/10.4324/9781315635866>

- Bond, N. (2013). Developing a professional learning community among preservice teachers. *Current Issues in Education, 16*(2).
<https://cie.asu.edu/ojs/index.php/cieatasu/article/view/1053/488>
- Brant-Birioukov, K., Ng-A-Fook, N., & Kane, R. (2020). Reconceptualizing teacher education in Ontario: Civic particularities, ethical engagement and reconciliation. In A. Phelan, W. Pinar, N. Ng-A-Fook & R. Kane (Eds.), *Reconceptualizing teacher education worldwide: A Canadian contribution to a global challenge* (pp. 55-91). University of Ottawa Press.
- Britzman, D. P. (2007). Teacher education as uneven development: Toward a psychology of uncertainty. *International Journal of Leadership in Education, 10*(1), 1–12.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13603120600934079>
- Brøns Kringelum, L., & Brix, J. (2020). Critical realism and organizational learning. *Learning Organization, 28*(1), 32–45. <https://doi.org/10.1108/TLO-03-2020-0035>
- Bullough, R. V. (2012). Mentoring and new teacher induction in the United States: A review and analysis of current practices. *Mentoring and Tutoring: Partnership in Learning, 20*(1), 57–74. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13611267.2012.645600>
- Byrd Clark, J. (2011). Toward a policy of heterogeneity in Canada: The journeys of integration of multilingual student teachers of FSL in Ontario in plurilingual times. *OLBI Working Papers, 3*, 110–122. <https://doi.org/10.18192/olbiwp.v3i0.1097>
- Byrd Clark, J., Mady, C., & Vanthuyne, A. (2014). Exploring reflexivity and multilingualism in three French language teacher education programs. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 17*(1), 129–155.
<https://journals.lib.unb.ca/index.php/CJAL/article/download/20098/25899/33479>

- Campbell, C. (2018). Developing teacher leadership and collaborative professionalism to flip the system: Reflections from Canada. *Flip the System Australia: What Matters in Education*, 74–84.
- Campbell, C. (2021). Partnership working and collaborative professionalism for educational improvement in Ontario, Canada. *Die Deutsche Schule*, 113, 74–84.
<https://doi.org/10.25656/01:22076>
- Campbell, C. (2023). Policy turns in teacher education: The Case of Ontario, Canada, during the twenty-first century. In D. Mifsud & S. P. Day (Eds.), *Teacher Education, Learning Innovation and Accountability* (pp. 25–45). Springer International Publishing.
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-28620-9_2
- Campbell, C., Osmond-Johnson, P., Faubert, B., Hobbs-Johnson, A., Brown, S., Dacosta, P., Hales, A., Kuehn, L., Sohn, J., & Steffensen, K. (2017). *The state of educators' professional learning in Canada: Final research report*. The Professional Learning Association, 2–58. <https://learningforward.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/11/learning-forward-report-the-state-of-educators-professional-learning-in-canada.pdf>
- Campbell, T., Wenner, J. A., Brandon, L., & Waszkelewicz, M. (2022). A community of practice model as a theoretical perspective for teacher leadership. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 25(2), 173–196.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13603124.2019.1643500>
- Cassidy, C., Christie, D., Coutts, N., Dunn, J., Sinclair, C., Skinner, D., & Wilson, A. (2008). Building communities of educational enquiry. *Oxford Review of Education*, 34(2), 217–235. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03054980701614945>

Chandler, D. (2014a) Beyond neoliberalism: resilience, the new art of governing complexity.

Resilience (2)1, 47-63. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21693293.2013.878544>

Chandler, D. (2014b). *Resilience: the governance of complexity*. Taylor & Francis Group.

<https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315773810>

Chandler, D. (2015). Resilience and the “everyday”: Beyond the paradox of “liberal peace.”

Review of International Studies, 41(1), 27–48.

<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0260210513000533>

Cherkowski, S., & Schnellert, L. (2018). Teacher, team, and school change through reciprocal learning. *Teacher Development*, 22(2), 229–248.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/13664530.2017.1338197>

Cherubini, L. (2009). Teacher candidates’ perceptions of school organization: Fundamental inconsistencies between expectations and experiences. *McGill Journal of Education*,

44(2), 213–228. <https://doi.org/10.7202/039033ar>

Christiansen, H., & Laplante, B. (2004). Second language pre-service teachers as learners: The language portfolio project. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 60(4), 439–455.

<https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.60.4.439>

Cilliers, P. (2016). *Critical complexity: Collected essays*. De Gruyter.

<https://doi.org/10.1525/9780520340039>

Cochran-Smith, M. & Lytle, S. L. (2009). Teacher research as stance. In S. E. Noffke & B.

Somekh (Eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Educational Action Research* (pp. 39–49). Sage

Publications. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9780857021021.n2>

Cochran-Smith, M. (2021). Rethinking teacher education: The trouble with accountability.

Oxford Review of Education, 47(1), 8–24.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/03054985.2020.1842181>

Cochran-Smith, M., Carney, M. C., Keefe, E. S., Burton, S., Wen-Chia Chang, Fernandez, M. B., Miller, A. F., Sanchez, J. G. & Baker, M. (2018). *Reclaiming accountability in teacher education*. Teachers College Press.

Cochran-Smith, M., Ell, F., Grudnoff, L., Haigh, M., Hill, M., & Ludlow, L. (2016). Initial teacher education: What does it take to put equity at the center? *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 57, 67–78. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2016.03.006>

Cochran-Smith, M., Ell, F., Grudnoff, L., Ludlow, L., Haigh, M., & Hill, M. (2014b). When complexity theory meets critical realism: A platform for research on initial teacher education. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 41(1), 105–122.
<http://ezproxy.newcastle.edu.au/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=ehh&AN=109202007&site=eds-live>

Cochran-Smith, M., Ell, F., Ludlow, L., Grudnoff, L., & Aitken, G. (2014a). The challenge and promise of complexity theory for teacher education research. *Teachers College Record*, 116(5), 1–38.

Connell, R. (2013). The neoliberal cascade and education: An essay on the market agenda and its consequences. *Critical Studies in Education*, 54(2), 99–112.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/17508487.2013.776990>

Coppola, R., Rocha, D. J., & Woodard, R. (2021). Toward a bidirectional and co-constructed mentorship: Rethinking the mentor and student–teacher relationship. *Literacy Research:*

Theory, Method, and Practice, 70(1), 252–271.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/23813377211033559>

Darling-Hammond, L. (2017). Teacher education around the world: What can we learn from international practice? *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 40(3), 291–309.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2017.1315399>

Darling-Hammond, L. (2020). Accountability in teacher education. *Action in Teacher Education*, 42(1), 60–71. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01626620.2019.1704464>

Darling-Hammond, L., & Podolsky, A. (2019). Breaking the cycle of teacher shortages: What kind of policies can make a difference? *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 27(34).

<https://doi.org/10.14507/epaa.27.4633>

Davis, B., & Sumara, D. (2005). Challenging images of knowing: Complexity science and educational research. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 18(3), 305–321. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09518390500082293>

Davis, B., & Sumara, D. (2012). Fitting teacher education in/to/for an increasingly complex world. *Complicity: An International Journal of Complexity in Education*, 9(1), 30+.

<https://doi.org/10.29173/cmplet16531>

De Souza, D. E. (2016). Critical realism and realist review: Analyzing complexity in educational restructuring and the limits of generalizing program theories across borders. *American Journal of Evaluation*, 37(2), 216–237. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1098214015605175>

DeLuca, C., Bolden, B., & Chan, J. (2017). Systemic professional learning through collaborative inquiry: Examining teachers' perspectives. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 67, 67–78.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2017.05.014>

- Desjardins, J., Sauvé, J. et Petit, M. (2019). Constituer des groupes de codéveloppement professionnel en accompagnement de stagiaires : quels défis pour quels bénéfices? Dans F. Vanderleyen, M. L'Hostie, et M.-J. Dumoulin, (dir), *Le groupe de codéveloppement professionnel pour former à l'accompagnement des stagiaires : conditions, enjeux et perspectives* (pp. 51–76). Presses de l'Université du Québec.
- Dunn, W. (2011). Working toward social inclusion through concept development in second language teacher education. In K. E. Johnson & P. R. Golombek (Eds.), *Research on Second Language Teacher Education: A Sociocultural Perspective on Professional Development* (pp. 50–64). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203844991>
- Ell, F., Haigh, M., Cochran-Smith, M., Grudnoff, L., Ludlow, L., & Hill, M. F. (2017). Mapping a complex system: what influences teacher learning during initial teacher education? *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 45(4), 327–345. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1359866X.2017.1309640>
- Ell, F., Simpson, A., Mayer, D., McLean Davies, L., Clinton, J., & Dawson, G. (2019). Conceptualising the impact of initial teacher education. *Australian Educational Researcher*, 46(1), 177–200. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13384-018-0294-7>
- Faez, F. (2011). Developing the knowledge base of ESL and FSL teachers for K-12 programs in Canada. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 14(01), 29–49. <https://journals.lib.unb.ca/index.php/CJAL/article/view/19865>
- Fenwick, T. (2012). Complexity science and professional learning for collaboration: A critical reconsideration of possibilities and limitations. *Journal of Education and Work*, 25(1), 141–162. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13639080.2012.644911>

- Flores, N. (2013). The unexamined relationship between neoliberalism and plurilingualism: A cautionary tale. *TESOL Quarterly*, 47(3), 500–520. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.114>
- Frank, C., Zorzi, R., McGinnis-Dunphy, M., Dourado, L., Dare, L., Daele, G. Van den, & Brooker, A.-S. (2021). *Beginning teachers' learning journeys longitudinal study: Year 5 Report (Issue June)*. Ontario Public School Boards' Association. <https://www.opsba.org/wp-content/uploads/2022/10/BTLJ-y5-report-final-July2021.pdf>
- Gagné, A., & Thomas, R. (2011). Language portfolio design for a concurrent teacher education program in Ontario, Canada. *Synergies Europe*, 6, 219–228. <http://gerflint.fr/Base/Europe6/gagne.pdf>
- Gambhir, M., Broad, K., Evans, M., & Gaskell, J. (2008). *Characterizing initial teacher education in Canada: Themes and issues*. Prepared for the International Alliance of Leading Education Institutes. Ontario Institute for Studies in Education. http://www.oise.utoronto.ca/ite/Projects_Research/index.html
- Gass, S. M., & Mackey, A. (2016). *Stimulated recall methodology in applied linguistics and L2 research (2nd ed.)*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315813349>
- Gibbs, P., Cartney, P., Wilkinson, K., Parkinson, J., Cunningham, S., James-Reynolds, C., Zoubir, T., Brown, V., Barter, P., Sumner, P., MacDonald, A., Dayananda, A., & Pitt, A. (2017). Literature review on the use of action research in higher education. *Educational Action Research*, 25(1), 3–22. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09650792.2015.1124046>
- Government of Ontario (2002). *O. Reg. 347/02: Accreditation of teacher education programs*, under [Ontario College of Teachers Act, 1996, S.O. 1996, c.12](https://www.ontario.ca/laws/regulation/020347#BK12). <https://www.ontario.ca/laws/regulation/020347#BK12>

Government of Ontario (2013). *O. Reg. 283/13: Accreditation of teacher education programs*, under [Ontario College of Teachers Act, 1996, S.O. 1996, c.12.](#)

<https://www.ontario.ca/laws/regulation/r13283>

Grierson, A., Cantalini-Williams, M., Wideman-Johnston, T., & Tedesco, S. (2011). Building scaffolds in the field: The benefits and challenges of teacher candidate peer mentorship. *Brock Education Journal*, 20(2), 85–103. <https://doi.org/10.26522/brocked.v20i2.171>

Grimmett, P. P. (2009). The governance of Canadian teacher education: A macro-political perspective. *Counterpoints*, 334, 22–32. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/42980268>

Grimmett, P. P. (2021). *Restoring soul, passion, and purpose in teacher education*. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003057345>

Grimmett, P. P., & D'Amico, L. (2008). Do British Columbia's recent education policy changes enhance professionalism among teachers? *Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy*, 78, 1–35.

<https://dev.journalhosting.ucalgary.ca/index.php/cjeap/article/view/42759/30619>

Gu, Q. & Day, C. (2013) Challenges to teacher resilience: Conditions count. *British Educational Research Journal*, 39(1), 22-44. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01411926.2011.623152>

Gu, Q. (2014). The role of relational resilience in teachers' career-long commitment and effectiveness. *Teachers and Teaching, Theory and Practice*, 20(5), 502–529. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13540602.2014.937961>

Hall, D., & McGinity, R. (2015). Conceptualizing teacher professional identity in neoliberal times: Resistance, compliance and reform. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 23(88), 1–21. <https://doi.org/10.14507/epaa.v23.2092>

Hall, S. (2011). The neo-liberal revolution. *Cultural Studies*, 25(6), 705-728.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/09502386.2011.619886>

Hargreaves, A. & O'Connor, M. (2018b). *Collaborative professionalism: When teaching together means learning for all*. Corwin.

Hargreaves, A., & O'Connor, M. T. (2018a). Solidarity with solidity: The case for collaborative professionalism. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 100(1), 20–24.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0031721718797116>

Hoaglund, A. E., Birkenfeld, K., & Box, J. A. (2014). Professional learning communities: Creating a foundation for collaboration skills in pre-service teachers. *Education*, 134(4), 521–528. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781446288931.n8>

Hobson, A. J., Ashby, P., Malderez, A., & Tomlinson, P. D. (2009). Mentoring beginning teachers: What we know and what we don't. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(1), 207–216. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2008.09.001>

Holloway, J., & Brass, J. (2018). Making accountable teachers: the terrors and pleasures of performativity. *Journal of Education Policy*, 33(3), 361–382.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/02680939.2017.1372636>

Hudson, P., Hudson, S., Gray, B., & Bloxham, R. (2013). Learning about being effective mentors: Professional learning communities and mentoring. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 93, 1291–1300. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.10.031>

Jack, D. & Nyman, J. (2019). Meeting labour market needs for French as a second language instruction in Ontario. *American Journal of Educational Research*, 7(7), 428-438.

<https://doi.org/10.12691/education-7-7-1>

Jacquet, M., & Dagenais, D. (2010). Perspective croisée sur la collaboration professionnelle des enseignants dans trois contextes scolaires en Colombie-Britannique. *Erudit.Org*, 45(3).

<https://www.erudit.org/en/journals/mje/1900-v1-n1-mje1663516/1003575ar/abstract/>

Johnson, K. E., & Golombek, P. R. (2020). Informing and transforming language teacher education pedagogy. *Language Teaching Research*, 24(1), 116–127.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168818777539>

Joseph, J. (2013). Resilience as embedded neoliberalism: A governmentality approach.

Resilience, 1(1), 38–52. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21693293.2013.765741>

Joseph, J. (2016). Governing through failure and denial: The new resilience agenda. *Millennium: Journal of International Studies*, 44(3), 370–390.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0305829816638166>

Joseph, J. (2018). *Varieties of resilience: studies in governmentality*. Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781316551028>

Kane, R. G., & Francis, A. (2013). Preparing teachers for professional learning: Is there a future for teacher education in new teacher induction? *Teacher Development*, 17(3), 362–379.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/13664530.2013.813763>

Kane, R., Jones, A., Rottman, J., & Conner, M. (2010). *NTIP evaluation: Final report executive summary (Cycle III)*. Ontario Ministry of Education.

http://www.edu.gov.on.ca/eng/policyfunding/memos/may2010/NTIP_Evaluation_Report_2010.pdf

Kaszuba, A. (in press). Navigating leadership pathways: Insights from a community of practice initiative with teacher candidates. In C. Smith & L. Schnellert (Eds.), *Research in teacher*

leadership in Canada: Transformative and contextualized agency. Canadian Association of Teacher Education. (p. 26)

Kaszuba, A. E. (2018). A comparison of teacher experiences between course-based and immersion-based FSL teacher education programs. *OISE GSRC Journal*, 1(1), 66–86.

<https://1e222839-ef72-4e9a-b2c6->

[0ae8e40de7f9.filesusr.com/ugd/94f94f_a17de7cb2dcb4aa8bb64a9f4e68ce16d.pdf](https://1e222839-ef72-4e9a-b2c6-0ae8e40de7f9.filesusr.com/ugd/94f94f_a17de7cb2dcb4aa8bb64a9f4e68ce16d.pdf)

Kaszuba, A., Masson, M., Arnott, S., Grant, R., & Friesen, B. (2024). Negotiating policies and standards: An exploratory practice into discourses of accountability in Canadian Teacher Education. In M. Kohout-Diaz & M.-C. Deyrich (Eds.), *Inclusive Educational Ethics, Facing the Facts* (pp. 128-146). Brill Sense. https://doi.org/10.1163/9789004705968_009

Kaszuba, Callie, M. & Jarvis, D. (2024). Exploring the use of communities of practice as professional development for French as a second language teachers. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*. Advanced Online Publication.

<https://journals.lib.unb.ca/index.php/CJAL/libraryFiles/downloadPublic/78>

Kemmis, S., McTaggart, R., & Nixon, R. (2014a). *The Action Research Planner: Doing Critical Participatory Action Research* (Vol. 53, Issue 9). Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-4560-67-2>

Kemmis, S., Wilkinson, J., Edwards-Groves, C., Hardy, I., Grootenboer, P., & Bristol, L. (2014b). *Changing Practices, Changing Education*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-4560-47-4>

Kissau, S. P., & King, E. T. (2015). Peer mentoring second language teachers: A mutually beneficial experience? *Foreign Language Annals*, 48(1), 143–160.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12121>

- Kitchen, J., & Petrarca, D. (2022). Initial teacher education in Ontario: The four-semester teacher education programs after five years. In *Canadian research in teacher education: A polygraph series* (Vol. 12). Canadian Association for Teacher Education/Canadian Society for the Study of Education. <https://prism.ucalgary.ca/bitstreams/bb8de0ff-bc24-4907-a99a-2d5091370a12/download>
- Knouzi, I., & Mady, C. (2014). Voices of resilience from the bottom rungs: The stories of three elementary core French teachers in Ontario. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 60(1), 62-80. <https://doi.org/10.11575/ajer.v60i1.55764>
- Knouzi, I., & Mady, C. (2017). Mapping asynchronous forum-based interaction patterns between second language educational researchers and practitioners. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 7(1), 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0701.01>
- Korhonen, H., Heikkinen, H. L. T., Kiviniemi, U., & Tynjälä, P. (2017). Student teachers' experiences of participating in mixed peer mentoring groups of in-service and pre-service teachers in Finland. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 61, 153–163. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2016.10.011>
- Korthagen, F. A. J. (2001). Linking Practice and Theory: The pedagogy of realistic teacher education. In *Handbook of Improving Performance in the Workplace* (Vol. 2). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781410600523>
- Kristmanson, P. L., Lafargue, C., & Culligan, K. (2011). From action to insight: A professional learning community's experiences with the European Language Portfolio. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 14(2), 53–67. <https://journals.lib.unb.ca/index.php/CJAL/article/view/19857>

- Kristmanson, P., Dicks, J., Le Bouthillier, J., & Bourgoin, R. (2008). L'écriture en immersion française : Les meilleures pratiques et le rôle d'une communauté professionnelle d'apprentissage. *Revue canadienne de la linguistique appliquée*, 11(1), 41–62.
https://auth.lib.unc.edu/ezproxy_auth.php?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=aph&AN=32481915&site=ehost-live&scope=site
- Kubanyiova, M. (2018). Language teacher education in the age of ambiguity: Educating responsive meaning makers in the world. *Language Teaching Research*, 24(1), 49–59.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168818777533>
- Kubanyiova, M., & Crookes, G. (2016). Re-envisioning the roles, tasks, and contributions of language teachers in the multilingual era of language education research and practice. *Modern Language Journal*, 100(c), 117–132. <https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12304>
- Kubota, R. (1998). Voices from the margin: Broadening perspectives for integrated second/foreign language teacher education. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 54(3), 394–412. <https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.54.3.394>
- Lapkin, S., Mady, C., & Arnott, S. (2009). Research perspectives on core French: A literature review. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 12(2), 6–30. <https://journals.lib.unb.ca/index.php/CJAL/article/view/19936>
- Lave, J. & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511815355>
- Lawrence, A. T., & Dubetz, N. (2001). An urban collaboration: Improving student learning through a professional development network. *Action in Teacher Education*, 22(4), 1–14.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/01626620.2001.10463025>

- Le Bouthillier, J., & Kristmanson, P. (2023). Becoming a French second language teacher: Supporting confidence and competence. *Second Language Research*, 2(1), 21–42.
<https://doi.org/10.1558/slte.24011>
- Le Cornu, R. (2005). Peer mentoring: Engaging pre-service teachers in mentoring one another. *Mentoring and Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, 13(3), 355–366.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13611260500105592>
- Le Cornu, R. (2016). Professional experience: learning from the past to build the future. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 44(1), 80–101.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/1359866X.2015.1102200>
- Lopez, J., & Potter, G. (2005). Varieties of realism: Introduction. In *After Postmodernism: An Introduction to Critical Realism* (pp. 17–72). Continuum.
- Loughran, J., & Brubaker, N. (2015). Working with a critical friend: A self-study of executive coaching. *Studying Teacher Education*, 11(3), 255–271.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/17425964.2015.1078786>
- Lui, C. (2016). *Death's End*. Tor Books.
- Macintyre Latta, M., Schnellert, L., Ondrik, K., & Sasges, M. (2020). Modes of being: mobilizing narrative inquiry. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 26(10), 1222–1232.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1077800418786309>
- Mansfield, C. F. (Ed.) (2020). *Cultivating teacher resilience: International approaches, applications and impact*. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-5963-1_1
- Mansfield, C. F., Beltman, S., Broadley, T., & Weatherby-Fell, N. (2016). Building resilience in teacher education: An evidenced informed framework. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 54, 77–87. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2015.11.016>

- Mason, S. (2017). Foreign language teacher attrition and retention research: A meta-analysis. *NECTFL Review*, 80(80), 47–68. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1253534.pdf>
- Masson, M. & Kaszuba, A. (2023). Creating equitable professional learning networks. *Le Journal de l'Immersion*, avril 2023. L'association canadienne des professionnels de l'immersion. https://membre.acpi.ca/wp-content/uploads/2023/03/VOL45_no1_final.pdf
- Masson, M. (2018). Reframing FSL teacher learning: Small stories of (re)professionalization and identity formation. *Journal of Belonging, Identity, Language, and Diversity*, 2(2), 77–102.
- Masson, M., Azan, A., & Battistuzzi, A. (2024). Centering social justice and well-being in FSL teacher identity formation to promote long-term retention. *In Education*, 29(2), 54–77. <https://doi.org/10.37119/ojs2024.v29i2>
- Masson, M., Battistuzzi, A., & Bastien, M.-P. (2021). *Literature review on essential components of effective teacher education for language teachers*. Canadian Association of Second Language Teachers (CASLT).
- Masson, M., Larson, E. J., Desgroseilliers, P., Carr, W., & Lapkin, S. (2019). *Accessing opportunity: A study on challenges in French-as-a-second-language education teacher supply and demand in Canada*. <https://www.clo-ocol.gc.ca/sites/default/files/2023-06/accessing-opportunity-fsl.pdf>
- McClendon Patrick, S., Rucinski, D. A., & Tomek, S. E. (2016). Meta-analyses of research on use of professional learning communities and their effects on student and teacher learning. In *Real World Professional Learning Communities: Their Use and Effects* (pp. 153–168). Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.

- Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2016). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation* (4th ed.). Jossey-Bass.
- Molitor, S., Parker, L., & Vetter, D. (2018). Mentoring for all: building knowledge and community. *Journal of Professional Capital and Community*, 3(4), 242–255.
<https://doi.org/10.1108/JPCC-12-2017-0035>
- Moore, A., & Clarke, M. (2016). ‘Cruel optimism’: teacher attachment to professionalism in an era of performativity. *Journal of Education Policy*, 31(5), 666–677.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/02680939.2016.1160293>
- Morales Perlaza, A., & Tardif, M. (2016). Pan-Canadian perspectives on teacher education: The state of the art in comparative research. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 62(2), 199–219. <https://doi.org/10.11575/ajer.v62i2.56221>
- Morris, J., Coutre, J.-C., & Phelan, A. (2023). Riding fences: Anticipatory governance, curriculum policy, and teacher subjectivity. *Canadian Journal of Education/Revue Canadienne de l'éducation*, 3(2023). <https://doi.org/10.53967/cje-rce.5833>
- Morrison, K. (2008). Educational philosophy and the challenge of complexity theory. In M. Mason (Ed.), *Complexity theory and the philosophy of education* (pp. 16–31). Wiley Blackwell. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781444307351>
- Muhling, S. (2016). *Teaching to learn and reciprocal learning among associate teachers in French as a second language teaching environments: A multiple case study*. University of Toronto [Doctoral Dissertation].
https://tspace.library.utoronto.ca/bitstream/1807/73085/1/Muhling_Stefanie_201606_PhD_thesis.pdf

- Mullen, C. A., Boyles, E. T., Witcher, A. W., & Klimaitis, C. C. (2020). Dynamics shaping collaborative peer group mentoring among educational leaders. *Mentoring and Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, 28(4), 416–438.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13611267.2020.1793087>
- Nicolini, D., Pyrko, I., Omidvar, O., & Spannellis, A. (2022). Understanding communities of practice: Taking stock and moving forward. *Academy of Management Annals*, 16(2), 680–718. <https://doi.org/doi:10.5465/annals.2020.0330>
- Ontario College of Teachers [OCT] (2016, June). *Professional learning framework for the teaching profession*. https://www.oct.ca/-/media/PDF/Professional%20Learning%20Framework/framework_e.pdf
- Opfer, D. & Pedder, V. D., (2011). Conceptualizing teacher professional learning. *Review of Educational Research*, 81(3), 376–407. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654311413609>
- Osberg, D., Biesta, G., & Cilliers, P. (2008). From representation to emergence: Complexity's challenge to the epistemology of schooling. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 40(1), 213–227. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-5812.2007.00407.x>
- Owen, S. (2014). Teacher professional learning communities: Going beyond contrived collegiality toward challenging debate and collegial learning and professional growth. *Australian Journal of Adult Learning*, 54(2), 54–77.
<https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1033925.pdf>
- Parker, L. (2017). Creating a crisis: Selling neoliberal policy through the rebranding of education. *Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy*, 183, 44–60.
<https://journalhosting.ucalgary.ca/index.php/cjeap/article/view/31168/30763>

- Pennanen, M., Bristol, L., Wilkinson, J., & Heikkinen, H. L. T. (2016). What is 'good' mentoring? Understanding mentoring practices of teacher induction through case studies of Finland and Australia. *Pedagogy, Culture and Society*, 24(1), 27–53.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/14681366.2015.1083045>
- Petrarca, D., & Kitchen, J. (Eds.). (2017). Initial teacher education in Ontario: The first year of four- semester teacher education programs. *Canadian Research in Teacher Education: A Polygraph Series*, 9. Canadian Association for Teacher Education.
<https://prism.ucalgary.ca/bitstreams/c2238570-0e75-4761-bfd0-15ec37d64a71/download>
- Piccardo, E. (2016). La diversité culturelle et linguistique comme ressource à la créativité. *Voix Plurielles*, 13(1), 57–75. <https://doi.org/10.26522/vp.v13i1.1370>
- Piccardo, E. (2017). Plurilingualism as a catalyst for creativity in superdiverse societies: A systemic analysis. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 8(DEC), 1–13.
<https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.02169>
- Pinto, L.E. (2012). *Curriculum reform in Ontario: "Common-sense" policy processes and democratic possibilities*. University of Toronto Press.
<https://doi.org/10.3138/9781442661554>
- Pyrko, I., Dörfler, V., & Eden, C. (2017). Thinking together: What makes Communities of Practice work? *Human Relations*, 70(4), 389–409.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726716661040>
- Pyrko, I., Dörfler, V., & Eden, C. (2019). Communities of practice in landscapes of practice. *Management Learning*, 50(4), 482–499. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1350507619860854>

- Ragoonaden, K.O. (2011). La compétence interculturelle et la formation initiale : le point sur le CECR et l'IDI. *Revue canadienne de linguistique appliquée*, 14(2), 86–105. <https://journals.lib.unb.ca/index.php/CJAL/article/view/19859>
- Richards, J. (2008). Second language teacher education today. *RELC Journal*, 39(2), 158-177. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688208092182>
- Rigas, B., & Kuchapski, R. (2016). “Strengthening” Ontario universities: A neoliberal reconstruction of higher education. *Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy*, 180, 47–70. <https://journalhosting.ucalgary.ca/index.php/cjeap/article/view/42894/30751>
- Rigas, B., & Kuchapski, R. (2018). Educating preservice teachers in a neoliberal era: Specialized technicians or public intellectuals? *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 64(4), 393–410. <https://doi.org/10.11575/ajer.v64i4.56361>
- Ross, B., Carbone, A., Lindsay, K., Drew, S., Phelan, L., Cottman, C., & Stoney, S. (2016). Developing educational goals: insights from a Peer Assisted Teaching Scheme. *International Journal for Academic Development*, 21(4), 350–363. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1360144X.2016.1189427>
- Rucinski, D. A. (2016). Guidelines for practitioners and researchers about Professional Learning Communities. *Real World Professional Learning Communities: Their Use and Effects*, 169–176.
- Sahlberg, P. (2015). *Finnish lessons 2.0: What can the world learn from educational change in Finland?* Teachers College Press.

- Salvatori, M. & MacFarlane, A. (2009). Profile pathways: Supports for developing FSL teachers' pedagogical, linguistic, and cultural competencies. *Panorama, CASLT Research Series*, September.
- Sanford, K. J., Hopper, T. F., & Starr, L. (2015). Transforming teacher education thinking: complexity and relational ways of knowing. *Complicity: An International Journal of Complexity and Education*, 12(2), 26–49. <https://doi.org/10.29173/cmplct23817>
- Santos, W., & Hoeh, E. (2022). The role of professional organizations in developing preservice teacher leaders. In N. Bond (Ed.), *The Power of Teacher Leaders: Their Roles, Influence, and Impact* (pp. 131–143). <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003123972-12>
- Schnellert, L., & Kozak, D. (2019). In situ hybrid spaces as generative sites for teacher preparation. *McGill Journal of Education*, 54(1), 1–23.
<https://doi.org/10.7202/1060860ar>
- Servage, L. (2009). Who is the “Professional” in a professional learning community? An exploration of teacher professionalism in collaborative professional development settings. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 32(1), 149–171. <https://journals.sfu.ca/cje/index.php/cje-rce/article/view/3038>
- Sharma, M. (2020). Challenges to equity-based teacher education initiatives: Practicum dilemmas of teacher candidates. In G. L. Black & K. W. Clausen (Eds.), *The Future of Action Research in Education: A Canadian Perspective* (pp. 288–304). McGill-Queen's University Press. <https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctv15d7xz3>
- Smith, C., Masson, M., Spiliotopoulos, V., & Kristmanson, P. (2023). A course or a pathway? Addressing French as a second language teacher recruitment and retention in Canadian

- BEEd Programs. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 46(2), 412–440.
<https://doi.org/10.53967/cje-rce.5515>
- Smith, W. R., & DuFour, R. (2012). Culture of collaboration: When districts function as professional learning communities. *The Education Digest*, 77(9), 23–27.
- Smyth, E., & Hamel, T. (2016). The history of initial teacher education in Canada: Québec and Ontario. *Educação & Formação (Fortaleza)*, 1(1 jan/abr), 88–109.
<https://doi.org/10.25053/edufor.v1i1.1606>
- Stagg-Peterson, S., Marks-Krpan, C., Swartz, L., & Bennett, J. (2011). University faculty, colleagues and teachers' federation as mentors in collaborative action research. *McGill Journal of Education*, 45(2), 255–272. <https://doi.org/10.7202/045607ar>
- Stake, R. E. (2005). Qualitative Case Studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research* (3rd ed., pp. 443–466). Sage.
- Strom, K. J., & Viesca, K. M. (2021). Towards a complex framework of teacher learning-practice. *Professional Development in Education*, 47(2–3), 209–224.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2020.1827449>
- Swanson, P., & Mason, S. (2018). The world language teacher shortage: Taking a new direction. *Foreign Language Annals*, 51(1), 251–262. <https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12321>
- Talbert, J. E. (2009). Professional learning communities at the crossroads: How systems hinder or engender change. In *Second International Handbook of Educational Change* (Issue January 2009, pp. 555–570). <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-90-481-2660-6>
- Tan, E. (2014). Human capital theory: A holistic criticism. *Review of Educational Research*, 84(3), 411–445. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654314532696>

- Tarone, E. & Allwright, D. (2005). Second language teacher learning and student second language learning: Shaping the knowledge base. In D.J. Tedick (Ed.), *Second Language Teacher Education: International Perspectives*. Routledge.
- Tedick, D. J. (Ed.). (2005). *Second Language Teacher Education: International Perspectives*. Routledge.
- Thomas, R. A. (2017). *Diverse pathways, common themes: A complexity-informed, human-oriented comparative case study of teacher candidates' experiences of French language proficiency development in concurrent teacher preparation in Ontario*. University of Toronto. [Doctoral Dissertation]
https://tspace.library.utoronto.ca/bitstream/1807/79529/3/Thomas_Reed_A_201706_PhD_thesis.pdf
- Timperley, H., Kaser, L., & Halbert, J. (2014, April). *A framework for transforming learning in schools: Innovation and the spiral of inquiry*. Centre for Strategic Education, Seminar Series Paper No. 234.
<https://www.educationallleaders.govt.nz/content/download/74475/611763/file/Spiral%20of%20Inquiry%20Paper%20-%20Timperley%20Kaser%20Halbert.pdf>
- Vangrieken, K., Meredith, C., Packer, T., & Kyndt, E. (2017). Teacher communities as a context for professional development: A systematic review. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 61, 47–59. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2016.10.001>
- Walby, S. (2007). Complexity theory, systems theory and multiple intersecting social inequalities. *Philosophy of the Social Sciences*, 37(4), 449–470.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0048393107307663>

- Walby, S. (2021). Developing the concept of society: Institutional domains, regimes of inequalities and complex systems in a global era. *Current Sociology*, 69(3), 315–332. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0011392120932940>
- Walker, J. & von Bergmann, H. (2013). Teacher education policy in Canada: Beyond professionalization and deregulation. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 35(4), 65-92. <https://journals.sfu.ca/cje/index.php/cje-rce/article/view/1386>
- Ward, M., Delamont, S., B. Corwin, Z., & F. Clemens, R. (2020). Analyzing fieldnotes: a practical guide. *Handbook of Qualitative Research in Education*, 409–419. <https://doi.org/10.4337/9781788977159.00047>
- Wernicke, M. (2017). Navigating native-speaker ideologies as FSL teacher. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 73(2), 208–236. <https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.2951>
- Wernicke, M., Masson, M., Arnott, S., Le Bouthillier, J., & Kristmanson, P. (2023). La rétention d’enseignantes et d’enseignants de français langue seconde au Canada : au-delà d’une stratégie de recrutement. *Éducation et Francophonie*, 50(2). <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.7202/1097033ar>
- Westheimer, J. (1999). Communities and consequences: An inquiry into ideology and practice in teachers’ professional work. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 35(1), 71–105. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00131619921968473>
- Wright, T. (2010). Second language teacher education: Review of recent research on practice. *Language Teaching*, 43(3), 259-296. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444810000030>
- Yang, Y. (2021). Critical realism and complexity theory: Building a nonconstructivist systems research framework for effective governance analysis. *Systems Research and Behavioral Science*, 38(1), 177–183. <https://doi.org/10.1002/sres.2662>

- Yazan, B., & De Vasconcelos, I.C.O. (2016). Three approaches to case study methods in education: Yin, Merriam, and Stake. *Meta: Avaliacao*, 8(22), 149–182.
<https://doi.org/10.22347/2175-2753v8i22.1038>
- Yildiz, Y. (2012). *Beyond the mother tongue: The postmonolingual condition*. Fordham University Press. <https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctt13x0cqr>
- Young, J., & Boyd, K. (2010). More than servants of the state? The governance of initial teacher preparation in Canada in an era of school reform. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 56(1), 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.11575/ajer.v56i1.55379>

Appendices

Appendix A: Ethics Approvals

18/08/2022

Université d'Ottawa

Bureau d'éthique et d'intégrité de la recherche

University of Ottawa

Office of Research Ethics and Integrity

CERTIFICAT D'APPROBATION ÉTHIQUE | CERTIFICATE OF ETHICS APPROVAL

| | |
|---|--|
| Numéro du dossier / Ethics File Number | S-07-22-8106 |
| Titre du projet / Project Title | Professional learning communities for the empowerment of future French as a second language teachers: A critical complexity-informed perspective |
| Type de projet / Project Type | Thèse de doctorat / Doctoral thesis |
| Statut du projet / Project Status | Approuvé / Approved |
| Date d'approbation (jj/mm/aaaa) / Approval Date (dd/mm/yyyy) | 18/08/2022 |
| Date d'expiration (jj/mm/aaaa) / Expiry Date (dd/mm/yyyy) | 17/08/2023 |

Équipe de recherche / Research Team

| Chercheur / Researcher | Affiliation | Role |
|------------------------|--|--|
| Adam KASZUBA | Faculté d'éducation / Faculty of Education | Chercheur Principal / Principal Investigator |
| Stephanie ARNOTT | Faculté d'éducation / Faculty of Education | Superviseur / Supervisor |

Conditions spéciales ou commentaires / Special conditions or comments

21/08/2023

Université d'Ottawa

Bureau d'éthique et d'intégrité de la recherche

University of Ottawa

Office of Research Ethics and Integrity

CERTIFICAT D'APPROBATION ÉTHIQUE | CERTIFICATE OF ETHICS APPROVAL

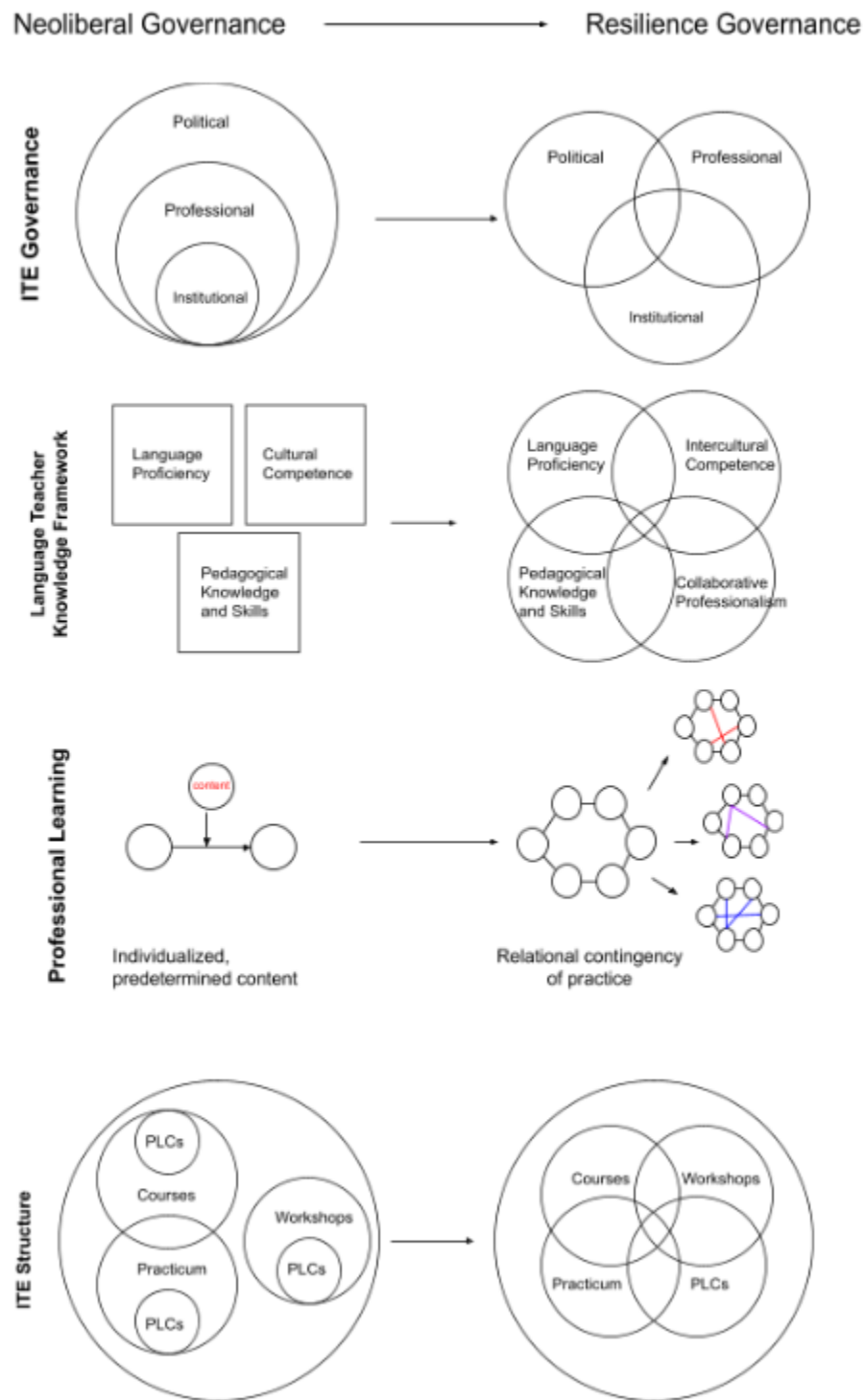
| | |
|---|--|
| Numéro du dossier / Ethics File Number | S-07-22-8106 |
| Titre du projet / Project Title | Professional learning communities for the empowerment of future French as a second language teachers: A critical complexity-informed perspective |
| Type de projet / Project Type | Thèse de doctorat / Doctoral thesis |
| Statut du projet / Project Status | Renouvelé / Renewed |
| Date d'approbation (jj/mm/aaaa) / Approval Date (dd/mm/yyyy) | 18/08/2022 |
| Date d'expiration (jj/mm/aaaa) / Expiry Date (dd/mm/yyyy) | 17/08/2024 |

Équipe de recherche / Research Team

| Chercheur / Researcher | Affiliation | Role |
|-------------------------------|--|--|
| Adam KASZUBA | Faculté d'éducation / Faculty of Education | Chercheur Principal / Principal Investigator |
| Stephanie ARNOTT | Faculté d'éducation / Faculty of Education | Superviseur / Supervisor |

Conditions spéciales ou commentaires / Special conditions or comments

Appendix B: Model of theoretical framework



Appendix C: Professional learning matrix and conceptual map template

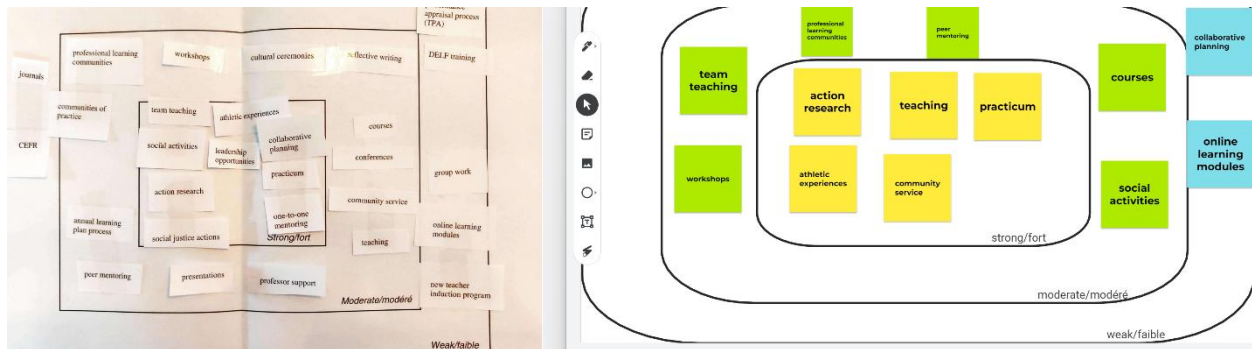
Below is a matrix of professional learning elements that is adapted from the Ontario College of Teachers' (2016) framework. To produce their conceptual maps of professional learning in the initial teacher education program, teacher candidates will determine the influence of these elements by categorizing them into the Strong, Moderate, and Weak boxes on the template shown below (taken from Ell et al., 2017). Candidates may also add additional elements not listed in the matrix.

| | | | | |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------|
| teaching | community service | workshops | conferences | courses |
| collaborative planning | artistic performances | group work | online learning modules | new teacher induction program |
| team teaching | cultural ceremonies | practicum | DELF training | reflective writing |
| mentoring | social justice actions | action research | professor support | social activities |
| annual learning plan process | athletic experiences | peer coaching | presentations | leadership opportunities |
| performance appraisal process | professional learning communities | community of practice | CEFR | journals |



Appendix D: Example of professional learning conceptual map

Below is an example of a completed concept map created by the participant Priyanka. The first (left) version was completed during the first CoP meeting in September 2022, and the second (right) version was completed during Interview 2 in April 2023.



Appendix E: First Meeting Agenda & SMART Goals Worksheet

Below are templates for a First Meeting and SMART Goals which teacher candidates in the project can use while first interacting with each other in the PLC group. These templates were developed as part of the CASLT Community project, a mentoring program for Canadian language teachers. In the PLC meetings, I can facilitate the completion of these documents with the candidates, if they choose to use them.

First Meeting Agenda

Use this first meeting to determine compatibility and to decide if you wish to continue a mentoring relationship. This agenda template can be used for groups of 2 or more people. **Please take notes throughout the meeting on this page to record any important information.**

Roles

All members may take on leadership roles during this meeting and may ask clarifying questions.

Resources

- CASLT Community Mentorship Modules
 - Principles of collaboration document
-

Introductions

When establishing a mentoring network, the discussion of past experiences are a great way to elicit current learning needs and interests. If this meeting involves more than two people, consider planning an icebreaker activity to get everyone involved.

- Take turns exchanging general personal and professional information.
 - Take turns discussing your experiences with second language learning and teaching. If you completed the CASLT community modules, feel free to share your representation of language drawings.
 - Take turns discussing previous experiences with mentoring relationships. If you completed the CASLT community modules, feel free to share your personal reflection.
-

Identifying a felt concern

The next step is to identify a **common felt concern** between members in this mentoring network. First, use the experiences from above to identify any concerns that you've felt in your professional practice.

- What is any area of interest that you would like to explore?
- What are concerns in your personal or professional practice that you've noticed?
- Do any of the practices in your context feel unproductive, unsustainable, or unjust? Why?
- How have you tried to address these concerns/interests in the past? Was it successful? Why?
- Are there any similarities in the concerns/interests between members at this meeting?

Below, indicate the common felt concern at which the members arrived:

Establishing a shared vision

Whether your mentoring network has 2 people or more, it's important to establish a shared vision between all the members which will guide the nature of your goals and interactions. Once you've established a commonly felt concern, the next step is to develop your vision of how these concerns can be addressed. Although this vision can be adapted in future meetings, there must be unenforced consensus of it by all members. Remember, the way that each member aims to achieve the vision (e.g. via pedagogical practices) does not need to be the same.

- What are ways in which the commonly felt concern can be addressed?
- Is there a similar way to articulate a response to the concerns/interests in everyone's context?
- Does everyone agree with this vision?

Below, indicate the shared vision at which the members arrived:

Discuss Expectations

All members need to agree on the expectations for interacting in this mentoring network. There are no strict rules for what these expectations are, but please refer to the Principles of collaboration document for inspiration. You can also take and add ideas to the [collaborative Norms and Expectations whiteboard](#).

- Discuss language expectations. Do any of the members have language learning goals? In which language(s) will members interact? Are there specific mediums or moments in which a certain language can be used?
- Discuss your norms and expectations for the mentoring network (refer to Mural document).
- Discuss how you define trust, respect, and confidentiality in the mentorship.

- Discuss preferences for the manner, language, frequency (minimum of once a month), length, and time of meetings, and for communications between meetings.
- Discuss how you would manage potential differences of opinion and changes in circumstance that could affect the mentoring network.
- Determine how you will schedule, create agendas for, run, and take and share notes for meetings.

Below, please indicate norms and expectations at which the group arrived, as well as any administrative information for future meetings:

Wrap Up

- Decide if you will establish a mentorship for the school year. (It's okay to say no!)
- Schedule your next meeting to develop mentee SMART goals. Discuss any check-ins until then.
- Review and confirm any commitments made in the meeting and what you will discuss next time.
- Express appreciation for each other's time.

Send a copy to the following email:*

Send a copy to the following email (optional):

[Submit]

SMART Goal Worksheet

Use this worksheet to guide the planning of your inquiry following the SMART logic. Each member of your mentoring network can complete their own SMART goal worksheet. It should be completed before the second meeting of the mentoring network.

- While members may share a common vision, personal goals and means to achieve this vision may vary.
 - A SMART goal describes what you want to accomplish and when, and how you'll know you are successful.
 - You will begin by proposing an initial goal. Once you respond to the SMART criteria questions, you can reformulate that initial goal later.
-

Shared Vision

What is the shared vision which the members of your mentoring network agreed upon? Reiterate it below.

Initial Goals

How will you achieve the shared vision in your context? What are possible goals you can set for yourself? Here are some general examples you can refer to while creating your own goals.

- Trying a new pedagogical or assessment strategy.
- Changing the frequency of a pedagogical or assessment intervention.
- Trying a new administrative process.
- Using a new method to record data.
- Changing the frequency of data collection.
- Using a new resource or technology.
- Critically analyzing new or current resources.
- Critically analyzing a current policy.
- Changing the way of interacting with a student, parent, or colleague.
- Collaborating with a colleague.
- Refusing unnecessary or non-contractual work.
- Establishing work-life balance.

Making your initial goals SMART

Develop your initial goal so that it includes SMART criteria.

S Specific

I clearly describe what I want to accomplish.

What am I going to do? How am I going to do it? What resources do I need to do it?

M Measurable

I know how to gauge my success.

How many? How much? How often? By when? What is a possible indication of success? Are there any artifacts I will collect during this process? How will I convey what I did to the other members in the mentoring network?

A Achievable

My goal is reasonable and realistically feasible.

Do I have the time, skills, resources, and loci of control? To what might I have to dedicate less time or resources in order to achieve this goal? Is this redistribution of time and resources fair to myself and others? From whom can I receive support to achieve this goal?

R Relevant

My goal aligns with the shared vision.

How does achieving the goal meet the shared vision? Will this goal make my practices more productive, sustainable, and just? How?

T Time-Bound

My timeframes are clear and realistic.

Do I need to break down my goal into smaller goals? Does the timeline of my goal align with the timeline established in the mentoring network?

SMART Goal

Using the responses you gave for each of the SMART categories, reformulate your initial goal into a SMART goal.

Plan for Success

Anticipate challenges and plan for concrete actions. Discuss these potential obstacles with your mentoring network.

| Potential Obstacles | How will I manage? |
|---------------------|--------------------|
| | |

| Artifacts of progress/success (e.g. student work, administrative documents, reflective journal, emails, etc) | When will I collect these? |
|--|----------------------------|
| | |

| Actions to reach My goal | Who | When | Keeping Track |
|--------------------------|-----|------|---------------|
| | | | |

Reflect on Progress

Examine progress regularly. Adjust the goal, if needed, and celebrate progress.

Send a copy to the following email:*

Send a copy to the following email (optional):

[Submit]

Appendix F: Field note template

The following template will be used to record observations during PLCs, workshops, and courses.

| | |
|---|----------------|
| Field Note Template - PLCs in FSL ITE Project | |
| Date: | |
| Type of professional learning (course/workshop): | Name of event: |
| What is the language of communication? How or why was this language chosen? | |
| What are the professional learning labels used during this event? (PLCs, workshops, etc). How are they used? Who uses them? | |
| Who speaks? Who doesn't speak? How is the speaking time distributed? | |

What are teacher candidates asked to do? Are activities rational, reasonable, productive, sustainable, just and inclusive?

Activities are (check all that apply):

| | | |
|-------------|------------|------------|
| Rational | Reasonable | Productive |
| Sustainable | Just | Inclusive |

Appendix G: Interview Protocols

Interview 1

Pre-Interview:

- Introduce yourself/say hi
 - Brief project description with objectives (can reference RQs)
 - Explain that the interview is being organized around professional learning experience in FSL teacher education and the PLC experience. We will go through and talk about each of them; the goal is not to test their knowledge (there's no right/wrong answer to those first prompts in each pillar) but rather to get a sense of what you think about them and how each area is /isn't addressed in their experience of the program?
 - Expect 60-90mins for interview
 - Interview can be done in language of your choice
 - Participant can withdraw or stop at any time
 - Anonymity will be maintained throughout any publications that result from the project and will not have an effect on their professional standing within the Faculty or with the University
 - Make sure they have reviewed and signed the consent form and see if there are any questions about it, remind of recording
 - What pseudonym do you want?
-

I'd like to ask you some questions about your experiences with different types of professional learning in the teacher education program at University of Ottawa. I want to begin with the conceptual map you made during our first PLC session together the other day.

TARGETED QUESTIONS:

1. First, let's discuss your past experiences with professional learning.
 - a. Have you ever participated in professional learning communities (PLCs)?
 - b. Can you describe how those PLCs worked?
 - i. Were they beneficial to your learning? How?
 - c. So far, how is this PLC similar or different from your past experiences?
 - d. How would you define a PLC?
 - e. What do you think is important in order for PLCs to function?
 - f. Have you had to ever manage conflict or differing perspectives? How did you approach this?
2. Present your personal professional learning conceptual map to me.
 - a. Why did you include these elements on this map?
 - b. Were there elements that you included that were not listed as options to choose?
Which elements have a strong influence on your professional learning? A weak influence?
 - c. How do the following elements contribute to your professional learning?
 - i. Courses?
 - ii. Workshops?
 - iii. Practicum?

- d. Which elements are connected or show overlap? Which elements are separate or have few similarities?
 - e. Was the process of completing the professional learning map by yourself difficult? Why?
 3. Explain the group professional learning conceptual map to me.
 - a. How did you contribute to this map?
 - b. Which elements were easy to agree on between the PLC members?
 - c. Which elements were difficult to agree on?
 - i. Why were they difficult?
 - ii. How did you negotiate which elements to include or exclude?
 - d. What was the significance in creating a group conceptual map? How did this add or subtract from your understanding of professional learning compared to your personal map?
 4. During the PLC experience, who took on a leadership role?
 - a. How did you feel about this person (or you) taking on a leadership role?
 - b. Do you often take on leadership roles? Why?
 - c. How do you define good leadership in this context?
 - d. What does a good leader do in a PLC?
 - e. Can leadership be learned? Whose responsibility is it to support emerging leaders?
 5. Why did you choose to join this PLC?
 - a. What are you hoping to gain from this PLC experience?
 - b. What can I do to support your learning goals?
 - c. What can the group do to support your learning goals?

- d. How can you support the learning goals of others?

SUPPLEMENTARY QUESTIONS:⁴

- 6. Next, we're going to talk about the impact of the PLC on the four pillars.
 - a. Language proficiency (LP)
 - i. How do you define language proficiency?
 - ii. What was the impact of the PLC on your language proficiency?
 - iii. What would have supported the development of your language proficiency?
 - b. Intercultural competence (IC)
 - i. How do you define intercultural competence?
 - ii. What was the impact of the PLC on your intercultural competence?
 - iii. What would have supported the development of your intercultural competence?
 - c. Pedagogical knowledge and skills (PKS)
 - i. How do you define pedagogical knowledge and skills?
 - ii. What was the impact of the PLC on your PKS?
 - iii. What would have supported the development of your PKS?
 - d. Collaborative professionalism (CP)
 - i. How do you define CP?
 - ii. What was the impact of the PLC on your CP?
 - iii. What would have supported the development of your CP?

Interview 2

I'd like to ask you some questions about your experiences with different types of professional learning in the teacher education program at University of Ottawa. I want to begin with the second conceptual map you made a few days ago.

TARGETED QUESTIONS:

⁴ These questions were used in the interview protocol during the FSL Teacher Readiness Project (2020-ongoing) at the University of Ottawa.

1. Explain your personal professional learning conceptual map to me.
 - a. Why did you include these elements on this map?
 - b. Which non-listed elements did you include?
 - c. Which elements have a strong influence on your professional learning? A weak influence?
 - d. How do the following elements contribute to your professional learning?
 - i. Courses?
 - ii. Workshops?
 - iii. Practicum?
 - e. Which elements are connected or show overlap? Which elements are separate or have few similarities?
 - f. How does this conceptual map differ from the one you made last semester?
2. Explain the group professional learning conceptual map to me.
 - a. How did you contribute to this map?
 - b. Which elements were easy to agree on between the PLC members?
 - c. Which elements were difficult to agree on?
 - i. Why were they difficult?
 - ii. How did you negotiate which elements to include or exclude?
 - d. What was the significance in creating a group conceptual map? How did this add or subtract from your understanding of professional learning compared to your personal map?
 - e. How does this conceptual map differ from the one you made last semester?
3. Tell me about your experience during this PLC experience.

- a. Did you enjoy working in the PLC?
 - b. How was this PLC similar or different to your other professional learning experiences?
 - c. This is your definition of a PLC from the first interview. After this experience, do you still define a PLC this way?
 - d. What is important in order for PLCs to function?
 - e. How do you manage conflict or differing perspectives?
4. During the PLC experience, how did leadership work?
- a. Explain how you engaged in leadership. How did your leadership skills improve?
 - b. This is your definition of leadership from the first interview. After this experience, do you still define leadership this way?
 - c. What does a leader do in a PLC?
 - d. Would you be willing to take on such leadership roles in the future?
5. Tell me about your experience with engaging in collaborative inquiry during this PLC.
- a. Was it easy or challenging designing the project?
 - b. Was it easy or challenging collecting student data?
 - c. Was it easy or challenging to walk your group members through your process?
 - d. What would you have done differently?
 - e. How could I have supported this process?

SUPPLEMENTARY QUESTIONS:

6. Next, we're going to talk about the impact of the PLC on the four pillars.
 - a. Language proficiency (LP)

- i. What was the impact of the PLC on your language proficiency?
 - ii. What would have supported the development of your language proficiency?
- b. Intercultural competence (IC)
 - i. What was the impact of the PLC on your intercultural competence?
 - ii. What would have supported the development of your intercultural competence?
- c. Pedagogical knowledge and skills (PKS)
 - i. What was the impact of the PLC on your PKS?
 - ii. What would have supported the development of your PKS?
- d. Collaborative professionalism (CP)
 - i. This is your definition of collaborative professionalism from the first interview. After this experience, do you still define collaborative professionalism this way?
 - ii. What was the impact of the PLC on your CP?
 - iii. What would have supported the development of your CP?

Appendix H: Analysis template

The template will be used as a heuristic to analyze data from the fieldnotes, interviews, PLC recordings and program documents into a common framework. The questions are adapted from Kemmis et al., (2014a, p. 81).

| Elements of practice | Practice architectures |
|---|--|
| <p>Project What do participants say they are doing, or intend to do, or have done?</p> <p>Sayings What do different participants say in the practice as they do it (what language is used?) What language and ideas do different participants use about the practice? (especially to describe, explain, and justify the practice before or after they do it?) During which moments do participants choose to participate in English or French? What words or concepts which participants struggle to express in one of their languages?</p> <p>Doings What are participants doing? Are there connections between activities?</p> | <p>Practice landscape How do different participants inhabit the site in different ways, or interact with different people and objects, and occupy different places and spaces in the site as a whole?</p> <p>Cultural-discursive arrangements Where does this language or specialist discourse come from? Who speaks this language in the site? Who speaks it most/least fluently? Is there contestation among people involved or affected about language, or key ideas or importance?</p> <p>Material economic arrangements What physical spaces are being occupied?</p> |

| | |
|---|--|
| <p>Are ends or outcomes being achieved?</p> <p>Relatings</p> <p>How do participants relate to one another?</p> <p>Are there systems of positions, roles, or functions? Are relationships of power involved?</p> <p>Who is included and excluded from what?</p> <p>Are there relationships of solidarity and belonging (shared purpose)?</p> <p>Skills</p> <p>What skills and capacities are participants using?</p> <p>Values</p> <p>What are participants values, commitments and norms relevant to the practice?</p> | <p>Are particular kinds of set-ups of objects involved?</p> <p>Social-political arrangements</p> <p>What social and administrative systems of roles, responsibilities, functions, obligations, and reporting relationships enable and constrain relationships in the site?</p> <p>Do people collaborate or compete for resources? Is there resistance, conflict, or contestation?</p> <p>Is the communicative space a public sphere?</p> <p>Practice traditions</p> <p>Is there evidence of professional practice traditions and do these enable or constrain what participants hope to achieve in the site?</p> |
|---|--|