Quelles perspectives professionnelles pour les doctorants en éducation au Québec ?

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Résumé : Cet éditorial souhaite partager les préoccupations de la communauté des jeunes chercheurs en éducation concernant les perspectives professionnelles des doctorants et des post-doctorants en éducation au Québec. En effet, il s'avère que la majorité des doctorants du domaine de l'éducation entrevoit une carrière de professeur universitaire alors que le nombre de postes disponibles est parfois insuffisant et amène certains diplômés à revoir leurs attentes professionnelles. Nous faisons donc brièvement état de cette situation et nous proposons des pistes d'insertion professionnelle recensées par quelques auteurs.

Mots-clés : insertion professionnelle, perspectives professionnelles, doctorant en éducation, postdoctorant en éducation.

Abstract : This editorial wishes to share the concerns of the community of young researchers in education related to professional opportunities of doctoral students and postdoctoral studentsin education in Quebec. It turns out that the majority of doctoral students in the field of education wants a career of university professor while the number of available positions seems insufficient and leads some graduates to review dramatically their professional expectations. We therefore give a brief view of this situation and propose some possibilities of professional integration pointed out by some authors.

Keywords : professional opportunities, professional integration, doctoral student in education, postdoctoral student in education.

Avant-propos

En tant qu'équipe éditoriale du volet francophone de la *Revue canadienne des jeunes chercheures et chercheurs en éducation* (RCJCÉ), nous avons le privilège d'accueillir, d'aider à la rédaction et de publier des travaux de chercheurs en devenir ou de nouveaux chercheurs en éducation. Fières de ce résultat, nous prenons conscience à chaque étape du processus de l'ampleur du travail accompli par les auteurs, mais aussi par nos collaborateurs notamment ceux qui œuvrent dans les comités de révision par les pairs et la révision linguistique. Nous souhaitons également souligner le travail réalisé par l'éditrice en chef, Charlaine St-Jean, qui a dirigé les publications précédentes, et ce, jusqu'à l'obtention d'un poste de professeure en éducation dans une université québécoise. D'ailleurs, nous profitons de l'occasion pour amorcer une réflexion sur les différentes perspectives professionnelles pour les doctorants et les post-doctorants en éducation au Québec.

Et après le doctorat en éducation ?

L'obtention d'un poste de professeure en éducation dans une université québécoise de Charlaine St-Jean a eue nous a incité à réfléchir sur les différentes perspectives professionnelles qui sont actuellement accessibles pour les doctorants gradués en éducation. Le cheminement scolaire d'un doctorant est exigeant en soi. Une fois le diplôme obtenu, un défi de taille attend plusieurs doctorants; franchir le seuil « officiel » du marché du travail.

En ce sens, plusieurs sources soulignent la difficulté d'accéder à des postes de professeur universitaire, œuvrant en recherche et en enseignement, alors qu'ils constituent un objectif professionnel pour la plupart des doctorants. Par exemple, Paradis (2018) affirme que « si certains aspiraient à entreprendre une carrière comme professeur, environ 80% d'entre eux ont plutôt dû se tourner vers l'extérieur du milieu universitaire par manque de postes dans les établissements d'enseignement supérieur » (n.p.). Il en va de même pour les résultats du *Conference Board* du Canada, issus d'Edge et Munro (2015), qui soulignent qu'il y a moins d'un titulaire de doctorat sur cinq qui devient professeur à l'université. Sans spécifier la nature de l'emploi obtenu, « certaines universités affirment toutefois ne pas être affectées par cette situation. Selon une enquête faite auprès des diplômés de doctorat de la cohorte 2012-2013 de l'Université du Québec à Montréal (UQAM), le taux d'insertion professionnelle serait de 92 %, souligne la porte-parole de l'UQAM, Jenny Desrochers. Près de la moitié de ces doctorants ont obtenu leur emploi moins d'un mois après l'obtention de leur diplôme » (Paul, 2014, n.p.). Force est de constater que les statistiques concernant le taux d'insertion professionnelle des doctorants varient largement selon les sources consultées. Qui plus est, sans même penser à la nature de l'emploi, Paradis (2018) mentionne que

« le taux de chômage était plus élevé chez les détenteurs de doctorat que la moyenne provinciale en 2016 » (n.p.). Ce constat peut sembler affolant pour plusieurs doctorants et constituer en soi un frein à entreprendre des études doctorales. Dans cet ordre d'idées, Bangali (2011) affirme que :

> un grand nombre de jeunes docteurs, pour lesquels la recherche académique ou publique constituait l'aboutissement logique de leur doctorat, se trouve désormais contraints par la conjoncture à une réorientation vers le secteur privé. Certains sont dans une situation de reconversion dans la mesure où ils doivent entreprendre un travail de restructuration de leurs anticipations de soi. Autrement dit, ils doivent arriver à transformer leurs représentations du future dans lequel ils s'imaginaient et qu'ils souhaitaient explicitement ou implicitement. Ces jeunes se trouvent alors confrontés à des questions d'orientation majeures: que pourrais-je faire de ma thèse en dehors de la recherche publique? Quelle est ma place dans le monde socioéconomique extra-académique? (p.13).

En réponse à ces constats des auteurs précédemment nommés, un enjeu supplémentaire concerne également les perspectives professionnelles des doctorants qui peuvent être perçues comme étant trop limitées et précaires. Paul (2014) reprend les propos d'un enseignant qui souligne que « l'accent est mis sur les perspectives d'emploi pour devenir professeur ou chercheur universitaire et, à la rigueur, enseignant au collégial (…). On en sait très peu sur les utilisations plus atypiques du doctorat » (n.p.). Avant d'en arriver à postuler pour être professeur universitaire, quelques emplois sont également possibles tels que auxiliaires d'enseignement, chargés de cours ou bien auxiliaire de recherche. Wallach (2017), qui aborde les perspectives professionnelles des postdoctorants, ajoute toutefois que ces perspectives professionnelles sont dictées par des contrats à court terme qui instaurent un climat de précarité. Ainsi, « la majorité d'entre eux doivent s'orienter vers d'autres domaines, notamment l'industrie, la finance, l'entrepreneuriat et le secteur public. En dépit de leur potentiel de carrière énorme, les post-doctorants ont besoin d'opportunités plus profondes et plus complexes tout en restant employés par leurs universités pour réaliser leur potentiel personnel. De telles expériences pourraient avoir un impact majeur sur la carrière choisie. Par conséquent, les universités doivent s'engager plus activement dans leurs propres post-doctorants et répondre à ce besoin » (Wallach, 2017, p.951, traduction libre).

Néanmoins, ces statistiques et ces constats suscitent certains questionnements. Est-ce que ces constats sont réalisés pour l'ensemble des programmes d'études doctorales, c'est-à-dire tous les domaines confondus des sciences dites humaines et des sciences dites naturelles ? De prime abord, ces statistiques ne semblent pas s'appliquer exclusivement au domaine de l'éducation. Certaines perspectives restent envisageables pour les doctorants, mais paraissent moins accessibles dans le domaine de l'éducation que dans d'autres domaines (pensons à la médecine ou l'ingénierie) où la possibilité de travailler pour des entreprises privées est présente. En consultant le site internet de l'Université de Sherbrooke (n.d.) sur les débouchés à la portée des doctorants en éducation, plusieurs options sont mentionnées. Diverses fonctions peuvent être exercées telles que la carrière professorale, la recherche, les postes de conseillère et conseiller en recherche, d'expert-conseil dans le domaine étudié et agente de programme. De plus, cela peut se faire dans des milieux de travail variés comme les établissements universitaires et collégiaux, mais également les gouvernements fédéral et provincial, les commissions scolaires ainsi que les centres locaux de services communautaires (CLSC).

En conclusion, il existe incontestablement une pertinence à étudier et à recenser les perspectives professionnelles des doctorants et des post-doctorants en éducation. Plusieurs d'entre eux entament des études doctorales et post-doctorales avec l'intention de développer une carrière de professeur universitaire alors que cette option peut paraitre limitée. Le fait de connaitre les différentes options d'insertion professionnelle possibles s'avère néanmoins un premier pas. En ce sens, Louise Poissant, directrice scientifique du Fonds de recherche du Québec, souligne le fait que « 65 % des jeunes d'aujourd'hui occuperont un emploi qui n'existe pas encore. Nous comptons sur les doctorants pour les inventer » (Paradis, 2018, n.p.). Il importe de voir ces perspectives méconnues comme une occasion de sortir des conventions et des habitudes pour explorer les avenues professionnelles possibles.

Place aux contributions de ce numéro

Le numéro actuel de la revue présente un total de trois articles scientifiques francophones. Nous faisons ici une brève introduction pour chacun des manuscrits.

Dans un premier temps, Dorothée Michaud et France Beauregard présentent un article de recherche ayant pour titre « Impact de la culture sur l'évolution des perceptions des enseignants immigrants ». Il décrit en fait la culture première de cinq enseignants et l'évolution de leurs pratiques enseignants pour s'adapter au système scolaire et culturel québécois. Ensuite, Myriam Villeneuve-Lapointe et André C. Moreau présentent un article d'opinion ayant pour titre « Les méthodologies de recherche en orthographe : stratégies de rédaction d'une recension intégrative d'écrits scientifiques ». Cet article décrit différentes pistes méthodologiques pour considérer différentes démarches de recension des écrits en prenant l'exemple du cas des recherches sur l'enseignement et l'apprentissage de l'orthographe. Finalement, Marilyn Dupuis Brouillette présente la critique d'un livre intitulé « Pratiques inclusives et savoir scolaires – perspectives, contradictions et perspectives ». Bien que cet ouvrage aborde les différentes pratiques d'enseignement situées dans un contexte d'inclusion scolaire principalement français, il demeure d'actualité pour l'éducation inclusive québécoise.

Au nom de toute l'équipe éditoriale ; bonne lecture !

Remerciements à tous les évaluateurs et les réviseurs linguistiques

Avant de passer aux articles, il convient de souligner l'implication de plusieurs individus dans la publication de ce numéro. En effet, cette parution de la RCJCE est rendue possible grâce à l'implication soutenue de nombreux bénévoles qui ont à cœur la mission de la revue et dont leur contribution ne peut passer sous silence : nos évaluateurs (Alexandra Paquette, Alexis Boudreault, Catherine Maynard, Cynthia Létourneau, David Bezeau, Kamga Raoul, Joannie Pleau, Marjorie Cuerrier, Marilyne Boisvert, Myriam Villeneuve-Lapointe, Stéphanie Paré et Véronique Samson) de même que nos collaboratrices en révision linguistique (Guylaine Leblanc et Myriam Villeneuve-Lapointe).

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The Importance of a Supportive Collaborative Culture

Andrew J. Coombs, Queen's University, Canada

To the Graduate Students Who Made CJNSE Possible

As the Canadian Journal for New Scholars in Education (CJNSE) enters its second decade of existence, it is important to remember the foundation upon which CJNSE rests: a handful of dedicated graduate students. Almost all reviewers, copyeditors, and editors are graduate students who volunteer their time, effort, and insight to support one another. In doing so, they have created a supportive, collaborative culture within CJNSE that actively supports emerging scholars through the publication process. Further, CJNSE continues to be a platform that disseminates the scholarly works of new scholars across the entire spectrum of educational research. CJNSE will continue to do this as long as graduate students across Canada continue to contribute to and support one another. As I step down as Managing Editor, it is with great enthusiasm that I look forward to the next ten years of CJNSE.

In This Issue

Containing three research papers, three position papers, and two literature review this issue represents the diversity of research that exists among emerging scholars in Canada. Victoria Fritz and Tricia van Rhijn explore enrolment patterns of low-income mature students in Canadian postsecondary institutions. Will Burton analyzes the Manitoba high school curriculum to gauge the extent that learners are exposed to environmental content. Mili Saha examines how closely mentoring practices are aligned by mentoring theories during teacher professional development. Jennifer Sparks discusses the needs for parental involvement in higher education to support students in persisting via alternative credential completion pathways. Andrea Antoniuk reviews the evidence supporting learning styles and posits that through evidence-based practices, educators can move beyond learning styles and create learning environments that are more supportive of high-quality teaching and learning. Teresa Anne Fowler outlines the issues with the over-use of self-reflective practices within professional development and how this may perpetuate systemic racism within schools. Jacky Chan explores how the participation in laughter yoga supports the overall well-being of Nishnawbe youth, specifically how the use of laughter has been recognized by Indigenous groups around the world as an integral component of community bonding, social interaction, and communal storytelling. Vander Tavares reviews the relationship between language proficiency and English language learners' experiences in higher education contexts, with specific reference to the role of conversational peer interaction. Each article offers a nuanced perspective on different facets of Canadian education, and taken together, illustrate a rich landscape of contemporary education research.

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Examining the Postsecondary Enrolment of Low-Income Mature Students in Canada

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Abstract: This exploratory study deepens current understandings of low-income mature students in Canadian postsecondary institutions, by clarifying who constitutes this population and through providing demographic characteristics that describe this population of study. Individual, family, and institutional characteristics of low-income mature students were examined using 2011 Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics data. Low-income mature students were predominantly male, studying full-time in university, and averaged 33.29 years of age. In addition, comparisons of gender and institutional differences indicated that female low-income mature students were older and had more children and larger household sizes. Low-income mature students in college were more likely to have children and had larger household sizes. Overall, 5% of all post-secondary students were found to be low-income mature students, suggesting that this is not an insignificant population. This study is the first to examine the enrolment patterns of Canadian low-income mature students and demonstrates that further study of this unique group is required.

Keywords: Mature Student, Low-Income Students, postsecondary Education, Higher Education, Nontraditional Students

Introduction

The importance of postsecondary education (PSE) is well documented in relation to employment success and future earnings (Bergman, Gross, Berry, & Shuck, 2014). Despite the benefits, access to—and subsequent enrolment in—postsecondary institutions is not equitable for many, including low-income, mature, and Indigenous students. The complex decision to enter postsecondary study includes several inhibitory factors that can manifest as barriers to access (i.e., obstacles that limit application to, acceptance in, or overall participation in postsecondary study). To ensure equitable access, a focus on underrepresented groups is needed. Researchers have demonstrated the importance of examining low-income students (e.g., Junor & Usher, 2004) and, with expanding student demographics, mature students (e.g., Kerr, 2011). Yet, little is known about low-income mature students, a vulnerable group that occupies multiple marginalized identities. It is clear that both low-income students and mature students face unique challenges in entering PSE. This study seeks to better understand low-income mature students as this group of students may experience two sets of barriers and challenges by virtue of being mature and low-income.

The decision to study at the postsecondary level is influenced by many factors. Despite the importance of higher education, there is a disconnect between targeted PSE completion and actual enrolment numbers. For example, in Ontario, the Government of Ontario had a 70% target for completion of postsecondary education (PSE) by 2020 (Ontario, 2015), yet studies suggest enrolment may actually be declining, particularly for traditional students via direct entry from high-school (Berger, 2008; Council of Ontario Universities, 2018). Educational institutions must look to underrepresented and non-traditional groups to fill enrolment gaps to address this decline by increasing access to PSE to these groups, such as low-income, first-generation (Social Research and Demonstration Corporation, 2009), and mature students (Kerr, 2011). Nevertheless, access to PSE continues to be inequitable (Dooley, Payne, & Robb, 2009; Junor & Usher, 2004; Mueller, 2008; Weingarten, Hicks, Jonker, Smith, & Arnold, 2015).

Student demographics continue to change as individuals return to formal schooling to reap the benefits of a higher education. These shifts signify that more students from diverse socioeconomic and cultural backgrounds, diverse life-situations, and with unique goals and motivations are attending PSE (Schuetze & Slowey, 2002), including mature students. In 2013, mature students (those 25 and older) represented 23.3% of all Canadian PSE students (Statistics Canada, 2013b), suggesting that mature students represent a significant minority population who likely have unique needs. Van Rhijn, Quosai and Lero (2011) demonstrate a significant growth in the number of female students attending postsecondary schooling. They also suggest that student parents are more likely to be female and are likely to have their own unique challenges in accessing postsecondary education (2011). It is clear that the diverse demographics on Canadian postsecondary campuses means that there are a number of unique factors to consider when researching Canadian students, including age, gender, income-level, and Indigenous status, etc.

While some investigation of the unique needs of mature student has been conducted (e.g., Davidson & Holbrook, 2014; Kerr, 2011; MacFadgen, 2007; van Rhijn, Bridge, Lero, & Fritz, 2016a), only a few studies investigate low-income mature students in particular (e.g., Campbell, 2005; Tones, Fraser, Elder, & White, 2009). Tones and colleagues (2009) identified that mature, low-income students (in Australia) are especially sensitive to factors related

to PSE access. Further, PSE attainment is how many low-income adults escape low-wage employment (Tones et al., 2009). Finally, Campbell (2005) demonstrated that low-income mature students (in the United States) were highly likely to be supporting children as single parents, subsequently adding stress and anxiety in addition to financial struggles. Campbell further suggested that these students are an important group that require further study in order to improve clarity around who this population is and demographic characteristics that define this population of study. In 2011, Indigenous people represented around 4% of the Canadian population (Statistics Canada, 2015). Yet only 48% of Indigenous peoples in Canada had some postsecondary schooling, compared to 65% of the general population (Statistics Canada, 2015), which could be caused by an inequity in access to PSE. Indigenous students are more likely to attend postsecondary schooling later in life (Richards, 2008). Additionally, they face the unique barriers constituted by a lack of cultural representation in PSE, an absence of support throughout the K-12 years of schooling, and a deficiency of available information regarding PSE (Popovic, 2013). It is clear that Indigenous students face additional barriers to entering PSE, as well as those experienced by mature students. An improved understanding of demographics could enhance PSE access for all low-income mature students, helping institutions to not only offset declining enrolment of traditional, direct-entry students, but also address the inequities within access to PSE.

Postsecondary institutions are largely dominated by the middle and upper class (Hoy, Christofides, & Cirello, 2001). Not surprisingly, class exclusion echoes throughout the literature with a general consensus that students who are economically disadvantaged (i.e., from low-income backgrounds) are disproportionately less likely to pursue PSE, as comparted to those from middle–upper class backgrounds (Belley, Frenette, & Lochner, 2014; Dooley et al., 2012; Frenette, 2004). Reasons for class exclusion include the reality that low-income students are more likely to be: misinformed about PSE costs (Gault, Reichlin, & Román, 2014), financially independent, perceive PSE as unaffordable, and less likely to have parental financial support (Gault et al., 2014; Junor & Usher, 2004). Furthermore, debt-aversion is a common inhibiting factor for low-income individuals as it prohibits one from deciding to pursue PSE (Junor & Usher, 2004). Children from low-income neighbourhoods are less likely to have positive peer and parental support concerning PSE (Frenette, 2004), in addition to disadvantages leading to grade-level underperformance in high school (Frempong, Ma, & Mensah, 2011; Mueller, 2008). Additionally, Gault et al. (2014) suggest that low-income students are more likely than their peers to attend PSE part-time due to greater time constraints. For instance, they are more likely to work for financial reasons. Overall, there is strong support demonstrating that growing up low-income has a strong impact on PSE access (e.g., Dooley et al., 2009; Frempong et al., 2011; Frenette, 2004; Junor & Usher, 2004; Mueller, 2008).

Another unique group of students in postsecondary institutions today is mature students. Although mature students often consider the benefits and potential costs of PSE, 'action catalysts' or life events often push mature students towards PSE (Compton, Cox, & Laanan, 2006; Swain & Hammond, 2011). These catalysts provide motivation to study (van Rhijn, Lero & Burke, 2016b). They may be employment-related (e.g., higher salary, promotion, career change; Davies & Williams, 2001), or personal (e.g., providing security for children, goal attainment, experiencing divorce or widowhood; Compton et al., 2006; van Rhijn et al., 2016b). Despite strong catalysts, the decision to enter PSE remains complex. As such, inhibitory factors for low-income students are mirrored for mature students.

In general, financial factors tend to be intensified for nontraditional students, such as mature students (Thomas, 2002). Mature students are more likely to be financially independent than traditional students and have less financial support from outside sources (Gault et al., 2014; Kerr, 2011). Further, mature students are often excluded from traditional means of financial support (e.g., student loans, bursaries; Kerr, 2011; Schuetze & Slowey, 2002). Mature students are more likely to be employed and experience more time constraints than traditional students (Gault et al., 2014), and can experience difficulty studying full-time and engaging in learning-related activities (e.g., enroling in courses, attending office hours, accessing on-campus support services, meeting with peers for group projects; Davidson & Holbrook, 2014; Schuetze & Slowey, 2002).

Finally, mature students are often caring for children or other family members, further complicating finances and inhibiting PSE enrolment. Family responsibilities require time and energy that may take priority over study (Kerr, 2011; Swain & Hammond, 2011; van Rhijn et al., 2016a). Limited financial support for and availability of on-campus childcare makes matters more difficult for those who have children (Schuetze & Slowey, 2002). Consequently, some mature students prioritize family obligations, delaying PSE to a "better" time or choosing part-time study (Compton et al., 2006). Mature students are also more likely to discontinue study (MacFadgen, 2007). Overall, it is clear that

low-income and mature students face unique challenges in their pursuit of PSE. It is likely that low-income mature students are faced with obstacles induced from their situation as being both mature and low-income.

The Current Study

As we have demonstrated, there is a significant gap in the literature related to low-income mature students. For this reason, the following exploratory study examines national-level, Canadian data to determine enrolment rates of low-income mature students and offer a clearer understanding of this group's unique characteristics. The intent is to provide clarity around who constitutes this population and their unique demographic characteristics that describe this population. In this study, the term *mature student* describes undergraduate students aged 25 years or older. Mature students may be studying on a part-time or full-time basis, may have attended or completed prior PSE, and may have been employed prior to entering study. The term *traditional student* describes undergraduate students aged less than 25 years who entered PSE no longer than one year following high-school graduation. Additionally, a traditional student may be studying on a part-time or full-time basis. The term *low-income* utilizes Statistics Canada's low-income cut-offs (LICOs). A LICO "is an income threshold below which a family will likely devote a larger share of its income to the necessities of food, shelter and clothing than an average family would." Calculated using the annual Consumer Price Index (Statistics Canada, 2013a), LICOs incorporate household demographics as well as community size (currently seven family and five community sizes; Statistics Canada, 2013a). The after-tax LICOs were used for this study because they represent the actual funds that are available for necessities (e.g., food, shelter) and additional expenses (e.g., education).

Research Objectives

In order to examine the enrolment of low-income mature students, the following three research objectives were investigated:

1. *To examine provincial differences in college and university enrolment percentages of low-income mature students.* Examination of enrolment trends provide a better understanding of inequity in access (Junor & Usher, 2004) and can help explain issues that are occurring (Dooley et al., 2013). Colleges and Universities are the dominant higher educational institutions in Canada where a student can receive a PSE. Both Colleges and Universities are publicly funded which is why they were included in this study. For-profit colleges and vocational schools were not included.
2. *To examine various individual, family, and institutional characteristics of low-income mature students.* Creating a profile of underrepresented groups helps to provide insight into their unique needs and characteristics and background information to help inform admission processes (Anisef et al., 2013).
3. *To compare low-income mature students using the individual, family, and institutional characteristics described in the second research objective by gender and institution type.* An examination of the literature regarding low-income traditional students suggests that individuals from a low-income background are typically underrepresented in higher education (e.g., Berger et al., 2009; Dooley et al., 2009; Frempong et al., 2011; Frenette, 2004; Junor & Usher, 2004; Mueller, 2008). It is very likely that this phenomenon will also hold true for mature students. Researchers have suggested that mature students are more likely to attend college due to the perception of lower up-front costs, shorter times to completion of study, and the perception of college programs being more hands-on than university programs (e.g., Compton et al., 2006). Similarly, it has been suggested that students from low-income backgrounds are also more likely to attend college (Finnie, Childs, & Wismer, 2011; Junor & Usher, 2004). This phenomenon is likely to hold true for low-income mature students given that they occupy both marginalized identities. Further gender is a significant factor in postsecondary enrolment, especially as it relates to student parents (van Rhijn, Smit Quosai & Lero, 2011). The dataset used in this study included the presence (number) of children that a mature low-income student has. For this reason, it was beneficial to assess the impacts of gender on enrolment. This was done in a manner similar to van Rhijn and colleagues (2011), by conducting a gender-based comparison of low-income mature students.

Methods

Data from the 2011 Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics (SLID; Statistics Canada, 2013b) were accessed through the Statistics Canada Research Data Centres Program. Student status was determined by attendance at a publicly-funded postsecondary institution (i.e., University, College, or CEGEP). Normalized weightings (i.e., standardized weightings; calculated by averaging the mean of the cross-sectional individual weight and dividing each raw weight by this mean) were applied prior to analyzing the data for research objective 3. Descriptive statistics, independent t-tests, and chi-square tests were calculated using SPSS to answer the research objectives. An alpha value of 0.05 was used. Only those individuals who had been registered in postsecondary programs during the reference year (2011) were included.

Results

For research objective 1, university and college enrolment were examined nationally and across the provinces in three sub-categories: mature students, low-income students, and low-income mature students. CEGEPs (Collège d'enseignement général et professionnel) were included for Quebec as they are publicly funded institutions and are considered to be schooling in between secondary and postsecondary levels (Federation des CEGEPs, 2019). Nationally, 41% of all postsecondary students were mature, 11.1% were low-income, and 5.2% were low-income and mature (Table 1). Provincially, Alberta had the highest percentage of each mature and low-income students, while British Columbia had the highest percentage of students who were low-income mature. Mature student enrolment was relatively consistent across provinces (from 39.1% in the Atlantic Provinces to 44.3% in Alberta) with wider variation in low-income student enrolment (from 5.2% in the Atlantic Provinces to 15.0% in Alberta) and low-income mature student enrolment (from 2.2% in the Atlantic Provinces to 7.8% in British Columbia.). The Atlantic Provinces had the lowest enrolment percentages for mature, low-income, and low-income mature students.

Table 1: Enrollment Breakdown by Province

Province	Postsecondary enrollment[a]		Mature enrollment[b]		Low-income enrollment[b]		Mature low-income enrollment[b]	
	n	Percent	*n*	Percent	*n*	Percent	*n*	Percent
Atlantic Provinces[c]	153,853	8.0	60,184	39.1	7,999	5.2	3,358	2.2
Quebec[d]	687,891	10.6	277,974	40.4	82,510	12.0	41,691	6.1
Ontario	1,266,123	11.7	502,420	39.7	119,689	9.5	53,741	4.2
Manitoba	96,393	10.2	41,653	43.2	10,484	10.9	5,962	6.2
Saskatchewan	71,008	9.0	30,196	42.5	8,616	12.1	2,990	4.2
Alberta	321,285	10.8	142,429	44.3	48,138	15.0	17,808	5.5
British Columbia	375,831	10.0	164,301	43.7	52,815	14.1	29,484	7.8
Total	2,972,381	10.7	1,219,157	41.0	330,251	11.1	155,034	5.2

[a]As a percentage of the total population
[b]As a percentage of the total post-secondary student population
[c]Includes New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, PEI, and Newfoundland
[d]Includes CEGEP

For research objective 2, descriptive statistics were used to examine the individual, family, and institutional characteristics of low-income mature students. Of all postsecondary students, 41% were mature, 11% low-income, and 5.2% low-income mature students (Table 2). A majority of the low-income mature students were male (55.2%) and between 25 and 29 years of age (48.3%). Further, 13.5% of the low-income mature students identified as Aboriginal, 58.5% were employed while in school, 49.7% were working full-time, and 50.3% were working part-time.

Table 2: Individual Characteristics of Low-Income Mature Students

Variable	Variable Subcategory	*n*	Percent	*M (SD)*
Age				33.29 (9.50)
Age (Range)	25 – 29	74,821	48.3	
	30 – 34	33,540	21.6	
	35 – 39	19,099	12.3	
	40 – 44	7,100	4.6	
	45 – 49	8,170	5.3	
	50+	12,305	7.8	
Gender	Male	85,608	55.2	
	Female	69,426	44.8	
Aboriginal Status	Yes	20,930	13.5	
	No	134,104	86.5	
Immigrated to Canada	Yes	37,803	24.4	
Age at Immigration				29.44 (9.08)
Age at Immigration (Range)	Under 30	17,805	47.1	
	30 – 39	15,728	41.6	
	40 – 49	4,270	11.3	
Employed	Yes	90,634	58.5	
Employment Status (of those employed)	Full-time	45,087	49.7	
	Part-time	45,547	50.3	
Amount owing on student loan?	Yes	52,128	33.6	
Amount owing on student loan[a]				$25,958.78 (26902.11)

[a]Amount currently owing on student loan at time of survey

The majority of low-income mature students (66.7%) were not partnered (i.e., single, never married, separated, divorced or widowed). Slightly more than one-third had children (36.8%), and the average household size was 2.4 (Table 3). For both maternal and paternal educations, parents were more likely to have a postsecondary degree/diploma than to have a high school diploma or less. The majority of the sample were between 10-50% below the LICO. For these low-income mature students, a majority were full-time (73.7%) and studying at a University (58.2%; Table 4).

Table 3: Family Characteristics of Low-Income Mature Students

Variable	Variable Subcategory	*n*	Percent	*M (SD)*
Household after-tax income	Annual income			9024.38 (5668.00)
Relationship Status	Partnered	51,600	33.3	
	Non-Partnered	103,434	66.7	
Household size (economic family)				2.4 (1.43)
Children/dependents	Yes	57,126	36.8	
	No	97,908	63.2	
Number of children/dependents				0.74 (1.21)
Age of Youngest person in Economic family				23.45 (13.38)
Age of Youngest person in Economic family (Range)	Under 1	7,884	5.1	
	1 – 3	10,013	6.5	
	4 – 6	6,764	4.4	
	7 – 9	9,377	6.0	
	10 – 15	9,519	6.1	
	16 – 24	6,819	4.4	
	25 and older	104,698	67.5	
Ratio of Family After-tax income to the LICO	More than 50% below LICO	61,448	39.6	
	Between 10-50% below LICO	73,033	47.1	
	No more than 10% below LICO	20,554	13.3	
Maternal Education (Range)	High school diploma or less	58,572	41.4	
	Postsecondary degree or diploma	82,900	58.6	
Paternal Education (Range)	High school diploma or less	52,515	38.4	
	Postsecondary degree or diploma	84,382	61.6	

Table 4: Institutional Characteristics of Low-Income Mature Students

Variable	Variable Subcategory	*n*	Percent
Type of Institution	University	90,223	58.2
	College	55,201	35.6
	CEGEP	9,610	6.2
Enrolment Status	Full-time	110,617	73.7
	Part-time	39,496	26.3

For research objective 3, low-income mature student enrolment was compared on the basis of gender and institution type. When compared by gender, maternal education, age, number of children, and household size were found to be statistically different between male and female students (Tables 5 & 6). Mothers of the male students were more likely to have a higher postsecondary qualification than mothers of the female students, and this was observed to have a moderately strong effect size ($\phi_{Cramer} = .29$). The average age of females (35.54) was statistically higher than males (31.47), as was the average number of children (1.24 vs. 0.35). Correspondingly, average household size was significantly larger for females than for males (2.74 vs. 2.11). Average age and household size were observed to have a small to medium effect size ($d = .43$ and .45, respectively) and number of children was observed to have a medium to large effect size ($d = .76$).

Table 5: Comparison of Categorical Characteristics by Gender

Variable	Variable Subcategory	Percent of total[a]		Statistics	
		Male	Female	χ^2	df
Aboriginal Status	Yes	6.7	6.7		
	No	48.5	44	0.23	1
Employment Status	Full-time	29.1	20.3		
	Part-time	35.4	15.2	1.05	1
Maternal Education	High School or below	16.3	25.2		
	Postsecondary degree/diploma	39.8	18.7	10.08**	1
Paternal Education	High School or below	21.7	16.7		
	Postsecondary degree/diploma	37.5	24.2	0.22	1
Partnered	Yes	17.8	15.6		
	No	37.8	28.9	0.14	1
Ratio to LICO	More than 50% below	22.4	17.2		
	10 – 50% below	24.6	22.4		
	Less than 10% below	8.2	5.2	0.50	2
Institution Type	University	37.0	25.2		
	College	17.3	20.5	2.25	1
Enrolment Status	Full-time	38.9	34.4		
	Part-time	16.0	10.7	0.49	1

* $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$

[a]As a percent of the total number of mature low-income students

Table 6: Comparison of Institutional Characteristics by Gender

Variable	Male		Female		Statistics[a]		
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	95% CI	*t*	df
Age	31.47	7.77	35.54	10.99	-7.39 (lower) -0.74 (upper)	-2.43*	103.58
After-tax income	8978.49	5989.15	9,080.97	5,345.06	-2,057.32 1,852.37	-0.10	133
Age at immigration	30.22	7.22	28.68	11.00	-5.10 8.17	0.47	31
Amount owing on loan[b]	19,183.17	26,503.50	33,381.39	26,583.42	-30,099.96 1,703.51	-1.80	43
Number of children	0.35	0.80	1.24	1.45	-1.31 -0.47	-4.18**	83.77
Age youngest child in family	25.24	11.03	21.24	15.71	-0.74 8.75	1.68	103.14
Household size	2.11	1.27	2.74	1.55	-1.12 -0.16	-2.63**	133

* $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$

[a]Calculated using standardized weightings

[b]Amount owing on student loan at time of survey

When compared by institution type, significant differences were found for several characteristics. Maternal education was higher for those in university, with mothers more likely to have a higher postsecondary qualification than mothers of those in college (Table 7). The effect size was observed to be moderately strong ($\phi_{Cramer} = .27$). Those who were enrolled in college were more likely to have children, younger children, and larger household sizes than those in

university (Table 8). The effect sizes for number of children, age of children, and household were all observed to be medium (d = .57, .44, and .51, respectively).

Table 7: Comparison of Categorical Characteristics by Institution

		Percent of Total[a]		Statistics[b]	
Variable	Variable Subcategory	University	College	χ^2	df
Sex	Male	37.0	17.3		
	Female	25.2	20.5	2.25	1
Aboriginal Status	Yes	8.7	4.8		
	No	53.2	33.3	0.07	1
Employment Status	Full-time	28.4	18.9		
	Part-time	37.8	14.9	1.15	1
Maternal Education	High School or below	19.1	20.0		
	Postsecondary degree/diploma	46.1	14.8	8.69**	1
Paternal Education	High School or below	20.7	15.3		
	Postsecondary degree/diploma	45.0	18.9	1.90	1
Partnered	Yes	18.1	15.0		
	No	44.1	22.8	1.48	1
Ratio to LICO	More than 50% below	28.3	11.8		
	10 – 50% below	18.3	17.3		
	Less than 10% below	5.5	8.7	5.69	2
Enrolment Status	Full-time	45.5	26.0		
	Part-time	17.9	10.6	0.007	1

* p<0.05, **p<0.01
[a]As a percent of the total number of mature low-income students
[b]Calculated using standardized weightings

Table 8: Comparison of Interval Characteristics by Institution

Variable	University		College		Statistics[a]		
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	95% CI	*t*	df
Age	32.14	8.34	34.11	10.27	-5.47 (lower) 1.51 (upper)	-1.13	84.32
After-tax income	8,285.10	5,963.86	10,214.85	5,495.93	-4,028.77 169.26	-1.82	125
Age at immigration	30.40	6.27	27.32	11.36	-3.83 9.99	0.91	28
Amount owing on loan	31,349.86	31,338.57	19,682.69	15,527.74	-3279.23 26,613.57	1.58	37.29
Number of children	.47	1.04	1.17	1.41	-1.18 -0.22	-2.92*	70.77
Age youngest child in family	25.24	12.78	19.50	13.14	1.06 10.42	2.43**	125
Household size	2.14	1.35	2.87	1.52	-1.24 -0.21	-2.78**	125

* p<0.05, **p<0.01
[a]Calculated using standardized weightings

Discussion

Utilizing national-level data, this project examined provincial enrolment differences and individual, family, and institutional characteristics of low-income mature students in postsecondary study, as well as compared their enrolment patterns based on institution type and gender. The purpose of this study was to address the gap in literature related to low-income mature students. The Atlantic Provinces (i.e., P.E.I, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Newfoundland, collectively) yielded the lowest rates of mature, low-income, and low-income mature student enrolment (as a percentage of total postsecondary enrolment). The small number of institutions in the Atlantic Provinces may encourage low-income mature students to leave the province for PSE. Proximity to institutions impacts the decision to enroll at an institution, especially for mature students (van Rhijn et al., 2016b) and low-income students (Frenette, 2004). Despite having the highest overall percentage of postsecondary students, Ontario yielded the second lowest percentages for enrolment of mature, low-income, and low-income mature students. Affordability of education has been identified as a potential significant factor influencing postsecondary study in Ontario for mature, low-income and low-income mature students (Finnie, 2012), and postsecondary institutions are largely dominated by the middle-upper classes (Hoy et al., 2001). Low-income student enrolment in 2011 was just over 11% nationally, suggesting that this middle-upper class domination continues. Although not necessarily surprising, these findings significantly add to the growing evidence for inequity in PSE access. However, changes in postsecondary funding structures (e.g., a 10% reduction in tuition in Ontario; Ontario, 2019) may yield interesting changes low-income mature student enrolment.

Nationally, mature student enrolment was 41%, representing a larger PSE population than low-income students. The highest percentages of both low-income students and mature students were in Alberta. British Columbia had the highest percentage of low-income mature students, more than 2% above the national average. Richards (2008) suggests that Indigenous students are more likely to attend postsecondary schooling at a later stage in life. A higher population of Indigenous students may be why Alberta and British Columbia yielded percentages that are higher than the national average, for both mature and low-income mature students.

While the majority of low-income mature students were 25-34 years old, almost 8% were over 50, suggesting that it is important to examine this population as a heterogeneous group. Although more females attain a PSE than males, male low-income mature student enrolment was 11% higher than females in this study. This novel phenomenon could be explained by the non-linear path that mature PSE students often take (i.e., dropping out one semester and re-enrolling later), potentially changing the enrolment statistics from semester to semester (van Rhijn et al, 2015). It is also more likely for females to take time off to have a child or provide other caregiving duties, also potentially explaining this gender difference. Since this study represents a snapshot of the student population at a specific point in time, further longitudinal study of low-income mature students should be conducted to see if higher male enrolment holds true over time.

Around one-quarter of these low-income mature students were immigrants to Canada with more than half (52.9%) immigrating at 30 years of age or older. Immigrants who have already completed some postsecondary schooling prior to entering Canada often need to enroll in PSE to re-credential in the Canadian context (Grant, 2008). Given the later age of immigration, it is probable that these immigrant students account for a large proportion of those students who had previously completed a university degree. In addition, more than half (58.5%) of the students in this study were employed while attending PSE, supporting previous findings of mature students being more likely to be employed while studying to pay for school (e.g., Finnie et al, 2010; Gault et al, 2014).

Income and finances were examined as they are key considerations that influence the decision to return to school for low-income mature students. Financial factors tend to be intensified for nontraditional students (Thomas, 2002), supporting the small national percentage (5.2%) of mature low-income students found in PSE. With an average after-tax income of only $9024.38, low-income mature students are likely to feel significant financial pressures and question the affordability of PSE. Further, almost 40% of these students were more than 50% below the LICO and possibly qualify for higher student bursaries than their higher-income peers, therefore increasing the likelihood of enrollment. This phenomenon may also be explained by the way income is calculated; as after-tax income is derived from tax records which do not include scholarships/bursaries, it may be that actual incomes are slightly higher income than is showing in this study.

Low-income mature students in this study were more likely to be enrolled in university than college. More students enrolling in university than college is a continuing trend (Statistics Canada, 2016). Additionally, low-income (Gault et al, 2014) and mature students (Fragoso et al., 2013; MacFadgen, 2007) have been found to be more likely to study on a part-time basis. Yet most of these low-income mature students were studying full-time. This discrepancy may be because student bursaries/scholarships are seldom provided for part-time study, thus encouraging full-time enrolment.

The majority of students in this sample were not partnered. Significant life events such as divorce or separation can act as catalysts into schooling (Compton et al., 2006; Swain & Hammond, 2011; van Rhijn et al., 2016b), as can the birth of children. Although most of this sample were childless, for the 36.8% with children, their children may have motivated a return to school. Females were more likely than males to be older, have bigger households, and have more children. It makes sense that if females have more children, then they would also have bigger household sizes. It is possible that females are older due to time taken to have children and raise a family prior to returning to school; it is also possible that the children were catalysts for a return to school (van Rhijn et al., 2016b).

The link between parental education and an individual's decision to study at the postsecondary level has been established (e.g., Hoy et al., 2001; Mueller, 2008). This study yielded further evidence of this link, demonstrating that these students were more likely to have mothers and fathers with education at a postsecondary level. Maternal education was higher for those in university than for those in college and maternal education for males was higher than for females. Maternal education has been shown to be a significant factor in both childhood outcomes like health and well-being as well as in educational outcomes (Magnuson, 2007). It is not surprising that maternal education continues to be a significant factor in this study.

In the institutional analysis, students in college had more children and bigger household sizes than those in university. Mature and low-income students are more likely to attend college due to lower up-front costs and shorter completion times (Compton et al, 2006; Finnie et al., 2011); this is likely similar for low-income mature students. Children require resources such as time and money; thus, the lower up-front costs of college would be attractive, leaving more money for family responsibilities. Similarly, shorter completion times for college mean more time available to spend with children. Likewise, the age of youngest person in the family was statistically lower for those in college, suggesting that low-income mature students likely have younger children than those in university.

Limitations

As with all secondary data analysis, this study is limited by the available information. Additionally, coding choices for variables may have impacted the results. For example, there are likely more Indigenous students enroled in PSE than were identified as respondents who selected 'don't know' for the status question were coded as 'not Aboriginal'. There were no techniques used to correct for the possibility of false positives. Future research should consider using such techniques in order to limit the possibility of false discoveries. Given what we know about mature students' nontraditional paths in education, a longitudinal approach would be helpful to gain insight into the specific behaviours of low-income mature students. In order to further examine inequity in access, researchers may also wish to consider examining individuals from unrepresented groups who intended to complete PSE but either did not apply or were rejected upon applying. This research would provide valuable insight into how vulnerable populations compare to their more traditional counterparts.

Conclusion

Low-income mature students are a unique group of students. This exploratory study represents the first look at this unique group in Canada and contributes to the literature on low-income mature students. This study also provides insight into institutional and gender differences among low-income mature students. With numbers of traditional-age students declining (Berger, 2008), postsecondary institutions should consider recruitment and retention of nontraditional students to mitigate this decline. Low-income mature students should be considered in efforts to diversify postsecondary enrolment, as they are a unique and significant group.

This research provides a foundation for many important implications for both policy makers and institutions. Acknowledging the unique needs of this group of students and developing targeted supports will encourage these

students to attend PSE and succeed in their studies. First, the development of a consistent definition for 'mature', 'low-income', and 'low-income mature' students is required. A consistent definition would provide clarity in future research and allow national comparisons across institutions. Further, consistently collected, longitudinal and cross-sectional data are needed; however, they are not currently being collected nationally on a regular basis. This data could help researchers further explore inequity in PSE access. Both clear definitions and consistent data would strengthen the ability of researchers, policy makers, and institutional employees to understand unique groups of students and develop supports that will enhance their success. Finally, in light of changing demographics on Canadian campuses, increasing the diversity of PSE students to include typically nontraditional populations can address enrolment challenges and equity concerns. Given that this study only touched the surface of low-income mature students, it would be hopeful for future researchers to explore subgroups, such as International students and Indigenous students more deeply in order to better understand and support these groups of students. Given the changing demographics on campus, perhaps it is time for institutions, policy makers, and researchers to re-consider their perceptions of what a 'traditional' student is.

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Measuring the Prevalence of Ecopedagogy in the Manitoba Senior Years Curriculum: A Critical Content Analysis

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Abstract: The purpose of this study is to uncover whether the Manitoba Senior Years curricula made compulsory for graduation are sufficiently meeting the needs of learners, situated in the global efforts to both tackle and adapt to climate change. Crucially, the United Nations has repeatedly identified education, specifically public education as humankind's best opportunity to raise a generation of environmentally-conscious students capable of taking on these challenges. As curriculum is developed and published by the Provincial Government in Manitoba and sets the agenda of learning in the Manitoba classroom, it is essential that curriculum address these planetary needs. Through a critical content analysis methodology, this journal article will apply codes drawn from the Earth Charter (2000) to 29 compulsory and elective Manitoba Senior Years curricula to gauge the extent that learners are exposed to environmental content. An analysis and three recommendations aimed at schools and the Province of Manitoba to move towards aligning with the Earth Charter (2000) will conclude the study.

Keywords: environmental education, ecopedagogy, curriculum, content analysis, Earth Charter

Introduction

Whether you have been reading global news reports, following ongoing national political dialogue over the carbon tax, or trying to escape the news by venturing outside, it has been hard to ignore the increasingly prominent impact that climate change has been having on our planet. In Canada, you don't need to have been impacted by the arctic fires (Tait, 2019), dealt with double the average severe weather reports in Alberta (Ward, 2019), or been displaced by flooding in Eastern Canada (Eschner, 2019) to see that all is not well. You may have had difficulty getting away from the heat this summer, with the news that July 2019 declared globally the hottest month since records began (Fountain, 2019). Earlier in 2019, Canada was reported to be warming at twice the global rate (CBC News, 2019). All this while setting aside the consequences of ecological destruction accompanying an increased pumping of carbon into our atmosphere.

In my current home of Manitoba, we are far from secure from the impacts of climate change. While in January of any year, the idea of 'global warming' might lead to a witticism of 'bring it on!' digging deeper uncovers further incoming repercussions on the Manitoba environment than just warmer winters. Researcher David Schindler writing in 2010 argues that,

> positive effects of the warming will be few, and disadvantages many. Agriculture will be much diminished, with the advantages of a warmer and longer growing season more than offset by a lack of water. Prairie forest boundaries will be pushed far to the north, largely the result of increased fires, some following extensive insect outbreaks. Precipitation events will be fewer, but more intense. Transportation by water, and tourism and recreation on water resources, will be almost non-existent (Schindler in Sauchyn, Diaz, & Kulshreshtha, 2010, p.x).

Manitoba Climate Change Connection's Curt Hull suggested that "When the rest of the world is in turmoil because of tornadoes, hurricanes, floods, droughts, and mass migrations because of climate, the economic consequences are really quite severe. That's what we're likely to feel in Manitoba" (Petz, 2018, n.p.).

The purpose of this study is to draw question of what role education can play in mitigating and adapting to the climate crisis. Specifically, this study will seek to answer is the extent to which the Manitoba Senior Years curriculum is effectively supporting youth enrolled in public education in cultivating knowledge, attitudes, and actions to aid in their understanding of the escalating environmental crisis and their role in it. If as Kress (2003, p.16) argues, that curriculum aims to transmit the knowledge, skills, meanings and values today as a socializing force for the future, then it is vitally important to understand whether the Manitoba Senior Years curricula is geared toward cultivating 'ecopedagogy' (a term I will detail later on) in Manitoban youth.

Theoretical Foundations

The Earth Charter

The United Nations has repeatedly identified education, specifically K-12, as humankind's best opportunity to raise a generation of ecologically conscious youth capable of taking on these challenges. In 1987 the United Nations released *Our Common Future*, better known as the Brundtland Report, with education cited as a key component in developing "changes in attitudes, in social values, and aspirations" (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987, n.p.). The report considered that alongside non-governmental organizations and the scientific community, educational institutions "will play a crucial part in putting the world onto sustainable development paths, in laying the groundwork for Our Common Future" (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987, n.p).

The Brundtland Report (1987) served as a starting point for a larger conversation amongst organizations educational institutions around the world towards a common objective. Ultimately it led to the creation of a charter to represent the values of *Our Common Future*, which became the Earth Charter (2000). The Charter was the result of an extensive consultation process with over 5000 individuals, culminating in "a global consensus statement of values and principles for a sustainable future," and a call for unity "to bring forth a sustainable global society founded on respect for nature, universal human rights, economic justice, and a culture of peace" (Earth Charter, 2000, n.p.).

Critical pedagogists such as Richard Kahn, Moacir Gadotti, David Grunewald, and Richard Clugston view the Earth Charter (2000) as a valuable benchmark from which developing environmentally sound pedagogy can orient. In outlining how educators might utilize the Earth Charter (2000) in their practice, Clugston and Calder (1999) identify two roles: firstly, it be employed as a framework and source of content for education for sustainable living, and secondly as a catalyst for promoting an ongoing multi-sectional dialogue on global ethics. In other words, the Earth Charter (2000) blends education for sustainable living with a critical perspective on contemporary society. Gruenewald (2004) praised it for being "able to negotiate the complex ecological interactions between science, politics, and culture, between social and ecological systems, and their impact on human and nonhuman life" (Gruenewald, 2004, p. 94).

Ecopedagogy

Kahn (2009) developed the term 'ecopedagogy' as an attempt to blend critical pedagogy and education for the environment. As Kahn correctly asserts, if we are to 'overcome previous theoretical limitations' and move both terms towards a more inclusive critical and transformative approach to education, a uniting of these concerns is necessary (Kahn, 2009). Ecopedagogy, writes Kahn

> is the key process by which we might fend off the worst aspects of today's globalization, and realize more of the utopia in which non-human animals, oppressed peoples, and the planet are not wholly exterminated, but rather ecumenically brought into a new ecological society generally" (Kahn, 2009, p.525).

Further, it is an effort to,

> interpolate quintessentially Freirian aims of the humanization of experience and the achievement of a just and free world with a future-oriented ecological politics that militantly opposes the globalization of neoliberalism and imperialism, on the one hand, and attempts to foment collective ecoliteracy and realize culturally relevant forms of knowledge grounded in normative concepts such as sustainability, planetarity, and biophilia on the other" (Kahn, 2010, p.18).

In education there are a range of terms that can label learning around environmental issues inside (or outside) the classroom, including *environmental education*, *ecoliteracy*, *education for sustainable development*, or *education for sustainable living* to name but a few. As seen in Table 1, these terms lack critical perspective and failure to name our dominant economic system of capitalism instrumental in the creation of the climate crisis (which has been unpacked in detail by Klein, 2014). Ecopedagogy is explicitly anti-capitalist, challenging the cultural hegemonic practice of public education as a human capital factory that perpetuates a continuation and expansion of consumer culture and widening of the human/nature divide.

Table 1: Terms pertaining to instruction of environmentalism in education

Environmental Education	Aimed at producing a citizenry that is knowledgeable concerning the biophysical environment and its associated problems, aware of how to solve these problems, and motivated to work towards their solution (Stapp, 1969).
Ecoliteracy	The ecologically literate person as one who possesses knowledge of the interrelatedness of humans, human society and the natural environment. The ecoliterate citizen sees and understands the world in 'systems', which is awareness of the carrying capacity, overshoot, Liebig's Law of the minimum, thermodynamics, trophic levels, energetics, and succession. To have ecoliteracy is to have a strong knowledge of the ways in which people and societies have had a destructive impact on the planet (Orr, 1992).
Education for Sustainable Development	Lester Brown, founder of the Worldwatch Institute, introduced the concept of sustainability in the early 1980s and defined a sustainable society as one that is able to satisfy its needs without diminishing the chances of future generations. Sustainable development has three components: (a) environment; (b) health and well-being; and (c) economy. If you consider the three to be overlapping circles of the same size, the area of overlap in the center is the human quality of life. As the environment, society, and economy become more aligned, the area of overlap increases, and so does human quality of life. (McKeown, 2013).
Education for Sustainable Living	Supports the health and quality of life of present and future generations while living within the limits of its social and natural systems. It recognizes the need for justice, and for physical, emotional, intellectual, cultural, and spiritual sustenance (Stone, 2010).

I am in agreement with Shellenberger and Nordhaus (2009) who wrote critically on the failures of the last decades in *The Death of Environmentalism*, outlining that they are "convinced that modern environmentalism, with all of its unexamined assumptions, outdated concepts, and exhausted strategies, must die so that something new can live" (p.10). I see ecopedagogy as what should come next, and throughout this study will use it as a framework along with a critical content analysis methodology to undertake my work.

Aim of Study

Using the Earth Charter (2000) and the theory of ecopedagogy can provide a format for evaluating curriculum documents in an effort to gauge the environmental content learners may be exposed to in any given high school course. Every public school teacher in Manitoba is beholden to the mandated curriculum. Given the current relationship that humankind has with the planet, the current trends in society, and the view that education can play a role in encouraging youth to reconnect with nature and prepare for a warming planet, the purpose of this study is to uncover whether the Manitoba Senior Years curricula are meeting our needs as a province to develop positive attitudes, knowledge and actions in youth on Earth.

If key elements of the Earth Charter (2000), considered a vital source for moving towards a sustainable future are ignored, or even contradicted, this will have ramifications for the environment and well-being of Manitoba. Decisions on what content to include in a curriculum document are political. It is my view that if the Province of

Manitoba is found to be excluding education for environment completely, limit to tokenism, or outright contradicting best practices as outlined by the Earth Charter (2000), then this would be one done with intent.

Literature Review

Broadly speaking research on education for the environment in Manitoba can be divided into two categories: firstly, studies seeking to understand how effectively education for environment can or has been implemented into schools; and secondly, studies gauging student attitudes and behaviours as a result of education for environment programming.

In brief, these studies include Metz et al. (2010) who contrasted the ESD learning experiences of a school in Costa Rica with that of one in Winnipeg; Belton (2013) who used a narrative inquiry methodology to interview leaders in education for sustainable development (ESD) in England, Australia and Canada (predominantly in Winnipeg); similarly, Jacques (2012) undertook a phenomenological study interviewing six Winnipeg high school leaders in ESD; Kraljevic (2011) used a mixed-methods study to conclude whether the Manitoba Grade 10 Science curriculum was leading to improved knowledge and attitudes pertaining to the environment; Eckton (2016) undertook a participatory action research study at a Winnipeg high school to collect data on student attitudes and values pertaining to education for sustainable living (ESL); similarly, Michalos et al. (2015) surveyed 10% of Manitoban youth enrolled in Grade 10 Social Studies and Science, using a five-point scale to gauge learners knowledge, attitudes and behaviors in ESD; and Babiuk & Falkenberg (2010) undertook the largest study of ESD in Manitoba, surveying teachers, administrators and superintendents through interviews on environmental education in Manitoba.

Two conclusions can be drawn from these studies. Firstly, the siloing of subjects into separate curriculum areas prevents effective teaching for education for environment (Babiuk & Falkenberg, 2010; Belton, 2013; Eckton, 2016; Jacques, 2012; Kraljevic, 2011; Metz et al., 2010). Secondly, many educators found that either an overcrowded or overly restrictive curriculum created a challenging environment for effective teaching of education for sustainable development (Babiuk & Falkenberg, 2010; Belton, 2013; Eckton, 2016; Hart; 2002; Metz et al., 2010; Michalos et al., 2015; Jacques; 2012). As a result, in these studies the authors highlight that despite growing concern regarding the human impacts on the planet over the last decades, there is no evidence of improved environmental knowledge or positive behaviors in Manitoba learners at the senior years level (Babiuk & Falkenberg, 2010; Belton, 2013; Eckton, 2016; Hart, 2002; Jacques, 2012; Kraljevic, 2011; Metz et al., 2010; Michalos et al., 2015).

While these studies have shone a light on the work that needs to be done to improve education for environment, none have directly sought to critique and measure the quality of curriculum that directly informs the teacher's instruction. Studies from Babiuk and Falkenberg (2010), Eckton (2015), Kraljevic (2012), and Michalos et. al (2015) have aimed to gauge student knowledge or actions as a result of the current curriculum, and likewise studies from Babiuk and Falkenberg (2010) Belton (2013), Jacques (2012) have attempted to see what schools and classrooms are doing in an effort to expand education for environment. From my literature review, no studies to date have critically analyzed the Manitoba High School curriculum to measure against such a benchmark as the Earth Charter (2000).

Methodology

This research study employed a critical content analysis methodology. Content analysis (CA) is a research method that aims to draw inferences from text so a researcher may gain knowledge and understanding of a topic or phenomenon (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). To reach this goal CA undertakes “careful, detailed, systematic examination of a particular body of material in an effort to identify patterns, themes, biases, and meanings” (Berg & Lune, 2012, p. 349). The raw material for CA can be any form of document or communication medium (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996), including verbal, print, electronic, and obtained from narrative responses, surveys, interviews, focus groups, observations, or print media such as articles, books or manuals (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Flick (2002) claims that content analysis is one of the ‘classical procedures’ for analyzing textual material. For a study critically analyzing a selection of Manitoba curriculum documents, content analysis was a methodological approach that fit the material under consideration.

Manifest and latent content analysis are forms of summative content analysis. Manifest content analysis is a quantitative research method that employs coding to the content under analysis, with a view to count the appearance

of words, phrases or sentences contained within. In a second step, manifest content analysis the researcher makes "replicable and valid inferences by applying empirical and statistical methods to textual material" (Woods & Catanzaro, 1988, p. 437). Coding, where a word, word sense, sentence, passage, or whole text within a document is searched and then catalogued, aids in this process. Manifest content analysis assumes that a high frequency of particular word count means that the author values said word and its meaning - a note of vital importance when analyzing the data.

Within manifest content analysis I undertook three steps. Firstly, I established a list of 29 Manitoba curriculum documents from the senior years as the study sample. These documents covered all subject areas that students could meet content connected to ecopedagogy between Grades 9 and 12, including English Language Arts, Physical/Health Education, Science, Technology Education (including Home Economics and Food & Nutrition), Family Studies, most Social Studies. Owing to the perceived low likelihood of content connected to ecopedagogy, the selection excluded Mathematics, optional credits, and a 20-year rule of exclusion for not updated curriculum documents. Secondly, a list of 51 codes (including synonyms numbered 100) were pulled from the Earth Charter (2000). These were key words that conveyed the 'who' and 'what' required to address attitudes, knowledge and actions according to the Earth Charter (2000). Thirdly, the Manitoba curriculum documents were analyzed for frequency of codes. For every instance of the code within the curriculum document, the sentence (or paragraph if context is required to explain the reason for the code being used) was catalogued. Code occurrence in headings, tables and text was considered equal, with a word appearing once in a heading and then in the following text counted twice.

Latent content analysis is a qualitative research method in which the researcher "views each passage of the textual material within the context of the entire text" (Woods & Catanzaro, 1988, p.437). Latent content analysis seeks to understand not what word or words are included in a text, but what is implicit or explicit in their use. Researchers including Weber (1990), Babbie (2001), and Berg and Lune (2012) state that the best approach is for a researcher to use both quantitative (manifest) and qualitative (latent) when conducting content analysis studies.

Within latent content analysis I compared and contrasted each use of key word within the curriculum documents against its use within the Earth Charter (2000) ensuring that the context to which the code was used in the Earth Charter (2000), met that of the curriculum document. For example, latent content analysis was undertaken to ensure *environment* was used in a 'nature' sense, rather than 'learning environment'. The code was tabulated alongside the sentence (or paragraph) taken from the curriculum documents. Secondly, once all curriculum documents were scanned for codes and tabulated, a numeric value to represent the number of coded words, and their respective frequency of use was totaled (see Appendix A). The third and final step was to make inferences from the study.

Findings

A variety of analyses were drawn from the data. Firstly, the code occurrence (CO) data was cut and isolated based on the Manitoba curriculum document (MCD), subject area, grade level and individual CO across all curriculum documents. Secondly, the data was analyzed based on these grouped sections. Cutting and analyzing the data in a variety of ways allowed for isolating variables such as Grades, subject type (such as English Language Arts, Social Studies, Science), and length of curriculum document (which varied between 7 and over 600 pages), allowing for more robust conclusions to be drawn from the data.

In total 12,245 codes were identified across the 29 MCD. All 51 codes or 100 codes including synonyms were present across the MCD. CO varied greatly across the MCD. Grouping all the MCD together, at the lower end there was only one CO of *precautionary principle* (defined as resisting the use or introduction of a product or process until its environmental safety has been proven), and at the higher end 1002 CO of *community / communities*. Other high frequency CO were *environment / environmental* (971), *politics / political / government / governance* (777), and *world / planet* (681). There were 12 codes present less than 50 times across the MCD, namely: *humanity* (18), *humane / human development* (14), *resilience* (20), *soil* (36), *air* (15), *care / compassion / love* (48), *spiritual* (39), *conservation / restoration / rehabilitation / renewal* (38), *wild* (5), *minerals / fossil fuels* (33), *pollution / toxic* (29), and *precautionary principle* (1).

There was also significant variance in the number of CO between MCD. Grade 12 Global Issues had the highest number of CO (2553), followed by Grade 10 Social Studies (1408) and Grade 11 Social Studies (943), and Grade 12 Current Topics in First Nations, Metis and Inuit Studies (918). There were seven MCD with less than 100 CO, namely: Grade 11-12 Environmental Design (86), Grade 12 Applied Family Studies (52), Grade 12 Interdisciplinary Topics in Science (21) as well as all five English Language Arts curriculum: Grade 9-12 Draft English Language Arts curriculum (57), Grade 9 ELA (57), Grade 10 ELA (46), Grade 11 ELA (74), Grade 12 ELA (48).

Themes emerging from CO separated by Grade level show the weakness of MCD at the Grade 9 and 10 level, specifically the under-representation of codes in Science and Social Studies. At present, these Grade 9 and 10 courses represent four of the five compulsory courses for Manitoba Senior Years in Social Studies and Science and therefore it is critical that the MCD contain high CO. Grade 9 Social Studies (189) and Grade 9 Science (142) had low total CO. CO separated by average codes per page allowed for a fairer point of contrast between documents with less than 200 pages and over 600 pages. Cutting the data this way showed Social Studies averaging 0.43 codes per page, and Science 0.37 average codes per page. Grade 10 Science (131) was even lower in CO ranking, averaging 0.21 codes per page – the lowest of any MCD in this study.

Another theme that emerged was the discrepancy between code meaning in CO. Codes such as *world / planet* (681), *culture* (471), *well-being / health* (498), *environment / environmental* (971), *society* (501), *sustainable / sustainability* (490), *dignity / respect* (221), and *community / communities* (1002) appeared across the majority of MCD, and in many of the MCD registered high CO. These are a diverse list of codes, but in the latent content analysis stage of methodology it became clear that other than *sustainable / sustainability*, none drew a link between dominant economic systems and environmental degradation. This finding led to a distinction between 'hard' and 'soft' codes - a determination that had to be made in aligning with a theoretical approach of ecopedagogy. Hard codes resonate with ecopedagogical thinking and challenge the status quo, while soft codes do not. Examples of hard codes included *human rights / rights, justice / injustice, consumption / consume, resilience, minerals / fossil fuels, pollution / toxic* or *precautionary principle* - all of which were relatively low in CO, and not consistently present across Grade and subject areas in the MCD. Soft codes such as *world / planet*, *society*, and *community / communities* are not critical in their use and were far more prevalent across MCD.

In addition, the MCD skirt around identification of individuals, groups and dominant processes that contravene the ECP by encouraging teachers to provide students with space to undertake inquiry into issues. However, what this fails to do is demand educators to provide learning experiences that make explicit the actors and processes in contemporary society that undermine the ECP. The increasing encroachment of corporations into the classroom with packaged lesson plans preys on educators to provide learning experiences, while almost guaranteeing that the suppliers of these materials do not come under question (Tahirali, 2012, p.8).

What many of these MCD offer is either constraints or opportunities for educators to teach content related to the Earth Charter (2000). Grade 9, 10, 11 and 12 ELA and Grade 9/10, 11 and 12 Physical / Health Education MCD offer relatively few opportunities, unless the courses can be integrated with other subjects such as Technology Education, Social Studies or Science. On the other hand, there are a number of very strong MCD that align well with the Earth Charter Principles (ECP). In this category I would include Grade 12 Global Issues, Grade 12 Current Topics in First Nations, Metis and Inuit Studies, Grade 11 Topics in Science, and Grade 12 Interdisciplinary Topics in Science. These MCD either have high CO, high average codes per page, provide opportunities for students to explore issues connected to the ECP, or include an action component requiring learners to demonstrate learning through community-based projects.

Collectively summarizing the Senior Years Manitoba curriculum documents in their ability to effectively provide a platform for educators to provide experiences that connect to ecopedagogy is not possible, as there is a large amount of variance between the documents. Several of them, such as Grade 12 Global Issues and Grade 12 Current Topics in First Nations, Metis and Inuit Studies contain a high number of codes. Inquiry based courses such as Grade 11 Topics in Science and Grade 12 Interdisciplinary Topics in Science contain a high number of average number of

codes per page and provide space for educators to guide students towards research projects that tackle many of the issues contained within the ECP.

Based on my research, an overall black or white conclusion on the ability of the MCD to support ecopedagogy in Manitoba is not possible. Rather, I accept that there are a number of things that some of the courses do well, but that to move forward and increase the exposure to ecopedagogy, the expression of Earth Charter (2000) related content needs to be expanded into more courses, with increased contact hours for learners.

Recommendations

Based on data gathered from my research I developed three recommendations aimed at the systemic level. *Recommendation 1* speaks to school administration, with *Recommendation 2* and *Recommendation 3* directed at the Province of Manitoba. Six further recommendations based on data from the study in conjunction research considered in the Literature Review can be found along with a fuller account of the study in my thesis (Burton, 2019).

Recommendation 1: Schools should look to increase their capacity for offering Technology Education courses or skills across grade levels.

Maguire and McCloat (2017) outline how Home Economics (named Technology Education in Manitoba) has "distinct qualities and progressive potential in enabling a future-oriented education and practice towards global sustainable well-being" (p.165). The subject area in Manitoba includes Family Studies, Food and Nutrition, Human Ecology, Textile Art and Design and Environmental Design courses. As a discipline, Technology Education seeks to achieve healthy and sustainable living for individuals, families and societies (Maguire & McCloat, 2017, p.166). This is a premise that aligns very closely with the Earth Charter (2000), specifically the prologue which states, "life often involves tensions between important values. This can mean difficult choices... we must find ways to harmonize diversity with unity, the exercise of freedom with the common good, short-term objectives with long-term goals" (Earth Charter, 2000).

McLaren (2015) outlines that Technology Education provides space for learners to,

> apply designerly thinking through action based challenges which explore issues and opportunities, seeking to address design challenges which offer engagement to enhance, alter, change, innovate; recognise the integration and inter-dependency of people, place, culture, society, economy, industry, and environment through craft, design, engineering and developments over time; critique consequences of proposed and / or existing actions, systems, environments and artefacts; participate in meaningful and authentic contexts; identify complexity, issues and scenario-based design challenges; and recognise and select indigenous and appropriate technologies (McLaren in Stables and Keirl, Eds., 2015, p.147).

It is clear from this selected list that there are multiple components which can be pulled from Technology Education curricula that align with a variety of the principles of the Earth Charter (2000).

A relatively new area of research in education pertains to the notion of transition skills. Stephen Quilley from the University of Waterloo has written extensively about the practice that focuses learning around artisan skills such as crafts in woodland, building, field, workshop, textile and domestic areas (Quilley, 2009, p.47-48). Examples of these include carpentry, stone-walling, iron-forging, pottery, knitting, sewing and cooking. This approach to education is linked to transition communities - a growing number of communities that are moving away from a fossil fuel-based economy, towards more sustainable modes of life, so that they are more prepared for a post-oil world (more of this can be found in Rob Hopkins text, *The Transition Handbook*, 2008). Many of these skills can be found in the Technology Education classroom - skills that provide a sustainable alternative to consumer culture. Any conversation with someone a generation older leads us to realize that in Western society we are losing this institutional memory of creating, fixing and reusing that was a normal practice in the past. Technology Education could provide that important link.

Findings from my study suggest that there is a high average code occurrence per page in the Technology Education curriculum documents, which also includes high CO for *human rights / rights* (12), *justice / injustice* (11),

resilience (17), *consume / consumption* (29), *sustainable / sustainability* (30), *action / praxis* (11), and *reduce / reuse / recycle* (12). Schools should ensure that they are capable of both offering and attracting learners to Technology Education courses, particularly as they are all elective courses at the Senior Years level in Manitoba. Schools may also decide to move towards making one or more Technology Education courses as compulsory for graduation, or seek to integrate elements of the Technology Education MCD into other courses, such as English Language Arts, Physical / Health Education, Social Studies, Mathematics or Science.

Recommendation 2: The Government of Manitoba should seek to reform the Grade 9 and 10 Social Studies and Grade 9 Science curriculum.

An emergent theme from the data was the weakness of the Grade 9 and 10 Social Studies and Grade 9 Science curriculum owing to their low CO and average CO per page; this has been echoed by the previous work of Kraljevic (2011), Jacques (2012), Belton (2013), Michalos et al. (2015), Eckton (2015), Henderson (2016) and the broader study by Babiuk and Falkenberg (2010). These authors have targeted the Grade 9 and 10 Social Studies and in particular the Grade 10 Science curriculum as not fit for its purpose as a flagship course for Education for Sustainable Development. As a result, I would advocate that these courses be redesigned using the Grade 12 Global Issues course as a model, with specific focus on providing more space for teacher discretion in content, opportunities for student inquiry, and community action projects. A support document for teachers that uses the Earth Charter (2000) as its foundation should be a starting point for learners.

Metz et al., (2010) argue that Grade 10 Social Studies and Grade 10 Science should be redesigned so that they merge into a larger course. Learning could be built vertically on the Grade 9 Social Studies and Science courses and include focuses on life, the natural world, systems thinking, resilience, health and human well-being, the biosphere, ecological systems, consumption and consumerism, sustainable living, conservation / restoration / rehabilitation, renewable energy, and the notion of the precautionary principle. Focuses should include local content curated by teachers, but allowing space for student inquiry. Teachers would need to be provided with resources that identify and critique the root causes of environmental degradation, such as an analysis of racism, sexism, gender, capitalism, consumerism, colonialism, dependency on oil, as well as political ideologies that exclude. The expectation should be that learners are provided with an extensive period of time for community action projects.

Recommendation 3: The Government of Manitoba should move towards making Grade 12 Global Issues a compulsory course for graduation.

One course that should be made compulsory for graduation in Manitoba is Grade 12 Global Issues. Owing to the high CO and average CO per page, making the Global Issues course a part of every learners' graduation plan would be a meaningful policy to implement, either at the school, Divisional or Provincial level (for example, Maples Met School in Seven Oaks School Division enrolls all learners in the course, integrating it with Grade 12 English Language Arts, which is compulsory for graduation). It bears repeating that according to the results of my study, Grade 12 Global Issues represents the best example of exposure to content closely associated with the Earth Charter (2000), and does so while allowing learners the opportunity to pursue learning that aligns with their interests and encourages an *action / praxis* component.

Making Global Issues a compulsory course for graduation would bring the number of compulsory courses for graduation in Manitoba from 17 to 18, and compulsory courses at the Grade 12 level to four (alongside English Language Arts, Physical / Health Education and a Mathematics course). This would still provide students in Manitoba the chance to take 12 elective courses in their four years of high school. It would also mean that a Social Studies course is compulsory at each of the four Senior Years levels (along with Grade 9 Social Studies, Grade 10 Geography and Grade 11 History of Canada). Individual schools may want to explore the possibility of making Grade 12 Global Issues compulsory themselves, without direction from the Province of Manitoba. Either way, according to the data from my study, I see this course is too valuable for exposure to environmental content for learners to opt out.

Conclusion

A knowledge-gap exists in our understanding of the extent to which Manitoba curriculum at the Senior Years is directing teachers to support learners to develop the knowledge, attitudes and actions in environmental consciousness. This modest study utilizing ecopedagogy and the Earth Charter (2000) has sought to both draw attention to and provide data to support the claim that more needs to be done. Limitations of this critical content analysis include drawing overly deterministic conclusions from an interpretive methodology, the use of the Earth Charter as a metric for measuring content in curriculum documents, and assumes educators are actually following and implementing curriculum as document in the classroom. Nevertheless, it is my hope that this study can spark discussion and further consideration about the content and goals of Provincially mandated learning outcomes in our classrooms.

In recent history we have seen the impact of adopting a framework designed outside of education that has impacted instruction within the classroom. In the publication of the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada: Calls to Action (2015), policy makers were provided with a framework from which to redesign and reorient education in Canada. The report led to a variety of institutions to rally behind a critical common goal: reconciliation between First Nations peoples and settlers on the territory now called Canada. The Calls to Action outlined a number of different policy suggestions for different areas of Canadian society, amongst them Child Welfare, Health, Language and Culture, and Education.

What is particularly striking here is that the TRC Calls to Action emerged as the result of a societal issue (of note: Residential Schools, the Sixties Scoop, Intergenerational Trauma) with a framework to address changing knowledge, attitudes and actions through education resulting. In many ways, the TRC Calls to Action are an example of what can be achieved when a critical mass of support and accountability meet towards a common goal.

The emergence of the TRC Calls to Action are similar conditions that impetus for the Earth Charter (2000) originated. It is over 30 years since *Our Common Future* (1987) captured the world's attention with their own calls to action. Yet since that time, the planet and its human inhabitants have slid into an ever-increasingly perilous state. The underlying imperative from then remains today, and it can play a crucial role in the rethinking of education in Manitoba.

Imagine: like the TRC Calls to Action, the Earth Charter (2000) became a resource for policy makers to guide their decision making in reforming curriculum? What if School Divisions designed their Mission Statements, and schools curated their yearly School Plan around meeting the criteria of the Earth Charter (2000)? What if Faculties of Education required postsecondary students to implement principles of the Earth Charter (2000) into every lesson plan? What if students within the K-12 public school system were not measured by their ability to regurgitate content that they were 'gifted with' by a classroom teacher, but were measured yearly by their ability to demonstrate knowledge, attitudes and actions that aligned with the Earth Charter (2000)? The Earth Charter (2000) is the radical document that we need in these times to conceptualize our relationship with each other and the planet that sustains us.

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APPENDIX A

Content Analysis Data Chart

	Grade 9-12: Draft ELA (May 2017)	Grade 9: ELA	Grade 10: ELA	Grade 11: ELA	Grade 12: ELA	Grade 9-12: Family Studies	Grade 9-12: Food & Nutrition	Grade 9-12: Human Ecology	Grade 9-12: Textile Art & Design	Grade 11-12: Environmental Design	Grade 12: Applied Family Studies	Grade 9-10: Physical / Health Education	Grade 11: Physical / Health Education	Grade 12: Physical / Health Education	Grade 9: Science	Grade 10: Science	Grade 11: Biology	Grade 11: Chemistry	Grade 11: Physics	Grade 11: Topics in Science	Grade 12: Biology	Grade 12: Chemistry	Grade 12: Physics	Grade 12: Interdisciplinary Topics in Science	Grade 9: Social Studies	Grade 10: Social Studies (Geography)	Grade 11: History of Canada	Grade 12: Current Topics in First Nations, Metis and Inuit Studies	Grade 12: Global Issues	TOTAL OCCURENCES OF CODE
Earth / land	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	0	29	6	8	21	32	47	8	7	81	0	24	38	17	84	76	489
Humanity	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15	18
World / planet	7	3	1	5	8	1	3	1	2	0	0	3	16	4	0	14	23	24	34	37	26	12	51	3	98	63	83	18	141	681
Diversity	2	4	1	1	4	6	0	1	0	0	2	13	4	6	5	7	8	7	8	11	8	6	8	0	70	54	36	12	5	289
Culture	4	9	9	8	8	7	2	6	6	5	2	17	0	9	3	1	3	4	6	6	4	2	4	2	132	23	37	116	36	471
Life	5	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	3	0	0	2	34	0	14	10	24	0	14	20	26	7	14	0	36	21	43	19	57	356
Humane / human development	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	6	0	0	2	14
Nature / natural	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	3	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	16	5	37	48	38	18	22	1	16	105	17	19	117	467
Human rights / rights	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	1	0	0	2	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	179	21	70	68	97	458
Justice / injustice / economic justice / social justice	2	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	4	3	0	0	2	0	0	0	2	1	0	3	1	0	1	0	134	17	30	44	63	311
Peace / tolerance / non-violence (nonviolence)	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	1	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	21	4	17	7	64	126
Community / communities	19	24	15	29	11	19	14	16	18	16	11	27	49	56	3	4	17	24	12	16	17	8	10	2	150	88	41	153	133	1002
Resilience	0	0	0	0	0	8	0	1	1	3	4	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	20
Well-being / health	0	0	0	0	0	58	35	55	7	3	10	17	29	20	3	2	14	9	11	15	8	7	9	1	23	7	15	66	74	498
Biosphere / ecosystem	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	8	2	5	0	5	21	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	37	84
Ecology / ecological systems / ecological responsibility	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	4	0		0	4	2	0	0	91	105
Responsibility	0	0	0	0	0	7	1	4	3	3	5	8	22	35	0	1	11	8	1	2	9	4	4	2	24	16	8	10	38	226
Plant / plants / forests / vegetable	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	5	4	0	0	3	1	13	11	0	2	0	0	19	1	5	18	85
Animal / organism	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	20	8	5	11	20	6	28	84	3	11	0	0	9	1	2	49	260
Soil	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	1	0	3	0	0	18	0	0	10	36
Water	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	6	1	1	0	1	8	55	0	9	6	1	3	0	5	17	0	1	38	155
Air	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	3	15
Global	0	0	1	4	1	5	12	8	8	5	0	4	1	0	6	7	7	20	11	15	9	9	12	0	157	95	26	9	109	541
Environment / environmental	6	0	0	0	0	0	5	10	9	3	1	4	10	4	21	20	27	48	36	81	64	33	32	4	68	263	9	10	203	971
Consumption/ consume	0	0	0	0	0	1	7	4	10	7	0	0	1	0	2	0	1	6	0	4	0	0	1	0	47	43	0	1	73	208
Poverty	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	3	1	6	46	69
Population	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	5	0	1	0	7	0	0	0	0	50	31	18	23	59	199
Security	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	0	11	9	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	19	1	0	1	0	1	0	12	0	10	0	24	101
Care / compassion / love	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	1	1	3	7	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	5	6	2	1	12	48
Society	2	0	5	8	4	3	0	0	0	1	0	5	20	6	9	10	16	0	23	37	18	18	20	3	100	28	53	37	75	501
Democratic / democracy	0	0	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	127	46	45	4	21	250
Living	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	0	1	2	3	13	2	13	7	2	2	0	0	0	12	3	63	129
Political / politics / government / governance	0	0	0	1	1	3	1	0	2	2	2	1	8	12	5	1	2	8	4	5	3	2	4	0	189	51	181	122	167	777
Spiritual	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	4	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	6	15	4	39
Inclusive / inclusivity	0	2	0	1	2	2	0	0	0	3	0	3	5	5	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	16	11	7	1	60
Local / locally	0	0	0	4	1	2	5	1	8	4	1	8	12	12	4	5	5	21	6	25	14	6	6	0	68	88	17	20	55	398
Solidarity / kinship / cooperation / cooperate	0	3	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	3	0	3	0	0	1	1	5	3	5	0	2	0	10	8	8	4	12	75
Ethics / ethical / unethical	1	0	0	4	2	1	4	2	4	2	1	7	12	3	1	0	6	3	4	7	12	3	4	0	9	8	30	3	31	164
Sustainable / sustainability / sustain / sustainable develop	2	0	0	0	0	2	5	7	8	8	0	9	3	5	7	8	15	22	17	34	22	21	17	2	18	59	24	1	174	490
Dignity / respect	1	4	6	3	2	4	2	2	2	2	2	3	20	20	2	2	9	5	6	5	7	1	6	0	26	29	18	15	17	221
Action / praxis	1	2	0	2	0	3	1	2	2	1	2	0	0	7	4	4	9	4	8	12	6	1	8	1	24	61	10	3	51	229
Conservation / restoration / rehabilitation / renewal	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	19	0	0	0	0	2	5	4	8	38
Wild	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	5
Endangered species / species	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	2	1	7	1	19	47	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	18	101
Minerals / fossil fuels	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	6	0	3	16	33
Precautionary principle	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Pollution / toxic	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	0	6	0	5	1	0	0	0	1	3	1	0	9	29
Reduce / reuse / recycle	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	1	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	0	4	8	2	1	26	58
Energy	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	6	15	1	6	2	4	8	0	1	2	0	0	26	74
Equality / equity	1	0	2	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	1	5	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	37	19	24	2	25	126
Gender	0	4	2	2	2	4	1	0	1	0	0	2	15	11	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	0	11	5	14	0	59	144
TOTAL CODE OCCURENCES IN CURRICULUM	57	57	46	74	48	166	126	129	119	86	52	168	289	252	142	131	265	405	293	551	520	181	354	21	189	1408	943	918	2553	

Contextual Mentoring: Theory and Practice Alignment

Mili Saha, OISE/University of Toronto, Canada

Abstract: This research aims at investigating the extent to which mentoring practices are aligned with mentoring theories. Contexts of the study include formal and informal mentoring settings in five different countries around the world. A questionnaire containing eight multiple-choice and open-ended items, along with demographic items, was utilized to survey 20 experienced teachers who are either mentee or mentor in any one of those countries. Data were analyzed to examine the differences between the theoretical alignment of formal and informal mentoring practices. Results showed that formal mentoring was predominantly associated with career support, while informal mentoring was associated with psychological support for fellow workers.

Keywords: Formal Mentoring, Informal Mentoring, Theory, Practice, Alignment, Implementation

Introduction

Mentoring, either spontaneous or planned, is an interaction between experienced and less-experienced persons for attaining professional growth (Sheridan, Murdoch, & Harder, 2015). More specifically, Kram (1985) views mentoring from a practical perspective as an intense relationship that mentors (i.e., experienced teachers) build by providing advice, counselling, and developmental opportunities to mentees (i.e., novice teachers). Mentoring shapes new teachers' career experiences by providing both career and psychological support. It also has the essential features of a career development process that is supportive and helpful to novice teachers and that includes both pedagogical and reflective tools (Roberts, 2000).

Organizations structure formal mentoring and support with activities, while informal mentoring refers to a relationship developed spontaneously between the involved parties (Sheridan et al., 2015). A large body of literature recognizes informal mentorship as unrelated to formal mentorship and questions the legitimacy of informal and poor mentoring relationships. However, James, Rayner, and Bruno (2015) consider informal mentorship as more important and widely accessible than formal mentorship. Formal mentorship requires clear goal setting, long-term commitment, a specific hierarchical relationship between mentor and mentee, and a specific medium for interaction. On the other hand, informal mentors share their knowledge and experience with the mentees, build and keep warm or trusting relationships, and encourage mentees' viewpoints.

Mentoring involves implementing learning theories, locus of learning (i.e., learner perceptions about the causes of academic success or failure), purpose of education, educators' role, and issues in adult learning (Rice, 2006). These should be reflected in mentoring practices since theoretical or conceptual knowledge is formal, explicit, and general in nature (Heikkinen, Jokinen, & Tynjala, 2012) and can help the practitioners understand what they do and why they do it. In addition, Hennisen, Beckers, and Moerkerke (2017) mention that a gap is often observed between the practical and conceptual knowledge of novice teachers, which develops for different reasons, including socio-cultural differences, intra-professional variations, social prestige, and public perceptions.

Novice or beginner teachers start developing their own philosophy of teaching and combine them with instructional skills learned through professional training and experience. The firm and complex preconceptions can conflict with the theories, rational, or cognitive processes demonstrated by the mentors in real-life. While expert or experienced teachers are often aware of their teaching behaviours and monitor or adjust those to bring out the best of their students, novice teachers may find transferring learning to work and applying theories into practice difficult without experiencing the relevant concrete problems earlier. Most of all, theories often fail to reflect the real-life socialization processes that the novice teachers undergo and create "compartmentalization" of knowledge in memory if not connected directly to the possible implementation or teaching practices (Hennisen, Beckers, & Moerkerke (2017). Also, pedagogical concepts that are practically not integrated into teaching can create barriers to performing as planned by the new teachers. Therefore, investigating the points of dissimilarities between mentoring theories and practices initially can mediate the issue to some extent through connecting objectives to activities in mentorship. Also, investigating mentoring relationships and practices can illuminate the ways in which the gaps between pedagogical perceptions and actions are addressed using either formal or informal approaches.

Mentoring Theory

Mentoring is ill defined, badly conceptualized, and inadequately theorized. As it is in practice theory, practices comprise precise arrangements and conditions called practice architectures which are shaped by a particular context and prefigure individuals' practices (Colley, 2003). Practice architectures differ according to the circumstances, and practices do not occur in a vacuum. Kemmis, Heikkinen, Fransson, Aspfors, and Edwards-Groves (2014) introduced a framework comprising three elements called semantic spaces (i.e., the way mentoring is understood), physical spaces (i.e., ways of enacting mentorships), and social spaces (i.e., the way people relate in mentoring). Also, conceptualizing mentoring as supervision, professional support, or collaborative self-development would make a difference in choosing training activities, developing mentoring relationships, and preferring particular knowledge, skills, and values. Based on such notions, different aspects of mentoring, such as probing question, feedback, pre-supposition, attending fully, and listening have been inquired.

Mentors are considered as the growth agent having intention to mediate mentees' thinking by using a learning focus and applying "verbal and non-verbal toolkits" to stimulate thoughts. Mentors often mediate mentees' thinking by asking probing questions, positive pre-suppositions, pausing, paraphrasing, using plurals, pronouns (you, instead of I), and exploratory informational language. As Lipton and Wellman (2003) describe, "cognitive mediation is a three-point interaction between the supervisor (as a mediator), the teacher, and a focus, or third point" (p. 12). The third point refers to a focal or a third material item or a reference used in discussion to support thinking and problem solving. Third points can be external and observable or internal and referential. External focal points include photos, charts, data, lesson plans, notes, reports, student work samples, test results, tallies, digital artifacts, videotape, or student behaviour. Conversely, recollection, description of an event or problem, or a vocalized observation is the common internal third points in mentoring. Using externalized third points is helpful to concretize information and depersonalize a mentoring situation, while the use of evidence helps to clarify understanding. Both parties use a shared focus and think together about such evidence. This can help to de-escalate a conversation and assist in maintaining a fact-based orientation to the discussion by restricting emotions or impressions in problem solving through mentoring (Wellman & Lipton, 2017).

Little (1990) observed that educative mentoring goes beyond the traditional mentoring approaches focusing on situated change, technical advice, and emotional support to ensure effective teacher learning. Rather, it stresses mentees' inquiry stances, habit formation, and skills development to learn in and from the practice so that they can grow up to tackle the emergent and specific situations by themselves. Mentoring is not to ease the new teachers' entry into the profession but to assist them in confronting difficult situations in practice. Mentoring is an incentive for the novice teachers and a career opportunity for the experienced teachers who can challenge the new teachers' assumptions, interpret the reality, and suggest the necessary solutions. Besides, a support teacher allows the novices to recognize themselves both as teacher and learner by helping them grow professionally responsible. It is neither all about working with the mentor's views, nor being neutral with opinion. Frazer (2001, pp. 20-21) summarizes, the role is as "co-thinker," who can provide them with new perspectives and resolutions as an "educational companion" and recommends some strategies to enact the role of co-thinking by "showing respect and expressing commitment to base emerging practices." These include finding openings, pinpointing problems, probing novices' thinking, noticing signs of growth, focusing on the learners, reinforcing theoretical understanding, giving living examples of an individual's ways of teaching, modelling wondering about teaching, being more direct, and learning new approaches to writing.

Factors affecting high retention rates should be investigated and addressed. Examples are provided by Zwart, Korthagen and Attema-Noordewier (2015), who listed unsatisfying working conditions, work overload, undesirable student behavior, lack of support or supervision, and frustration for not achieving the target standard. Together, these factors allude to the necessity of preventing burn out and teacher turnover by increasing "job satisfaction, teacher efficacy, and engagement" (Zwart et al., 2012, p. 579). Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) suggest focusing on strengths, positive emotions, and positive work-experience instead of the problems retaining teachers' long-term motivation. Utilizing teachers' personal qualities and individual strengths is much significant to ensure the "Quality from Within" (Korthagen, 2004) approach. Neglecting active and collaborative professional learning is resistive to teacher growth through "patterns of the fight (i.e., active resistance), flight (i.e., attempt to escape from the pressure) or freeze (i.e., becoming tensed up)" (Zwart et al., 2015, p. 581), which can lead to burnout. Teacher education needs to focus the ways teachers can cope or check stress. Korthagen (2004) recommended a multi-layered model of teacher education called the "Onion Model," consisting of six layers: "environment, behaviour,

competencies, beliefs, identity, and personal mission". Associating, which are considered the inner and outer layers of the model suggest utilizing teachers' core qualities as the driving forces against the obstacles impeding their optimal performance in teaching.

Feiman-Nemser (1998) uses educative mentoring to conceptualize mentoring as personalized professional learning aimed at improving teaching, instead of a temporary interference encouraging both socialization and retention. Educative mentoring is positioned in a continuum of ongoing teacher professional development and is enacted to improve teaching, and ultimately student learning. Educative mentoring is framed upon sociocultural learning theories assuming that learning is situated, collaborative, and scaffolded (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Mentors are supposed to apply their contextual understanding of a new teacher's practice to set their professional goals and subsequently scaffold the professional learning through reflections, analysis, and problem solving.

Conceptualization of educative mentoring and enacting the ideas into cooperative and collaborative ways by using observation and evidence as tools is essential in mentoring, as the quality of interactions between novice teachers and their mentors has a critical impact on the novice teachers' success (Johnson & Kardos, 2004) as well as relationships with their mentors. Stanulis and Ames (2009) suggest that the concepts of educative mentoring involve engaging both mentors and mentees in collaborative inquiries of the problems in teaching and cooperation in planning classroom management and student learning. Also, practicing educative mentoring requires concrete evidence and observation. Distinguishing between evidence and opinion or theory is crucial in any professional development training because the surfaced evidence of the impact a mentor creates with mentee's performances can ensure effective and educative mentoring in a context. Observation of the difficulties and conflicts in the mentoring relationships can encourage the parties to improve the quality of their own work.

Novice teachers' learning through apprenticeships, such as observing and imitating mentors is worthy of additional research. Teacher learners tend to hold the old "conservative values of schools" like craft model of apprenticeship while mentoring aims at developing shared understanding of teaching and strategies through social constructivism (Smith & Avetisian, 2011, p. 336). Mentoring is meant to show the novice teachers 'how to teach' through sharing first-hand experiences with learners, teaching contexts, classroom techniques and strategies, and subject matters and modifying these to fit into their purposes and schedules. In this process, novice teachers need coaching on instructional plans, strategies, and methods before they reflect on action (Wallace, 1991). Otherwise, they often observe and imitate the mentor teacher's styles and techniques while learning to teach. However, observation is not always meant to imitate; instead mentees are expected to reflect on that to accommodate into their own strategies.

Since mentor teachers have a crucial role of preparing, correcting, and developing pre- and in-services teachers, focus stays primarily either on the pupils' needs, readiness, purposes, or experiences, which might also be conflicting because of the difference between research and reality. Learner-centred mentoring involves providing the conditions suitable for learners' growth and autonomy by positioning the teacher as a learner, observer, and supporter. As a situated learner, mentoring takes the teacher's previous knowledge and current experiences into consideration to support the desired needs. During the process, teachers receive both constructive and critical feedback on their practices. Mentors usually approach by modelling roles, sharing knowledge, and providing experiences as well as constructing the mentoring conversation around problems of practice (Kolman, Roegman, & Goodwin, 2017). What mentors prioritize might shape the relationship and the feedback they produce. For that reason, investigating how teachers form a mentoring relationship using the novice teachers' individual needs and experiences has been considered.

Social and situated teacher-learning through belonging, becoming, learning, doing, and experiencing in a community of practice are immensely significant in this research for scrutinizing the nature of informal mentoring. Mentoring is a reciprocal way of learning for the mentors and mentees, and educative mentoring features reciprocity, collaboration, and openness in the relationship. Mentors can take a shifted stance other than expert and be a co-learner to promote the relationship. However, we often value the concept of professional learning as continuing, social, active, and practice relevant over professional development as more "connected to teacher deficits to be corrected". From the socio-cultural perspective, professional development can better be conceptualized as "a process of investigating and trialling different approaches to practice" (Trevethan & Sandretto, 2017, p. 127). Mentors gaining new ideas and reflecting on their own experiences from a new perspective based on mentees'

[1]A considerable number of teachers quit in the first five years and the rate of leaving teaching is higher than the other professions (Fischer, 2011; Ingersoll & Perda, 2012)

[2] One of the major concerns in school policy is retaining effective teachers (OECD, 2005).

interpretation can ensure co-learning. Such mutual engagement can form a community of practice where mentees learn and do as a legitimate member of a teacher community. Since relationships and collaboration are significant in mentorship, these factors need to be inquired in any mentoring context.

Mentoring underrepresented minorities (URMs) is a significant issue in education, since feelings of isolation, uncertainty about learning capabilities, and linguistic or cultural diversity can create differences in the way they perceive the mentoring process. URMs often need holistic supports in academic or psychological need, role modelling, and cross race or gender mentor relationship issues (Fries-Britt & Snider, 2015). Psychological support can raise URMs (as mentees) personal well-being, avoiding future pitfalls and building confidence in abilities as well as critically impacting trust, integrity, opportunity, and understanding. Researching the cross-race and gender issues associated with feelings of marginality, shared struggle, and reciprocity in the relationship can be significant (Patton, & Harper, 2003). Whether URMs receive additional guidance, support, or encouragement in a multicultural context like Canada is a crucial consideration for effective and successful mentoring in school settings. Griffin (2012) shows URMs seek meaningful relationship starting from formal connection developed through respect, ethics, care, assurance, and sincerity as well as going beyond traditional mentoring. Although transparency and trust are difficult to establish, a mentee needs to be allowed to express vulnerability without the fear of being considered as professionally weak. Moreover, mentoring relationships moving beyond formal roles indicate more reciprocity, depth, and growth in mutuality (Fries-Britt & Kelly, 2005).

Mentoring Practice

Mentoring is tricky to define (McKimm, Jollie, & Hatter, 2003) since it is anindirect help by a professional to other to make some significant transitions of knowledge, work, or perceptions (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 1995) and to be what a teacher wants (Montreal CEGEP, 1988). Although, both mentorship and supervision require interactions between a competent person and a less experienced person, Arnesson and Albinsson (2002) describe mentorship as a more democratic process that aims at deepening thoughts, reflections, and knowledge under supervision (Hultman & Sobel, 2013). Mentorship involves reflecting and analyzing discussion; supervision involves direct professional oversight using various elements of discussion and is devoid of the voluntariness that mentoring implies. Mentoring includes several general skills and competences:

- Seeking, assessing, and interpreting the relevant information;
- Discussing phenomena, issues, and situations critically;
- Identifying, formulating, and solving problems independently;
- Carrying out tasks within given time limitations;
- Presenting and discussing information, problems, and solutions both orally and in writing in dialogue with different groups (Arnesson & Albinsson, 2002).

Mentoring structure involves forms of interaction, the learning process for integration of theory and practice, workplace, related studies (Athanases & Achinstein, 2003). Also, theory and practice integration is an indispensable and central part in a mentoring program since it involves knowledge that is applied practically and anchored theoretically. Theory and practice are often referred to the dualistic and hierarchic thoughts (Saugstad, 2006). Learning is considered in a dualism between practice and theory, although theoretical and practical knowledge are rather to be perceived in a continuum and integrating theory and practice is an active interaction to create meaning of new knowledge (Grimmen, 2008).

Both formal and informal mentoring has different aspects beyond the binary categorization. According to Gee and Popper (2017), traditional mentoring entails a one-to-one relationship between a mentor and mentee; while peer mentoring is a more advanced process that involves an experienced teacher mentoring a new teacher may evolve the relationship into a peer-mentoring later. Team or group mentoring that engages a number of expert and novice teachers working in a group for a collaborative project or learning can be useful too. Mentoring forward means a senior teacher mentoring a novice teacher who might mentor a peer subsequently. Distant mentorship involves online or corresponding mentoring that can be both formal and informal. Mentor's interest in developing mentee's long-term skills and competence is the core of mentoring. Mentoring is different than advising and coaching regarding the focus on particular goal and changing attitude to develop skills to increase productivity. The task of advisor or coach naturally ends at the end of the course while mentoring views the tasks or skills "within a framework" of broader individual growth. Requiring time, effort and motivation mentoring is more difficult than

advising or coaching. Mentors benefit from increased inspiration and job satisfaction with better leadership skills, while the mentees grow with "maturity, confidence, and autonomy" by learning how to reflect on learning experiences intensely. A long lasting personal and professional relationship between expert and novice teachers along with improved effective communication skills and morale facilitate positive and productive work environment (Gee & Popper, 2017, p. 29).

In contrast, mentees might be positively or negatively impacted by any prevailing mentoring culture or type at the beginning of their careers. Eby (1997, p. 126) explains mentoring as an "intense developmental relationship" comprising guidance, counselling, and improvement opportunities provided by a mentor to the mentee, which can be both formal and informal. Teachers receiving necessary mentoring might have greater professional satisfaction along with precise plans of further academic endeavours. In addition, organizations benefit from improved "promotion and retention" which encourage a rich learning environment (Haynes & Petrosko, 2009, p. 42).

Formal mentorship is a step ahead of professional mentorship used deliberately and encouraged by the organizations, which is a system or policy and a standard practice of management. Formal mentoring refers to "a compulsory and core component" in an institution's staff training programs. Formal mentoring programs are "assigned, maintained, and monitored by the organisation" (Douglas, 1997, p. 1).The best strength of formal mentorship is that it extends to individuals and minorities in any organization. The effectiveness of formal mentoring is also subjected to several factors like mentors' commitment, compatibility, and competence in terms of technical and interpersonal skills. Hence, it is not an automatic process (Ehrich & Hansford, 1999).

On the other hand, defining informal mentorship is difficult for not only being less recognized in literature but also mentoring relationship is less specified. Informal mentorship includes the conventional relationships among the senior–junior, groups, bottom-up, situational, lateral or peer mentorship requiring no long-term commitment or institutional support to initiate a relationship. Its flexible nature fits the priority of meeting mentees' needs and is suitable for the context where organizations do not officially appoint mentors and since new recruits cannot arrange physical meetings regularly. Also, distant or online mentoring relationships involve flexibility and benefit from it (Kang, 2007).

Teaching as a complex activity and creative task demands sustainable change in the school settings through developing learner centred, knowledge centred, assessment centred, and community centred framework (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005). Teachers working to conform externally imposed benchmarks are the risk of forming “the drones and clones of policymakers, anaemic ambitions” instead of generating creativity and ingenuity of the novice teachers by the highly skilled teachers (Hargreaves, 2003, p. 2). Teachers are often assumed to share their responsibility and knowledge as professionals. Mentoring is significant in making a professional connection and network among the teachers. Mentoring promotes managerial professionalism and democratic professionalism (Day & Sachs, 2004) besides subject knowledge or theory informed and evidence-based practices. Mentoring involves individual and professional development, pedagogical concerns, socio-political issues including unequal power relations between mentors and mentees (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2000). In addition to that, effective mentoring demands good understanding, planning, execution and evaluation on the part of a mentor and mentee, which engage both theory and practice (Best Practices: Mentoring, 2008).

As a teacher and teacher educator, I experienced both pre- and in-service teacher education often as reciprocal and network-based since social approach is significant in both learning and teaching. Since formal and informal mentorships entail socio-cultural learning and one-to-one or community relationships, necessity of more new knowledge or findings about mentoring theory and practice can equally enlighten the mentors and mentees about the ways effective relationships form.

Research on Mentoring

Very few of the findings among the studies about mentoring are sufficiently useful to meet expectations of readers because of skirting the fundamental conceptual and theoretical issues. For instance, there are many research findings about mentoring practices lacking required explanations of mentoring relationships (Bozeman & Feeney (2007, p. 720). Researchers focus overtly on how “individual careers can benefit from mentoring” and the organization to “develop ideas or findings aimed at improving organizational performance” (Bozeman &Feeney, 2007, p.720). Hence, theory is important to support the social and individual needs of the mentees using practical

findings. Though the practical utility flows more directly than the explanatory breadth, accumulated research findings cannot ensure growing knowledge without explanation (Kitcher, 1993). Also, conceptual problems can obstruct developing mentoring theoretical explanations and an integrated model of research framework (Burke & McKeen, 1997).

In-service and pre-service teachers bring previous experiences and beliefs to their mentoring relationships. These may contradict with their mentoring experiences impacting the outlook about the profession or inspiration for teaching later. However, new teachers often undergo a tension in between the school's enculturation atmosphere or promotion of self-beliefs and implications of mentoring. Nonetheless, such gap between expectations and practices can be reduced by using the theories in teacher education contexts. Theories can offer "insights into alternative approaches for strengthening teacher education and the career development of teachers" (Aderibigbe, Colucci-Gray, & Gray, 2016, p. 22). For example, the constructivist theory for professional growth (Savickas, 1997) and social-cultural or cognitive theory introduced by Bandura (1977) can generate ideas about interactive, observational, and collaborative learning in mentoring or teacher learning.

That is why researchers have been searching the ways of integrating theories into practice for theoretical knowledge, or conceptual knowledge, is formal, general and precise in nature (Heikkinen et al., 2012, as cited in Hennisen et al., 2017). Theory helps teachers with growing cognitive schemata grew, expanding conceptual knowledge, and perceiving the positive aspects of connecting it to pedagogical practices. Zellers et al.'s (2008) emphasis on respecting the faculty member's professional development (PD) needs in a higher education context and show mentoring is context-dependent.

Besides considering the necessity of using theories to improve practices, inadequate literature about the impact of integrating mentoring theories into teachers' practices is also ground for designing the current research. I have neither hypothesised any positive relationships between the theories and practice nor assumed that only theory-based practices are effective. I cogitate greater alignment between theory and practices can ensure more planned, effective, and detailed mentoring to improve teaching practices in any context. Further research could demonstrate whether mentees expect more implications of theories or could improve the mentoring relationship or not.

Researcher Positionality

Mentoring is a form of contextual learning for professional development, and it has gradually been enriched with new theories derived from practices (Zellers, Howard, & Barcic, 2017). Mentoring-culture and mentee-socialisation procedures need to go through regular evaluation ensuring the desired outcome in a particular setting (Wanberg, Welsh, & Hezlett, 2008). Mentoring is an exceptional instance of less theorized topic, although a range of new and relevant subject areas, such as personnel psychology or organizational support of mentoring have been developed. In spite of incremental progresses in the different fields of education, "there has been too little attention to core concepts and theory" (Bozeman & Feeney, 2007, p. 719) and theory-driven research in mentoring. Also, a few conceptual or analytical discussions on different mentorships and its impact on the recipients in varied contexts have been done. Explanations of the fundamental idea on mentoring have been discarded as well (Bozeman & Feeney, 2007, p. 719).

Moreover, I have learnt about several basic theories as the part of course readings that are completely new to me as an ESL teacher educator who aspires researching how to integrate structured mentorships in the second language teacher development program in a non-native context. These theories include onion model (Zwart et al.,2015), educative mentoring (Feiman-Nemser, 2001), conceptualizing and enacting mentoring (Stanulis & Ames, 2009), focal or third material or (Ministry of Education, 2017), encouraging inquiry stance (Dana,Yendol-Hoppey, & Snow-Gerono, 2006), pre-service and in-service mentoring (Smith & Avetisian, 2011), learner-centred mentoring (Kolman et al., 2017), utilizing CoP model of Wenger 1998 (Trevethan & Sandretto, 2017), mentoring outside the line (Fries-Britt & Snider, 2015).These are some prominent mentoring theories and are a potential to demonstrate that mentoring practices can be different based on the nature of appointment, mentorship structures, and context of supervision. Knowledge of these theories lets me reflect whether Canadian teacher candidates attending this course utilize the same mentoring elements in the real-life practices both as a mentor and a mentee. Subsequently, I wanted to draw details about formal mentoring culture in the school settings and examine the alignment of theories and practice in the different mentoring contexts, which I had not experienced in Bangladesh.

At the same time, my experience of informal mentoring in higher education has motivated me to know whether these theories are aligned with the unstructured mentoring at all. Informal mentorship, as James et al. (2015, p. 532-533) state, is better illustrated in the research literature and findings than any "simple textual definition." Reflecting on my experiences, I have been motivated to connect the concept to a new research. I experienced informal mentorship as a supportive relationship offering the same benefits of the formal mentorship between two persons or professionals "willing to work together in a mutually acceptable way to address the concerns of the mentee and to share relevant knowledge, expertise, and wisdom" James et al. (2015, p. 532-533) In spite of being crucial for in-service teacher development in a context like Bangladesh and the other Asian countries where there is no structured mentorship in teacher education, informal mentorship is limited in its ability and exposure since it relies on self-reported perceptions of remembered relationships. Barriers are there with opportunities, initiative, and openness of a teacher to informal mentorship despite wider accessibility. Also, informal mentors have to be proactive and indicate to newer professionals that they are eager to be supportive with the issues "beyond basic job requirements" while personality fit is also an issue in formal mentoring.

The research questions that I aimed at answering in the article are following:

- Which theoretical elements of mentoring are more frequent in practices?
- Is theory more aligned to practices in any particular context, such as formal or informal mentoring setting?
- Are the theories convergent or divergent to the practices?

Methodology

I have used a survey to investigate teachers' experiences and researchers' viewpoints regarding the connection between theories and practice in different mentoring contexts. It was primarily a quantitative research requiring less detailed data and yes-no answers to the research questions. The focus was more on 'what' than 'why' or 'how' and a quantitative method of research was chosen. Along with the quantitative part, the proposed research includes two qualitative questions used to examine an opinion related to participants' values and feelings.

Data Collection and Analysis

Participants. The respondents in this research were 20 mentors and mentees attending a course named "Mentoring as Learning" offered in the professional teaching programs at a university in Ontario, Canada. All of the participants were aware of the proposed theories in this research and had considerable amount of teaching and mentoring experiences either formally or informally in Canada or some other Asian countries. Thirteen of the respondents worked in different Canadian schools while others had worked in Bangladesh, China, Iraq, and Korea. Upon ethical clearance, Canadian school teachers responded to the survey during a tea break in the class time.

Similarly, five Asian school teachers responded to the questionnaire via e-mail, although two of them did it face-to-face. However, the intended sample size was 25 and 5participants declined to respond. Hence, the total sample of the study was following:

Table 1: Type of the Participants

Type	*Total*	*Teaching Experience*
Canadian mentors		
Formal mentors	10	1-10 years
Informal mentors	3	
Asian mentors		
Formal mentors	2	1-10 years
Informal mentors	5	

The study focuses on different contexts ranging from elementary levels to higher education where the participating mentors work. Hence, teachers practising at all levels have been selected as the participants of the research. Since

the purpose of the research was to explore theory and practice alignment in contextual mentoring, the sample was targeted to represent all possible varieties of mentoring beside the formal and informal binary categories including the following:

Table 2: Modes of Mentoring

Mode	*Total*
Process of Exchange	15
One-to-one	5
Group mentoring	
Designation	
Pre-service mentoring	7
In-service mentoring	13
Site	
Online	3
Face-to-face	17

To my knowledge and observation, formal mentoring is extremely limited in the South Asian countries and so, the study delved into the nature of formal and informal binary sections, instead of Canadian and non-Canadian, which essentially refers to the same categories.

Tools. An original questionnaire comprising eight Multiple Choice Questions (MCQs) and two open-ended options directly asking about the theoretical elements applied by the teachers in various mentoring contexts was used to gather data. Later, I discussed a few ambiguous issues that needed further clarification with two of the respondents since two of them who were working in Bangladesh responded as a coach of the grade 12 students and the other responded to the survey as the informal mentor of higher education learners in China. Clarifying the research purposes and nature to them was significant since this topic deals with professional mentoring instead of coaching or supervision. In addition, there was a section for the participants' demographic information at the top of the questionnaire to include maximum mentoring varieties and contexts to ensure representative sampling.

Analysis. Data collected for the inquiry were analysed in two stages. First, a reliability coefficient of the questionnaire was determined using Cronbach's alpha. A value of Cronbach's alpha of 0.89 indicated a high degree of consistency in the responses. Later, the data were analysed manually using percentages and descriptive analysis. Both the quantitative and qualitative data (the written statements) have been analysed. Data include the number of theoretical elements commonly aligned to the mentoring practices, type of the technical elements or alternatives favoured in any contexts, the reasons of preferring. At the beginning, participants' demographic information were sought out to categorize the mentoring contexts covered by the research. Next, quantitative data collected with the MCQ questions were analysed using percentage to find out the frequency of using theoretical elements by the mentors who were mentees in the same context earlier and thus, the pattern of theory and practice alignment in formal and informal mentoring contexts was inferred. Finally, the qualitative statements were presented to support the conclusions drawn from numerical findings.

Findings and Analysis

Table 3 shows that lesson plans (85% in formal settings and 71% in informal settings) are widely used while vocalised, photos, and tallies are least favoured. Description of an event or a problem has been found to be the next most significant (54%) in the formal mentoring, although it is the most preferred (86%) third point in the informal contexts. Also, the greater use of work samples (57% > 39%) in the informal mentoring contexts or charts and data (62% > 0%) in the formal contexts support the hypothesis that formal mentoring involves more research elements than informal contexts. Only six focal items among the thirteen are used by the informal mentors and those are more

general as data than the other seven concrete items. Ministry documents such as curriculum documents that have not been included by the author are also reported to be used as focal by one of the respondents.

Table 3: What are the most frequently used focal or third points?

Focal Name	*Formal (%)*	*Informal (%)*
Lesson plans	85	71
Work samples	39	57
Tests results	15	-
Video	39	-
Vocalized	-	-
Observation	46	43
Description of an event or problem	54	86
Photos	-	-
Charts & data	62	-
Notes	39	29
Tallies	-	-
Observational data	-	14
Digital artefacts	8	-

As Figure 1 shows, pinpointing problems is the most frequently used technique (69%) by the formal mentors as a co-thinker, although teaching new approaches to writing was the rarest (8%) one in both the contexts. Conversely, probing novice's thinking that is preferred most in an informal mentoring (71%) is the third most popular (54%) strategy among the official mentors. Giving living examples of a person's ways of teaching (62%) is second most popular in the formal mentoring settings. Higher percentages of using seven elements out of nine by the formal mentors lead to infer that theories are more aligned here than the informal contexts.

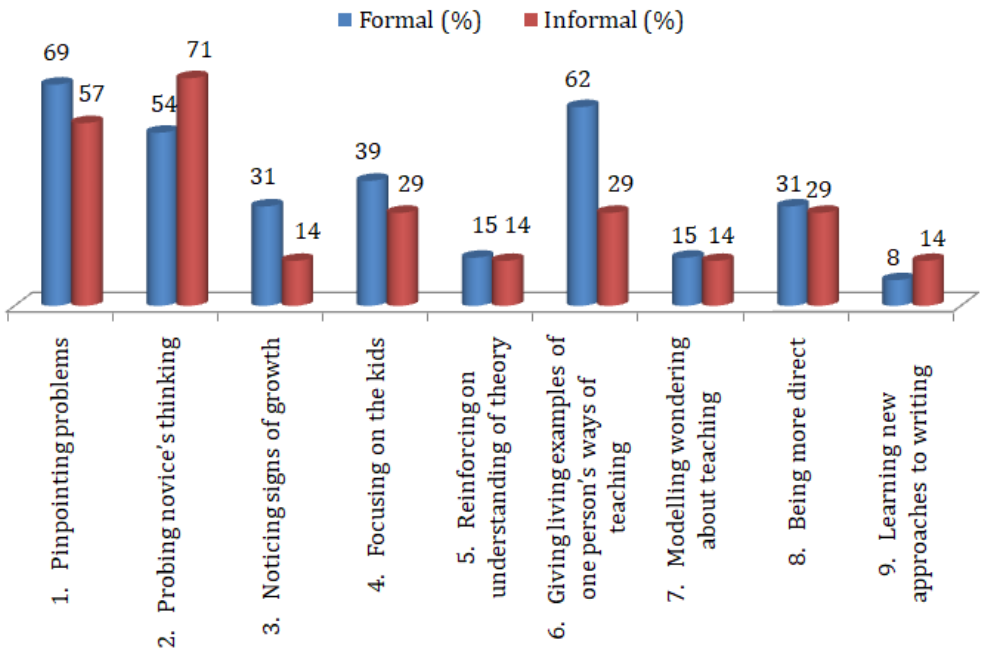

Figure 1: How Do Mentors Co-Think with Mentee?

However, some of the respondents stated 'Some of these strategies were used, but I do not think true 'co-thinking' was achieved' and 'By collaborating on plans and co-thinking about the future of the course', which were not listed in the questionnaire and indicate the concept of co-thinking deviates from the proposed theory.

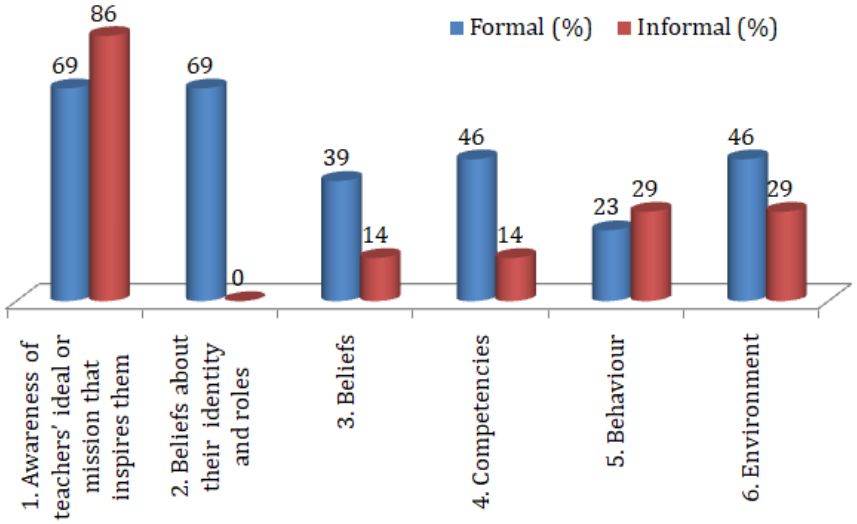

Figure 2: To What Extent Teachers' 'Core Qualities' are Utilized in Mentoring?

Next, awareness of teachers' ideal or mission and beliefs about their identity and roles are the two most commonly used (69%) core qualities in the formal mentoring. This element is more widely attached to an informal mentoring setting (86%) than the formal contexts. On the other hand, beliefs about their identity and roles are not considered at all in the informal contexts. Once again theories are more widely involved in formal mentoring, which suggests implementing theories make structured mentoring happen while informal mentoring involves mentee's will and awareness of the necessity of being guided by the senior colleagues to achieve any professional target (Figure 2).

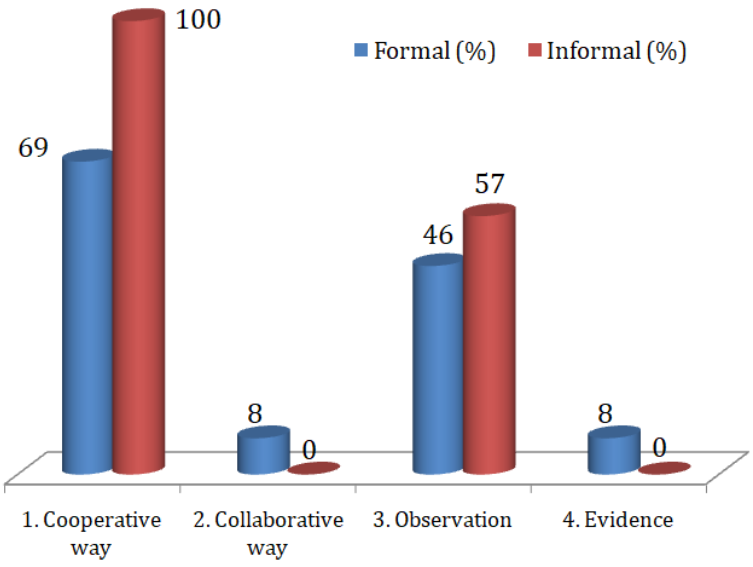

Figure 3: How is Educative Mentoring?

As Figure 3shows, Collaboration with the mentor in educative mentoring is quite rare (8% & 0%) in both the formal and informal mentoring settings, although cooperation (69% & 100%) is there. Equally, pieces of evidence are almost (8% & 0%) of no use in these mentoring settings while observation (46% & 57%) is preferred in both of the contexts. Unilateral preference for Cooperative way or Observation and complete rejection for collaboration and evidence indicate the similar theory focus in these contexts, although greater cooperation and observation-based learning in informal mentoring is reported. Also, formal mentoring conforms to the proposed theories about educative mentoring since it includes all four elements although 100% cooperation in informal mentoring indicates better relationships.

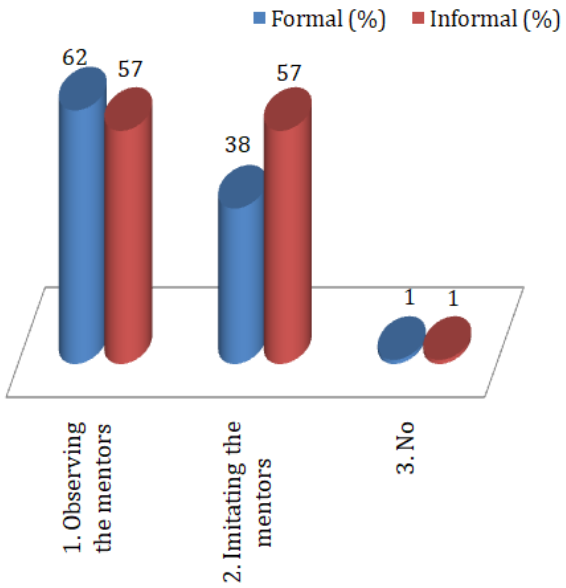

Figure 4: What makes apprenticeships happen; observation or imitations?

Figure 4 shows that Apprenticeship Model has been preferred by both types of mentors working officially and personally. 62% and 57% respondents were positive about observing mentors in formal and informal settings respectively. Imitating the mentors is equally favoured in the informal contexts and not abandoned in the other. However, 8% of the participants have used none of these.

As it is stated in Figure 5, mentees' Individual needs are the highest priority (77%) to the Canadian or formal mentors who make sure trainee-centred coaching and value novice teachers' reflections on their own needs. Yet, it is not equally (14%) valued in an informal setting. These elements have the most comparable pattern in the proposed theory and practice alignment.

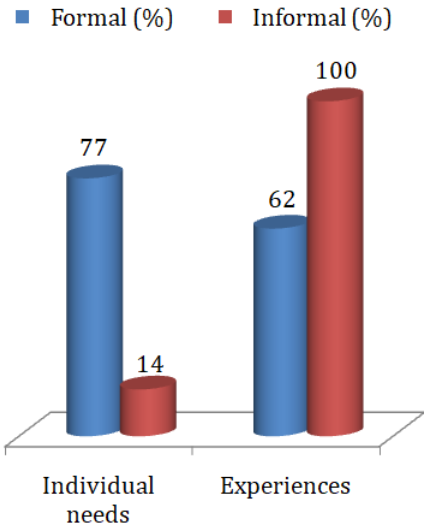

Figure 5: What are the Basics of Mentoring Relationships?

Using Individual experiences is also popular in both the contexts (62% & 100%), though is unquestionably favoured by the informal mentors. That is, mentors and mentees reflect regularly on learning and teaching.

Expectedly, individual needs are rarely implemented (14%) in the informal mentoring settings since such mentoring practices are often optional depending on availability. On the other hand, 77% formal mentors prefer using individual mentee's needs to build mentoring relationships extending professional cooperation to the novice teachers. Formal mentoring represents the proposed theory more than the informal settings where sharing experience is crucial for the relationships.

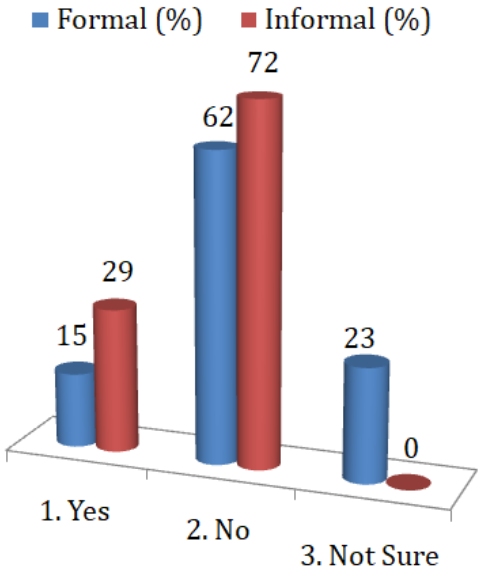

Figure 6: Is There a Community of Practice in Mentoring Relationships?

Two large groups (72% & 62%) among the respondents rejected being in a community of practice while 23% formal mentors/mentees are not sure of experiencing situated learning. Community of practice is rarely implemented (15%) in the formal mentoring settings. Also, only 29% of the informal mentors/mentees learn in a community that make the informal mentoring possible. One of the underrepresented participants stated, "Relationship grew through sharing any problems without hesitating to be open."

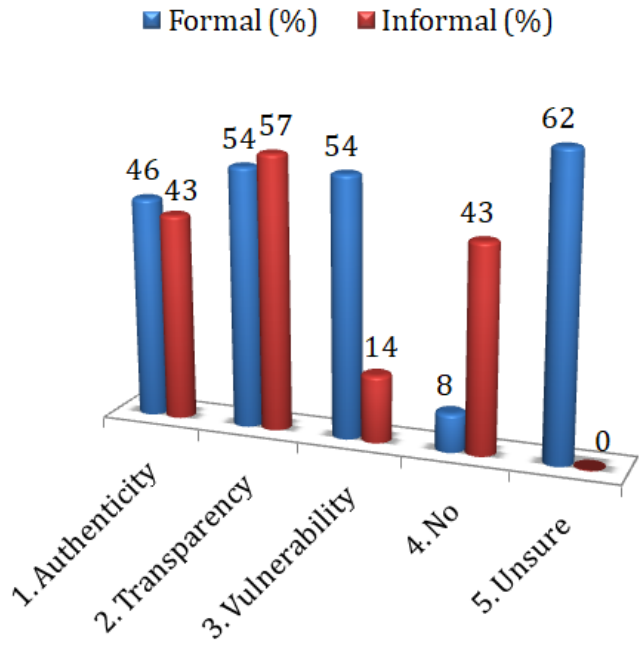

Figure 7: Is there authenticity, transparency, or vulnerability?

As Figure 7 shows, 46% and 43% respondents experienced authenticity in formal and informal mentoring respectively, while vulnerability (54%) is perceived mainly by the non-dominant or underrepresented identities in the formal mentoring settings. Although transparency is almost equally experienced by both formal and informal mentors and mentees (54% and 57%), 43% of the informal mentors and mentees experienced none of these and 62% Canadian participants are unsure of it. More occasions of vulnerability and authenticity in formal mentoring reveal the greater theoretical alignment too.

Two of the underrepresented participants have stated about their experiences, 'Authenticity came by sharing mentor's working experiences in confronting conflicts with the students', and 'That is the way we connected each other.'

Discussion

Overall, the findings show formal mentoring involves more individual needs and qualities of the mentees, formal mentees learn more from observing the mentors than imitating, formal mentors use more elements and third points more frequently for co-thinking than the informal mentors. However, co-thinking elements are not limited to the relevant ideas presented in this research and thus, this theory diverges from practices. Varied choices of mentoring elements in informal mentoring as well as the stable use of those in formal setting support the research question. In spite of the numerical differences traced in the data, formal and informal mentoring are equally aligned to a few items. However, literature suggests informal mentoring is often unstructured and more relation-focused. For instance, using lesson plans and description of an event or a problem widely as a third point in the formal mentoring settings indicates the mentoring culture is reasonably instrumental and purposeful in both contexts. However, formal mentoring is more example-specific while informal mentors engage in reporting. Also, greater use of probing questions in informal mentoring confirms the conversational and situated nature of teacher learning. Educative mentoring is the only concept where both types of mentoring show similar preferences and informal mentoring involves more cooperation and observation than formal settings. Also, informal mentees being inclined to imitate the

mentors differ from the formal mentees who observe and construct own strategies with structured guidance. On the other hand, least consideration for the individual needs and absolute reliability on experience expose the voluntary nature of informal mentoring.

As Mullen (2005) categorised mentoring into teachers' reform-minded professionalization and socializing or preserving existing cultural norms, Eby (1997) classifies it into instrumental or career support and psychological support. These are similar to Kram's (1985) two functions called advice or modelling about career development behaviours and individual support involved in mentoring. Findings of the current research infer that formal mentoring aims at more career support and implements more theory than informal mentoring. Whereas informal mentoring inclines more onto psychological support that formal and structured mentoring lacks, which acknowledge and conform the categorizing.

These results also align with James et al.'s (2015) conclusion, in that informal mentors do not identify themselves as mentors overtly and are usually asked in case of any career advices are needed either on a particular perspective or on any issue. Besides, informal mentees might seek assurance or morale boost from the expert colleagues who consider the mentee's interests and volunteer their opinions to solve the problems. Unlike formal mentorships, informal mentoring involves less literature or theories and happens casually.

Greater rejection for community of practices specifies the reduced scope of socio-cultural learning in formal setting while greater acceptance by the informal mentor is meaningful in open discussion with expert teachers. This can promote working relationships between the mentor and mentees without any concern of being undermined, which is a common fear among the formal mentees. In spite of the slight differences in the authenticity and transparency reports, massive differences in experiencing vulnerability by the formal mentors and no experience of that by nearly half of the informal mentors depict the stress in multicultural and formal mentoring setting like Canada. Again, formal mentors' little awareness of these elements complies with more authenticity and transparency there, although the underrepresented participants suffer more from racial, ethnic, and cultural diversities.

Mentoring programs are usually meant to address diverse learners' needs (Little, 1990). However, mentors often do not care about equity-focused works comprising situational adjustment, technical advice, and emotional support in practice. Also, theories are supposed to focus appropriate knowledge-base for dealing the complexities in mentoring practices (Achinstein &Athanases, 2005). Besides promoting growth and development, mentors can raise diverse teachers' courage to display vulnerability and avail the opportunities of learning and growing from mistakes or negative experiences in general (Giscombe, 2015). Mentors are also expected to help diverse teachers to establish positive self-esteem and create a safe space for learning, adaptation, and inclusion.

The theory of co-thinking looks diverging from the practice since one of the respondents questioned the correlation between practicing elements and co-thinking. The respondents are quite aware of the definition of co-thinking as a learner of 'Mentoring as learning' course and Canadian teachers. No other theoretical connections were questioned in this way. Hence, further research can be directed to investigate the ways mentees think co-thinking occurs in mentoring.

Also, minimum use of reinforcing the understanding of theory, wondering about teaching, and teaching new approaches to write exposes reduced theoretical interventions in mentoring. Although valuing teachers' beliefs about their identity, mission and roles indicate ensuring professional responsibilities, ignoring teachers' qualities and behavior exposes the necessity of individualizing the mentorships. However, practicing only cooperation through observation and excluding collaboration in mentoring might expose the less supportive environment. Another significant finding is, apprenticeship being considerably recognized in both the formal and informal mentoring contexts. Although apprenticeship has been criticized as an old and unproductive model in teacher education (Wallace, 1990, p. 7), it has unpredictably been utilised by the mentors working around the world despite the fact that many scientific models are discovered. Moreover, a large number of participants rejecting the idea of being in a community and reporting feeling of vulnerability expose the lack of psychological support received by mentees. That is, professional development is emphasized instead of individual growth.

Little psychological support in formal mentoring is also a crucial issue since Eraut (2007) conclude the organisation of work and working relationships manipulate mentees' expected progress and participation. Lofthouse and Thomas (2015) state, mentoring experience is more meaningful as collaborative. It means working together,

instead of working with trainee teachers towards achieving a common goal and solving problems. Collaborative teacher education allows the novice teachers practice informed decision-making and constructing a shared understanding about the desired learning outcomes and achieving those in a particular contexts. Collaboration is also meant to construct mutual professional learning (Burley & Pomphrey, 2011) through exchanging each other's teaching methods, ideas, and cognition. However, mentees have less self-reported behavioural change because of experiencing collaboration (Meirink, Meijer, & Verloop, 2007). Besides, teachers' professional experience may contradict school experiences focusing performativity, which is all about accountability employing judgements and comparisons. This displays as a way of control, attrition, and change (Ball, 2013). Again, as a broad concept mentoring is changing to be associated with collaboration, interaction, and collegiality (Heikkinen et al., 2012).

On the other side, complete cooperation, popularity of probing questions, utilizing mentees need-based experiences, less vulnerability and sharing within a greater community ensure more psychological support or relationships in informal mentoring. In spite of the same qualities expected from a formal and informal mentor, “feelings tended to be stronger for informal mentors” (James et al., 2015, p. 534) while formal mentors are more neutral in sharing and less frequent in conversations. Even though, the elements concerning career or professional development which are ignored in such contexts let it look ‘no mentoring, no theories.’

Simmie and Moles (2011, p. 465-466) propose productive mentoring is an academic, caring and professional practice within a continuum of teacher education. Inquiry-driven models of mentoring can incorporate critical thinking and professional agency to ensure contextually responsive teacher education. Productive mentoring "uses an evidence-informed lens and addresses a multiplicity of mentoring relationships of learning". Care for mentor teachers refers to creating a public space where mentor teachers can “debate issues and have their voice and contributions valued”. Using dialogical approach, mentor teachers can connect to sharing values of mutuality and democracy by motivating professional agency. Zachary’s (2005) framework can be implemented for diagnosing, analyzing, and prioritizing the areas of increasing strengths and mitigating gaps in a mentoring culture. The focus should be shared on mentoring and culture, instead of mentees (Wanberg et al., 2003). Many of the researchers talked about factors related to informal or formal relationships and increased job satisfaction instead of what was attributed to mentoring. The author has found no research addressing mentoring theory and practice alignment at cultural or organizational level.

Quantitative methods are used to consider numbers for generalizing a conclusion about a proposed hypothesis and an objective scale of measurement helps to analyze a phenomenon, while qualitative methods explore the phenomena by gaining understanding about the participants’ values or beliefs. Considering the research problems and the direct nature of information needed, I have decided to use a single source of data since multiple sources could extend the research structure beyond the design with new data. Hence, limitations of the research include the small number of respondents, lack of qualitative data, and nuclear source of data. Although the context and types of sample are representative, different age groups, other population, and different contexts could produce different results.

Moreover, the survey was conducted using a researcher-developed questionnaire that might not capture the respondents’ true concepts about the theoretical elements. Some teachers might be confused or misunderstand any items and could produce faulty data. A qualitative approach like interviews, observations, or case studies would elicit more detailed and accurate data of their perceptions about the theories and implementing those in practices. Also, how do the mentors interpret the gaps between these two could have been investigated. In addition to that, some recommended research directions ‘how to increase psychological support in mentoring’ or ‘if is it needed or not’ and ‘how to implement theories to make mentoring more useful’ could be beneficial.

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APPENDIX A

Questionnaire on 'Implementing Theories into Mentoring Practices'

Demographic Information

Name: Sex:

The institution where you are studying: Program:

The institution where you work/worked: Year of teaching experience:

Research Questions

(Put a tick on / circle around on your answer. You can choose more than one answer, where applicable)

1. What type of mentoring you received or provided?
   a. Formal or informal
   b. One-to-one or group mentoring
   c. Pre-service mentoring or in-service mentoring
   d. On-line or face- to- face

2. Did you or your mentor ever use any one of the following you found being used by you/ your mentor as the ***Focal*** or ***Third point*** of discussion?
(a) lesson plans (b) work samples (c) test results (d) video (e) vocalized (f) observation (g) description of an event or a problem (h) photos (i) charts & data (j) notes (k) work samples (l) tallies (m) observational data (n) digital artefacts
If none of these, what is that you/ your mentor used?
…….
…….

3. How did you / your mentor become ***'Co-thinker'*** to the mentee?

By using: a) pinpointing problems, b) probing novice's thinking, c) noticing signs of growth, d) focusing on the kids, e) reinforcing on understanding of theory, f) giving living examples of one person's ways of teaching, g) modelling wondering about teaching, h) being more direct, i) learning new approaches to writing
If none of these, what is that you/ your mentor used?
…….
…….

4. Did you or your mentor ever associate your/your mentee's ***Core Qualities*** to deal with the berries of successful teaching?
   a) awareness of teachers' ideal or mission that inspires them, b) beliefs about their identity and roles, c) beliefs, d) competencies, e) behaviour, f) environment
If none of these, what is that you/ your mentor used?
…….
…….

5. How did you /your mentor conceptualise *'Educative Mentoring'* and enacting the ideas into practice?
a) **Cooperative** or **collaborative**ways, b) Using **observation** and **evidence** as tools.

6. Did you or your mentee learn through *'Apprenticeships'*, that is through:
a) **observing,** b) **imitating** the mentors.

7. Did you / your mentor would form '*Mentoring Relationships'* on the student/novice teachers' a) **individual needs** and/or b) **experiences?**

8. Did you/your mentor create/ experience **s**ocial and situated teacher-learning through belonging, becoming, learning, doing and experiencing in a Community of Practice?
a) Yes b) No.
If yes, how did you do that?
……..
……..

9. Did you/your mentee create/experience **authenticity/ transparency/ and vulnerability** in mentoring relationships as a dominant/ non-dominant or underrepresented identity?
Is there anything important about the mentoring experiences you wish to inform?
…….
……

Impact de la culture sur l'évolution des perceptions des enseignants immigrants

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France Beauregard, Université de Sherbrooke, Canada

Résumé : Les enseignants immigrants représentent aujourd'hui 7,99% des enseignants canadiens. Cependant, très peu d'études s'intéressent à l'impact de leur culture sur leur rôle de « passeur culturel ». Cette recherche exploratoire se penche sur la question de l'évolution des perceptions des enseignants immigrants lors de leur pratique enseignante au Québec. Dans le cadre de cette recherche qualitative et interprétative, cinq enseignants immigrants de niveau secondaire, originaires du Cameroun, de la Tchécoslovaquie, de la Roumanie, de l'Algérie et de l'Uruguay, ont partagé leur expérience au sein du système d'éducation du Québec (SEQ). L'analyse de leurs récits de vie a été effectuée grâce à l'identification d'unités de sens, lesquelles ont été organisées afin de dégager les indicateurs qui décrivent le phénomène étudié. Les résultats montrent que les enseignants immigrants vivent un choc culturel professionnel causé par le décalage des perceptions de ce que sont un enseignant et un élève entre leur pays d'origine et le Québec. Les enseignants ayant efficacement surmonté ce décalage ont entrepris le développement d'une culture tertiaire permettant l'évolution de leurs perceptions. Finalement, pour favoriser l'adaptation des enseignants immigrants au SEQ, la sensibilisation au choc culturel professionnel, les stages d'observation et le jumelage avec des enseignants immigrants d'expérience sont à envisager.

Mots-clés : enseignants immigrants, culture première, culture seconde, perceptions

Abstract: Immigrant teachers now represent 7.99% of Canadian teachers. However, very few studies are interested in the impact of their culture on their role as "cultural brokers". This exploratory research examines the issue of changing perceptions of immigrant teachers during their teaching practice in Quebec. As part of this qualitative and interpretive research, five immigrant high school teachers from Cameroon, Czechoslovakia, Romania, Algeria and Uruguay shared their experience in the education system of Quebec (SEQ). The analysis of their life stories was carried out through the identification of units of meaning, which were organized in order to identify the indicators that describe the phenomenon studied. The results show that immigrant teachers experience a professional culture shock caused by the shift in perceptions of what a teacher and a student are between their home country and Quebec. Teachers who have effectively overcome this gap have begun to develop a tertiary culture that allows the evolution of their perceptions. Finally, to promote the adaptation of immigrant teachers to the SEQ, awareness of professional culture shock, observation internships and twinning with experienced immigrant teachers should be considered.

Keywords : immigrant teachers, first culture, second culture, perceptions

Introduction

Le visage de la population s'est modifié au cours des années et une certaine proportion d'élèves et d'enseignants est issue de l'immigration. Selon le recensement de 2016, au Canada 7,99% des enseignants sont issus de l'immigration. Ils sont 21,30% à l'université, 10,27% au niveau collégial et à la formation professionnelle, 6,04% au secondaire et 5,14% au préscolaire et au primaire (Statistique Canada, 2016a et 2016b). En accueillant dans le système scolaire des personnes porteuses d'une culture première différente de celle de la société d'accueil, une nouvelle dimension à l'interculturalisme à l'école voit le jour : si l'éducation interculturelle est « un facteur du vivre ensemble » (Moldoveanu, 2010, p. 27), il est important de réaliser que la culture a un impact sur la façon d'apprendre (Moldoveanu, 2010; Subedi, 2008) et surtout que la culture première détermine l'identité enseignante (Durand, Ria et Flavier, 2002; Elbaz-Luwisch, 2004; Peeler et Jane, 2005; Simard, 2002; Subedi, 2008).

En effet, l'enseignant, « professionnel héritier, critique et interprète d'objets de savoir ou de culture » (Gouvernement du Québec, 2001, p. 58), doit transmettre la culture de la société d'accueil aux élèves. Dans le cas des enseignants immigrants, il existe un décalage entre leur culture première et celles de leurs élèves, puisque les référents culturels qu'ils doivent transmettre diffèrent de ceux dont ils disposent. L'enseignant immigrant doit alors s'adapter à la culture dominante au sein de laquelle il œuvre. Il faut par conséquent s'interroger sur l'impact de cette différence de culture sur la création des liens entre les élèves et leur enseignant.

1. Problématique

La question de l'impact du décalage culturel est pertinente, car la qualité de la relation entre l'enseignant et l'élève est directement associée au rendement scolaire (Huan, Choon Lang Quek, SeeYoo, Ang et Chong, 2012; Thijs et Van der Leij, 2008). Une relation entre l'enseignant et l'élève harmonieuse se définit dans la littérature comme *a positive relationship* (Huan *et al.*, 2012), comme une *favorable relationship* (Thijs, 2008), il est également question des *positive aspects of teacher-student relationship* (Gehlbach, 2012). L'importance accordée à la qualité de cette relation est donc justifiée. Pour réussir à construire une relation harmonieuse,

l'enseignant immigrant[1] doit entamer un jeu de négociation visant à redéfinir la vision que les élèves ont de l'Autre tout en acceptant de s'adapter à eux, à leur façon de vivre, à leur contexte culturel. La difficulté est de réussir cette négociation en développant une identité professionnelle authentique (Kostogriz et Peller, 2007). C'est à cette condition qu'une relation entre l'enseignant immigrant et l'élève pourra fructifier et offrir à chacun l'occasion d'enrichir sa culture première au contact de celle de l'autre.

À l'heure actuelle, peu de recherches s'intéressent à la relation que les enseignants immigrants développent avec leurs élèves ou aux conditions dans lesquelles elle se développe. Il est cependant établi que les enseignants immigrants doivent désapprendre l'enseignement connu et expérimenté pour développer les méthodes d'enseignement qui sont exigées par le milieu scolaire dans lequel ils œuvrent après leur immigration (Abramova, 2012; Niyubahwe, Mukamurera et Jutras, 2013; Peeler et Jane, 2005). Par ailleurs, Elbaz-Luwisch (2004) explique que l'adaptation est plus complexe pour les enseignants qui n'ont pas été scolarisés dans le système où ils enseignent, puisqu'ils doivent mener de front leur formation pédagogique et une réflexion sur la perception qu'ils ont d'eux-mêmes et sur leur rôle de « passeur culturel » (Zakhartchouk, 1999). L'enseignant immigrant doit donc construire une nouvelle représentation de lui-même en tant que professionnel de l'éducation afin de construire une relation harmonieuse et efficiente avec ses élèves.

Cette recherche s'intéresse donc à l'impact de la culture première des enseignants immigrants de niveau secondaire sur leur pratique en posant les questions : quelles sont les perceptions de ce que sont un enseignant et un élève chez les enseignants immigrants à leur arrivée dans les écoles du Québec et comment ces perceptions évoluent-elles au cours de leurs pratiques enseignantes?

2. Cadre conceptuel

En s'intéressant aux perceptions des enseignants immigrants, on ne peut éviter la question de la culture. Culture première, culture dominante, culture seconde et culture d'origine, tous ces vocables méritent d'être précisés. Culture première et culture seconde sont, d'après Dumont (2012), deux sphères distinctes permettant à l'individu d'évoluer dans son milieu culturel. Ces sphères sont le reflet de deux espaces de vie propres à l'individu : l'espace personnel et l'espace professionnel.

En ce qui concerne la culture première, elle est associée à ce qui est familier (Dumont, 1968 ; Zakhartchouk, 1999) et permet d'interpréter les nouveaux objets culturels auxquels l'individu va être initié dans le système scolaire (Durand *et al*., 2002 ; Simard, 2002a et 2002b). Pour cette recherche, nous nous appuyons sur la définition énoncée par Durand et ses collaborateurs (2002), car elle permet de comprendre la nature à la fois unique, individuelle et partagée de la culture première :

> La culture de chaque acteur est donc de nature mémorielle et expérientielle et revêt un caractère intime, singulier, en étroite connexion avec sa biographie, tout en étant aussi fondamentalement ce qu'il y a de partagé ou de partageable dans le répertoire de cet acteur. (p. 86)

La culture première définit donc l'individu dans son essence profonde aussi bien que dans son rapport aux autres (et à leur culture). C'est au gré des interactions quotidiennes que l'individu s'imprègne de cette culture qui fait de lui, s'il devient enseignant, un « héritier culturel » qui contribue, par la suite, à la transmission des objets de culture et à l'enracinement de la culture universelle. La culture première est donc à la fois fondamentalement enracinée dans la mémoire familiale et éternellement évolutive puisqu'elle résulte d'un construit expérientiel défini par les interactions avec les divers acteurs culturels de l'environnement individuel. En conséquence, la culture première ne se limite pas à la culture familiale puisqu'elle est façonnée par les interactions initiées avec les divers acteurs culturels faisant partie du quotidien d'un individu. En d'autres termes, la culture première initiale est familiale, mais avant même l'entrée à l'école, les expériences individuelles viennent enrichir cette culture première initiale et provoquent l'apparition de variations dans la culture première des membres du noyau familial.

Également perçue comme une grille d'interprétation du monde (Durand *et al.*, 2002; Simard, 2002; Zakhartchouk, 1999), la culture première doit cependant être différenciée de la culture dominante. Alors que cette dernière a une portée historique, globale et trans-civilisationnelle, la culture première a une portée

[1] Dans cette étude, un enseignant immigrant est défini comme un individu vivant au Québec depuis au moins deux ans, détenant une autorisation d'enseigner du gouvernement du Québec et ayant fait ses études (primaire, secondaire et postsecondaire) à l'étranger.

individuelle et humaine. En ce sens, la culture dominante rejoint la « culture publique commune » mentionnée dans le rapport sur les accommodements raisonnables (Bouchard et Taylor, 2008, p.105).

La culture seconde, quant à elle, est le fruit de la construction d'un espace de communication commun provoqué par la rencontre des cultures premières entre elles (niveau individuel), dans un premier temps (niveau individuel), puis par la rencontre des cultures premières et de la culture dominante (niveau civilisationnel). La culture seconde commence au moment où s'exprime le désir d'organiser le monde selon des codes compris et reconnus par tous (Dumont, 2012; Simard, 2002; Zakhartchouk, 1999). Cette dernière, transmise par l'école et la société, doit donc réinventer le rapport au passé, à l'histoire, afin que les acteurs puissent découvrir de nouvelles ramifications à leur culture première. Il s'agit finalement de transmettre, au sein de l'institution scolaire, les capacités de recul et d'analyse fondamentales au « dédoublement de la culture » (Dumont, 2012, p. 24). Cependant, au-delà du « vivre en société », la culture seconde vise une organisation des savoirs de façon à faire progresser la société par l'intermédiaire d'une évolution de la culture première. Le lieu principal de la culture seconde est donc l'école, et l'enseignant est son dépositaire.

La façon dont l'enseignant peut ensuite transmettre cette culture, afin d'endosser son rôle de « passeur culturel » (Zakhartchouk, 1999), est d'établir avec ses élèves une relation harmonieuse. Pour permettre son développement, un des éléments déterminant est la capacité des élèves et de l'enseignant à se reconnaitre dans l'Autre (Gehlbach, 2012), ce qui constitue un défi de taille pour l'enseignant immigrant puisqu'il n'appartient pas à la culture dominante de l'élève. Par ailleurs, le rôle de l'enseignant et celui de l'élève sont déterminés culturellement, ce qui est à l'origine d'un décalage entre l'enseignant immigrant et ses élèves (Elbaz-Luwisch, 2004). Ainsi, la perception qu'a un enseignant du rôle de l'élève influence sa perception de ce qu'est un enseignant (Elbaz-Luwisch, 2004) et le développement de la relation entre l'enseignant et l'élève (Newberry, 2010). Le problème qui est alors soulevé vient du décalage entre les perceptions des deux acteurs puisque la perception de ce que doit être un enseignant est déterminée par l'expérience vécue comme élève dans le pays d'origine (Elbaz-Luwisch, 2004). Il est donc nécessaire pour tout enseignant immigrant de s'adapter à la façon de faire unique de la société dans laquelle il enseigne en se familiarisant avec le système en place (Elbaz-Luwisch, 2004; Peeler et Jane, 2005). Ainsi, il sera en mesure de développer une relation harmonieuse avec ses élèves.

S'intéressant à l'influence de la culture première sur les perceptions[2] des enseignants immigrants de niveau secondaire de ce que sont un enseignant et un élève, cette recherche a pour objectif (1) d'identifier les perceptions de ce qu'est un enseignant pour les enseignants immigrants, (2) d'identifier les perceptions de ce qu'est un élève pour les enseignants immigrants et (3) de montrer l'évolution de ces perceptions au cours de leur pratique.

3. Méthodologie

Il s'agit d'une recherche qualitative et interprétative (Savoie-Zajc, 2018) puisqu'elle permet d'entrer dans l'expérience de vie des acteurs, d'observer, d'analyser et de comprendre une situation vécue (Hendry, 2010), celle des enseignants immigrants. L'objectif est de comprendre la description de sens liée aux interactions observées (Savoie-Zajc, 2018) entre les enseignants immigrants et leurs élèves. Par la suite, ces événements sont intégrés à une démarche théorisante dont le but est la production de sens (Paillé et Mucchielli, 2016).

La méthode qualitative et interprétative (Hendry, 2010; Paillé et Mucchielli, 2016; Savoie-Zajc, 2018) favorise la participation des enseignants rencontrés. Autrement dit, ils ne constituent pas seulement une source d'informations, ils font partie de la construction du sens des phénomènes observés : c'est à partir de leurs perceptions d'un phénomène vécu (ce que sont un enseignant et un élève) que le sens de ce phénomène peut être appréhendé. Par sa souplesse, cette méthode permet de faire évoluer le processus de recherche en tenant compte de l'analyse inductive des données (Savoie-Zajc, 2018).

Collecte des données

La collecte de donnée a pris la forme d'entrevues semi-dirigées auprès de cinq enseignants immigrants de niveau secondaire issus du Cameroun, de Roumanie, d'Algérie, d'Uruguay et de Tchécoslovaquie. Les cinq enseignants ayant participé à cette recherche ont été recrutés à l'aide de la technique boule de neige. Afin d'être

[2] Le mot perception est ici utilisé dans le sens commun du terme.

admissible à la recherche, l'enseignant immigrant devait vivre au Québec depuis au moins 2 ans, détenir une autorisation d'enseigner du gouvernement du Québec et avoir fait ses études postsecondaires à l'étranger.

Outils de collecte de données

Deux outils ont été utilisés pour la collecte de données. Le premier était un questionnaire sociodémographique permettant d'obtenir des informations sur le pays d'origine, la date d'immigration, les études effectuées (dans le pays d'origine et au Canada) et le parcours migratoire des enseignants immigrants. Le deuxième consistait en une entrevue semi-dirigée d'une durée moyenne de 90 minutes. Celle-ci se divisait en trois thèmes : (1) la culture, (2) la perception des acteurs de l'enseignement (dans le pays d'origine et au Québec) et (3) les relations avec les élèves. Cette structure a permis de reconnaitre les éléments de culture appartenant spécifiquement à la culture première des participants, d'identifier, à partir de leurs propos, leurs perceptions de ce que sont un enseignant et un élève et de comprendre l'évolution de ces perceptions lors de leurs pratiques au Québec.

Analyse des données

Les entrevues réalisées avec les participants donnent accès à la « narration du récit de vie » (De Gialdino, 2009, p. 14) qui s'articule autour de leur situation d'enseignant immigrant. Les récits sont ici définis comme « la compréhension d'une situation donnée à partir de la façon où cette situation est vécue par les participants » (De Gialdino, 2009, p. 14). À la suite des entrevues, une « préanalyse » (Wanlin, 2007, p. 249) a permis de structurer les unités de sens afin d'établir des sous-thèmes pour chacun des thèmes définis lors de la conception des questionnaires d'entrevue. Une deuxième lecture des verbatims a ensuite servi à dégager les unités de sens du récit des participants et à les organiser afin de mettre en évidence les indicateurs qui décrivent le phénomène étudié (Fereday et Muir-Cochrane, 2006). Un contrecodage a été effectué avec un taux d'accord de 76%. Des discussions ont ensuite permis d'arriver à un consensus permettant la présentation de résultats fiables et valides (Miles, Huberman et Saldana, 2014).

4. Résultats

Dans cette section, nous présenterons d'abord les participants de l'étude, puis nous exposerons leurs perceptions initiales de ce que sont un enseignant et un élève. Finalement, nous verrons comment ces perceptions ont évolué au contact de la société d'accueil.

Présentation des participants

Cinq enseignants immigrants ont participé à cette étude. Leur pays d'origine était situé en Afrique, en Europe de l'Est et en Amérique du Sud. Les données récoltées grâce au questionnaire sociodémographique sont présentées dans le tableau suivant.

Tableau 1. Présentation des participants

Nom (fictif) Pays d'origine	Emploi initial	Métiers exercés au Québec	Domaine d'enseignement	Expérience en enseignement (années)	
				Pays d'origine	Québec
Christian Cameroun	Enseignant	Enseignant	Anglais Espagnol	15	3
Roland Roumanie	Enseignant	Surveillant, Enseignant	Mathématique	12	10
Amel Algérie	Chirurgienne – dentiste	Télémarketing, Directrice bancaire, Enseignante	Sciences Mathématique	0	7

Uma Uruguay	Enseignante	Surveillante, Enseignante	Mathématique Espagnol	6	3
Tomas Tchécos-lovaquie	Enseignant	Entraineur universitaire, Entrepreneur, Enseignant	Éducation physique	5 ½	24+

L'analyse des entrevues a ensuite permis d'identifier leurs perceptions initiales concernant les enseignants et les élèves et de comprendre comment ces perceptions ont évolué.

Perceptions de ce qu'est un enseignant dans le pays d'origine

Rappelons ici que, tel que mentionné plus tôt, la perception de ce qu'est un enseignant est déterminée par l'expérience scolaire vécue dans le pays d'origine (Elbaz-Luwish, 2004). En ce sens, tous les participants sont arrivés au Québec avec leur vécu d'élève et, pour quatre d'entre eux, avec leur vécu d'enseignant. Les idées préconçues concernant ce qu'est un enseignant étaient donc nombreuses.

Pour quatre participants, l'enseignant est d'abord maitre de sa classe. Il est actif alors que l'élève, récepteur passif de l'enseignement, ne participe pas au déroulement du cours. Ainsi, pour Christian, qui a enseigné 15 ans au Cameroun dans des classes de 180 élèves, « l'enseignant va diriger tout, va avoir presque les élèves qui s'asseyent et qui écoutent ». Cette perception de l'enseignant est partagée par Roland qui considère qu'il avait une place importante dans la classe. Amel explique quant à elle que l'enseignant était « intouchable » alors que pour Tomas, c'était « le demi-dieu ». Selon Christian, Tomas, Roland et Amel, la position d'autorité détenue par l'enseignant se fait donc sans réelle élaboration de liens entre celui-ci et ses élèves. Dans la perception initiale de l'enseignant exposée par ces quatre enseignants immigrants, l'apprentissage est un reçu plutôt qu'un construit.

Cependant, pour Uma, une enseignante est un spécialiste qui doit exposer la matière et répondre à des contraintes d'inspection qui reposent sur ses capacités de mathématicienne. Son vécu d'enseignante dans son pays d'origine semble également peu axé sur les relations avec les élèves puisqu'elle dit que : « il y a un programme à suivre, [l'enseignant], il va rentrer, il va donner son cours, ils [les évaluateurs du gouvernement] vont partir, ils vont t'évaluer, point final ». Elle explique n'avoir jamais connu de classe silencieuse avant son arrivée au Québec : l'enseignant ne s'occupant pas de la discipline, les élèves étaient laissés à eux-mêmes. En ce sens, elle décrit l'enseignant uruguayen comme un spécialiste disciplinaire dont le rôle premier est la transmission des savoirs, sans égard aux difficultés des élèves.

Les propos des enseignants immigrants rencontrés suggèrent que, pour eux, la perception initiale de ce qu'est un enseignant est marquée par une relation enseignant-élève pauvre pour tous les participants, principalement caractérisée par un transfert de vase plein à vase vide. De plus, pour quatre d'entre eux, elle se développe selon une hiérarchie préétablie qui laisse peu de place à l'élève.

Finalement, l'ensemble des enseignants immigrants véhicule la perception que leur identité enseignante initiale semblait imposée par leur société d'origine et laissait peu de marge de manœuvre pour le développement d'une identité propre.

Perceptions initiales de ce qu'est un élève

La perception qu'a un enseignant de ce qu'est un élève a des impacts sur la perception de ce qu'est un enseignant (Elbaz-Luwisch, 2004) et sur le développement de la relation entre l'enseignant et l'élève (Newberry, 2010).

Selon tous les participants de cette recherche, les perceptions initiales de ce que doit être un élève des enseignants immigrants diffèrent de ce qui attendu dans la société québécoise. Ainsi, Christian dit de ses élèves camerounais qu'ils « sont dociles, ils sont cadrés, ils savent que ceci c'est bon, ceci est pas bon ». Tomas, Amel et Roland partagent cette perception, l'enseignant d'origine roumaine expliquant d'ailleurs que les élèves de son pays d'origine « n'ont pas le temps de développer les habiletés sociales ». Amel ajoute que les cours « c'étaient seulement des exercices, [la] technique ».

Dans cette optique, plutôt que de construire ses savoirs pour développer ses compétences comme les élèves québécois, l'élève du pays d'origine observe et reproduit le comportement attendu. Sa présence à l'école ne se définit que dans le cadre de la séquence d'apprentissage prescrite. La seule relation entre l'enseignant et l'élève décrite par les enseignants immigrants est une relation verticale où l'enseignant est seul décideur. Même pour Uma dont la perception de ce qu'est un enseignant diffère, les élèves doivent suivre le cours et faire les exercices. Dans tous les cas, pour les cinq enseignants immigrants rencontrés, les élèves ne posent pas de question et suivent les cours.

Seule à ne pas avoir enseigné dans son pays d'origine, Amel n'a comme perception de ce qu'est un élève que celle développée lors de son parcours scolaire, alors que « l'Algérie […] y'a pas un [élève] qui bougeait dans la classe, attention c'était "je suis le prof, je suis le boss" ». Reconnaissant son ignorance en ce qui concerne les méthodes d'enseignement, elle a calqué ses premières interventions sur ce qu'elle avait vécu en tant qu'élève : un modèle pédagogique où la transmission des savoirs dominait.

Ces expériences de ce qu'est l'élève donnent un aperçu de la place qui lui est accordé dans les divers systèmes éducatifs. Apprenant passif, l'élève est décrit comme celui qui obéit alors que l'enseignant est celui qui décide et fait apprendre.

Cette perception de la dynamique d'apprentissage ne correspond pas à celle préconisée dans le Programme de formation de l'école québécoise, il n'est donc pas surprenant que les cinq enseignants immigrants aient dû s'adapter pour s'approprier la culture seconde québécoise et guider l'élève dans son acquisition des compétences.

Évolution des perceptions de ce que sont un enseignant et un élève

Les perceptions des enseignants immigrants ont dû s'adapter aux exigences du système d'éducation québécois. Les formations reçues, les stages particulièrement, mais également le contact avec les autres enseignants leur ont permis de s'adapter au nouveau rôle qui les attendait. Ce fut le cas pour Christian, qui, dans le cadre d'un certificat en pédagogie, a fait des stages dans différentes écoles. Pour Amel, qui n'avait pas de formation en enseignement, ce sont les cours suivis dans le cadre d'une maîtrise en éducation qui lui ont permis d'appréhender ce que sont un enseignant et un élève au Québec. La formation en vue de l'obtention du permis d'enseigner de même que le contact avec les élèves et l'équipe pédagogique ont influencé la vision qu'ont les participants de ce qu'est un enseignant. Leur identité enseignante s'est alors modifiée. Tomas résume clairement le processus vécu par les enseignants immigrants : « Les méthodes que j'ai employées là-bas étaient beaucoup plus strictes […] et là je me suis adouci, je cherche à passer le message plus pédagogiquement ». Tout au long de sa carrière, Tomas a tenté de faire correspondre ce qu'il a vécu en tant qu'élève à ce que ses élèves ont développé comme compétence. C'est ainsi qu'il a bâti son identité enseignante et que la place que l'élève occupe dans le gymnase a évolué. Il mentionne qu'il est resté fidèle à certaines pratiques de son pays d'origine, par exemple lorsqu'ils sont en retard, les élèves reçoivent des séries de pompes comme sanction. Ses méthodes n'ont pas changé, ce qui ne l'a pas empêché d'être le seul enseignant de l'école à avoir reçu une distinction de la part des élèves.

Si les raisons pour lesquelles les perceptions des enseignants immigrants ont évolué diffèrent, le constat est le même pour tous : être enseignant au Québec signifie repenser l'enseignement. Tomas utilise beaucoup l'humour pour établir des liens avec ses élèves, et plusieurs enseignants immigrants en font mention, mais les évolutions les plus marquées sont celles de Christian et Amel. Pour eux, l'enseignant était maître de la classe, mais à la suite des formations reçues, cours et stages, ils affirment « l'importance de mettre l'élève au centre [des apprentissages] » (Amel) et souhaitent se positionner comme « un enseignant qui vient accompagner ses élèves […] qui vient les guider à pouvoir développer leurs compétences » (Christian). Alors qu'elle en est à sa première année d'enseignement en mathématique, Uma a conscience des adaptations qu'elle doit faire et a déjà identifié la direction qu'elle doit prendre afin de s'arrimer aux recommandations du Programme de formation de l'école québécoise. Alors qu'elle se percevait « rigide et stricte », confrontée à la réalité québécoise, elle a dû reconnaitre que ce n'était pas le cas et elle s'adapte, car « au niveau de la tolérance, c'est différent ». C'est en enseignant l'espagnol qu'Uma a découvert une facette du rôle de l'enseignant qui lui était inconnue, la création et la liberté de choix du matériel. Si le transfert n'a pas été fait encore en mathématique, elle admet souhaiter y parvenir.

En ce qui concerne Roland, il tente de catégoriser son expérience en enseignement en disant qu'« il y a un passé, il y a un présent. Il y a une autre façon de faire, il y a une nouvelle façon de faire. » Les mathématiques abstraites qu'il enseignait en Roumanie ont laissé place aux stratégies d'enseignement en mathématiques, et

Roland tente, à sa façon, de s'adapter à ses élèves en développant des stratégies d'enseignement « parce que les stratégies, ça vient des enfants, ça vient de leurs erreurs […] ça s'appelle la maîtrise quand on arrive là, la maîtrise des connaissances ». Par ailleurs, Roland reconnait que la principale cause d'évolution de ses perceptions de ce qu'est un enseignant, c'est son passage au secteur des services éducatifs pour les élèves handicapés ou en difficulté d'adaptation ou d'apprentissage (EHDAA) et à l'enseignement auprès d'élèves souffrant de cécité. C'est en relevant ce défi qu'il a vraiment commencé à modifier sa perception de ce qu'il devait être pour ces élèves particuliers : « Je connaissais la notion par cœur – je connais tout par cœur – mais, "comment tu vas faire de ne plus utiliser le crayon, [ni] les explications visuelles ?" ». Malgré tout, il reconnait que, lorsque l'occasion s'y prête, il n'hésite pas à pousser ses élèves vers l'abstraction en mathématiques que préconisait l'enseignement roumain.

5. Discussion

Les résultats montrent que les enseignants immigrants rencontrés vivent un choc culturel professionnel qui les conduit à réévaluer leurs perceptions des différents acteurs de l'apprentissage. L'identité professionnelle des enseignants immigrants participant à cette recherche a évolué, en raison du décalage des perceptions de ce qu'est un enseignant au Québec et de ce qu'il est dans leur pays d'origine (Abramova, 2012; Elbaz-Luwisch, 2004; Niyubawe, Mukamurera et Jutras, 2013; Peeler et Jane, 2005). Aujourd'hui, tous ces enseignants se considèrent comme des guides pour les élèves et affirment avoir abandonné la position de maitre.

Le choc culturel lié aux perceptions de ce que sont un enseignant et un élève

Malgré tout, les approches de Tomas et Roland semblent conserver une part significative importante de leur identité professionnelle d'origine et des perceptions qui y sont liées. La principale explication à la difficulté qu'a Roland à construire une nouvelle identité enseignante vient de sa difficulté à intégrer le paradigme éducatif québécois, centré sur l'apprentissage (Niyubawe, Mukamurera et Jutras, 2013), dans la nouvelle identité enseignante qu'il s'est construite. Se définissant avant tout comme un spécialiste et un ingénieur, il n'a pas effectué la transition du système éducatif roumain au système éducatif québécois, où il ne se sent pas reconnu à sa juste valeur. Reconnaissant lui-même être déçu par son expérience, il a finalement trouvé sa place dans un environnement où il peut s'accomplir sans devoir négocier son identité enseignante de maitre de classe.

L'évolution des perceptions à travers le développement de la relation enseignant – élève

Pour Tomas, le plus expérimenté des participants, son identité enseignante est intimement liée à son identité culturelle. L'identité enseignante de Tomas reflète une négociation qu'il a su mener à terme : sans abandonner les éléments de son identité enseignante originale qui lui semblaient essentiels (respect et développement de la culture), il a su les intégrer à une identité professionnelle marquée par des relations égalitaires avec l'élève. En ce qui concerne les deux autres enseignants immigrants qui ont reçu une formation pédagogique dans leur pays d'origine, ils ont débuté le processus de reconstruction de leur identité enseignante autour de leur rapport à l'élève. Pour Christian, c'est la proximité avec les élèves et la nécessité de se justifier, qui a été à l'origine de son évolution. Pour Uma, c'est le climat de classe qui a permis un rapprochement avec ses élèves. Pour tous deux, le constat est clair : c'est leur perception d'eux-mêmes, en tant qu'enseignant, qui a changé. Dans le cas d'Uma, un facteur à considérer pour expliquer ses difficultés à reconstruire son identité enseignante vient de ses perceptions de ce qu'est un élève et des comportements qu'il devrait adopter.

Le cas d'Amel est à considérer à part. En effet, puisqu'elle n'avait jamais enseigné en Algérie, elle a bâti son identité professionnelle en enseignement exclusivement au Québec. L'évolution s'est donc faite à partir de ce qu'elle a vécu comme élève. Le changement n'en est pas moins considérable : le passage de la vision de l'enseignant comme maitre à celui de l'enseignant comme guide a été un apprentissage qui lui a permis d'évoluer non seulement comme enseignante, mais également comme individu.

Le développement d'une culture tertiaire : la clé de l'intégration

Ce changement de rôle a affecté tous les enseignants immigrants participant à cette recherche et conduit à un remodelage de leur culture. Pour s'adapter aux exigences du système d'éducation québécois (SEQ), ces enseignants ont dû développer une culture tertiaire, hybride de leur culture d'origine (première et seconde) et de la culture de la société d'accueil, à partir de laquelle ils bâtissent leur nouvelle identité enseignante. L'omniprésence d'éléments de la culture d'origine des enseignants immigrants au sein de cette culture tertiaire détermine leur degré d'assimilation dans le SEQ. Ainsi, Roland a abandonné l'enseignement au secteur jeune alors que Christian a modifié ses perceptions, devenant un guide pour ses élèves. Il ressort des résultats qu'Uma,

de son côté, enseignante dans le SEQ depuis peu, n'en est qu'au début de la construction de sa culture tertiaire et ses perceptions de ce que sont un enseignant et un élève sont en cours de modification.

Cette culture tertiaire, résultat du contact entre les cultures premières des participants et la culture dominante, est le fruit d'une profonde remise en question, mais semblerait également constituer un facilitateur à l'intégration des enseignants immigrants dans le SEQ.

Conclusion

En terminant, cette recherche exploratoire a permis de répondre à la question des perceptions de ce que sont un enseignant et un élève chez les enseignants immigrants de niveau secondaire au Québec et de l'évolution de ces perceptions au cours de leur pratique enseignante. Ainsi, l'importance de la construction d'une culture tertiaire a émergé des propos des enseignants immigrants rencontrés. Celle-ci, construite au contact de la société d'accueil, leur permet de développer une identité enseignante favorisant une relation enseignant immigrant – élève harmonieuse.

Compte tenu de l'aspect exploratoire de cette recherche, les résultats ne peuvent être généralisés et devraient être corroborés par des études de plus grande envergure auprès d'enseignants issus d'horizons variés et représentant les différents continents. Il serait par ailleurs intéressant d'étendre la question à la situation d'enseignants canadiens non québécois.

D'un point de vue pratique, cette recherche révèle que les enseignants immigrants font face à des difficultés de reconstruction de leur identité professionnelle. Afin de faciliter ce processus, différentes avenues sont à envisager : sensibilisation au choc culturel professionnel, stage exploratoire, et jumelage avec un enseignant immigrant d'expérience en sont des exemples.

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Les méthodologies de recherche en orthographe : stratégies de rédaction d'une recension intégrative d'écrits scientifiques

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Résumé : Réaliser une synthèse des recherches antérieures représente une activité essentielle en recherche, mais peut représenter un défi pour les jeunes chercheurs. En effet, la diversité des méthodologies employées dans les recherches primaires recensées entraine des interprétations différentes des résultats et de leur portée. Cet article propose des stratégies à adopter lors de la rédaction d'une recension intégrative des écrits scientifiques sur un objet d'étude, ici les pratiques d'enseignement en orthographe, en plus de rappeler les étapes de la recension intégrative des écrits scientifiques. La réflexion sur les apports des types d'études primaires aide à comprendre la contribution des méthodes de recherche.

Mots clés : recension intégrative, orthographe, méthodologie

Abstract : Conducting a synthesis of previous researches an essential activity in research, but can be a challenge for young researchers. Indeed, the diversity of methodologies used in the identified primary research leads to different interpretations of the results and their significance. This article proposes strategies to adopt when writing an integrative review of scientific literature on an object of study, here teaching practices in spelling, in addition to recall the steps of the integrative review of scientific literature. Reflection on the contributions of types of primary studies helps to understand the contribution of research methods.

Keywords: integrative review, spelling, methodology

La recherche en éducation implique une démarche d'acquisition de connaissances qui offre une multitude de possibilités de méthodologies, de méthodes qui doivent être prises en compte lors de la synthèse d'écrits scientifiques afin de porter un jugement critique. Cette diversité de méthodologies et de méthodes peut être une source de problème lors de la synthèse d'écrits scientifiques. Le présent texte explique les raisons de ce problème et propose des stratégies à adopter lors de la rédaction d'une recension intégrative des écrits scientifiques sur un objet d'étude, ici les pratiques d'enseignement en orthographe. En plus de rappeler les étapes de la recension intégrative des écrits scientifiques, les prochaines sections illustrent par des exemples les stratégies de rédaction qui mènent à rédiger efficacement ce type d'écrit scientifique. La discussion ouvre sur des pistes de réflexion quant aux contributions d'une telle démarche de recension intégrative des écrits scientifiques ayant des méthodologies diverses.

1. Problématique de la diversité des méthodologies lors de recensions d'écrits scientifiques

Effectuer une synthèse des recherches antérieures représente une activité fondamentale en recherche afin d'établir un portrait global des connaissances sur un objet d'étude ou de préciser les connaissances théoriques et scientifiques transférables (Cohen, Marion et Morrison, 2011; Cook, Mulrow et Haymes, 1997; Jackson, 1980). Comme activité en amont de toute recherche, la recension des écrits désigne la démarche rigoureuse, transparente et reproductible qui consiste à identifier, puis à répertorier et à analyser et, enfin, à faire une synthèse critique de matériels sélectionnés provenant de revues ayant des comités d'évaluation par les pairs ou tout autre document reconnu, dont les rapports de recherche, les thèses, les mémoires et les recensions des écrits antérieurs. Elle permet de mettre en lumière ce qui est connu et inconnu sur un objet d'étude (Fortin et Gagnon, 2016).

De façon succincte, le terme « recension des écrits scientifiques » renvoie habituellement à des méthodologies dites traditionnelles; entre autres, la démarche est peu ou pas explicite dans les textes publiés menant à rappeler des résultats sur l'objet à l'étude. Dans le cas qui nous concerne, la recension intégrative des écrits scientifiques est privilégiée en raison de la méthodologie qui est rigoureuse, transparente et reproductible (Jackson, 1980). Selon cet auteur, cette méthodologie permet de rendre

compte de l'évolution dans le temps des recherches recensées de l'objet d'étude. Cette façon de faire assure l'intégration des connaissances antérieures aux nouvelles connaissances issues des études primaires[1].

Réaliser une recension intégrative des écrits scientifiques sur un objet d'étude en sciences de l'éducation soulève la question de la diversité des méthodologies utilisées dans les études primaires afin de rendre compte des nouvelles données ou connaissances de l'objet d'étude. Pour la plupart des recherches, ces méthodologies s'appuient sur le développement d'une problématique, sur la synthèse des connaissances sur le sujet (cadre théorique) ainsi que sur l'organisation et la hiérarchisation des questions. Selon les postures épistémologiques et théoriques ainsi que les questions posées, se déclinent la construction d'une méthodologie ou l'orchestration de méthodes qui s'appuient sur ce large spectre de méthodologies : celles dites de recherche terrain ou celles dites de recherche fondamentale. À ces deux pôles, s'ajoutent les méthodologies mixtes ou dites pragmatiques qui sont récentes en sciences humaines. Le choix de l'objet d'étude du présent article, l'enseignement et l'apprentissage de l'orthographe, renvoie à une recherche qui comportait une recension intégrative des écrits synthétisant une diversité de méthodologies de textes scientifiques : a) méthodologies de synthèses (recension ou méta-analyse); b) méthodologies d'études primaires qualitatives; c) méthodologies d'études primaires quantitatives; et d) autres méthodologies intégrant une mixité de données qualitatives et quantitatives (Villeneuve-Lapointe, 2019). C'est cette recherche qui a inspiré la rédaction du présent texte et, ainsi, qui répond au besoin de mieux articuler l'analyse de données diverses dans une synthèse d'écrits scientifiques.

À cette diversité des méthodologies d'études primaires s'ajoute une pluralité des champs de recherche dans lequel un même objet peut s'inscrire. Dans le cas qui nous concerne soit l'enseignement et l'apprentissage de l'orthographe, plusieurs champs de recherche s'y sont intéressés : psychologie, linguistique, santé - orthophonie et éducation - didactique. Les approches théoriques et méthodologiques peuvent être très différentes. De cette diversité d'approches et de méthodologies résulte une prolifération d'opérationnalisations de définitions de l'objet étudié, ce qui semble nécessaire à la compréhension en profondeur de l'enseignement et de l'apprentissage de l'orthographe (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie et Turner, 2007). Toutefois, la synthèse de ces recherches, qui adoptent une ou plusieurs méthodologies de champs et domaines différents, rend difficile le travail de recension intégrative des écrits scientifiques pour les jeunes chercheurs, pour ceux découvrant ce champ de recherche et pour les chercheurs en émergence. Karsenti (2006) nomme ce problème le pluralisme méthodologique. De surcroit, les résultats présentés n'ont pas la même portée et ne peuvent pas nécessairement être comparés les uns avec les autres.

Nous proposons donc, dans cet article, d'effectuer une analyse des différentes méthodologies utilisées dans les recherches portant sur l'enseignement et l'apprentissage de l'orthographe, et ce, afin de dégager leurs apports et leurs limites. Ce choix s'inscrit dans la posture épistémologique du post-positivisme, dont la prédominance du courant réalisme critique (Cruickshank, 2012) tend à être en accord avec ce besoin de combiner et d'intégrer diverses sources de données, celles sur les processus sociaux, contextuels et perceptuels avec celles sur les données observables et quantifiables; la réalité peut être à la fois construite socialement et interprétée de façon objective (Kelly, 2012).

2. Recension intégrative en orthographe lexicale

La recension intégrative des écrits scientifiques permet d'analyser et de synthétiser une diversité de recherches, comportant des données qualitatives, quantitatives ou une mixité des deux. Elle soulève cependant le défi d'étudier des études primaires croisant des méthodologies qui ont des fondements épistémologiques et ontologiques différents (Anadon, 2011).

Le terme méthodologie ou l'expression « méthodologie de recherche » désigne une stratégie générale, un plan d'action ou un protocole qui regroupe, de façon cohérente et logique, des méthodes ou des techniques de travail spécifiques permettant de répondre à la/aux question(s), objectif(s) ou hypothèse(s) de recherche. Ces méthodes contribuent aux diverses façons d'opérationnaliser les composantes d'une méthodologie : devis de recherche, méthodes de recrutement de participants, méthodes de collecte de

[1] L'expression « étude primaire » fait référence à tout document présentant une méthodologie et des données liées à cette démarche de recherche.

données, démarche et méthodes d'analyse entre autres.

En 1980, Jackson critiquait d'ailleurs le manque de méthodologies explicites pour effectuer une recension intégrative des écrits en sciences humaines. Il propose une méthodologie en six étapes pour les sciences de l'éducation, la psychologie et la sociologie : formulation de la question et des hypothèses de recherche, choix de l'échantillon des documents à analyser, c'est-à-dire sélection des textes primaires, rassemblement des caractéristiques des textes primaires, analyse des études sélectionnées et inférences entre elles, interprétation des résultats et présentation des résultats obtenus. Les trois premières étapes de la démarche de recension intégrative des écrits scientifiques mènent à actualiser une stratégie de regroupement des textes recensés : regroupement/rassemblement des recensions antérieures et regroupements des études primaires selon les méthodologies propres qualitatives, quantitatives, mixtes ou autres devis de recherche.

2.1 Regrouper les documents répertoriés : recensions et études primaires

Différents regroupements peuvent s'opérer lors de la démarche de recension. Un premier type de regroupement peut s'opérer dès la sélection de textes scientifiques qui répondent aux critères d'inclusion et d'exclusion définis par la ou les questions posées aux bases de données scientifiques. Ce regroupement peut être réalisé par termes qui définissent l'objet de recherche; une carte conceptuelle peut être schématisée pour refléter les critères d'inclusion et d'exclusion. La figure 1, à la page suivante, illustre l'amorce d'une carte conceptuelle de l'objet d'étude soit l'orthographe et précise certains critères d'inclusion et d'exclusion. Parmi les critères d'exclusion, les textes scientifiques sur l'orthographe grammaticale ont été exclus contrairement à ceux qui traitaient de l'orthographe lexicale, qui a été précisée comme objet d'étude. Le choix de cet objet d'étude plus précis s'explique par l'avancement des travaux sur ce sujet. L'orthographe lexicale se déploie sous trois grands thèmes : apprentissage de contenus d'orthographe, pratiques d'enseignement et pratiques différenciées d'enseignement. Ces sous-thèmes ont mené à répertorier des études ayant des méthodologies variées.

Un second regroupement des textes recensés a mené à distinguer les articles scientifiques selon leur méthodologie propre, à titre d'exemple : a) recension d'écrits antérieure (recension traditionnelle et tous autres types de textes similaires, dont les méta-analyses); b) études primaires sur l'objet d'étude. Les études primaires sont regroupées selon leur question(s)/objectif(s) de recherche ou leur méthodologie évoquée, soit de types quantitatifs, qualitatifs ou mixtes de recherche. Ce regroupement permet de structurer l'analyse et de rédiger la synthèse selon les visées de ces études et, ainsi, de décrire les résultats qui tiennent compte de cette diversité de données, dont leurs conclusions diffèrent au regard de considérations méthodologiques et épistémologiques.

Cette stratégie de regrouper les textes scientifiques aide à actualiser les trois premières étapes de la recension intégrative des écrits scientifiques et illustre l'opérationnalisation : (1) de la formulation de la ou des question(s)/objectif(s) ou d'hypothèse(s) de recherche; (2) du choix de l'échantillonnage des documents; et (3) du regroupement des textes scientifiques. Loin d'être linéaires, ces étapes se concrétisent d'une façon itérative comprenant plusieurs aller et retour de lectures de titres, de résumés d'articles et, parfois, de textes pour, d'abord, préciser la/les question(s) ou l'/les objectif(s) de recherche. Cette formulation de cette/ces question(s)/objectif(s) risque d'être ajustée au fil de la démarche, et ce, pour différentes raisons, dont les intérêts du milieu (praticiens-chercheurs) ou l'avancement des données des écrits scientifiques sur l'objet d'étude. Cette phase de regroupement mène à structurer une démarche d'analyse et de synthèse selon l'apport de types de données documentées dans ces différents écrits scientifiques : sous-thèmes de l'objet d'étude et types de données (recensions antérieures et études primaires intégrant des données qualitatives, quantitatives, ou les deux, méthodologie mixte).

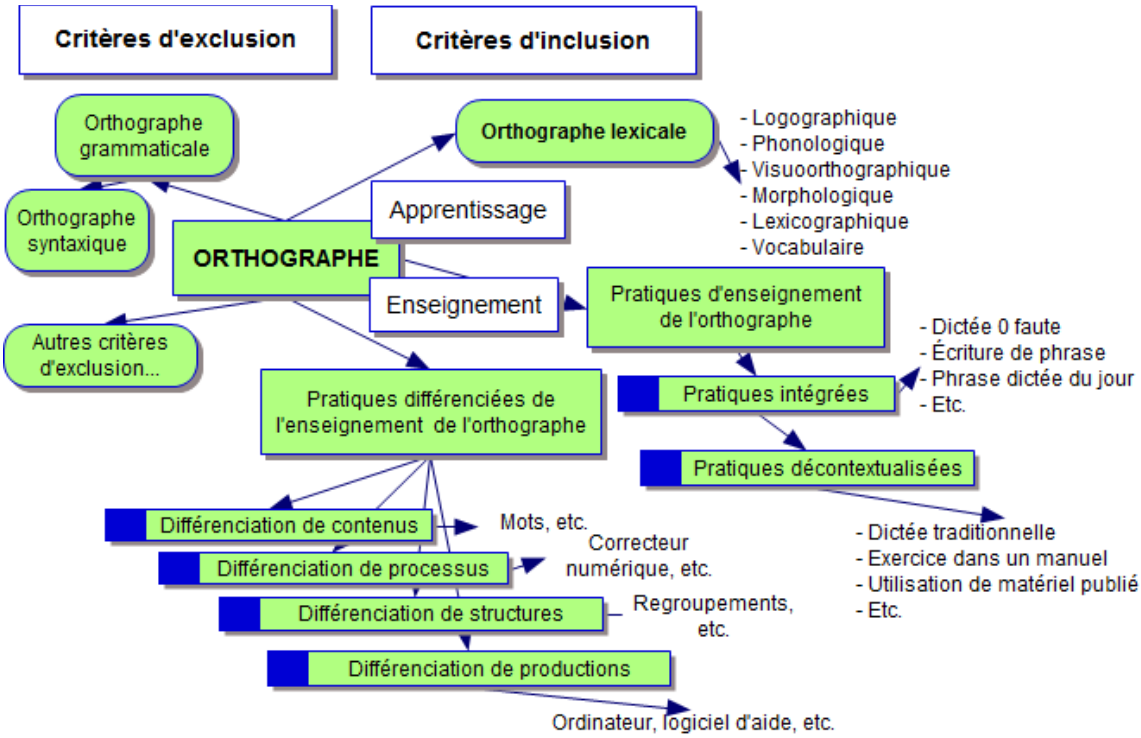

Figure 1. Carte conceptuelle de l'objet d'étude : orthographe et termes associés (critères d'inclusion et d'exclusion)

La prochaine section traite de l'importance de tenir compte des méthodologies pour analyser, interpréter et synthétiser les données des écrits scientifiques : données théoriques, données empiriques de recherches descriptives qualitatives, descriptives corrélationnelles quantitatives, ou recherches expérimentales précisant des liens entre variables (effet causal). Ce choix stratégique de rappeler des aspects méthodologiques synthétisant des données théoriques et empiriques permet de jeter un regard critique sur les contributions et sur les limites des écrits scientifiques recensés, soit les dernières étapes de la recension intégrative des écrits scientifiques : analyser, interpréter et présenter une synthèse critique.

2.2 Rappeler les composantes méthodologiques des textes scientifiques répertoriés

La stratégie de regroupement des textes recensés en opérant une lecture des éléments clés mène par la suite à faire une analyse en profondeur de ces documents. L'idée ici n'est pas d'expliquer les étapes d'analyse, de présentation et de synthèse critique, mais de préciser le choix stratégique de rappeler des aspects méthodologiques essentiels à extraire et à synthétiser pour permettre de présenter les données d'une façon transparente et critique au regard des méthodologies associées à celles-ci. Les prochains paragraphes explicitent sinon illustrent des façons de synthétiser un vaste répertoire de textes scientifiques. Le tableau 1 sert à illustrer, à l'aide de quelques exemples, les aspects explicités dans les prochains paragraphes au regard de l'orthographe lexicale française.

Tableau 1. Orthographe : description de certains textes scientifiques recensés

Références	Types de texte	Méthodologies	Données	Visée interprétation
Catach (2012)	Théorique	Synthèse théorique – anasynthèse	Textuelles	Définir, expliquer
Fayol et Jaffré (2016)	Théorique et empirique	Recension des écrits	Textuelles	Définir, expliquer
Graham et Santangelo (2014)	Théorique et empirique	Méta-analyse	Textuelles	Expliquer
Moreau, Dumais, Nolin, Villeneuve-Lapointe et Stanké (2018)	Descriptif	Devis : étude de matériaux (mots), évaluation d'acquisition, etc. Mesures : caractéristiques des mots, dictées (maitrise de l'orthographique lexicale de mots scolaires) Participants : élèves typiques	Qualitatives quantitatives	Documenter et décrire
Charron, Montésinos-Gelet et Morin (2009)	Descriptif - interprétatif	Devis : entretiens/observations de pratiques d'enseignement de l'orthographe et différentiation, etc. Mesure : entretien (propos/verbatim sur les pratiques en contexte de formation Participants : enseignants du primaire	Qualitatives	Décrire et comprendre
Fresch (2007)	Descriptif - corrélationnel quantitatif	Devis : enquête Mesure : questionnaire (données quantitatives, qualitatives) Participants : enseignants du primaire	Quantitatives	Documenter
Marin, Lavoie et Sirois (2015)	Descriptif	Devis : quasi-expérimental Mesures : dictées lacunaires et production écriture (prétest et posttest) Participants : élèves de 4e année	Quantitatives	Évaluer
St-Pierre, Dubé et Croteau (2017)	Effet de facteurs sur variable(s) dépendante(s)	Devis : clinique – cas unique, quasi expérimental (randomisé) Mesures : données quantitatives Participants : élèves en difficulté	Quantitatives	Évaluer

2.2.1 Rappeler les méthodologies de textes théoriques ou recensions antérieures des écrits

Parmi les recensions antérieures, celles de type théorique fournissent des définitions explicites sur c'est quoi, pourquoi et en quoi l'orthographe et ses termes associés sont importants; ils renseignent sur le(s) contenu(s) et le(s) processus de l'objet d'étude. Pour analyser, présenter et synthétiser ces données théoriques, l'un des défis est de devoir distinguer, parfois comparer et interpréter le sens de différentes

définitions de ces termes qui peuvent être de domaines divers : psychologie, linguistique, neurolinguistique, éducation, entre autres. Par exemple, en orthographe, la recension intégrative des écrits scientifiques a permis de documenter des textes théoriques, dont un auteur phare (Catach, 2012) et des recensions antérieures d'écrits scientifiques (p. ex. Fayol et Jaffré, 2016).

Catach (2012), en linguistique, souvent citée dans ce domaine d'étude, présente une synthèse théorique de définitions, d'une part, du terme « orthographe » et, d'autre part, des termes associés : orthographe lexicale, grammaticale, phonème, graphème, logogramme, phonogramme, morphogramme, lettre étymologique, etc. Ce vaste champ conceptuel permet de définir « l'orthographe » comme objet d'étude et de le distinguer d'autres termes. Pour comprendre ces termes, il faut que le lecteur soit informé du domaine d'études de cette définition, ici la linguistique, et de l'importance que les auteurs accordent à ce texte phare dans les écrits d'autres domaines proches comme en éducation. À cet égard, Catach (2012) est cité par différents auteurs en linguistique et aussi en éducation; entre autres, elle est reprise dans des recensions antérieures d'écrits scientifiques, dont Fayol et Jaffré (2016). Cependant, Catach (2012) ne précise pas sa méthodologie, qui s'apparente à une anasynthèse (Messier et Dumais, 2016), contrairement à Fayol et Jaffré (2016) qui eux précisent qu'il s'agit d'une synthèse d'écrits scientifiques sur la pratique.

Ces derniers auteurs, Fayol et Jaffré (2016), présentent dans leur texte des données théoriques et empiriques sur le terme orthographe et les termes proches. Ces données informent davantage sur l'ampleur ou l'importance de l'orthographe dans le développement du langage oral et écrit. Cette recension antérieure a comme avantage de présenter des données descriptives sur l'objet d'étude; sa visée est de mieux comprendre l'orthographe comme système multiple de connaissances ayant un impact sur le développement du langage écrit d'une personne. L'une des principales limites de cette recension antérieure réside dans le peu ou l'absence d'informations sur les sources du ou des domaines des données présentées et, surtout, l'absence de l'histoire de la démarche de synthèse qui aideraient à faire connaitre les critères d'inclusion ou d'exclusion pour sélectionner leurs textes scientifiques qui sont référencés. Il est difficile dans ce cas de reproduire ce texte et même d'évaluer les limites méthodologiques de cette démarche de synthèse.

Ce qui n'est pas le cas de Graham et Santangelo (2014) qui ont effectué une méta-analyse pour renseigner, entre autres, sur les pratiques d'enseignement de l'orthographe lexicale. Ces auteurs précisent le nombre de recherches documentées. Ils indiquent aussi les types de participants et les facteurs à l'étude des textes scientifiques choisis. L'ensemble de ces renseignements méthodologiques est d'une importance essentielle à la compréhension des données présentées. Cet exemple d'analyse de présentation et de synthèse d'écrits scientifiques intègre des qualités quant à son contenu méthodologique de sorte que le lecteur peut avoir des renseignements sur la méthode de recherche documentaire et la méthode d'analyse des textes scientifiques au regard des critères des études retenues : caractéristiques des participants, méthodes de collecte de données (instrument ou mesure), devis de recherche (corrélative ou expérimental) et le type de données, ici quantitatives. Cette méta-analyse a comme limite de recenser que les études de quelques devis de recherche et se restreint aux données quantitatives.

2.2.2 Rappeler les méthodologies des études primaires

Sans être explicite, mais indicatif, la stratégie de rappel de certains aspects méthodologiques des études offre plusieurs avantages tant pour la compréhension des données qui sont analysées, présentées et synthétisées, mais aussi mène à soulever des points forts (apports) et des limites méthodologiques des études.

L'étude descriptive de Moreau, Dumais, Nolin, Villeneuve- Lapointe et Stanké (2018) visait à étudier le lexique des mots de manuels scolaires que les élèves du primaire sont exposés afin de décrire les caractéristiques linguistiques de ce répertoire de mots scolaires, incluant une échelle d'acquisition de ces mots auprès d'élèves québécois. Selon une perspective linguistique, la méthodologie a mené dans un premier temps à répertorier dans une base de données informatique les mots d'un corpus de manuels scolaires, dont des livres de littérature de jeunesse auxquels les élèves du primaire sont exposés puis, dans un second temps, à analyser les caractéristiques de ces mots. En parallèle à ces analyses de mots, des dictées ont été réalisées auprès d'élèves du primaire (1re à 6e année) pour établir l'âge de maitrise lexicale

de mots. Le plan d'analyse est mixte, il comporte des analyses qualitatives descriptives du lexique scolaire de mots et une analyse de données descriptives quantitatives de la maitrise des mots orthographiés selon l'âge. L'une des limites de l'étude réside dans le corpus restreint de matériels scolaires (livres) documentés, malgré le fait que ce corpus intègre des livres de différents domaines d'apprentissage; d'autres limites sont nommées, dont le faible nombre de participants pour établir l'échelle d'acquisition de l'orthographe lexicale. Plusieurs contributions sont expliquées, dont l'apport à la planification de l'enseignement de l'orthographe selon les groupes d'âge.

Outre le lexique scolaire comme objet d'étude, plusieurs recherches qualitatives s'intéressent aux pratiques enseignantes. L'étude qualitative interprétative de Charron, Montésinos-Gelet et Morin (2009) visait à décrire et à catégoriser les pratiques déclarées en orthographes approchées d'enseignants de la maternelle. Avant de commencer la collecte de données, les cinq enseignantes participant à la recherche ont suivi une formation d'un an sur les orthographes approchées à raison d'une rencontre par mois. Un entretien téléphonique hebdomadaire permettait de documenter les pratiques mises en œuvre à l'aide d'un canevas et d'un référentiel des objectifs éducatifs. L'analyse des données consiste en une analyse par thèmes émergeants des données qualitatives. Les résultats de recherche décrivent avec précision la mise en œuvre d'une pratique (orthographes approchées) acquise lors de cette formation : similitudes et différences ont été décrites. Par contre, aucune donnée n'explique l'effet de cette pratique d'enseignement sur l'apprentissage de l'orthographe : il s'agit d'une limite qui devra être comblée par d'autres études. Aussi, malgré son apport à comprendre comment la pratique des orthographes approchées est mise en application, elle a une portée limitée de transfert en raison du peu de participants et de la nature euristique de celles-ci.

D'autres recherches, dont l'enquête quantitative de Fresch (2007), visent des corrélations simples entre différents facteurs associés à l'acquisition de l'orthographe lexicale. Cette enquête réalisée aux États-Unis s'adressait aux enseignants de la première à la cinquième année du primaire. Un questionnaire, ciblant les pratiques pédagogiques en orthographe des enseignants et leurs croyances de l'enseignement de l'orthographe, a été envoyé à un échantillon aléatoire d'enseignants de l'ensemble des États-Unis à partir de critères. Les résultats ont permis de faire des corrélations simples entre leurs croyances et leurs pratiques déclarées en orthographe. Cette recherche dresse un portrait de pratiques en orthographe lexicale déclarées par des enseignants sur l'ensemble du territoire américain. Par contre, elle n'a pas permis de trianguler les données déclarées par les enseignants avec des observations ou des entretiens. Bien que les enseignants déclarent des pratiques qu'ils mettent en place, l'enquête n'a pas permis de documenter leur mise en œuvre.

Enfin, d'autres études primaires ont comme objectif de vérifier l'effet probant d'une intervention ou d'une pratique sur l'apprentissage de l'orthographe. C'est notamment le cas de l'étude de St-Pierre, Dubé et Croteau (2017) qui a comme objectif de documenter les effets spécifiques à court et moyen terme de deux programmes d'entrainement de l'orthographe (volet morphologique) sur le développement des habiletés en conscience morphologique, en lecture et en orthographe d'enfants de 7 à 8 ans ayant des difficultés en lecture et en écriture. Au niveau méthodologique, il s'agit d'un devis clinique randomisé. D'approche linguistique et éducative, deux programmes d'interventions ont été élaborés par des orthophonistes; ceux-ci respectaient les principes et connaissances scientifiques actuels. Les progrès des élèves ont été documentés à l'aide de mesures métalinguistiques et de langage écrit; ces progrès ont été évalués à la suite de l'intervention ainsi que 6 et 12 mois après la fin de l'intervention. Les résultats ont montré que l'intervention en conscience morphologique a mené à une amélioration significative et durable des performances en orthographe et qu'il est possible de mettre en place une intervention intensive en milieu scolaire. L'une des limites méthodologiques concerne le devis clinique à cas unique; ce type de recherche devra être repris dans plusieurs autres situations similaires pour vérifier si ces programmes ont un effet attendu sur les apprentissages pour envisager un possible transféré dans d'autres contextes. Par contre, l'un des apports réside dans la tendance des résultats positifs de ces programmes sur l'apprentissage : ce qui démontre une certaine efficacité des pratiques qui sont décrites dans ces programmes.

La recherche quasi-expérimentale réalisée par l'étude de Marin, Lavoie et Sirois (2015) a le même objectif de vérifier l'effet probant d'une intervention sur l'apprentissage de l'orthographe, c'est-à-dire l'influence de l'approche intégrée et différenciée sur le développement de la compétence à orthographier d'élèves typiques (sans difficulté) et de ceux présentant des difficultés en orthographe. Par contre, la méthodologie adoptée consiste en un devis quasi-expérimental dont le groupe expérimental d'élèves

bénéficiait de l'approche intégrée et différenciée. Une formation sur cette approche a été offerte aux enseignants des classes expérimentales avant la collecte de données. Des mesures, dictées lacunaires et productions écrites, ont été réalisées par les élèves des groupes aux étapes de pré et de post interventions. L'intervention d'approche intégrée et différenciée a été appliquée pendant douze semaines par les enseignants des classes expérimentales. Les résultats de recherche suggèrent que le développement de la compétence orthographique des élèves du groupe expérimental a davantage progressé que celui des élèves du groupe témoin et que cette différence est significative. Les résultats montrent également que les élèves en difficulté ont progressé et que la différence entre leurs résultats et ceux des autres élèves du groupe expérimental n'est pas significative. Même si l'effet significatif de ces interventions intégrées et différenciées suggère un effet positif probant sinon certain sur l'apprentissage, peu ou pas de renseignement sur l'équivalence des deux groupes reste un facteur qui limite la portée de cette conclusion. D'autres études similaires devraient être réalisées et ainsi combler ces limites d'équivalence des groupes, de précisions quant aux interventions (intensité, entre autres) et des caractéristiques des élèves en difficulté. Une des contributions importantes concerne l'effet positif des interventions ou pratiques enseignantes d'approche intégrée et différenciée. Ce type de recherche permet ainsi d'éprouver l'efficacité de certaines pratiques sur cet apprentissage.

3. Discussion sur les apports et les limites de ces recherches recensées

Les contributions de ces recherches, qui se caractérisent par un pluralisme méthodologique représentent une richesse; ce qui est possible de constater lors des regroupements et lors du choix stratégique de préciser des aspects méthodologiques des articles recensés. Ces stratégies de rédaction d'une synthèse d'écrits scientifiques permettent de nuancer leur apport et de porter un jugement critique. Une recension intégrative des écrits scientifiques, dont la ou les question(s) renvoient à diverses méthodologies, offre un portrait global de l'état d'avancement des connaissances sur de l'objet à l'étude, tant théorique qu'empirique. Ces méthodologies documentent des données issues de recherches qui sont de nature euristique, de données d'évidences (probantes) et des données factuelles. Les prochaines sections ouvrent sur une discussion générale qu'il est possible de dégager d'une telle démarche de recension intégrative des écrits, particulièrement quant à la nature des données synthétisées.

3.1 Données euristiques et descriptives

Les méthodologies de collecte de données descriptives (données qualitatives, quantitatives et corrélationnelles), dont l'analyse de documents, l'observation, l'entretien, l'enquête descriptive, ou l'étude de cas, sont riches en données, pour décrire, expliquer et faire des liens simples entre les éléments d'un objet d'étude, et aussi, rendre compte de données dites euristiques[2], entre autres. Ainsi, les données euristiques et descriptives sont utiles pour décrire et pour mieux comprendre un phénomène et pour décrire des liens entre les composantes (facteurs) qui décrivent cet objet d'étude. Dans le cadre des recherches présentées, l'utilisation d'entretiens a permis, dans celle de Charron, Montésinos-Gelet et Morin (2009), de documenter la mise en œuvre d'une pratique spécifique, les orthographes approchées, à la suite d'une formation reçue et a mené à une meilleure compréhension de la mise en œuvre de cette pratique, bien que les données ne soient pas généralisables. La recherche de Moreau et ses collaborateurs (2018) a permis de décrire qualitativement des mots que les élèves doivent acquérir (objet) et mène à une meilleure compréhension de l'objet (mots). Enfin, l'enquête effectuée par Fresch (2007) a permis de décrire les pratiques déclarées d'un échantillon d'enseignants représentatif de l'ensemble du territoire des États-Unis et d'effectuer des corrélations simples entre les variables étudiées afin de comprendre le lien entre elles : les résultats permettent de mieux comprendre ces pratiques et les facteurs influents.

3.2 Données d'évidence (probantes)

Des résultats de recherche s'appuient sur les données quantitatives dont les protocoles de recherche sont de types à cas unique, à groupes témoins ou à groupes expérimentaux, ou des protocoles de recherche longitudinale. C'est à la fin du 19e siècle, que les premiers textes qui expliquent que l'éducation traditionnelle par essai et erreur (intuitive) a été remplacée par l'utilisation de connaissances scientifiques

[2]Le qualificatifd'euristiquedésignetoute nouvelle connaissancen'ayant pas étéétudiée.

rigoureuses et objectives sur le processus d'apprentissage et sur les élèves (Baillargeon, 2014). Essentiellement, il s'agit de données probantes, dont les méthodologies ont pour objectif de faire des liens explicites de l'effet d'un/des facteur(s) sur un/d'autre(s) par une méthodologie qui permet d'appliquer certains contrôles. En éducation, entre autres, plusieurs recherches ont été réalisées pour établir l'effet d'approches, de méthodes, de pratiques enseignantes ou d'enseignement sur l'apprentissage; ces facteurs sont nommés par certains auteurs « effet d'enseignement » (Bissonnette, Richard et Gauthier, 2010). En somme, les données d'évidence (probantes) désignent un lien solide entre des facteurs à l'étude. Le résultat d'une pratique, dont l'efficacité a été démontrée par son effet ou un lien hors de tout doute sur les progrès d'apprentissage d'élèves, s'appuie sur une méthodologie expérimentale. Celle-ci correspond à des données quantitatives collectées selon un protocole quasi-expérimental ou expérimental et un traitement statistique qui confirme un lien d'effet (Bissonnette *et al.*, 2010).

Les recherches avec des protocoles quasi-expérimentaux ou expérimentaux sont difficiles à réaliser dans le domaine de l'éducation, en raison de différents facteurs, dont les coûts, la difficulté sinon l'impossibilité de rencontrer les exigences de protocoles expérimentaux ou même quasi-expérimentaux, en raison de facteurs éthiques, des difficultés liées aux mesures des variables dépendantes qui sont très diversifiées et difficilement comparable entre elles. La recherche de Marin et ses collaborateurs (2015) est un exemple d'une recherche quasi-expérimentale. Les résultats de l'étude montrent l'effet probant d'une intervention (l'approche intégrée et différenciée) sur l'acquisition de l'orthographe lexicale tout comme la recherche de Saint-Pierre et ses collaborateurs (2017) qui montre l'effet probant de deux programmes d'entrainement de l'orthographe. Toutefois le nombre limité de participants entrainent une limite quant à la portée de ces résultats et de ces pratiques sur l'apprentissage de l'orthographe lexicale.

3.3 Données factuelles sur les pratiques ou pratiques factuelles

Certaines recherches réalisées comportent une méthodologie complexe avec plusieurs objectifs et méthodes qui étudient diverses dimensions d'un objet d'étude. Ces méthodologies renvoient au concept de données factuelles sur les pratiques. Ce concept « données/pratiques factuelles » a davantage été développé dans les disciplines médicales. Selon le Commitee on Quality of Health Care in America Institute of Medecine (2001), la pratique factuelle intègre trois types de données : a) les données d'évidences (probantes/meilleures) issues de la recherche, b) les données issues de l'expertise clinique et c) celles liées aux valeurs des participants. Selon Sackett, Rosenberg, Muir Gray, Haynes et Richardson (1996), aucune de ces données seules, données d'évidences, celles de l'expertise clinique et celles des participants, n'est suffisante. Appliquées en éducation, la pratique factuelle intègrerait en quelque sorte les données d'évidentes de la recherche, celles issues de l'expertise du personnel enseignant – praticiens/intervenants et celles liées aux apprenants – réussite d'apprentissage. Selon Schlosser et Raghavendra (2004), la perspective des parties prenantes (stakeholders) est importante à intégrer aux données d'évidences de la recherche, celles de l'expertise terrain et celles de l'apprenant particulièrement en contexte de diffusion de résultats de recherche. Qui plus est, les pratiques factuelles réfèrent en quelque sorte en une combinaison des données qui dressent un portrait plus large entourant l'utilisation de données issues de la recherche. Bien que des recherches traitant de ces trois aspects en orthographe puissent être recensées (Villeneuve-Lapointe, 2019), il semblerait qu'aucune recherche n'a permis leur analyse croisée. Il s'agit d'un défi à relever de la recherche en éducation.

En éducation, force est de constater que ce concept de pratiques factuelles est récent et, aussi, celui de pratiques supportées empiriquement par la recherche : données probantes (d'évidence) (empirically supported treatments). Contrairement à la pratique factuelle, les pratiques/interventions supportées empiriquement n'incluent pas le contexte de l'expertise et l'expérience des personnels scolaires, enseignants et professionnels (Duncan et Reese, 2013). Ces derniers auteurs précisent que les pratiques supportées empiriquement mettent l'accent sur le programme et l'intervention et non sur les acteurs de l'éducation qui donnent et reçoivent un enseignement pour les actualiser. Pour certains auteurs, dont Hammersley (2001), la critique à l'égard de l'importance accordée aux données d'évidences issues de la recherche au détriment du jugement professionnel va possiblement expliquer le manque d'amélioration de la performance des élèves et de leur réussite en apprentissage. Pour Cook, Smith et Tankersley (2012), il faut aussi reconnaitre l'importance du rehaussement de l'expérience professionnelle qui doit être conjugué aux pratiques factuelles pour bonifier l'efficacité des interventions en éducation. Dans le même sens, pour

Hammersley (2001) un des dangers concerne l'utilisation des données d'évidences de la recherche au détriment de l'expérience professionnelle. Ce dernier prétend que l'usage des données d'évidences seul ne mènera pas à une amélioration la qualité de l'enseignement, mais plutôt à sa dégradation.

Puisque la compréhension des données d'évidence peut influencer les différentes prises de position des acteurs de l'éducation et de son acceptation sociale, l'implantation par les différents acteurs dans le milieu de l'éducation de pratiques factuelles peut également faire l'objet d'une méconnaissance et, inévitablement, de critiques. Cela s'explique entre autres par des prises de position, dont les définitions de données d'évidence et de la pratique factuelle de certains auteurs ne correspondent pas à celles qui sont généralement utilisées dans les milieux de la recherche ou de la pratique. L'absence de consensus sur ces termes a des conséquences sur la recherche et aussi sur les positions des acteurs du milieu de la pratique en éducation. Somme toute, il est important de poursuivre les recherches sur les données d'évidences et sur les pratiques factuelles pour expliquer leurs contributions, mais aussi les limites.

4. Conclusion

Cet article a présenté des exemples de recherches provenant de recensions antérieures et d'études primaires illustrant les différents objets d'étude spécifiquement liés à l'orthographe. Cette présentation a permis d'illustrer certaines stratégies de rédaction et les apports ainsi que les limites de diverses méthodologies employées dans ces recherches antérieures. Une connaissance approfondie de celles-ci permet de saisir la porter des résultats et de déterminer les recherches futures à envisager. Des controverses concernant les données d'évidences font débat et persistent puisqu'elles soulèvent les fondements épistémologiques et ontologiques de l'éducation (Biesta, 2010; Clegg, 2005). Les recherches futures et la diffusion de ces données d'évidence doivent expliquer, nuancer davantage les apports de ces données de recherches euristiques - descriptives, d'évidences et factuelles, malgré les limites qui entourent celles-ci.

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Partnering with Parents in Support of Student Persistence in Canadian Higher Education

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Abstract: Student persistence is a challenge in Canadian higher education. Fortunately, parent involvement can encourage students to persist in their post-secondary studies. The following paper recommends that Canadian higher education institutions partner with parents of students by informing students and their parents of the realities of student persistence via program switches, school transfers, leaves of absence, withdrawal and re-enrollment (plan Bs). In partnering with parents of students, Canadian higher education institutions may help students to obtain the additional support they need to persist via alternative credential completion pathways.

Keywords: Student Persistence, Parent Involvement, Parent Participation, Parent or Family Engagement, Supporters of Students

Not all post-secondary students in Canada are able to persist through their studies to graduation. Working in Canadian higher education, I have witnessed this unpleasant reality first-hand and have often asked what more can be done to help students persist. Unfortunately, in researching student persistence, I have found no consensus in the literature as to why some students persist while others struggle and eventually withdraw from their post-secondary studies.

Students withdraw from higher education for a variety of reasons and due to a multiplicity of factors. Canadian students have described withdrawing from their post-secondary studies due to (a) a lack of financial resources, (b) a wish to change education programs, and (c) due to feelings of mismatch between themselves and their studies (Finnie & Qiu, 2008; Martinello, 2008). However, my review of the literature on parent involvement in higher education suggests that parents can help students persist in their post-secondary studies.

In the following position paper, I describe both parent involvement and student persistence in the context of Canadian higher education. I argue that parent involvement can be helpful in encouraging student persistence in higher education, particularly if a student's journey to graduation includes persisting via an alternative credential completion pathway. Throughout this paper, I refer to students who persist via an alternative credential completion pathway, as embarking upon a plan B, which may include program switches, school transfers, leaves of absence, withdrawal and re-enrollment. I recommend Canadian higher education institutions inform students and their parents of the realities of plan Bs. Providing parents with information about plan Bs could provide students with additional support for persistence via alternative credential completion pathways.

Parent Involvement and Student Persistence in Canadian Higher Education

To discuss persistence and parent involvement, it is necessary to first define what is meant by parent involvement and student persistence as well as describe and discuss the significance of parent involvement and student persistence in the Canadian higher education context.

What is Parent Involvement?

Below, I elaborate on the term parent involvement with the purpose of explaining my own angle and intention, which is to promote inclusivity and to not take the term's meaning for granted. I also offer my own definition, but first defer to descriptions of parent involvement found in the literature.

At the most basic level, parent involvement has been described as an act (Goodall & Montgomery 2014; Trotman, 2001). Auerbach (2007) defined parent involvement as the wide range of implicit and explicit actions of parents of students. Specifically, Auerbach described parent involvement as "parents taking deliberate steps," both at home and at school, to support students (p. 561). Auerbach also referred to parent involvement as a form of social capital. In the academic literature, references to parent involvement as a form of social capital are frequent (Auerbach, 2007; Bers, 2005; Nichols & Islas, 2016; Perna & Titus, 2005).

Defining parent involvement as a form of social capital accounts for the multiple ways in which parents can be positive resources to students (Perna & Titus, 2005). Perna and Titus explained, "like other forms of capital" parent involvement is a "resource that students may draw upon as needed to enhance productivity […] facilitate upward mobility […] and realize economic returns" (p. 488). As a form of social capital, parent involvement is both visible and invisible (Auerbach, 2007). For example, parent involvement in the lives of post-secondary students can be observed when parents attend on-campus tours with prospective students, assist students in researching post-secondary programs and provide financial assistance to students enrolled in higher education. Student descriptions of how their parents' expectations and family values influence them, and accounts of the emotional support students receive from family members suggests that invisible forms of parent involvement also have a significant impact on student success.

In addition, there is considerable debate within the literature about what, exactly, the term parent involvement means and represents in regards to students' education. Several authors have rationalized the use of alternative terms in describing the behaviours of parents of students. For example, Durisic and Bunijevac (2017) preferred the term parent participation to parent involvement. Durisic and Bunijevac claimed that the term parent participation does not convey any assumptions about how parents ought to behave and what they should or should not do when supporting their students' education.

Similarly, Goodall and Montgomery (2014) alluded that the term parent involvement presents a narrow view of parents' actions and behaviours in terms of their students' education. Goodall and Montgomery reasoned that engagement is a more inclusive word than involvement and preferred to use parent engagement to represent the involvement practices of parents in students' education. They explained that parent engagement not only represents acts within schools, it also represents what parents do in support of student learning at home. Goodall and Montgomery stressed that the term parent engagement reflects that parents do not have to be involved directly in the school environment in order to be engaged in and supportive of their students' learning.

Kiyama and Harper (2018) also claimed that the term parent involvement represents a limited view of the relationships between students and their parents. Kiyama and Harper preferred the term family engagement to parent involvement. They claimed that using the term engagement to describe parenting actions and behaviours offers a better representation of the multiple ways that parents and other family members are engaged in the lives of post-secondary students. In particular, Kiyama and Harper cautioned that the term, parent involvement, fails to acknowledge the "diversity of parents" and the multiple ways in which parents are engaged in students' education (p. 371). For example, the term parent involvement often represents "a heteronormative, White ideal" in which the "normative family unit is seen as never-divorced, two (opposite sex) parents with two children" of moderate wealth (p. 369). Kiyama and Harper also claimed that the term parent involvement insinuates a preference for "traditional" involvement behaviours in which parents of post-secondary students are primarily defined as "sources of tuition revenue" (p. 368).

Furthermore, Kiyama and Harper highlighted that the term parent involvement in higher education often refers to a need for students to distance themselves from their parents' invasive, intrusive and overprotective involvement. To illustrate, they discussed the frequent and problematic implied association that parent involvement in higher education is helicopter parenting. Kiyama and Harper explained that parents who are involved in the lives of post-secondary students are regularly and negatively characterized "as hovering over and prepared to intervene on behalf of their adult children" (p. 368). However, such characterizations overlook that, in many circumstances of parent involvement, it is the post-secondary students themselves who request their parents' involvement because they value the social and emotional support that their families can provide. Hence, negative connotations associated with the term parent involvement can inhibit its use as a term to accurately and inclusively describe the wide range of diverse parenting behaviours and actions in support of post-secondary students.

In discussing how parent involvement has been defined in the context of higher education, considerable complexities and variations in the term's meaning have been uncovered. Throughout this position paper, I have used the term parent involvement to represent the involvement of parents and family members in the lives of prospective and enrolled post-secondary students. However, I acknowledge that I must be inclusive and reserve judgment when describing parent involvement in higher education. Thus, I define whom parent represents when the term parent involvement is used in the context of higher education as best determined by students. In my view, parent is a

figurative word defined by the student, depending on the relationships in their life. Parents are whomever the student identifies as playing a parental role in their lives. Hence, according to students, who their parent(s) is/are could be their biological or non-biological Mom(s) or Dad(s), legal guardian(s) or caregiver(s), extended family member(s) (grandparents, aunts, uncles, etc.), a trusted elder in their community or perhaps even a close friend, neighbor and/or confidant whom the student trusts and knows that they can rely on for support during their post-secondary studies.

In regards to the meaning of the word involvement in parent involvement in higher education, I acknowledge that the behaviours and actions of parents in support of students are explicit and implicit. I understand the word involvement to be an open and inclusive term that represents all visible and invisible behaviours and actions of parents in relation to students' higher education. When I refer to parent involvement, I am not referring to a prescribed or a narrow list of what is unacceptable involvement versus what is acceptable involvement in the lives of post-secondary students. Rather, I believe that it is up to post-secondary students to determine the validity of the parent involvement in their lives. I use the term parent involvement to describe any and all parental involvement, observable or otherwise. I understand the word involvement in parent involvement as representing all behaviours, actions and nuances of parents in their relationships with post-secondary students.

I also refer to parent involvement with an acknowledgement that it is not universal or static and that it can mean different things to different people in different contexts. Parent involvement is unique, diverse, complex and ever evolving, as are the individuals involved. Therefore, no definition of parent involvement I could ever present would accurately describe all the intricacies of the relationships between students and their parents in the context of higher education. The most accurate definition of parent involvement in higher education is how students and their parents define it for themselves.

Parent Involvement in Canadian Higher Education

Much of the academic literature describing parent involvement in post-secondary education is based on American higher education. Kiyama & Harper (2018) claimed that "over 90% of college campuses" in the U.S. offer parent or family programming in acknowledgement of parent involvement in the lives of post-secondary students (p. 375). In terms of the programming offered to parents/families of students, Savage and Petree's (2015) analysis of the National Survey of College and University Parent Programs (NSCUPP) revealed that the most common services offered by American higher education institutions were parent websites/social media, parent newsletters, email/phone numbers for parent questions, parent orientations and on-campus parent/family social events.

The results of the NSCUPP are helpful in understanding what American higher education institutions have done in response to parent involvement. Unfortunately, I have not found similar data describing parent involvement programs in Canadian higher education. However, an indication of parent involvement within Canadian higher education may be gathered from the work of Stelmach and von Wolff (2010). Stelmach and von Wolff conducted a document analysis of parent involvement related content (in print and online) published by eight universities located in western Canada. In their study, they described the involvement of parents in the lives of Canadian university students as common. Stelmach and von Wolff also described Canadian universities as organizing "parent orientation and other programs and services… to provide parents with information" (p. 61).

Anecdotal evidence suggests that many higher education institutions in Canada have taken steps to acknowledge the involvement of parents in the lives of students. A simple online search yields numerous examples of Canadian higher education institutions that offer information for parents of students. It appears that at many Canadian higher education institutions, it is common practice to welcome parents to join prospective students on campus tours and to offer online information to students and their supporters. For example, at the University of Toronto (UofT), parents of prospective students are generally welcomed during on-campus tours and at program information sessions. UofT's Enrollment Services also offers a guide for parents of prospective and enrolled students on student financial planning and support. When students are enrolled, the UofT Student Life Department's Parents and Family webpage offers information and resources that parents can use to support student success at university. In addition, the Student Life Department also welcomes parents of enrolled students to attend Family and Support Information Sessions. Thus, while scholarly evidence to describe parent involvement in the Canadian higher education context is limited, it is likely that some information and/or programming for parents/families of students is currently being offered at post-secondary institutions in Canada.

What is Student Persistence?

In order to discuss persistence and parent involvement, it is necessary to define student persistence in the context of Canadian higher education. I begin by clarifying that definitions of student persistence in the context of higher education vary. The academic literature offers several explanations of what exactly student persistence is. As well, Canadian higher education institutions often use different values when calculating their internal rates of student persistence. Further, it is likely that post-secondary students themselves differ in terms of how they define their own persistence in comparison to their peers.

Attending and completing post-secondary education involves a series of extraordinarily complex decisions (Mueller, 2008). For example, students through the course of their post-secondary education may choose to abandon their initial route of study in order to change programs or to study at a different institution (Finnie & Qiu, 2008). As Hagedorn (2012) explained, persistence is not always clear because, depending on a student's path, they may be considered a graduate at one institution and a dropout at another. Thus, establishing how to define student persistence is central to any discussion regarding parent involvement and student persistence in Canadian higher education.

In my work, research, and writing, I use Mortenson's (2012) and Mueller's (2008) definitions of student persistence in higher education. Mortenson (2012) explained persistence as "the many ways students move through the education pipeline" (p. 35). Mueller (2008) explained that persistence in higher education includes any activities in which students make progress towards graduation. Hence, I define student persistence in the context of Canadian higher education as the multiple ways in which enrolled post-secondary students progress towards the goal of graduating and earning a credential from a higher education institution.

Student Persistence in Canadian Higher Education

While much of the research conducted on the topic of student persistence in higher education is American based, Statistics Canada's Youth in Transition Survey Cohort B (YITS-B) dataset can be used to explore persistence in the Canadian context (Finnie & Qiu, 2008; Martinello, 2008; Mueller, 2008). The YITS-B tracked a sample of Canadian students from their point of entry into post-secondary education and through various higher education pathways in order to gather information on student persistence over a five-year period (Finnie & Qiu, 2008). This included tracking student behaviors such as switches across programs, withdrawals from and returns to post-secondary education.

According to the YITS-B dataset, the reasons Canadian post-secondary students shared about why they decided to withdraw from higher education included (a) in order to change schools or programs, (b) because I did not like it/not for me, and (c) to not enough money to continue (Finnie & Qiu, 2008; Martinello, 2008). In analyzing the dataset, Mueller (2008) found that Canadian students who withdrew were most likely to leave post-secondary education during their first two years of study. Mueller also found that many students who withdrew from their post-secondary studies eventually returned to and graduated from higher education later in life.

Finnie and Qiu (2008) in their analysis of the YITS-B dataset found that only 50 percent of Canadian college and university students graduated from their program of entry. Persistence rates for first year Canadian college students indicated that 25.8 percent withdrew from their initial program of study by the end of their first year, while 18 percent of Canadian university students withdrew from their initial program by the end of their first year. However, Finnie and Qiu also reported that, of the students who withdrew from their initial post-secondary program, more than half either switched to another program immediately or returned to higher education within a few years. Martinello (2008) reported that 10 percent of students who left their original program of entry did go on to graduate through enrollment in a second choice of program.

In addition, when Finnie and Qiu (2008) analyzed the YITS-B dataset to determine the percentage of Canadian students who had completed a post-secondary credential over the five-year period of the survey, and included those who left their initial program of study but graduated from a second program, student graduation rates rose from 56.5 percent to 73.1 percent for college students and from 52.1 percent to 69.4 percent for university. Further, when Finnie and Qiu calculated the total persistence of the Canadian post-secondary students tracked by the YITS-B and

included enrolled post-secondary students who were still working towards program completion, the results revealed that 82 percent of students who initially entered higher education via college and 89.9 percent of the students who initially entered via university, reported that they had either graduated or were still enrolled and persisting in their post-secondary studies.

Thus, for many Canadian post-secondary students, their path of persistence is not a direct one. Finnie and Qiu's (2008), Martinello's (2008) and Mueller's (2008) findings suggest that student persistence is a challenge. However, enrollment in a second choice of program provides an important pathway for student persistence in Canadian higher education. Therefore, tackling the challenge of student persistence in Canadian higher education may lie in helping students to persist through alternative credential completion pathways: plan Bs, in which students persist by switching programs, changing institutions or even taking a leave of absence or withdrawing but eventually returning to school, and ultimately graduating from higher education.

The Importance of Student Persistence and Parent Involvement in Higher Education

Regardless of why students choose to withdraw, persisting in post-secondary education is important for student success in the present and for the future. For many students, not persisting to graduation will have negative and lifelong consequences. Students who do not graduate may forgo the social and financial benefits often associated with having a post-secondary credential. As well, not graduating can leave an unintended generational legacy, since children of post-secondary graduates are more likely to graduate from higher education themselves (Hagedorn, 2012).

Additionally, student persistence is also important to discuss because it impacts higher education institutions. Chronic or widespread internal persistence problems can look bad on an institution's reputation and potentially deter enrolment. In higher education, student persistence has been described as a system-wide challenge (Mortenson, 2012). Mortenson claimed that even the most selective institutions struggle with student persistence. This is likely one of the reasons why there is a substantial body of literature examining students' progress through higher education (Martinello, 2008; Morrison & Silverman, 2012).

However, declines in student persistence are not always associated with a particular individual or institutional challenge. In recent history, institutions have seen waves of persistence and withdrawal in association with social, economic and political trends. For example, the 1960s and 1970s saw increases in temporary student withdrawal due to the counterculture, drop out and drop in, movement (Tinto, 1993). Further, the economic climate of the 1980's recession prompted many students to stay in school in the face of high unemployment (Tinto, 1993). Recent declines in government funding for post-secondary education in many regions throughout Canada and associated increases in higher education tuition fees may be preventing some students from persisting today (Mueller, 2008).

Nonetheless, when students do not graduate, society as a whole can feel the negative repercussions associated with a lack of persistence. Fewer graduates may result in a labour market challenged to find the skilled workers needed to meet the demands of the knowledge-based economy (Hagedorn, 2012). Hence, how to help students persist through Canadian higher education is an important area of concern; one which warrants further discussion and study. Fortunately, parent involvement has the potential to promote student persistence**.**

The academic literature suggests that student persistence in Canadian higher education may be improved by promoting strong connections between students and their parents. This thought may seem counterintuitive, since higher education in Canada and the United States is often associated with transition and separation between students and their parents. Tinto (1993) described students as breaking away from their parents and past communities as they enter into higher education. Tinto claimed that breaking away is necessary in order for post-secondary students to successfully transition and fully embrace life on-campus. However, my review of the literature has suggested that Tinto's prescription does not reflect what is optimal for all students nor does it reflect the reality of parent involvement in higher education today. I argue that by partnering with parents of students, Canadian higher education institutions can promote greater student persistence and success. To elaborate, below I have recommended how institutions can partner with parents in order to promote student persistence in Canadian higher education.

Recommendation

Below I describe why Canadian higher education institutions should partner with parents to support student persistence. I argue that Canadian higher education institutions can support student persistence by educating students and their parents about alternative credential completion pathways, which may include persistence via program switches, school transfers, leaves of absence, withdrawal and re-enrollment. I refer to students who persist via alternative credential completion pathways as embarking upon a plan B.

Plan Bs are important ways in which many Canadian students persist. I argue that a key element in improving student persistence in Canada may lie in providing students with additional resources they can use to persist via a plan B. Thus, in addition to highlighting the most direct pathways of credential completion, Canadian higher education institutions should also share information with students and their parents about persistence via plan Bs. Specifically, I recommend that Canadian higher education institutions share information with both students and their parents about the realities of student persistence via plan Bs, during program information sessions, in school publications, and on institutional websites for parents.

As previously discussed, for approximately 50 percent of Canadian college and university students the path of persistence is not a direct one (Finnie & Qiu, 2008). Martinello (2008) estimated that half of Canadian university and college students do not graduate from their first program of entry. However, Martinello also estimated that 10 percent of students do graduate through enrolment in a second choice of program. The importance of plan Bs to student persistence in Canada is also illustrated by the YITS-B dataset which reported that the second most common response from students as to why they left higher education was that they wanted "to change schools or programs" (Finnie & Qiu, 2008, p. 193). Hence, the reality is that many Canadian students do not persist in their original course of study, but do in fact graduate by following a plan B.

Fortunately, my review of the literature on parent involvement has suggested that institutions can partner with parents to assist students in navigating the various paths of persistence in higher education. Sharing information about plan Bs with students, as well as parents, is essential because the frequency of persistence via alternative pathways may surprise those who have only heard about, considered and/or experienced credential completion via one post-secondary pathway. For example, when Bers and Galowich (2002) surveyed parents of students it was found that many parents had incomplete or inaccurate information about post-secondary education. Bers and Galowich concluded that when higher education institutions communicate with prospective post-secondary students it is essential that they seek to inform parents of students as well.

Having additional knowledge of the intricacies of persistence can help students tremendously, especially in parts of Canada where navigating credential completion pathways between higher education institutions can be complex. For example, student transfers between post-secondary institutions are more common and easily navigated in some provincial/territorial jurisdictions than in others. For instance, the practice of students transferring from a two-year to a four-year post-secondary institution is common in British Columbia, and transfers into university after graduating from a Collège d'enseignement général et professionnel is considered the norm in Quebec (Martinello, 2008). Conversely, in provinces like Ontario, Canada's most populous province, student transfers between post-secondary institutions are less common. In general, Ontario students who wish to persist through an institutional transfer most often do so through a program specific pathway and/or through an articulation agreement between individual institutions.

Consequently, there is a need for Canadian higher education institutions to share information about the ambiguities of persistence with both students and their parents. Especially, in jurisdictions where there is no precedence of system-wide higher education articulation; such as is the case in the province of Ontario. In Ontario, it has been my experience that student transfer requests are often assessed on a case-by-case basis, according to specific institutional policies and/or articulation agreements. Hence, students who would like to switch higher education institutions may find this alternative pathway to persistence difficult to navigate. Nevertheless, educating both students and their parents about the various paths of persistence could provide Canadian students with the additional support they require to successfully graduate from higher education.

The literature on parent involvement also suggests that parents can support student persistence through the information they share with students. According to Wartman and Savage (2008) parents can be valuable partners in conveying institutional messages to students. Wartman and Savage claimed that parents of students can reinforce institutional messages in ways that institutions cannot. This claim was also supported by Allen et al. (2009) who, through survey research, revealed that the more institutions of higher education communicated with parents about academic programs, the more information parents retained and shared with students. Hence, the information that parents are exposed to and gather about higher education may directly inform and influence students' persistence decisions.

Further, interviews with first-year students conducted by Awang, Kutty, and Ahmad (2014) indicated that when parents are involved, "students have more positive attitudes and behaviours, stronger motivation and greater participation in university life" (p. 266). Awang et al. stated that some of the students interviewed described their parent(s) as an "academic assistant", especially if their parent(s) had completed a post-secondary education qualification themselves (p. 265). Awang et al. concluded that their study "revealed the powerful influence of parents" on first-year students (p. 266). Consequently, it is not just the information that parents gather that can influence student persistence; parents' own post-secondary education experiences can also be helpful in guiding students as well. In fact, parental guidance may be one reason why students whose parents have attended post-secondary education are more likely to persist.

Moreover, Martinello (2008) deduced from the findings of the YITS-B dataset that the more educated students' parents were, the more likely that the student would attempt a second higher education program if they were unable to persist through their first. Martinello claimed that Canadian students, whose parents had attended higher education, were better able to adjust to adversity and surprises within post-secondary education and as a result these students experienced greater persistence. Wartman and Savage (2008) also reasoned, that "parents who have been to college themselves and know the system" can share their knowledge with students (p. 92). Morrison and Silverman (2012) explained that students whose parents have attended post-secondary education are more likely to persist because parents can help students navigate academic bureaucracy and provide advice when students are faced with challenges during their studies.

Furthermore, it is not only the persistence of first-year post-secondary students that can benefit from parents' involvement. According to interviews with non-freshman transfer students conducted by Flowers, Luzynski and Zamani-Gallaher's (2014), students described their parents as a source of support in the transition from one university into another. Thus, parent involvement is suggested to influence student persistence in higher education even beyond the first year of post-secondary studies.

In addition, parental involvement may be particularly helpful to students who leave higher education and persist via re-enrollment. Students who have withdrawn from their original path of study, although applying for a second time, may nevertheless face barriers as they re-apply. Applying from the outside in, students seeking re-enrollment may not have access to the institutional supports available to those who have chosen to persist via an internal switch of programs or by transferring directly from one institution to another. Parents can serve as important sources of information and support for students who seek to persist via re-enrolment. For example, parents may help former students obtain the information they need to make decisions about re-enrolment. As well, emotional support and encouragement from parents may make the re-enrolment process less stressful for students. Hence, higher education institutions should share information on alternative pathways of student persistence (plan Bs) with students and their parents, since parents can serve as important sources of information and support to students seeking to persist via re-enrolment.

In summation, the academic literature reviewed suggests that for approximately half of Canadian post-secondary students, their path of persistence is not a direct one. Fortunately, the academic literature also suggests that parent involvement can assist students who wish to persist by embarking upon a plan B. Bearing in mind the regularity of student persistence via program switches, school transfers, leaves of absence, withdrawal and re-enrollment, Canadian higher education institutions should provide both students and their parents with information on how students can persist via alternative credential completion pathways (plan Bs).

Parents may be key to improving student persistence in Canadian higher education. Canadian higher education institutions should consider students' parents important partners for promoting student persistence. The information parents are exposed to and gather about higher education can directly inform and influence students' persistence decisions. As well, the social, emotional and financial support of parents can also assist post-secondary students throughout their educational journeys. Therefore, I recommend that during program information sessions, in school publications, and on institutional websites for parents, Canadian higher education institutions should share information with both students and their parents about the realities of student persistence via plan Bs.

Conclusion

In this position paper, I have defined and described both parent involvement and student persistence in Canadian higher education. In particular, I have described the term, parent(s), as best defined by students and have included any actions and/or behaviours in which parent(s) seek to support students as examples of parent involvement. I have also defined student persistence as the multiple ways in which enrolled post-secondary students progress towards the goal of graduating and earning a credential from a higher education institution. Further, in discussing the context of parent involvement and student persistence in post-secondary education, I have outlined how both are significant in Canadian higher education today. Lastly, I have recommended that Canadian higher education institutions support persistence by educating students and their parents about the realities of student persistence via alternative credential completion pathways, Plan Bs, which may include program switches, school transfers, leaves of absence, withdrawal and re-enrollment.

In arguing that parents can be a significant source of support for post-secondary students, I also acknowledge that not all students have parents, nor is it guaranteed that students who do have parents will seek their advice or involvement when persisting in Canadian higher education. I also do not assume that all parental involvement is helpful, nor do I assume that all families are supportive of student aspirations. As noted by Savage (2003), higher education institutions never assume that "every family is loving and caring, because, unfortunately some are not" (p. 52). That said, I do believe that most parents want to support student success in post-secondary education.

Seeking partnerships with parents can remove barriers and help parents who wish to assist students (and are welcomed by students to do so) to offer their support. However, in recommending partnerships with parents of students, I am not suggesting that parent involvement supersede students' autonomy, rights or privacy in Canadian higher education. Instead, I believe there is a middle ground where students' needs for privacy and rights as independent adults can be upheld and respected, and where institutions can harness the potential for parents to serve as an important source of support for students. I believe this middle ground can be found through welcoming interactions with parents of students, sharing information with students and parents, accepting their feedback, and being inclusive to students who wish to reach out to parents for support during their post-secondary education experience. This middle ground is something Canadian higher education institutions should pursue in the name of student success and persistence.

In conclusion, Canadian higher education institutions should not overlook parents of students. Parents as supporters of students are important post-secondary stakeholders and valuable partners in promoting student persistence in Canadian higher education. Higher education institutions should actively seek out ways to partner with parents of students in order to encourage student persistence in Canada. Creating a middle ground where students' needs and rights are respected while, at the same time, parental involvement and support is welcomed, may present a challenge for Canadian higher education institutions. Nevertheless, I believe that the potential for improved student persistence in Canadian higher education is well worth the effort.

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Learning Styles: Moving Forward from the Myth

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Abstract: Learning styles attempt to describe individual differences among students by identifying students' preferences in how they learn, and adapting their learning to accommodate that style. Since their inception, learning styles have gained mass popularity among teachers, researchers, and the public. Numerous assessments and self-help books are available to discover one's individual learning style. Learning styles, however, have been heavily criticized by researchers who contend that learning styles lack evidence supporting their effectiveness and possess unreliable diagnostic tools. I posit that the case against learning styles is not limited to those two claims; in addition, that learning styles outcomes can be associated with confounding factors, and that learning styles may lead to ineffective teaching practices that negatively affect students and teachers. Through evidence-based practices, we can move forward from learning styles and create learning environments that have a greater probability of positive effects.

Keywords: Learning styles, Evidence-based practices, Classroom instruction

The Problem

Learning, in education, refers to the process by which a learner develops skills and/or abilities (Curry, 1983). Learning styles refer to typologies of learning by which students can be categorized, and which also aim to highlight individual differences among learners (Anderson, 2016; Coffield, Moseley, Hall, & Ecclestone, 2004; Curry, 1983). Teachers are often encouraged to assess their students for typology and, in order to create optimal learning environments, adjust their teaching practices accordingly (Anderson, 2016; Coffield et al., 2004; Venkatesan et al., 2018). In turn, students are encouraged to identify their own learning style to maximize their academic achievement (Anderson, 2016; Coffield et al., 2004; Venkatesan et al., 2018). Over the past decades, learning styles have encountered much criticism from researchers due to the weak evidentiary base and limited assessment validity (Papadatou-Pastou, Gritzali, & Barrable, 2018). Yet, learning styles remain to be popular in many classrooms, from primary to graduate levels. I argue that although learning styles are appealing, their continued use may lead to ineffective teaching and research practices. I also offer recommendations for evidence-based alternatives to learning styles in the classroom.

Background

Learning styles were popularized in the 1970s, but they have been present in education literature since the early 20th century (Coffield et al., 2004; Papadatou-Pastou et al., 2018). According to Coffield and colleagues (2004), learning styles first emerged in the United Kingdom, United States, and Europe. Since then, learning styles gained popularity, and have been reportedly used by the majority of teachers throughout the world (Papadatou-Pastou et al., 2018). A vast number of types of learning styles have emerged over time, falling into three categories: theoretical, pedagogical, and commercial styles (Coffield et al., 2004).

Theoretical Learning Styles

This category involves the development and testing of learning styles constructs. Coffield and colleagues' (2004) review of learning styles theory and assessments identified 71 distinct models of learning styles. Of this vast number, the researchers indicated that 13 models are unique models of learning styles, and 58 are slight adaptations of extant models (Coffield et al., 2004). It is possible, however, that more learning styles have emerged since Coffield and colleagues' (2004) publication.

Theory categorization. Curry classified learning styles theories into three categories: instructional preferences, information processing, and cognitive personality style (1983, 1987). Instructional preferences refer to students' desired learning environments (Curry, 1983). Instructional preferences also include attitudes about one's academic programming, lecture delivery, and coursework (Fox, 1984). Information processing learning styles align with our classic understanding of information processing, that is, path of information from one's sensory processes to long-term memory (Curry, 1983). Learning styles theorists posit that individual stylistic differences exist in this information pathway (Curry, 1983). As demonstrated by Curry (1983), cognitive personality styles are rooted in the psychological understanding of personality as persisting behavioural characteristics. Cognitive personality styles describe learning-related persisting behaviours across different educational situations, such as the amount of reflectivity versus impulsivity when problem solving (Curry, 1983). Despite being published several decades ago, Curry's (1983, 1987)

conceptualization remains to be well-cited in more contemporary learning styles texts (e.g., Riding & Rayner, 2013). In newer developments, some theorists argued that learning styles should be combined into larger explanatory models (e.g., Rayner & Riding, 1997).

Pedagogical Learning Styles

Coffield and colleagues (2004) described pedagogical learning styles as those developed for the purpose of teaching and learning. Coffield et al.'s (2004) distinction between theoretical and pedagogical learning styles appears to be that theoretical styles are pure science while pedagogical learning styles aim to practically enhance learning. Pedagogical learning styles are developed and studied by academics in education, psychology, business, among other disciplines (Coffield et al., 2004).

Commercial Learning Styles

Numerous for-profit organizations have developed constructs and assessments for learning styles (Coffield et al., 2004). This includes organizations that develop tools for educators to use in classrooms (Coffield et al., 2004). Coffield and colleagues (2004) also described a significant market for learning styles assessments to be used by managers to help train employees.

Controversy

Support

Many teachers and course designers find learning styles appealing (Coffield et al., 2004). Coffield and colleagues (2004) posited that this this appeal emerged from observations that students learn at different rates than others. What naturally follows is the notion that educators can incorporate students' individual strengths in the learning process, to help them grasp information more quickly and efficiently than cookie-cutter approaches (Coffield et al., 2004; Keefe, 1985). Universal Design for Learning (UDL) aims to create educational environments where all students have equal opportunities to succeed (Gordon, Meyer, & Rose, 2014). In this sense, UDL approaches may embed the notion of learning styles by creating learning experiences that are accessible to all learners, regardless of what learning style they may be attributed with.

Criticisms

Researchers argue that learning styles are not associated with empirical evidence to support their proposed educational outcomes. This lack of evidence may be influenced by the difficulty of measuring learning itself. Moreover, any positive effects of learning styles can be likely attributed to confounding factors, such as the working alliance developed when a teacher takes interest in their students. The risks of using an unsupported technique such as learning styles are significant, and can negatively impact both students and teachers.

Lack of evidence. Given the numerous models that explain learning styles, research on their construct validity is largely fragmented (Coffield et al., 2004; Keefe, 1985). Coffield and colleagues (2004) argued that many learning styles were developed by doctoral students who lacked the resources and capacity to lead large-scale studies to test their theories. As a result, theories and claims for particular learning styles would be limited to the individual characteristics of those small sample sizes, and create difficulties with generalizing those findings to the general population. The authors also identified a lack of interdependent research as a frequent limitation to the generalization of results (Coffield et al., 2004). In terms of dominant learning styles, Coffield and colleagues (2004) argued that none of the well-accepted learning styles they reviewed had been validated through empirical research findings. Largely, researchers agree that learning styles are not supported by evidence (Kirschner, 2017; Pashler, McDonald, Rohrer, & Bjork, 2008; Simmonds, 2014). Other interventions, such as teaching study strategies, were more effective than adapting instruction to learning styles (Husmann & O'Loughlin, 2019; Pashler et al., 2008).

Measurement difficulties. Learning output might be measurable and overt (i.e., test scores), but the process of learning represents a covert event (Keefe, 1985). Some covert events can be studied by asking participants to verbalize their thoughts while they perform a task. Research has consistently indicated, however, that many people struggle with accurately explaining their behaviour and exhibit biases in reproducing their internal experiences (e.g., Metcalfe & Wiebe, 1987). One's difficulty in explaining how they learn can be problematic in developing accurate learning

styles models, as well as in assessing one's learning style. Assessing others' learning styles is also problematic. Papadatou-Pastou and colleagues (2018) demonstrated that teachers' judgments of students' learning styles did not align with students' perceptions of their own learning processes, which suggests that the process of measuring learning styles may be unreliable.

Confounding factors. A teacher who is interested in their student's individual characteristics and aims to accommodate that student communicates several positive messages to the student; namely, that the student is an important agent in the learning process, that their teacher wants to know more about that student's strengths and weaknesses, and that their teacher is willing to adapt their methods for the student. These steps build positive working alliances, which leads to positive learning outcomes (Toste, Heath, & Dallaire, 2010). As such, positive effects of learning styles-based classroom instruction may actually be the result of the teacher-student working alliance.

Risks. Given the lack of supporting empirical findings, using learning styles for diagnostic and intervention runs the risk of incorrectly placing into learning styles, or placing students into learning styles that are not accurate representations of learning. Students and teachers may fixate on this placement, and receive non-optimal instruction. Poor academic results may then be inaccurately attributed to the wrong factors, such as not using one's learning style adequately, rather than assessing evidence-based factors associated with learning difficulties. Students who exhibit learning difficulties may internalize these difficulties as fixed aspects of their learning abilities, rather than malleable aspects such as study skills and environment. As such, learning styles are at risk of doing the opposite of what educators and theorists hope to attain.

All too often, teachers bear the burden of these risks. Educators must take the time to assess their students' learning styles and accommodate those individual differences, which reduces time they could invest in teaching practices that have a higher likeliness of positive outcomes. When learning styles-based classroom instruction proves ineffective, teachers may be blamed for not properly accommodating their students' learning styles, rather than the notion that learning styles are ineffective in themselves. This dynamic places teachers, students, and families at risk for frustration and disappointment as the school year proceeds.

Moving Forward

Evidence-based practice (EBP) is the notion of using empirical research findings to guide decision-making, including teaching methods, assessments, and interventions. When practitioners choose an EBP, they are choosing a practice that has previously demonstrated efficacy in a similar population to the one they serve (American Psychological Association Presidential Task Force on Evidence-Based Practice, 2006; Burns, Riley-Tillman, & VanDerHeyden, 2012). Choosing EBP may have a greater likeliness of a positive outcome, in comparison to a practice that has no supporting evidence. In this section, I offer several evidence-based alternatives to learning styles that educators may consider using and adapting in their classrooms. These alternatives are not exhaustive, as more options certainly exist.

School Community

Student attitudes about their teachers have a profound effect on academic outcomes (Toste et al., 2010; Toste, Bloom, & Heath, 2014). Learners who appear to be well-liked by their teacher exhibit higher motivation than learners who appear disliked by their teacher (Davis, 2007; Toste et al., 2014). Students who feel important to their teachers report higher interest in classroom activities than those who do not feel important (Toste et al., 2014). Positive teacher-student alliances in early years (i.e., Kindergarten to Grade 3) increases the frequency of prosocial behaviour and decreases the frequency of negative behaviours later in childhood (Toste et al., 2014). Working alliances, and developing trusting relationships with teachers, can also reduce the likeliness of early exit from school (Toste et al., 2014). With this in mind, many teachers build a learning community within their classrooms, marked with strong teacher-student working alliances.

Building positive working alliances can be embedded throughout the teaching process and teacher-student interactions. Toste and colleagues (2014) emphasized that conveying caring is integral to positive working alliances. Collaboration is also effective in building working alliances. When possible, teachers can align their curriculum goals with students' goals (Toste et al., 2014). This may be done by creating lesson plans and assignments that incorporate students' learning interests, and allowing students choices in their learning process, for instance. Certainly, the ways that working alliances are built will depend on the teacher, students' age groups, and curriculum demands.

Another way that teachers build a welcoming sense of community and strong working alliances is with culture-responsive teaching. Culture-responsive educational programs lead to a number of positive educational outcomes

(Gay, 2002) including helping students to maintain their culture and identity while using these strengths to accomplish educational goals (Scull, 2016). Wolfram, Adger, and Christian (1999) suggested that culture-responsive education increases student engagement while helping students to feel that their culture is valued in academic environments.

Maintaining positive working alliances can be challenging for teachers when students present with behaviour difficulties. Literature suggests that making behavioural expectations clear to students, and enforcing them calmly and away from the general classroom, can reduce undesired behaviours and reduce the likeliness that the student's behaviour may escalate to coercive cycles (e.g., Gnezda, 2005). Gnezda (2005) encouraged teachers to avoid taking a student's behaviour personally and reframe the behaviour as a learning obstacle that the teacher and student can work towards overcoming. Ultimately, reductions in the frequency of disciplinary events may also reduce teacher stress; as a result, working alliances can potentially be a protective factor against teacher burnout (Gnezda, 2005).

Cognitive Science

Memory is a multi-phasic and reconstructive process. When we are presented with information, our sensory register gathers sensory information about the stimuli (e.g., sight, smell, taste, touch, sound) so long as we attend to it (Baddeley, 2007). The information that we attend to moves into short-term memory. As the name suggests, information in short-term memory is held for a brief amount of time, such as several seconds, giving us enough time to write down a password or address before the information decays from memory (Baddeley, 2007). If we rehearse information, however, it moves to long-term memory and be retained for years and perhaps permanently (Baddeley, 2007).

Memories are not stored as if they were videos to be replayed at some time in the future. Theorists (e.g., Roediger, 1980) contended that memories are stored in the mind as fragments, called cues (e.g., senses, thoughts, feelings). When we retrieve a memory, we piece the cues together, but cues may be confused with other memories (Roediger, 1980). For instance, a person who loses their keys often may do so because they put their keys in several different places, and recalling the last place where they placed their keys may become conflated with the other times and places they have placed their keys. Teachers can reduce memory decay by strengthening their students' memory of the lesson or concept, which bolsters retrieval. This can be achieved by implementing active learning methods such as multimodal practice, elaboration, personal relevance, and the testing effect.

Multimodal practise. Learning styles theories emphasize encoding information using a specific modality (e.g., visual, auditory). Multimodal practise involves encoding information using multiple methods, such as writing about a concept and discussing it. Multimodal practise increases the number of memory cues available for a specific set of information, which can enhance retrieval (Radavansky, 2017; Wammes, Jonker, & Fernandes, 2019). In addition, practicing information using a variety of methods can reduce boredom and enable students to study for longer periods of time (Radavansky, 2017).

Elaboration. Recall can be strengthened by providing students with opportunities to elaborate on information, by connecting new information with existing information (Coane, 2013). Memory aids such as mnemonics are popular elaboration methods used by all ages (Coane, 2013). Elaboration can also include interacting with lesson material; for instance, by inviting students to write sentences using their spelling words, or by asking students to write a reflective piece about a given lesson.

Personal relevance. Making information relevant to students' lives can enhance memory (Nairne, Thompson, & Pandeirada, 2007). Nairne and colleagues (2007) suggested that memory has evolved to be stronger for survival-related information than non-survival relevant information. I also contend that teachers who strive to make information personally relevant for their students achieve positive outcomes because they are building positive working alliances by communicating care and interest in their students' lives. In addition, personally relevant information is likely to be re-encountered when students are at home or in their community, which enables them to rehearse and elaborate on information learned in class. Students may also feel that their classroom learning has practical importance in their lives outside of school (e.g., goals, hobbies, social lives) and this linkage may increase their motivation to study.

Test effects. Students who test themselves tend to recall more information than students who read or re-copy information (Radavansky, 2011). According to Kornell, Hays, and Bjork (2009) testing gives feedback to students about what they know and do not know, which provides them with direction on what items require further study. Teachers can help their students build self-testing abilities and habits by providing class time to support students as they write their own test questions and/or make their own flashcards. Instruction in other self-testing methods (e.g.,

close the textbook and write down as many facts as possible about a specific section) can be given as part of study skills training in high school and university levels.

Motivation

Motivation research suggests that educators can create optimal learning environments by balancing support with opportunities to learn, structuring schoolwork and activities in ways that encourage intrinsic motivation and self-growth. Brophy (2013) described motivation to learn as "a student's tendency to find academic activities meaningful and worthwhile and to try to get the intended learning benefits from them" (pp. 249). Motivation to learn is also described as a cognitive response to educational tasks, where a student attempts to understand the activity presented by the teacher, acquire the relevant knowledge, and master the material (Brophy, 2013). Brophy (2013) found that classes that reported the highest levels of motivation to learn exhibited four factors: opportunities to learn, press, support, and feedback.

Opportunities to learn. According to Brophy (2013), high motivation to learn was observed when teachers' lesson plans involved medium-difficulty concepts that were not too easy nor too difficult for students. Teachers in highly motivated classrooms also made key concepts clear (Brophy, 2013). Learning was supported by using concrete illustrations, connecting new concepts to students' personal knowledge, and elaborating on material rather than reading from a textbook (Brophy, 2013).

Press. Teachers in motivated classrooms expected their students to actively think during lessons, rather than passively absorb information (Brophy, 2013). Teachers encouraged all students to participate in lessons through discussion, voting, comparing responses, while preventing a few students from dominating classroom activities and discussion (Brophy, 2013). As Brophy suggested (2013), pressing students in this manner also helps teachers to check whether the class is grasping the lesson, and adjust accordingly (e.g., chunk the information into manageable steps).

Support. Motivation to learn was associated with teacher support in the learning process (Brophy, 2013). Teachers in motivated classrooms used modelling (e.g., examples and demonstrations) and scaffolding (e.g., reduce support as the student gains mastery and independence; Brophy, 2013).

Feedback. Students reported higher motivation to learn when their teachers' evaluation emphasized learning and understanding rather than performance and competing against other students (Brophy, 2013). Teachers in motivated classrooms emphasized that mistakes were opportunities to learn, and they provided opportunities for students to revise assignments (Brophy, 2013).

Ryan and Deci's (2016) self-determination theory is the notion that all people have three basic human needs (i.e., autonomy, competence, relatedness) associated with positive adjustment and growth. Autonomy refers to the ability to engage in behaviours and/or make choices that are congruent with one's own interests (Ryan & Deci, 2016). Competence describes the notion of gaining mastery (Ryan & Deci, 2016). Relatedness is the sense of feeling connected to others (Ryan & Deci, 2016). Instructors and classrooms that foster autonomy, competence, and relatedness facilitate intrinsic motivation among their students (Ryan & Deci, 2016). In other words, when students feel a sense of classroom community, have some power to make choices in the learning process, and feel a sense of growing mastery, students are also likely to enjoy learning for the sake of learning.

Motivational differences were also described by Dweck's (2008) account of fixed and growth mindsets. According to Dweck (2008), people with fixed mindsets believe that their abilities and talents are immutable. Students with growth mindsets, in contrast, believe that their abilities and talents are malleable (Dweck, 2008). These beliefs about oneself have a profound effect on further actions–a student with a fixed mindset who believes they are not good at mathematics, for example, would be less likely to persist on difficult math questions than a student who believes that their math potential is unknowable (Dweck, 2008). As Dweck (2008) described, people with growth mindsets are more likely to stick with a task or activity when it is challenging than those with fixed mindsets.

Duckworth (2006) argued that growth mindsets create grit (Hochanadel & Finamore, 2015). Grit is the willingness to persist during challenges–a characteristic marked by optimism and continued self-growth–and is associated with positive outcomes such as higher educational attainment and grades in comparison to students low in grit (Bowman, Hill, Denson, & Bronkema, 2015; Duckworth, 2006). Some researchers suggest that grit influences achievement over and above IQ (Duckworth, 2006).

Dweck (2015) emphasized that most people possess both fixed and growth mindsets and will probably always have some combination of the two. Mindset, however, is not fixed–people can certainly facilitate growth mindset in

themselves and others (Dweck, 2015). In promoting growth mindsets, teachers can emphasize that mistakes are opportunities to learn, by reflecting on the approaches used, and trying to figure out a better approach for next time (Dweck, 2015). Reframing statements such as, "I am not a math person" to "I am not a math person *yet"* can also facilitate growth-mindedness (Dweck, 2015).

Conclusions

Learning styles represent a large body of constructs and assessments that aim to diagnose students' learning styles and adapt teaching practices accordingly. Lack of agreement on which learning style model is the best account of learning (i.e., and individual differences among learners) suggests that researchers have not developed a valid, reliable measurement tool. Further, learning styles have been heavily criticized due to a lack of empirical evidence, diagnostic difficulties, and confounding factors. Despite being debunked, learning styles remain a thriving industry throughout the world, as many books, research studies, education courses, and assessments maintain the concept of learning styles. As a growing number of teachers utilize evidence-based practices, learning styles are being replaced by universal approaches, community building, cognitive science, and motivational practices.

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A #selfie meritocracy in educator professional development: Generating complacency through self-reflection

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Abstract: At the cornerstone of professional development for K-12 teachers, there is an emphasis on practices of self-reflection and reflective practice that turn the professional educator gaze inward towards the self. Self-reflection has emerged through the teacher-as-researcher and the teacher-as-reflective-practitioner identities in professional development. However, this looking inward avoids looking at the larger social structures and the ways in which knowledge of the self is built on social constructions of knowledge and a privileged identity that marginalizes and oppresses Others. I argue that this distraction on/from the self creates a meritocracy in professional development. A focus on the inward self allows perpetuations of systemic racism to remain entrenched and unchallenged in schooling, further pushing anti-racist work to the margins and the ideal of the inclusive classroom unobtainable. This paper explores how teacher professional development, with a focus on self-reflective practices, ignores social structures and systemic forms of racism in schooling.

Keywords: Professional Development, Education, Systemic Racism, Power and Privilege

Introduction

Educator professional development supports teachers in maintaining current with research and evidence-based strategies and pedagogies to engage with learners in K-12 schools. However, restrictions, such as time, force required components of professional development to align with district and provincial education agendas. This lack of time leaves educators with passions and interests outside of mandated professional learning to explore topics and subjects on their own time and often finances. However, if a school/district does not require educators to engage with learning that challenges the status quo ways of schooling; does this lack of necessity subtly direct where teachers seek their learning? Where might teacher's look for professional learning that seeks to disrupt the everyday practices of schooling that are layered with systemic forms of racism?

This paper will explore practicing educators' professional development as a site of potential for schools to become more equitable and just with a shift from reflection towards critical reflexivity. As Dei (2014) points out, there must be a challenge to the complacency of educators that work in a system that will not be fully inclusive until racism is addressed and Kubota (2014) states that self-reflexivity has the potential to disrupt systemic racism in schools. I will argue that a move towards a more reflexive approach to professional development will allow educators to have a truly inclusive practice, as responding to systemic racism needs to begin with an *awareness* of systemic racism in schooling through a different approach to teacher professional development.

Self-Reflection

The practice of self-reflection has become a cornerstone of teacher professional development within school boards. Being a reflective practitioner is a valued skill in K-12 education with aims of improving practice and the performance of teaching to improve outcomes for students (Butler, 1996; Day, 1993; Kelchtermans, 2009; Schrum, et al., 2015). Reflective practice requires educators to consider their practice and revise as needed to address issues in the classroom or their pedagogy (Suter, 2012). Educators need to be in a dynamic state of reflection that embodies their everyday practice and interactions with students, curriculum, and community. Professional development models that frame reflective practices have a variety of components but each tends to focus on instrumental tools, performance, content knowledge, innovative/emerging pedagogies (such as Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math [STEM], and technology), and current mandates from school boards and ministries of education (Butler, 1996; Day, 1993; Schrum, et al., 2015). These models and reflective practice drive educators to look inward at how they can effectively deliver content knowledge through innovative pedagogies to reach the diversity of students in their classrooms and inspire learning.

This inward gaze directs the teacher to become even more deeply entrenched and isolated within an individualistic professional culture in schooling that exists in silos. So, then, does this self-reflection lead to societal change (Day, 1993) concerning an anti-racist practice? When teachers look inwards, at the self within the context of their classroom, the focus remains on improving outcomes for students through instrumental concerns (Kelchtermans, 2009; Schrum, et al., 2015), performance (Butler, 1996), and learning new pedagogies (Schrum, et al., 2015). There is little room for community building, dialogue between colleagues, or context from outside mandated professional

development (Apple, 1998; Butler, 1996) and reflection then becomes "another procedure, a method or coping strategy that confirms and continues the status quo" (Kelchtermans, 2009, p. 269). Time spent in self-reflection involves an individualistic inward gaze rather than unpacking the cultural and societal influences that permeate schooling (Cunliffe, 2016; Day, 1993) or considers educators' own subject-positionality and how this construction informs how they relate to their students (Raby, 2004; Warren, 2011). The pressures of standardized curriculum, high-stakes assessments, the need to meet the learning needs of a diverse group of students all while in a public institution, demand teachers to seek professional development that not only aligns with this public gaze on performance and outcomes, but also for strategies to provide their students with a sense of hope in troubling times through meeting the outcomes of schooling (hooks, 2003; Giroux, 2015a).

Whose Professional Development?

As an educator, I have had limited exposure or opportunities for professional development that challenges a dominant discourse privileging some forms of knowledge while leaving certain forms of knowledge silenced. Forms of knowledge often valued in educator professional development align with divisional agendas to promote certain pedagogies and improve outcomes for students. My other role as an instructor in a pre-service teacher education program differs; we unpack some controversial topics that align with educators building an anti-racist and reflexive practice including how socialization shapes our perceptions of marginalized *Others* – marginalized people, most often visible minorities such as Indigenous Peoples, People of Colour, and people with disabilities are often othered as they do not fit in with a dominant identity (Schick & St. Denis, 2005). Schick and St. Denis (2005) argue that there ought to be an understanding of racism and White supremacist ways of thinking (hooks, 2003) to begin to prepare teachers to disrupt racial inequities in classrooms. As pre-service teachers work their way through a process of unlearning and learning their positionalities, they begin to gain insights into the ways in which the school system is often a source of the inequalities schooling ought to redress, however, practicing educators have little time or opportunity to engage with reflexivity.

The disparity of high school completion rates between Indigenous and non-Indigenous students is one example that demonstrates that educational systems favour those that identify with the dominant narrative. According to Statistics Canada (2015), nearly one-third of Indigenous people between the ages of 24 and 54 have not received a high school diploma compared to just over 10% of non-Indigenous people. Forms of oppression through the education system have been linked to streaming in high school, segregated special programs (languages, sports), segregated special education programs (mental health rooms, exclusion rooms), accessing technology for learning, discipline practices, gender imbalances in teacher staffing and administration all have potential to operate from a racist paradigm if those in the system are not aware of how racism manifests within our schools (Dei & James, 2002; Sinnithamby & Peters, 2010). Discrimination based on race is not the sole example. I recall a conversation a practicing teacher was having with their administrator in a high school, asking for a disabled student to be removed from their physical education class as the student risked disrupting the athletic status of the class. The administrator supported the removal of the student from the class. This form of ableism not only violated the students' right to participate in and be provided an education, but reinforced a racist ideology held by the teacher and their ability to interject and control another's pathway. This is but one of many daily examples of exclusion practiced in schooling, however without a reflexive understanding and inward gaze at our practice, educators have limited recognition.

The milieu of schooling and an inward professional development gaze allows for neo-liberal and neo-conservative agendas to thrive (Apple, 1998; Kubota, 2015). Students are commodified and sorted based on their economic potential and professional development trends follow this economic output's path (Dei, 2014). One trend that can be seen following these ideologies is technology. When computers were first introduced as a tool for student learning and achievement, as well as an emerging industry needing workers, schools became inundated with courses on computer programming and corporations like Apple and Microsoft invested billions of dollars into education through the use of learning management systems (Boorstin, 2017). The current 'new' trend in technology has educators focused on teaching students, as early as grade 2, how to code and outcomes can be tracked with the website https://hourofcode.com/ca which supports the "Hour for Code" movement in schools, serving 762 074 057 students worldwide and another site, https://code.org/, boasts 41 million projects in schools. Therefore, professional development for practicing teachers often follows these same ideological agendas to align with these trends, forcing teachers to seek out opportunities to keep up and for some, highlight their practice such as posting on the above websites as a way to gain status in their respective schools reinforcing a hierarchy among teachers and an individualistic culture. Indeed, this individualism values neo-liberal and neo-conservative competition ideologies and

does little to promote a relational approach to teaching and learning. Individualism also leaves little space for educators to see the disparities created through these pedagogic devices that meet global economic demands and increase school achievement rankings for some, but not all students (Raby, 2004).

Whose Agenda?

Funding for professional development that steps outside of the inward gaze to improve outcomes and the economic capital of students also does not have a place in public institutions as time and funds are limited (Apple, 1998). A push within professional development to reinforce higher standards of learning claims 'grit', 'perseverance', and 'resilience' need to be developed in students through 'rigorous' curricular and pedagogic expectations. Professional development outside the prescribed divisional mandates tends to promote a binaristic way of thinking between the relational role of the teacher with their students (Kelchtermans, 2009) and a need for students to 'pull up their socks' because the teacher is doing innovative work. This binary is also manifested through the marriage of psychology and education, and while this article is not taking this relationship up, what psychology has brought into the marriage is a deficit way of regarding students that cannot meet outcomes despite the role of inwardly focused professional development with teachers. Prescriptive professional development keeps the focus on the individual within the scope of their practice (Butler, 1996; Kohli, Picower, Martinez, & Ortiz, 2015), develops a fear of the Other, consumerizes and commodifies students, and erodes educator autonomy thus preventing educators from seeing their students as objects of oppression and racism (Apple, 1998; Dei, 2014; Freire, 2000).

The White, patriarchal structure of schooling embodies the space, the people, and the implicit/hidden values of schooling (Dei, 2014; Kubota, 2015). Power and privilege are lived through the curriculum as the victorious conquests of colonizers explicitly teach the physical structures that demand obedience and compliance (Montessori, 2013), the privileging of violent sports (often dominated by males) (Connell, 2005), as well as through the Whiteness of the faculty (hooks, 2003; Sinnithamby & Peters, 2010). The adult bodies that reside in schooling are predominately White with a majority of White males occupying administrative positions of power which reinforces a dominator culture (Ahmed, 2012; hooks, 2003; Sinnithamby & Peters, 2010). Professional development within a neo-liberal and neo-conservative ideology reflect the individuals' drive to improve and be 'the best' within the scope of their practice no matter what the environment they find themselves in (Connell, 2005; Giroux, 2015b; Kubota, 2015). What, then, counts as knowledge for educators to learn through their professional development (Apple, 1998; Day, 1993; Kelchtermans, 2009; Kohli et al., 2015)? Prescriptive professional development with an inward gaze on practice results in limited autonomy and passivity among teachers (Butler, 1996; Kelchtermans, 2009; Freire, 2000; Kubota, 2014) and denies an outward glance towards the influence of social structures (Bourdieu, 1998), "white-supremacist thinking" (hooks, 2003, p. 25), and critical reflexivity on the self that interrogates subject-positionality (Bourdieu, 1998; Kubota, 2014; Lynch, Swartz, & Isaacs, 2017; Warren, 2011).

Racism and Schooling

Schooling is "a stage shaped by the exaltation of particular peoples and ideas, and the historical and ongoing erasure of others" (Dei, 2014, p. 242). The pressure to perform and meet outcomes for students overrides any room for a critical conscious awareness of systemic racism. Within our current educational context, racism and forms of oppression are not only sustained but are reproduced (Bourdieu, 1984; Kubota, 2002). All too often racism is considered an individualistic experience in our classrooms and schools, rather than a systemic process that impacts not only students but teaching and learning (Kubata, 2002). When racial incidents are regarded as mere glitches and the rhetoric that follows is typically along the lines of #notmyAlberta, #notmypresident, #notmy (…) as people speak out against individual incidents of hate and racism. However, what remains missing from the dialogue are the ways in which historical and current forms of oppression are silenced, ignored, and lived out within schooling. Racism does not solely consist of singular acts. Following grounding in critical Whiteness studies, critical race theory, and anti-racist feminist theories, racism is not individualistic, rather, racism includes subtle forms of systemic inequities that privilege certain racialized groups over others (White over Indigenous; Dei, 2014; Kubota, 2002; Sinnithamby & Peters, 2010).

The shifting diversity of learners in schooling is not reflected in policies that govern school spaces, curriculum, or staff (Dei & James, 2002; Kubota, 2014). Racism is often regarded as too controversial to dialogue about, therefore, the 'powers that be' predict little interest in professional development that interrogates racism and the ways in which many within schooling benefit from racist ideologies (Kubota, 2014). Counter-narratives, arguing against a lack of

attention to racism, often are presented through the diversity of students 'getting along'. However, when the educators in these spaces remain 80% White and female, there is little opportunity for ways to confront White patriarchal ways of engaging in professional development (Kubota, 2014). Instead, the tokenization of multi-cultural education and a move to Indigenize schooling appears to redress the needs of diverse students (Sinnithamby & Peters, 2010). However, these movements do not decolonize or understand the power relations that impact systemic racism (Dei, 2014; Kubota, 2002).

Race is not a myth, and racism exists in our current education system (Dei, 2014; Kubota, 2015), and as long as professional discussions on racism are neglected and silenced, there can be no real claims to inclusion in our classrooms (Kubota, 2015). Today's educators need to be offered opportunities aimed at not only challenging their positionality but their complacency within a system that consequences and punishes certain bodies and not others (Dei, 2014). The struggle for inclusive classrooms will remain until educators have the opportunity to engage in critical self-reflexivity to reduce inequities and forms of oppression (Dei, 2014; Kubota, 2014; Lynch et al., 2017).

Framing Professional Development

The social structures and stratifications of society are mirrored in schools (Bourdieu, 1998), however, schooling tends to reflect the status quo as a means to benefit and privilege certain ideologies (Ahmed, 2012; Dei 2014). Despite this "miseducation" (Dei, 2014, p. 240), there is much literature focused on those that are marginalized and othered in schools with a means for educators to identify risk factors for youth (Riele, 2006). Professional development, however, largely does not respond to the identity of those who are othered or the social structures/constructs that other. I recently presented sessions at a local city teachers' convention on my research on masculinities studies, a project with a local school board on attendance, as well as a session on implicit bias. The range in interest was vast; nearly thirty teachers attended my session on the boy crisis, while ten attended the attendance presentation, and only two attended the presentation on implicit bias. Other sessions at the convention included professional development on coding, literacy salons, formative assessments, Kindergarten math games, creativity, maker spaces, and flipped classrooms. There were no sessions, other than mine, that asked teachers to look at the broader social patterns that inform and shape our pedagogy, curriculum, and ultimately students.

Looking to school board websites one Alberta School division (https://www.rockyview.ab.ca/) categorizes teaching into compartments based on curriculum, blended learning, literacy and numeracy, inquiry and project-based learning, and designing learning for each learner. When designing for learners, this school division incorporates principles from Universal Design for Learning (http://udlguidelines.cast.org/) which focuses on activating parts of the brain in students to increase engagement and ultimately provide means for an assessment of learning. There is also a section on the Rocky View Schools website dubbed "making learning visible" which takes people to a blog where certain projects are highlighted as exemplary practice: a real-life example of competition-based pedagogy between teachers similar to the coding websites that promote projects in technology. Other larger school divisions, including Edmonton Public Schools and the Calgary Board of Education have different teaching philosophies for segregated schools of 'choice' including gendered schools, faith-based schools, language-based schools, and 'academic' schools. Each teaching philosophy is supported by professional development to continue to support the individual needs of 'choice' schools which aligns with a voucher system, encouraging school principals to seek out talented students and staff to improve enrollment and market the school (Apple, 2006). The professional development focus in these examples reinforces a neo-liberal and neo-conservative agenda for competition and individualism with no mention of how to begin an anti-racist practice.

The marketization and commodification rises a level from the student to the school itself and support the neo-liberal and neo-conservative agendas leaving no or little room for professional development that looks reflexively at these patterns of systemic racism. To facilitate a shift from reflection and professional development that supports economic trends, I reached out to the Alberta Teachers' Association (ATA) and a provincial learning consortia to develop and deliver professional development that aligns with an anti-racist framework. I was met with resistance, as this area is not recognized as fruitful or fitting in with their idea of inclusion in education. In addition, a recent and not exhaustive, internet search of the top books for teacher professional development returned inwardly gazed titles such as:

- *Teaching smarter: An unconventional guide to boosting student success*, by Patrick Kelly
- *Most likely to succeed: Preparing our kids for the innovation era*, by Tony Wagner and Ted Dintersmith
- *Teach like a champion 2.0: 62 techniques that put students on the path to college*, by Doug Lemov
- *Teach like a pirate: Increase student engagement, boost your creativity and transform your life as an educator*, by Dave Burgess
- *Teaching with intention: Defining beliefs, aligning practice, taking action, K-5*, by Debbie Miller
- *Whole novels for the whole class: A student-centred approach*, by Ariel Sacks
- *The end of molasses classes: Getting our kids unstuck—101 extraordinary solutions for parents and teachers,* by Ron Clark

The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (2018) offers educators multiple resources for professional development including books, conferences, and online professional development. Some categories for online professional development courses include:

- The Art and Science of Teaching
- Assessment
- Classroom Management
- Common Core
- Curriculum Development
- Learning Theories
- STEM Education
- Technology

A growing surge in professional development responding to diversity among students is evidenced in resources that speak to tokenization of diversity, multicultural education, and culturally responsive teaching (Lynch et al., 2017; Raby, 2004; Sinnithamby & Peters, 2010), however, the majority of the titles and categories in a generic search reinforce self-reflection on practice, instrumentation, pedagogies, and content. As well, from my experience in a K-12 system, there are limited offerings and/or uptake of professional development that centres on socio-cultural contexts even with recommendations from the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada (2015) that focus on reducing the impacts of colonization in education. Again, as Schick and St. Denis (2005) argue, educators are not interested in engaging in professional development that takes a hard look at socialization, power, privilege, and racism. Similar to Schick and Denis, I have also seen that most pre-service teachers believe that education offers opportunities to all students, yet, these pre-service teachers have differing levels of colour blindness and hold individual triumphs of marginalized people as proof that hard work and perseverance demonstrate that racism is not a systemic issue (Dei, 2014). After taking courses that unpack these forms of racism and White supremacy, a majority of pre-service teachers have experienced an arch in their learnings and begin to question their role in an oppressive system. However, current practicing teachers have limited opportunity or time to engage with this reflexive learning. I would argue that a classroom teacher does not have the time to deeply search for professional development that dives into an anti-racist practice, if it is even available, as this professional development is not seen of value for school districts. As well, schooling is supposed to be a means to promote inclusion and equity. As such, teachers may not feel a need in their professional practice to critically examine systemic racism and look beyond their selves in an 'inclusive' system (Ahmed, 2012; Dei, 2014; Kubota, 2014).

#Selfie Meritocracy

Selfies are a style of photography in which the photographer is included in the photo, and the camera is held by the photographer when the photo is taken often taken using a mirror, especially mirrors in unphotogenic bathrooms. Bathrooms are a popular location for selfies since so many photographers believe that the worse everything around them looks in the photo, the better they will appear by comparison. Selfies have become a means to invite an audience into the photographer's experience (Zhao & Zappavigna, 2018) through a participatory form of sharing those experiences (Kasra, 2017). As tourists visiting foreign lands, memories with celebrities, or self-portraits reflectively taken in bathroom mirrors, the selfie epitomizes the self and what matters is the one reflected in the image. Recent scholarship on the selfie has identified typologies of the messages as well as examinations of whose perspective is being shared (Kasra, 2017; Zhao & Zappavigna, 2018). Whether literal, symbolic, linguistic (Kasra, 2017) or ideational, interpersonal, textual (Zhao & Zappavigna, 2018), each typology begins with the photographer's idea of

what matters. Thus, underlying the selfie are permeations of narcissism and egocentrism (Giroux, 2015b; Zhao, & Zappavigna, 2018) regardless of whether the gaze is on the photographer or what the photographer is gazing on, as the main theme is always on the self (Zhao & Zappavigna, 2018).

The danger of the selfie in neo-liberal and neo-conservative culture lies with the negation of social responsibility (Giroux, 2015b). The selfie rewards and values individualism and devalues community (Giroux, 2015b). The participatory nature of the selfie within a culture that values and rewards the individual encourages an imaginary relationship with an audience (Giroux, 2015b; Kasra, 2017; Zhao & Zappavigna, 2018). The relationship between the audience and the photographer does not promote a dialogical sense of community but one that narrows the focus to the self – the photographer (Giroux, 2015b). As a pedagogic act, the selfie becomes a tool for educators to demonstrate the ways in which their acts of self-reflection on their practice generate a narrative that shows "false notions of community" (Giroux, 2015b, p. 158) and produce a competition between teachers as they reflect on their practice.

Framing a #selfie meritocracy does not intend to lay blame on educators, but to generate an awareness of the ways self-reflection as professional development has limited educator capacity to engage with learning that moves beyond self-reflection on procedural methods and curricular content towards one that looks at the past, values, and beliefs (Warren, 2011). Self-reflection as professional development resembles the selfie in that the focus remains on the pedagogic acts that propel students towards an economic end and does not respond or acknowledge the layers of racism that linger from colonization (Kubota, 2002; Kubota, 2014; Dei 2014). The person in the selfie identifies themselves as the feature in the photograph or what they value similar to professional development that focuses on improving outcomes for students in an oppressive system that commodifies students. Students become the unphotogenic background to the #selfie meritocracy.

When the gaze is inwards within an institution that is an object itself of a public gaze on the ability to perform and meet outcomes through students, the #selfie meritocracy needs to extend the gaze beyond a binary relationship with students' progress. This higher level of reflection needs to experience a "rupture" (Bourdieu, 1998, p. 37) with prescriptive forms of educator professional development that currently follow antidialogical methods that force educators to be passive objects in their learning (Freire, 2000). The barriers educators face with respect to accessing reflexive learning often reside with lack of time in the busyness of the system that is commodified, administrators and divisional leaders that do not see any value in unpacking racism in a system that most adults in the system benefit from. Educators do not have the luxury of time or the opportunity to become active learners in their professional development. Education has the potential to disrupt systemic racism, however, only through a dialogical approach that raises awareness of a critical consciousness of racism (Dei, 2014).

Reflexive Thinking

Moving from reflection to reflexivity allows for educators to not only reflect on their practice but what/who informs their practice, thus becoming active and dialogical in their learning (Cunliffe, 2004, 2016; Freire, 2017; May & Perry, 2017; Warren, 2011). Becoming a critically reflexive practitioner challenges educators to question social constructions and their subject-positionality, expose contradictions and policies, and the assumptions that lie beneath all (Cunliffe, 2004, 2016; Kubota, 2014; Warren, 2011). For example, teachers could begin to question why there are gendered responses to mental health concerns. For a few years, I worked in a divisional high school mental health program of which the majority of students enrolled were all female. It was very rare to have a male student in this program. As my research area is focused on boys, I had a conversation with the psychologist attached to the program and we talked about why there were no boys in the space. The issue was not that boys do not have mental health concerns but the response to boys' manifestations of mental health often resulted in their being suspended or expelled from school, denying them the services they needed. The shift that needed to occur was for the majority of the White, male, high school principals in this school division to regard boys as needing mental health support. Instead, in my experience, these boys are told they need to man-up and get a job resulting in boys being placed in the discipline cycle rather than receiving supports. This shift will not happen without reflexive professional development that critically examines the socio-cultural patterns of discipline in schools.

Social constructions of knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, values, and practices are informed by everyday relational interactions with others, media, and histories; educators need a dialogical community to engage with unpacking the impact(s) on practice (Cunliffe, 2004; Raby, 2017; Warren, 2011). Critical reflexivity needs to be dialogical with others to reveal what may be hidden by an inward gaze and/or silenced by dominator culture (Butler, 1996; Cunliffe,

2014; Dei, 2014; hooks, 2003; Kubota, 2014; Warren, 2011). Educators need to be more critically reflexive with the encounters in their classrooms, and how and why they came to be in this present moment (Kubota, 2014; Raby, 2017; Warren, 2011). As members of an institution that hold positions of power, educators have a moral and ethical obligation to interrogate and unpack their roles, and the role of professional development within these systems of domination and systemic racism (Ahmed, 2012; Bourdieu, 1998; hooks, 2003; Kubota, 2014). Within a #selfie meritocracy, there is little space for dialogical action and community building (Butler, 1996; Giroux, 2015b; Dei, 2014; Kelchtermans, 2009; Zhao & Zappavigna, 2018). A focus on professional development with a critically reflexive lens would examine why there is a desire to protect the girls with mental health concerns and remove the boys with mental health concerns or why there is no room for ableism in a physical education program that seeks to promote wellness. Also, why is there an opportunity gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous students that remains dangerously unchanged despite many efforts on professional development towards reconciliation? A critically reflexive educator would, however, have an obligation to interrogate these by looking at power relationships that thrive in the milieu of schooling (Dei & James, 2002; Kubota, 2002). The #selfie meritocracy's focus remains on perceptions of self as an educator and what surrounds them, not the underlying assumptions that brought them there. This inward gaze allows for systemic racism to flourish, unchallenged in educational institutions and professional development.

Final Thoughts

The structural change needed to address systemic racism in educational institutions will not come about through professional development focused on the earlier mentioned categories of learning nor will it come about under a #selfie meritocracy. Having educators engage with anti-racist and reflexive practices through a shift in professional development is needed to dismantle racism (Dei, 2014; Schick & St. Denis, 2005). Neo-liberal and neo-conservative ideologies present a narrow view of racism that focuses on individual acts rather than institutional and systemic racism in institutions (Ahmed, 2012; Apple, 1998; Dei, 2002, 2014; Kubota, 2015; Raby, 2004). A response to this has been through the ideologies of assimilation and accommodation of race-based differences as well as the tokenization of multi-cultural education which does not politicize race or racism (Lynch et al., 2017; Raby, 2004; Schick & St. Denis, 2005; Sinnithamby & Peters, 2010).

A turn towards reflexivity and an anti-racist pedagogy is needed to disrupt current practices in professional development and teacher practice (Bourdieu, 1998; Kubota, 2014; Raby, 2017). This involves learning opportunities for educators that name and acknowledge racism, examine systemic racism, unpack intersectionality and inequities, challenge complicity, and look at the ways in which systemic barriers in education can be dismantled (Ahmed, 2012; Dei, 2014; hooks, 2003; Kubota, 2014; Lynch et al., 2017; Raby, 2017, Schick & St. Denis, 2005). The #selfie meritocracy does not have space for this work as the inward gaze focus does not include a critical interrogation on privilege, take a political stand, or consider the role of the school in racism (Ahmed, 2012; Dei, 2014; Dei & James, 2002; Giroux, 2015b; Kubota, 2014, 2015; Raby, 2017; Warren, 2011).

For educators to engage with reflexivity and anti-racist pedagogy, they need to begin with a critically reflexive stance that examines everyday experiences that socially construct knowledge as well as what and whose voices have been silenced (Cunliffe, 2016; Kubota, 2014; Raby, 2017; Warren, 2011). This action is inherently dialogical so that educators can critically engage with each other to better understand their privilege and blind spots to the outcomes of their privilege. However, current prescribed and self-reflective professional development relies on individualistic and antidialogical learning focused on classroom practice, not the social structures or systemic racism infiltrating that space. Teachers occupy positions of power; do they want a dismantling of a system that calls their power, privilege into question (Dei, 2014; Kubota, 2015; Lynch et al., 2017)? However, there is a moral and ethical obligation to do so in order for schooling to truly be a place of inclusion and equity.

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Laughter Yoga as a School-based Wellness Program: Supporting the Well-Being of Nishnawbe Youth

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Abstract: This paper explores how the participation in Laughter Yoga (LY) could assist in supporting the overall well-being of Nishnawbe[1] youth. Many Nishnawbe youth are at a heightened risk of mental health issues and social inequities that are associated with the (social) stigma and discrimination that is indicative of colonialism. I illustrate these risks and inequities by discussing the effects of colonialism and the Indian Residential Schools. I discuss the educational inequities that impact many First Nations youth and review the province of Ontario's largest coroner's inquest into the tragic deaths of seven Nishnawbe youth in the Canadian city of Thunder Bay as an example of these inequities. I then provide an Indigenous[2] perspective of mental health in Canadian schools and introduce how the use of laughter has been recognized by Indigenous groups around the world as an integral component of community bonding, social interaction, and communal storytelling. Next, I examine the positive physiological and psychological affects that laughter has on the body and how the promotion of laughter is one strategy that could be introduced to advocate an overall sense of wellness. I then explain the concept of LY and the benefits that LY could have in the classroom. This paper concludes with a list of recommendations that will help support educational administrators, educators, and those who work with/for First Nations youth in the implementation of a school-based LY program as an embodied movement wellness practice with/for First Nations youth within Canadian schools.

Keywords: indigenous youth wellness, laughing to heal, laughter yoga, nishnawbe youth, play-based wellness, school-based wellness, Thunder Bay

Introduction

I have designed, led, and directed multiple youth camps during my time as director of Zen's Outdoor Leadership Camp for Youth (ZOLCY), a volunteer-driven Canadian not-for-profit organization that worked with global underserved communities (2012-2018). ZOLCY's mission was to cultivate positive well-being through a variety of means: leadership development; diverse cultural perspectives immersion; group bonding through Laughter Yoga (LY) sessions; and a social-environmental justice orientation. I had used LY sessions as a method towards building relationships, trust, and positive group cohesion among the volunteers, youth, and community members that had participated in ZOLCY's programming. Additionally, I have facilitated LY sessions at a children's summer camp that I worked for (2013-2017) and implemented LY into a Leader in Training program for youth between the ages of 14-16 (at that camp).

My experience in facilitating LY with groups in Canada and around the world has given me insight into the healing potential of laughter for emotional, physical, mental, spiritual, and social well-being. Given these experiences, I was hired by a university professor in the city of Thunder Bay to work on an international youth project that crossed borders to include five sites from three countries, 30 youth researchers, 15 community organizations, and 10 university researchers from the fields of education and sociology. The Thunder Bay site focused on working with/for a group of Nishnawbe youth at a local high school. The project had invited the group of Nishnawbe youth to a Land-based well-being retreat where I was given the opportunity to lead a LY session. The positive effects that the LY session had on the group of Nishnawbe youth, as well as the individuals from the five international sites (who took part in a LY session during a culminating youth symposium that took place in Windsor, Ontario), was so powerful that it prompted me to re-evaluate my graduate work. In the end, my graduate portfolio was entitled Laughter Yoga as Embodied Healing and Educational Well-being with Nishnawbe Youth.

The courage, strength, and resilience of Canada's Indigenous population should be a source of inspiration. For over a century, Canadian legislation has been responsible for the forced relocation of Indigenous communities from their traditional lands and territories; the criminalization of Indigenous people partaking in their spiritual practices and the forced and systematic removal of Indigenous children from their communities and homes to residential schools where–more often than not–they faced horrendous abuse (Aboriginal Healing Foundation, 2006; Lavallee & Poole, 2010; Pidgeon, Munoz, Kirkness, & Archibald, 2013; Spear, 2014). "The plain fact is that (Canada's)

[1] "Nishnawbe" refers specifically to the youth who are part of the Nishnawbe Aski Nation. Throughout this paper, "Nishnawbe" and "First Nations" are used interchangeably.

[2] In this paper, the term "Indigenous" refers to all First Nations, Métis, and Inuit people in Canada as a group.

aboriginal[3] people have survived – and more than survived" (Spear, 2014, p. 254). Survivors of Indian Residential Schools "are living embodiments of the resilience, beauty and tenacity of Inuit, Metis and First Nation people in Canada" (Chansonneuve, 2005, p.1). The injustices that Canada's Indigenous people have endured have become public discourse through the rise of grassroots initiatives and Indigenous-led activism (Castellano, 2006; Lavallee & Poole, 2010). Furthermore, Indigenous leaders have made headway in working with the Canadian government to develop "a number of unprecedented agencies and public policy instruments" (Spear, 2014, p.3) in an attempt to re-claim culture, identity, education, and governance (Absolon, 2011; Castellano, 2006; Godlewska, 2010; Neeganagwedgin, 2013). Although the ongoing reclamation of autonomy will continue to be at the forefront for Indigenous Canadians, the impacts that colonialism has had on many of these people has had a dramatically negative impact on their well-being, especially on Indigenous youth (Elias et al., 2012; Macdonald & Wilson, 2016).

In this paper, I discuss issues related to the mental health, well-being, and healing of Nishnawbe youth. First, I describe the impact that mental illnesses are having on youth worldwide. Then, I explain how the effects of colonialism and the Indian Residential Schools have impacted Canada's Indigenous people. Next, I discuss the educational inequities that impact many First Nations youth, particularly those who move to the city of Thunder Bay to gain access to secondary education. I illustrate these inequities by discussing the tragic deaths of seven Nishnawbe youth in Thunder Bay, referred to as the "Seven Fallen Feathers". I then explore what mental health means from an Indigenous perspective. Next, I provide an overview of research on laughter and explain the physiological and psychological benefits of laughter as wellness. Then, I explain what LY is and the possible benefits that a school-based LY program could have on advocating embodied healing, enhanced learning, and relationship capacity building for Nishnawbe youth. I conclude with a list of recommendations that could help support the implementation of a school-based LY program as an embodied movement wellness practice with/for First Nations youth within Canadian schools. The purpose of this paper is to showcase how LY could be implemented in Canada's schools as a wellness strategy to support the overall wellness of First Nations youth.

Mental Health

More than ten percent of youth worldwide are afflicted by severe mental illnesses (Cheng, 2016). In Canada, education policymakers and school administrators are observing rising rates of stress that are resulting in a higher prevalence of negative emotions such as anger, anxiety, and depression, and behaviours like violence and bullying (Greenberg & Harris, 2012; Rempel, 2012). These emotions and behaviours are impacting students' school engagement and academic performance (Canadian Education Statistics Council [CESC], 2011; Murnaghan, Morrison, Laurence, & Bell, 2014; Richards, 2014). Many mental illnesses, such as depression, if untreated and severe, can lead to suicide, which is the second leading cause of youth mortality in Canada (Sampasa-Kanyinga, Roumeliotis, & Xu, 2014). Additionally, the effects of colonialism have directly impacted the emotional, mental, physical, and spiritual well-being of Canada's Indigenous youth, who often face higher rates of substance abuse, sexual abuse, depression, and suicidal ideation than non-Indigenous youth (Dell & Lyons, 2007; Elias et al., 2012; Kumar, 2016; Macdonald & Wilson, 2016). Consequently, suicide rates are an alarming five times higher for First Nations youth between the ages of 10-29, the highest rate of suicide of any group in Canada (Kumar, 2016; White, 2016). The First Nations Information Governance Centre (2014) state that these rates are ten times higher for First Nations youth who live on reserves, particularly in remote or northern communities. According to researchers, these psychological issues are associated with the social stigma and discrimination against Indigenous youth (that is indicative of colonialism; Elias et al., 2012; Macdonald & Wilson, 2016).

The Effects of Colonialism and the Indian Residential Schools

Many of the mental health issues that First Nations youth face have resulted from Canada's history of colonialism (Elias et al., 2012; Macdonald & Wilson, 2016; Pidgeon et al., 2013). One shameful example of this is the legacy of the Indian Residential Schools. A report from The Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada (2015) stated that, from the year 1883 to 1996, more than 150,000 Indigenous children were forcibly removed or coerced from their families and communities to attend one of the 139 schools (mostly administered by the Roman Catholic, Anglican, United, Methodist, and Presbyterian Churches) that were established across Canada. Furthermore, The

[3] The term "aboriginal" is outdated and refers more accurately to the aborigines of Australia. However, in this paper the terms "aboriginal" and "Indigenous" are synonymous.

Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada (2015) stated that over 6,000 children died while in attendance of one of these schools. "Those 6,000 deaths put the odds of dying in Canadian Residential Schools over the years they operated at about the same as for those serving in Canada's armed forces during the Second World War" (Schwartz, 2015). Children attending these schools often faced physical, emotional, and sexual abuse and were physically reprimanded if they spoke their language or partook in any of their cultural practices (Lavallee & Poole, 2010). "Residential Schooling was always more than simply an education program: it was an integral part of a conscious policy of cultural genocide" (The Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada, 2015, p. 54-55).

The colonial impacts of the Indian Residential Schools are best illustrated by Elias et al. (2012) saying, "In one century, the Government of Canada exposed tens of thousands of indigenous children to a system fraught with structural and systemic problems, impacting their well-being and that of their families, communities and future generations" (p. 1561). These systemic problems have resulted in Canada's child welfare system being overwhelmingly occupied by Indigenous children; half of all children in foster care are Indigenous (Gray, 2011; Macdonald & Wilson, 2016).

Educational Inequities that Impact First Nations Youth in Thunder Bay

Canada's policies of colonialism continue to this day as many First Nations youth have no way of accessing secondary schooling except by leaving their reserve communities, usually after grade eight, to attend provincially funded schools (Richards, 2014) in urban centres. Richards (2014) states that approximately 40 percent of First Nations youth must leave their homes to continue secondary schooling. In the province of Ontario, many northern communities do not have the funding or capacity to have a secondary school (in their community), while their elementary schools have been seriously underfunded by Indigenous and Northern Affairs Canada (INAC) (CESC, 2011; Hare & Pidgeon, 2011; Talaga, 2017). The city of Thunder Bay is one urban centre that many of these Nishnawbe youth must move to attend secondary school.

Nishnawbe youth who leave their northern communities to attend secondary schooling must cope with being separated from their communities, families, and friends. The dislocation of moving to an urban, predominantly White community, often alone and without peers or family members, brings intense loneliness and isolation (CESC, 2011; Neeganagwedgin, 2013). Unfortunately, the repercussions of this dislocation from community subjects these youths to more psychological isolation, racist abuse, and physical threats than non-Indigenous youth (Richards, 2014; Talaga, 2017). These negative social consequences often lead to mental illnesses, anxiety, depression, and educational disengagement that can contribute to the inability to complete secondary education (Neeganagwedgin, 2013; Richards, 2014).

In sum, the severity of risk to Nishnawbe youth's mental health and safety can be attributed to the challenges they face in order to access and pursue a regular secondary schooling education. (CESC, 2011; Richard, 2014). The dislocation of these youth trying to get an education has resulted in the situation that led to the Ontario Coroner's inquest into the deaths of seven Nishnawbe students in Thunder Bay – the largest Coroner's inquest in Ontario history (Talaga, 2017).

Thunder Bay's "Seven Fallen Feathers": Ontario's Largest Coroner's Inquest

One of the urban centres to which Nishnawbe youth move to attend secondary schooling is the city of Thunder Bay. Students have the choice to attend the Catholic school board or the public school board. As well, in an effort to take control of their children's education and well-being, the Northern Nishnawbe Education Council (NNEC) established Dennis Franklin Cromarty High School (DFCHS) in Thunder Bay, opening its doors in October of 2000 to Indigenous youth from many of the surrounding (mostly fly-in) northwestern Ontario communities (Talaga, 2017).

DFCHS is supported and funded by NNEC and the many Sioux Lookout District First Nations that send their youth to DFCHS (Northern Nishnawbe Education Council, 2014). From 2000 to 2011, seven Nishnawbe youth, now referred to as the "Seven Fallen Feathers," who flew hundreds of kilometers from their communities and families, died while visiting the city of Thunder Bay; five of their bodies were found in rivers around Lake Superior (Talaga, 2017). These seven deaths led to an eight-month-long national coroner's inquest where "three of the five river deaths could not be explained" (Macdonald, 2017, p. 42). Upon discovery of each of the bodies that were found in

the rivers, the Thunder Bay Police Department (TBPD) "made the same assessment, hurriedly classifying them not as hate crimes but tragic accidents" (Macdonald, 2017, p. 42). It had become apparent that the TBPD failed in their duty to protect the city of Thunder Bay's most vulnerable, which continues to increase the racial tensions and distrust between the TBPD, the Indigenous community, and the Nishnawbe youth who move to Thunder bay in search of having a higher education (Macdonald, 2017; Talaga, 2017).

The effects of colonialism and the Indian Residential Schools, educational inequalities, and the inquest of the "Seven Fallen Feathers" have illuminated the serious challenges that Canada's Indigenous populations face, and the impacts this has on mental health, including on Nishnawbe youth who move to Thunder Bay to attend secondary schooling (Smylie & Cywink, 2016). When one examines Canada's history, it becomes apparent that the country is steeped in neo-colonialist racism, mistrust, and social injustice that continue to impact the well-being of its Indigenous people.

An Indigenous Perspective of Mental Health in Canadian Schools

The concept and meaning of health has been rooted within the dominant colonial medical model that focuses primarily on the absence of physical illness or disease within an individual, rather than the overall context of their well-being (The Assembly of First Nations, 2015). Fortunately, this model of health has been shifting towards a model of "wellness[4]," aligning more closely with a First Nations approach as defined by The Assembly of First Nations First Nations (2015) as "a common understanding of the interconnectedness between the physical, mental, emotional and spiritual realms" (p. 3). This approach to wellness is derived from the teachings of the Medicine Wheel used by First Nations that views a healthy state of being as the balance of these four interconnected domains (Blackstock, 2008). Additionally, Lavelle and Pool (2010) further explain this holistic approach towards wellness within the context of Indigenous knowledge:

> The mental realm refers to the mind and/or intellect, not the Western definition of mental health. The four realms cannot be understood separately and the Western concept of mental health can only be understood in relation to physical, mental/intellectual, emotional and spiritual well-being (wellness). Sickness begins with the spirit, if the spirit is wounded – because of the principle of interconnectedness – the mind, emotions and body become sick…True healing includes reestablishing a balance between the four realms. (p. 274)

Provincially funded education systems in Canada are still Eurocentric and an example of cognitive imperialism (Battiste, 2004) and the approach taken in these systems typically contradicts traditional Indigenous education and an Indigenous approach to wellness. To put it succinctly, Eurocentric education puts far too much emphasis on standardized testing and compartmentalized learning rather than on Indigenous methods of comprehending interrelated modes and ways of knowing (cognitive, emotional, physical, and spiritual) as a whole (Neeganagwedgin, 2013; Rico, 2013). According to Pidgeon et al. (2013), an Indigenous approach to educational programming should include "intellectual, emotional, physical, and spiritual aspects of development, for which growth can be demonstrated in a number of personalized, non-competitive, and inclusive ways" (p. 31). Neeganagwedgin (2013) further emphasizes the importance of this four-dimensional approach to traditional First Nations teaching and learning where the balance of "emotional, mental, physical and spiritual needs" (p. 18) is always at the forefront.

In conclusion, a successful school-based wellness program directed towards First Nations youth healing must incorporate the four-dimensional approach to teaching, learning, and wellness. Laughter therapy, through the embodied practice of LY, is one approach that could be implemented in schools since those who participate in LY sessions have been shown to "experience its physical, psychological, emotional, and spiritual benefits" (Moral-Ripoll, 2011, p. 60), which seemingly resonates with the four dimensions of First Nations teaching, learning, and wellness.

[4] From here on out the term "wellness" will be used when referring to well-being.

The Physiology and Psychology of Laughter

Laughter is a universally shared feature of nonverbal communication that is common to all human groups throughout the world (Dunbar et al., 2011). Laughter occurs particularly in the context of social interactions, including play, and has been used as a form of physiological and psychological therapy for the past millennia (Bennett et al., 2014; Berk, Felton, Tan, Bittman, & Westengard, 2001; Dunbar et al., 2011). The use of laughter, like communal music-making and dancing, has been recognized by many Indigenous groups around the world as integral components of community bonding, social interaction, and communal storytelling (to foster wellness) (Ballick & Lee, 2003; Dunbar et al., 2011). An illustration of this is from the Alaska Native Peoples whose cultural values acknowledge laughter as "good medicine" and "healing" that contributes to a state of wellness (Cueva, Kuhnley, Lanier, & Dignan, 2006).

Although the use of laughter has been valued by Indigenous peoples for many centuries, if not millennia, the positive effects of laughter have only recently been recognized, reported, and taken seriously in a Western context of wellness. For example, the positive physiological and psychological effects of laughter have been documented in the fields of geriatrics, oncology, critical care, psychiatry, rehabilitation, rheumatology, and hospice care (Berk et al., 2001; DeCaro & Brown, 2016; Hasan & Hasan, 2009; Rosner, 2002). Indeed, health care practitioners have begun to recognize the importance and value of laughter therapy as a promoter of wellness for both patients and caregivers (Rosner, 2002). Moreover, it has been well documented and established that laughter therapy reduces depression, anxiety, stress, and fatigue, while also improving immunity, quality of life, happiness, self-esteem, and resilience (Bennett et al., 2014; Heo, Kim, Park, & Kil, 2016; Kim et al., 2015; Nasr, 2013).

These physiological and psychological health benefits are achieved because the effects of laughter involve the "muscular, respiratory, cardiovascular, endocrine, immune, and central nervous systems" (Rosner, 2002, p. 434). It is the physical act of laughing that stimulates and triggers the activation and release of endorphins (Cueva et al., 2006; Dunbar et al., 2011). Dunbar et al. (2011) explain the role of endorphins further by stating that:

> Endorphins are a class of endogenous opioid peptides produced in the central nervous system (CNS) that not only function as neurotransmitters but also play a crucial role in the management of pain through their analgesic properties: b-endorphin, in particular, appears to play a critical role in buffering the organism against the effects of physiological and psychological stress. (p. 1161)

Additionally, the act of laughing increases natural killer (NK) cells and activates T-cells in our bodies both of which assist the body in fighting infection and strengthening immunity (Hasan & Hasan, 2009; Rosner, 2002). To summarize, the act of laughter can have profound positive impacts on an individual's physiological and psychological wellness. Therefore, the promotion of laughter is one strategy that could be introduced to advocate an overall sense of wellness, hence the creation of LY.

Yoga and Laughter Yoga (LY)

Before explaining LY, I believe it is important to clarify what yoga is. The word yoga derives from the ancient Sanskrit word *yuj* and means to join (Saraswati, 2008). According to Saraswati (2008) "yoga is a means of balancing and harmonizing the body, mind and emotions" (p. 1). Furthermore, yoga "is the science of right living...it works on all aspects of the person: the physical, vital, mental, emotional, psychic and spiritual" (Saraswati, 2008, p. 1). Therefore, yoga is not only the practice of physical postures, which seems to have become the main focus outside the traditional practices of yoga in India, and what many people in the West have misunderstood yoga to only be. According to many yogi's, including Saraswati (2008) and Saraswati (2012), yoga is any practice that focuses on the development and harmonization of the mental, emotional, physical, and spiritual aspects of an individual.

LY was founded in Mumbai, India in 1995 by Dr. Madan Kataria (MacDonald, 2004). LY clubs have since been established all over the world as a supplementary and/or preventative therapy to achieving an overall state of wellness (DeCaro & Brown, 2016; MacDonald, 2004). A LY session is comprised of simulated laughter exercises that focus on the following:

> (1) emotional wellness (pantomiming any action and adding laughter on top); (2) physical workout (aerobic training; balance, flexibility, mobility, resistance and strength training, and improving lung capacity); (3)

> playful behaviors (engaging in playful movements to help dissolve inhibitions); and (4) special techniques (cross-brain exercises; dancing and singing exercises; empowering behaviors and conversations; group games; floor exercises; laughter and ideokinesis; laughing alone; and laughter meditation). (Mora-Ripoll, 2011, p. 172)

It is vital to mention that LY does not rely on humour or jokes to evoke spontaneous laughter to be successful. Rather, it is the combination of laugher exercises (simulated laughter), pranayama, or yogic breathing techniques, and the participants willingness to engage and let go of their inhibitions that makes this practice successful. To clarify, spontaneous laughter and simulated laughter are different. Spontaneous laughter requires some form of humour as a stimulus to be effective, whereas simulated laughter only requires the will to laugh and is not dependent on humorous stimuli (DeCaro & Brown, 2016).

In closing, laughing with others connects people with each other, themselves, and their environment. Participating in a LY session can therefore be seen as a means by which people can join together to interact, play, and laugh for the purpose of balancing body, mind, emotion, and spirit (overall wellness).

The Benefits of Laughter Yoga in the Classroom

Introducing laughter, through LY, as a school-based wellness program could support healthy relationships among learners and teachers by breaking down barriers through laughter and play to create a safe and inclusive environment (Savage et al., 2017). Consequently, LY could be a catalyst in providing greater student success and an overall positive school climate (Cuvea et al., 2006) by enhancing and energizing the teaching and learning process (Cuvea et al., 2006; DeCaro & Brown, 2016; Savage et al., 2017). Studies have shown how laughter can improve memory retention, creativity, divergent thinking, and positive attitudes, while also promoting mental relaxation and a decrease in anxiety and stress within a learning environment (Cuvea et al., 2006; Heo at al., 2016; Mora-Ripoll, 2010). As a result, teachers are better able to meet curriculum goals and expectations, while also supporting the growth of relationships within the classroom environment (Savage et al., 2017).

According to the First Nations Health Authority (2015), a foundation towards positive health and wellness for First Nations youth is dependent on the capacity towards building relationships among "Nations, Family, Community, and Land" (p. 15). In addition, Hart (2010) discusses the importance of honouring relationships with all of life. Laughing with others can be communal and spiritual as it connects people with each other, themselves, and their environment (Mora-Ripoll, 2010; Rosner, 2002). The embodied practice of LY can thus be viewed as a holistic form of therapy and meditation (MacDonald, 2004) where interpersonal skills and relationships are improved by means of social bonding through play (DeCaro & Brown, 2016; Dunbar et al., 2011; Mora-Ripoll, 2011). Mora-Ripoll (2010) found that the therapeutic value of laughter "builds group identity, solidarity, and cohesiveness" (p. 58), which illustrates the potential for laughter to build relational capacity - thereby creating or enhancing a sense of belonging and identity among Nishnawbe youth (and all participants) who participate in a LY session.

Recommendations

It is strongly recommended that any teacher or person working with/for First Nations youth is able to ground their work within an Indigenous paradigm that "factors in a historical, colonial and power analysis" (Absolon, 2011, p. 55) and who is able to take into consideration Indigenous worldviews, principles, and methodologies (Absolon, 2011). And so, an Indigenous approach to education and wellness must be considered when developing and implementing any school-based wellness program with/for First Nations youth.

The following recommendations (based on my personal experiences of leading LY sessions around the world and with First Nations youth) should be taken into consideration if one is interested in implementing a school-based LY wellness program with/for First Nations youth:

(1) Participate in at least two LY sessions. Get a feel for it, it may or may not be for you. LY sessions are offered in many Canadian cities and it should be relatively easy to find a group. If this is not possible, you may have to wait until you are in a city where this is offered.

(2) Sign up for a LY Leader course to learn how to effectively facilitate a LY session. Visit laughteryoga.org to find an instructor near you. If there is not an instructor near you, it may be possible to have one come to you.

(3) Practice facilitating LY sessions with friends and family so you become comfortable. In this way, you will be able to figure out what works best and what does not while also building your confidence in the facilitation process.

(4) LY sessions should be done with everyone standing (or sitting) in a circle (the importance of this will be explained further down) and should always begin with icebreaker games. The main objectives of these games are to facilitate playful interactions among participants and to create a fun, cohesive, and safe environment. An example of this is the game of rock, paper, scissors. These games are flexible and require a minimum of two participants. Search "icebreaker games" on the internet to find plenty of examples. In my personal experience, these games assisted in supporting the relationship-building process while keeping things "light and fluffy." These games help set the tone and aid in transitioning to the simulated laughter exercises. The icebreaker games can be as long as 20 minutes and as short as two. This will depend on how much time is available and the level of student engagement.

(5) Transition to simulated laughter exercises. There is an endless amount of simulated exercises that can be performed, but the facilitator should have at least 15 memorized. Some of the simulated exercises will be more successful than others depending on the group and, in some cases, none of the exercises may be successful at all! The simulated laughter portion of the LY session can range from 5-15 minutes. You will learn many laughter exercises when participating in a LY session and the LY Leader course.

(6) End the session with a silent reflection or guided meditation. For example, have students focus on their breath and the sensations in their body. The LY facilitator can play calming music while this is happening to prevent participants from getting distracted. You may have a student(s) who enjoys/practices traditional drumming. This would be an excellent opportunity to get students involved. The point of this section of the LY session is to have participants become more aware of how they are feeling (emotionally, mentally, physically, and spiritually) – connecting to the Self.

(7) The LY session should end in a sharing circle (sitting on the ground or in chairs). The sharing circle is a culturally relevant tool that resonates with an Indigenous approach to communication; for example, sharing circles have been used by First Nations people as an effective means to address trauma and to promote the healing process (Castellano, 2006). Sharing circles are also a method of creating a safe space for participants to share stories and to express their opinions, views, and experiences (Hart, 2002). Thus ending in a sharing circle can stimulate conversation, trust, and a sense of community among all participants.

(8) After students have participated in some LY sessions, invite them to take the lead in facilitating some of the activities (for example, leading an icebreaker game or leading the sharing circle discussion). This can be a positive way to promote leadership skills and a sense of autonomy for students.

(9) Let things unfold naturally. If students are really enjoying a particular game or simulated laughter exercise, stick with it for a bit longer. Likewise, if students are not enjoying a particular game or simulated laughter exercise, move on to the next.

(10) Have an open mind. In order for LY to work effectively, you must have an open mind. Likewise, students and participants should be encouraged to have an open mind during the session. Explain to students why you want to try LY and the benefits of laughter. Be willing change the approach and except that it may take some time for it to work.

(11) Don't judge LY by what you find on YouTube or on the internet[5]. There are many good examples of LY on the internet, but there are also many bad examples, too. Some of these examples will surely prevent people from ever trying LY. LY is truly an experiential practice, which means that you need to actually participate in it to understand its benefits.

(12) The facilitator can make or break the session (just view some of those LY videos on the internet to understand and learn what makes a good, and a bad, LY facilitator). If you don't buy into it, the students won't either. Similarly, if you come off with too much enthusiasm, it may deter anyone from wanting to take part. Don't be too over the top at first.

(13) Get buy-in. You need to have the students buy into why they should participate. Ask questions like "has anyone laughed so much that it felt like you just did 100 crunches?" Or, "has anyone laughed so hard that they couldn't stop" or "has anyone laughed so hard that they cried." Have them connect to how their previous experiences of laughing has made them feel. In my personal experiences, I found that it was important to engage students in a discussion of what laughter actually is. Additionally, I found that talking about the science of laughter –

[5] Based on my personal experiences, I have found that one must actually participate in a LY session to be fully convinced of its benefits. No amount of reading about LY or watching it on a screen can do it justice.

the physiological and psychological processes that are going on in the body – is an important buy-in for older students.

(14) Get feedback after each session. See what worked well and what didn't and use that information to improve the experience – remember, the benefit of these sessions are for the student participants.

(15) Eye contact. It is important to mention that maintaining eye contact in some cultures is seen as disrespectful and can also be incredibly uncomfortable for some people. However, one of the key components of LY (when taught by Dr. Kataria and others) is to maintain eye contact. I found that this did not work with First Nations youth. And so, I would recommend that, when facilitating a LY session with First Nations youth (and other youth from varying backgrounds), that it is not a necessary component to include at the get-go.

These recommendations are based on my personal experiences leading LY sessions and should be considered as a starting point rather than a be-all and end-all approach. Through your own experiential process, you may find alternative methods in which to facilitate LY sessions (that work best for you and your students). Finally, although these recommendations are more focused on working with/for First Nations youth, surely, these recommendations are a conceptualization of a LY wellness program that can benefit all youth.

Conclusion

In this paper, I discussed my personal experiences in facilitating LY with different groups of people in Canada and around the world. Next, I talked about the courage, strength, and resilience of Canada's Indigenous population and their successful attempts to re-claim culture, identity, education, and governance (Absolon, 2011; Castellano, 2006; Godlewska, 2010; Neeganagwedgin, 2013). I then explained how mental health is affecting youth worldwide and how Canada's Indigenous youth are at a greater risk (Cheng, 2016; Dell & Lyons, 2007; Elias et al., 2012; Kumar, 2016; Macdonald & Wilson, 2016). I attributed the effects of colonialism and the impacts that the Indian Residential Schools have had on the emotional, mental, physical, and spiritual well-being of Canada's Indigenous people, especially Indigenous youth (Aboriginal Healing Foundation, 2006; Lavallee & Poole, 2010; Pidgeon et al., 2013; Spear, 2014; The Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada, 2015). I then discuss the educational inequalities that Nishnawbe youth face in the Canadian city of Thunder Bay and how these inequalities have led to the province of Ontario's largest coroner's inquest and the death of the "Seven Fallen Feathers" (Hare & Pidgeon, 2011; Macdonald, 2017; Neeganagwedgin, 2013; Talaga, 2017). After, I discussed what an Indigenous perspective on mental health in Canadian schools should look like and the importance of incorporating (in school programming) a four-dimensional approach to traditional First Nations teaching and learning where the balance of "emotional, mental, physical and spiritual needs" (Neeganagwedgin, 2013, p. 18) should always be at the forefront (Battiste, 2004). Next, I explained the physiology and psychology of laughter and how laughter has been recognized by many Indigenous groups around the world as an integral component of wellness (Ballick & Lee, 2003; Dunbar et al., 2011). I then clarified and explained what yoga and LY are. Next, I discussed the potential benefits that LY could have in the classroom and within the school environment. I concluded with a list of recommendations that could support the implementation of a school-based LY wellness program directed towards Indigenous youth. My intention in writing this paper was to give educational administrators, educators, and those who work with/for First Nations youth a better understanding of LY and to explore how a school-based LY program could be an effective embodied movement wellness practice with/for First Nations youth (and all youth in general).

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A review of peer interaction and second language learning for ELL students in academic contexts

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Abstract: This review explores the relationship between language proficiency and ELL (English Language Learners) students' experiences in higher education contexts, with specific reference to the role of conversational peer interaction. The two major concerns that guide this review are the academic challenges faced by students from an ELL background in relation to conversational interaction, and the impact of conversational language proficiency on their overall academic experience. Findings suggest that insufficient language proficiency results in several challenges for ELL students, most notably the inability to share their expertise and knowledge with their peers, and participate successfully in classroom oral discussions. In addition, however, the literature suggests that language proficiency has a strong impact on the overall experiences of students and on their abilities to navigate the social structures of the academic community and to establish their own identity.

Keywords: ELL learners, Higher Education, Peer Interaction, Language Proficiency, Academic Challenges, Classroom Experience

Background

The number of international students studying at English-medium Canadian universities is increasing each year (Canadian Bureau for International Education, 2014). Although many of these students have passed an internationally recognised English proficiency exam in order to be accepted into an academic program or have taken formal language lessons in their home countries, they may still lack the necessary proficiency in academic language that would allow them to perform successfully in their academic studies. Academic language proficiency includes oral proficiency which can be developed through socialisation and interactions, but opportunities to develop this proficiency are not always equally available. Learners of English who study abroad in English-speaking environments can enhance their second-language acquisition and oral proficiency by exposure to everyday socialisation contexts, unlike those who experience only formal classroom language instruction in the home country (Kinginger, 2009). These everyday socialisation contexts may include interactions in service encounters, homestays, contact with professors, and within student peer groups (Kinginger, 2009).

Research has predominantly examined the role of classroom *instruction,* in the traditional language classroom in the home country (e.g., Huebner, 1995) and in language classes outside of the home country (e.g., Brecht & Robinson, 1995). As for outside the classroom, studies originating from study-abroad research (research that examines language gains in learning contexts abroad; Freed, 1995), have focused specifically on second-language acquisition through conversational interactions of international students with their homestay family members (e.g., Di Silvio, Donovan, & Malone, 2014; Tan & Kinginger, 2013) and, when inside the classroom, through interactions between students as well as with instructors (e.g., Hernández, 2016).

In contrast, there is less research exploring how peer conversational interaction in the academic classroom contributes to second language development, despite the potential for this environment to support the development of complex academic language. Therefore, it is still unclear what kinds of language development (e.g., idiomatic, socio-cultural, pragmatic, phonological) international students will experience when interacting conversationally with peers within the academic classroom and how this interaction enhances second-language development and the student experience. Since conversational interactions within the academic classroom are dynamic, complex, and collaborative, especially when unstructured, linguistic development may be multifaceted. Yet, the development of complex academic language may be more naturalistic considering the sociocultural and linguistic environment in which these interactions take place.

This review aims to explore how peer conversational interaction plays a role in developing language proficiency. Additionally, it seeks to understand how the diverse experiences of English Language Learners (ELL) students in higher education contexts (e.g., educational, linguistic, social, psychological) are affected by their level of English language proficiency related to conversational interaction. The questions that guide this review are:

1. What are the challenges faced by ELL speakers in peer interaction in academic contexts?
2. How do the outcomes of peer interaction impact ELL students' academic experiences?

Findings suggest that insufficient language proficiency results in several challenges for ELL students, most notably the inability to share their expertise and knowledge with their peers and participate successfully in classroom oral discussions. In addition, however, the literature suggests that language proficiency has a strong impact on the overall experiences of students and on their abilities to navigate the social structures of the academic community and to establish their own identity.

Second Language Acquisition through Peer Interaction

Definition and Role of Peer Interaction

In the research literature concerned with second language acquisition (SLA), peer interaction can be defined as "any communicative activity carried out between learners, where there is minimal or no participation from the teacher" (Philip, Adams, & Iwashita, 2014, p. 3). Peer interaction may involve two or more participants, and when engaged in such activities, participants work collaboratively toward a common goal. The word *peer* may be defined based on the equivalency of one or more factors (e.g., age or skill) pertaining to the participants. In this review, *peer* is based on the factor of participants being university students, and when in *interaction*, at least one participant in the interaction is a student for whom English is an additional language.

Activities which require participants to work together can vary in nature. For instance, in language classrooms, the most common of these are collaborative learning, cooperative learning, and peer tutoring. Philip, Adams and Iwashita (2014) explained that collaborative learning "involves a strong sense of mutuality and joint effort" (p. 3). That is, the task at hand can only be completed if students depend on one another. Cooperative learning is sometimes used interchangeably with collaborative learning. However, Philip and colleagues (2014) explained that cooperative learning "does not always involve mutuality to the same degree" (p. 3). As for peer tutoring, it occurs when one participant–often having more proficiency–assists another of lower proficiency in achieving a desired goal.

Early research on foreign language acquisition has shown that the learning environment must provide opportunities for meaningful social interaction between learners and users of the additional language in order for linguistic and socio-linguistic rules to be properly acquired (Krashen, 1982; Long, 1983, 1996; Swain, 2000). Pica (1987) argues that the type of social interaction most appropriate to the development of language is "that in which learners and their interlocutors share a need and desire to understand each other" (p. 4). In order to comprehend and produce language successfully, learners must re-structure their conversation so that the mutual, intrinsic desire to understand each other can be used to help achieve language acquisition (Pica, Doughty, & Young, 1986).

In this light, conversational peer interactions are of real linguistic value to students in non-language academic classrooms. The social interactions stemming from structured classroom activities that take place in language learning classes may not always require that learners re-structure their language productions, especially because of the evident unequal power, corrective, and evaluative statuses that instructors and students possess. However, interactions that take place in content classes may be significantly less controlled, and may require participants to exchange more information in order for meaning to be made, instead of engaging in pre-designed activities which only invite students to exchange information and sometimes even have more correct answers that will meet the expectations of the instructor.

Benefits of Peer Interaction

Seminal work in second language acquisition has investigated the linguistic benefits gained from peer interaction specifically in ELL classes. Allwright (1984) argued that learning takes place through peer interactions that involve bringing personal value systems to the surface in the classroom. When learners engage in conversational interactions in which they share ideas that matter to them, learning is more likely to occur because this type of interaction engages learners more meaningfully. Allwright (1984) clarified that depth of learning is not necessarily achieved as a consequence of activities that have communicative interaction as their focus. However, oral communication among peers remains a major element in classroom activities that aim to promote students' involvement with learning. It is also through oral communication that students engage collaboratively in the co-construction of meaning.

In addition, Allwright (1984) proposed that peer conversations in the classroom are important based on the idea that "learning may be enhanced by peer discussion" (p. 157). When learners discuss their learning and share their

understandings, better comprehension is likely to follow. Peers may learn from one another or learn "from the very act of attempting to articulate their own understanding" (p. 158). In non-language classes, the topic being examined in peer groups is learned more deeply through conversational interactions. In language classes, conversely, this goal may be achieved in addition to the practising of conversational skills by additional language learners.

Kohn and Vajda (1975) explained that group interaction within the ELL classroom is important because it allows students to manipulate and modify language to understand one another. Students can help and learn from one another as group interactions require them to use "greater self-expression, real self-expression" (p. 381) to achieve meaning. Besides linguistic benefits, Kohn and Vajda proposed that group interaction can help create a positive environment for the students where they may overcome their "feelings of inferiority" and develop a "more positive self-image and identity" (p. 381). Therefore, since peer interaction is linked to both linguistic and psychological benefits, students may perform more meaningfully in the classroom when interactions are encouraged.

More recent research has examined how peer interaction in ELL classes helps learners acquire language forms. In a study with Chinese students, Wang and Castro (2010) found that classroom interaction, especially through group work, helped learners to notice the target form in English. Fang (2010) proposed that classroom interaction can have positive effects on the development and facilitation of additional language learning as it allowed form-focused input to become salient and therefore noticed by learners. In addition, Loewen and Basturkmen (2005), from analysing small group interactions in ELL writing activities, concluded that students paid considerable attention to language forms in general and to discourse in particular when engaged in the activity with their peers.

In content-specific classes, other research has focused on the complex relationships between peer interaction and linguistic ability in higher education contexts. More specifically, research has analysed how an international ELL student's communicative competence in the English language–or the lack thereof–maximises or minimises the possibilities for conversational interactions in academic classrooms and in the overall higher education setting (Hung & Hyun, 2010; Kobayashi, 2016; Lee, 2009; Li, 2004; Morita, 2004; Tatar, 2005; Yang, 2010). Studies of this nature reveal that interacting and participating in classroom oral activities (e.g., in pairs, small-groups, whole-class discussions) tends to be a major challenge faced by students for whom English is an additional language.

Academic Language-related Demands in the Classroom

A number of studies have explored the demands made by the academic context on international ELL students' language proficiency, from the perspective of the student. Ostler (1980) found that ELL students normally possess English language skills for casual communication; however, in terms of speaking proficiency to effectively conduct conversations with professors and peers in the academic context, students' abilities were insufficient. From surveying 70 East Asian international ELL graduate students, Kim (2006) reported that the students identified participating in whole-class discussions, raising questions during class, and engaging in small-group discussions as the three most common activities that took place inside the academic classroom. Out of these activities, the students reported being most concerned about leading class discussions as well as participating in whole-class discussions.

Wright and Lander (2003) investigated differences in rates of verbal interaction during a collaborative group activity outside class time between two groups of students. The researchers worked with 72 first-year male undergraduate Engineering students: 36 Australian-born, Anglo-European students, and 36 foreign-born, South East Asian ELL students at an Australian university. The study measured how the students worked in groups in two arrangements: mono- and bi-ethnic groups. Wright and Lander reported that both Australian and South East Asian students produced fewer verbal interactions when working together in bi-ethnic groups in comparison to when working in mono-ethnic groups. However, even though both ethnic groups produced fewer verbal interactions when working with members of the opposite group, South East Asian students' verbal productions showed a substantial decrease in frequency. The authors argued that in bi-ethnic groups, the Australian students' mode of operation may have been taken as the standard, thus affecting cross-cultural group dynamics.

Cheng, Myles, and Curtis (2004) examined the perceived linguistic and cultural challenges of 59 international ELL graduate students at a Canadian university using a survey and follow-up interviews. The study revealed that leading class discussions was rated by the international students as the most important skill to have based on their academic experiences. Then, the same students were asked to rate the most difficult skill. Leading class discussions emerged again as the most difficult skill. Since leading class discussions requires students to have proficiency in

academic English and content knowledge, the researchers suggested that inadequate language skills, combined with socio-cultural factors, may directly result in unsatisfactory academic performance for international ELL students.

Wu, Garza, and Guzman (2015) interviewed 10 international ELL students at an American university, both undergraduate and graduate. The researchers sought to gain insight into the academic challenges faced by the students and their adjustment strategies. The students reported that the lack of language proficiency imposed significant barriers to their academic success. One of the students reported that she did not participate in group work because she found it difficult to follow her peers' dynamic conversational exchanges. The researchers emphasised the importance of oral proficiency by reporting that all students faced "a number of difficulties when they had to communicate orally in an academic setting" (p. 7).

How do ELL Students Experience Classroom Participation?

Studies suggest that insufficient language proficiency, unfamiliarity with the education system of the host institution, and cultural differences are the major factors influencing classroom participation for ELL students. Tatar (2005) examined the experiences and perceptions around in-class participation of four Turkish graduate students at a university in the US. The students faced ongoing challenges in relation to oral participation and classroom membership in their seminar-style classes. Conflict arising from educational and cultural differences, along with insufficient academic language proficiency for classroom discussions, contributed in complex ways to students' experiences of being peripheral members of the classroom.

Conflicting cultural expectations around the importance and purpose of classroom participation between instructors and ELL students can directly impact the linguistic dimension of students' experiences. Tatar (2005) argued students who come from teacher-centered educational cultures may not see value in oral participation. However, international ELL graduate students are expected to participate in class as actively as their native-speaker peers. Although ELL students may try to meet this expectation, they "worry about sounding competent and intelligent in a foreign language" (p. 338) while interacting with students who may be "dominant in classroom discussions" (p. 338). Tatar illustrated that classroom participation is complex and influenced by factors beyond the linguistic which are underestimated in the literature (see Ferris & Tagg, 1996).

Even when language can be considered the most visible challenge for classroom participation, it may still often be inextricably connected to other "invisible" factors that also affect classroom participation as a whole. Morita (2004) showed some of the ways by which insufficient language proficiency can lead ELL students to feeling excluded from classroom discussions. In her study with six female international graduate students from Japan at a Canadian university, the students felt as though they were not relevant members of their classroom communities because their insufficient language proficiency prevented them from participating orally as competently as their native-speaker peers did. Additionally, however, the ELL students' beliefs concerning satisfactory classroom participation were informed by their former educational acculturation in Japan, which affected how the students understood their peers' behaviour as well as their own.

Despite the influence of cultural and educational differences, the lack of proficiency in English may still be the most critical factor affecting oral participation in class. In Lee's (2009) study, for example, ELL students had exceeded the minimum score required by the university in both the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and the Graduate Record Examination (GRE). However, the students still faced significant linguistic challenges. Lee argued that passing language proficiency tests may not equate to possessing sufficient academic language proficiency for graduate-level studies, "particularly the ability to organise and share ideas in dynamic classroom situations" (p. 143).

Indeed, the register of language required for effective classroom participation may be more complex than what many ELL students expect. In Li's (2004) study, the ELL students had already obtained their high school diploma in China, but decided to repeat high school in Canada specifically to improve their linguistic proficiency. Though the students had also achieved the minimum TOEFL score required for university admission, they realised shortly after that their level of proficiency was not on par to that of their native-speaker peers. One of the students, Magnolia, explained her difficulty by saying: "it's impossible for me to listen to the lectures effectively because I can't understand the professors at all" (p. 34). Considering their linguistic unpreparedness, Li reported that "the students could not and did not take part in class discussions" (p. 34).

The inability to express oneself in classroom interactions can pose serious threats to an international ELL student's well-being. Seo and Koro-Ljungberg (2005) explored this issue by working with "older" international students from Korea. One of the students, Helen, reported feeling continuously frustrated and uncomfortable talking with Americans because of her limited proficiency in English. As a consequence, Helen reported she did not participate in classroom discussions, which led her professor to doubt her capability to successfully complete the course. Not being able to participate in class discussions made Helen feel pressured, stressed, and nervous, and eventually drop the class. The researchers reported that all ELL students' self-confidence decreased as a product of their communication difficulties.

Contributions made by native-speaker peers in classroom discussions may not be considered helpful or constructive by some ELL students. ELL students in Beykont and Daiute's study (2002) found that some of their peers (typically North Americans) "just talk" (p. 38) during class discussions, often in incomplete ideas or based solely on personal experience, without offering relevant and critical contributions to classroom discussions. Furthermore, the students reported that classroom discussions were dominated by native-speakers, "voicing their opinion too often and at the expense of other students" (p. 38). Finally, the students expressed concern in relation to following the fast-paced discussions in which students often interrupted one another (see also Morita, 2004).

Language and Identity in the Classroom

ELL students' identity-related experiences seem to influenced by the situated nature of their academic language practices. As Wenger (1998) pointed out, different communities of practice value different situated abilities and constructs. Oftentimes, ELL students must construct their identities around linguistic competence (Morita, 2004). When a lack of appropriate communicative competence in academic English exists, students' identities may become one of less competent members in the classroom when compared to their native-speaker peers. Because this identity is constructed dynamically, it can also oscillate to one of higher or lower competence in response to other contextual factors, such as class dynamics, the task in which international ELL students are involved, or their culturally-informed beliefs about teaching and learning (Tatar, 2005).

Despite the multifaceted process of identity construction in academic contexts, language may still have the most profound influence. Hung and Hyun (2010) argued that expressing oneself in English is already a major challenge for ELL students studying in English-medium universities, and to make matters worse, when students try to negotiate membership into the academic community, they must do so using "appropriate and sophisticated academic English" (p. 343) which is an ability international ELL students often do not possess.

To illustrate, Liu (2011) explored her own experience as an international ELL student at a university in Canada. Prior to her graduate studies at the host university, Liu had passed three language proficiency tests. However, in her first three months of study, Liu reported she could not understand the language used by her professors and peers in graduate-level classroom discussions. Liu explained that even though she had good ideas to share with the class, she could not express herself clearly in English and, in comparison with her native-speaker peers, she considered herself "stupid" (p. 79).

Silence in the Classroom

Studies have identified ELL students' classroom participation as being commonly characterised by silence. Yet, the reasons and factors behind such classroom behaviour are complex and often informed by cultural, social, linguistic, and psychological aspects— though rarely in isolation. For example, Morita (2004) found that most of the Japanese students were "passive" participants in their classes. Though language anxiety was the main cause, the students identified other factors behind their relative silence: their limited knowledge of the content being discussed, preference for quieter participation, learners' goals, identity of less competent members, outsider status, and their imposed role of individuals with limited English. However, Morita argued that even when the students remained quiet or withdrawn, they were still negotiating their identities through resistance.

In Tatar's (2005) study, silence emerged out of a cultural incongruence. The Turkish students reported remaining silent during class discussions every time they felt their contributions were solely based on personal experience rather than on careful thinking and preparation, which to them was the most valuable type of contribution. The students did not believe their opinions were acceptable in academic discussions. Tatar explained the students had come from an educational culture where interaction with peers in the classroom as a form of learning was virtually non-existent.

Similarly, cultural influence was the factor behind Korean ELL students' silence in Lee's (2009) study. Lee reported that none of the Korean students initiated topics in whole-class discussions. The students nodded and made eye contact to signal attentiveness, but rarely spoke. The students' views on oral participation differed due to their up-bringing in Korean culture. They valued saying fewer, but more important things than saying too much just for the sake of participation and interaction. For them, an individual that spoke too much was seen as "light" or sometimes uneducated. The Korean students saw the instructor as being more knowledgeable than their peers, and based on their experiences with classroom practices in Korea, they normally waited for the instructor to invite the students to raise questions after the main point had been concluded.

The level of anxiety ELL students experience can become detrimental to their overall academic performance and experience. In Brown's study (2008), ELL students would refrain from participating in classroom oral activities when ashamed of their inability to converse with their peers. The students not only employed silence in response to fear of speaking, but also avoided eye contact with the instructor unless their names were called upon. Whenever invited to answer questions, Brown explained that "the looks that crossed their face included panic and anxiety, and in extreme cases, students sat silently, squirming in their seat" (p. 85).

Support in the form of acknowledging and expanding on a student's comment may motivate international ELL students to participate in university tutorials. Marlina (2009) worked with four Asian undergraduate students at an Australian University to investigate the factors which might influence a student's active participation in class. She found that when tutors skipped, interrupted, or ignored students' comments during a tutorial lecture, the students would choose to not further participate because they considered their oral contribution had been de-valued. On the other hand, when tutors or instructors nodded or used small phrases (e.g., "that's good" or "I see," p. 240) to acknowledge the students' oral contribution, the students felt more willing to participate.

Agency and Transformation

Despite all challenges, ELL students are social agents capable of creatively reinventing their classroom experiences. ELL students have been found to employ numerous strategies to mitigate both participation and membership issues in the classroom. Some frequently-employed strategies include: speaking in earlier stages of a discussion, preparing a few points to say in advance, expressing explicitly the desire to participate to their peers and instructors, preparing questions to ask in class beforehand, taking notes during lectures, maintaining eye contact with the instructor, smiling, nodding, flipping through books or notes, answering trivial questions asked by instructors, asking friends and classmates for help, tape-recording lectures, and seeking help directly from the instructor (Li, 2004; Morita, 2004; Tatar, 2005).

Over time, students may also acquire sufficient academic language to help shift the course of their experiences (Hung & Hyun, 2010). An augmented literacy in academic English may foster the acquisition of more discipline-specific knowledge. Despite any linguistic improvement, classroom interaction is still dynamic and co-constructed. In a study conducted by Zhou, Knoke, and Sakamoto (2005), the Chinese students often reported not having opportunities to speak in classroom discussions because they could not react as quickly as their native English-speaking peers did. Understanding the content of class discussions was no longer a challenge for the students, but responding timely to questions and comments them was difficult and required additional time.

Conclusion

The studies reviewed in this paper suggest that proficiency in academic language plays a critical role in ELL students' experiences. Academic language may help ELL students succeed in higher education by enabling them to interact successfully with their peers and instructors. An international student's competency in the English language can be a predictor of the student's adjustment in the new context abroad, which includes the ability to relate to the local academic community (Poyrazli, Arbona, Nora, McPherson, & Pisecco, 2002). Indeed, much of the literature reviewed herein has positioned language proficiency as the dominant factor which interfered with ELL students' successful adjustment in university and, more specifically, with their active participation in the classroom.

ELL students may encounter significant challenges in their attempts to effectively interact conversationally in academic English. From a perspective of community of practice (Wenger, 2006), second language acquisition, and by extension, academic language proficiency, may occur more successfully if students have regular and constructive

opportunities to engage in peer interactions whose focus is on a task that involves oral communication (Hung & Hyun, 2010). Instructors can contribute to this linguistic development by devising and implementing meaningful and collaborative interactional activities into the curriculum in which ELL students are paired strategically with native-speaker students.

Additionally, language proficiency has an impact on identity development. Since intellectual competence is often constructed around language proficiency, being proficient in (academic) English may be the key factor in allowing students to diverge the course of the academic experiences that negatively affect the enactment of their identities. In this case, effective and continuous language support can contribute to enhancing ELL students' language proficiency. Without the appropriate level of language, ELL students are likely to remain in a disadvantaged, marginalised position (Morita, 2004).

Interaction is the main source for oral language development for ELL students. Although the experiences of ELL students explored in the studies indicate some personal success (e.g., more familiarity with the host education system, socialisation with peers, reinvented identities, greater proficiency), there has been limited reporting on the linguistic gains achieved by ELL students from engaging in peer interactions. One way to interpret the lack of reported linguistic development is through the lens of the Interaction Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985). As reported by the students and sometimes their instructors, ELL students were (and may still be) presented with inadequate opportunities to interact with their peers. When interactions are constructed around a comprehensible, yet slightly higher, level of language linguistic development may be likelier to follow for ELL students.

Classroom dynamics also influence ELL students' participatory experiences. As suggested, interaction can be dominated by native-speaker peers (Tatar, 2005; Zhou et al., 2005). As reported by the researchers, most of the ELL students lacked the ability to respond naturalistically to the oral contributions initiated by their peers. Some of the students even reported being interrupted when they did have the chance to speak up. Therefore, for ELL students in non-language academic classes, interactions may be most beneficial when they are somewhat regulated by the instructor or when native-speaker students are aware of their ELL peers' linguistic needs.

A number of concerns have emerged from this review and merit future research. The literature reviewed herein did not focus on measuring or quantifying gains in language proficiency. In-depth, long-term research focused on linguistic development through peer interaction could help clarify and specify how and which kinds of interactional activities may be most productive for ELL students' development of language proficiency. More research can also explore instructor's beliefs in relation to supporting linguistic development through peer interaction, and how students of higher language proficiency can be more aware of the linguistic needs of their ELL peers. Research can examine what pedagogical (Tavares, 2017) or institutional changes should be implemented so that ELL students' academic experiences may be less challenging (Tavares, 2016).

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Critique du livre : Perez et Assude (dir.) (2013). Pratiques inclusives et savoirs scolaires – Paradoxes, contradictions et perspectives. France : Éditions Presses Universitaires de Nancy.

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Résumé : Cette critique examine l'ouvrage intitulé « Pratiques inclusives et savoirs scolaires – Paradoxes, contradictions et perspectives » dirigé par Jean-Michel Perez et Teresa Assude en 2013. Ce collectif comprend treize chapitres approfondissant différents aspects de l'éducation inclusive et des pratiques inclusives mises en place en contexte français majoritairement. La partie narrative résume l'ensemble des chapitres présents dans l'ouvrage et la partie argumentative pose un regard sur l'ensemble de l'œuvre et de sa qualité.

Mots-clés : Critique de livre, Pratiques inclusives, Accessibilité des savoirs

Abstract: This review examines the book entitled "Pratiques inclusives et savoirs scolaires – Paradoxes, contradictions et perspectives" directed by Jean-Michel Perez and Teresa Assude in 2013. This collective includes thirteen chapters exploring different aspects of inclusive education and inclusive practices in a French context mainly. The narrative part summarizes all the chapters present in the book and the argumentative part takes a look at the whole work and its quality.

Keywords : Book review, Inclusive practices, knowledge accessibility

Introduction

L'inclusion scolaire fait partie intégrante des transformations au sein des différentes instances scolaires actuellement, et ce, à travers un grand nombre de pays. La présente critique de livre cible un ouvrage qui se situe spécifiquement dans ce contexte d'éducation inclusive. Comme l'indique la première partie du titre, « Pratiques inclusives et savoirs scolaires », il est question de l'opérationnalisation de l'inclusion scolaire, basée sur les lois et les recommandations de diverses instances. La continuité du titre « paradoxes, contradictions et perspectives » soulève également les obstacles et les glissements possibles dans l'opérationnalisation du processus d'inclusion scolaire.

La critique littéraire de cet ouvrage a précisément été choisie par l'auteure au regard du contexte scolaire québécois actuel qui prône de plus en plus l'inclusion scolaire (Conseil Supérieur de l'Éducation [CSÉ], 2017), tout comme c'est le cas en France. Au regard des différentes recensions des écrits réalisées préalablement, nous avons pu constater que plusieurs auteurs concentrent leurs travaux sur les pratiques d'enseignement favorisant l'inclusion scolaire (Prud'Homme, Paré, Leblanc, Bergeron, Sermier Dessemontet et Noël, 2016 ; Vienneau, 2006), mais que la majorité d'entre eux ciblent les pratiques inclusives qui entrent dans une optique de pédagogie plutôt que de didactique. Dans cet ouvrage-ci, ce sont plutôt les savoirs scolaires, se référant aux pratiques didactiques, qui sont approfondis au regard de l'inclusion scolaire et qui constituent l'objet principal des différents chapitres. Cet ouvrage, qui est en fait un collectif, apparait donc comme étant innovant étant donné que peu d'écrits étudient cet aspect didactique dans les pratiques d'enseignement inclusives.

Cette publication est un ouvrage collectif dans lequel plusieurs auteurs, de différentes expertises reliées à l'éducation et à l'inclusion scolaire, ont contribué par la rédaction d'une variété de chapitres tous complémentaires. Le tout est dirigé par deux auteurs, Jean-Michel Perez et Teresa Assude. Jean-Michel Perez est maitre de conférences et directeur du LISEC de l'Université de Lorraine en France. Quant à Teresa Assude, elle est professeure à l'Université d'Aix-Marseille. De plus, elle est responsable de l'équipe ACADIS, du réseau OPHRIS et de la mention 4 « Pratiques et ingénierie de formation » du master MEEF. Ces auteurs qui assurent la direction de l'ouvrage peuvent donc être considérés comme des experts au sujet de l'inclusion scolaire et des savoirs scolaires en jeu.

Dans cette critique du livre, la première partie résume l'ensemble des chapitres et offre une brève analyse des forces et des faiblesses de l'ouvrage. Finalement, la deuxième partie de cet article met en lumière une analyse plus générale des postures décrites et argumentées par les différents auteurs de l'ouvrage.

1. Partie narrative de l'ouvrage

Le premier chapitre intitulé « La règle et la norme ou comment dépasser l'hiatus de l'inclusion scolaire » est écrit par Joël Zaffran. Ce chapitre situe notamment les concepts d'intégration et d'inclusion scolaire ainsi que les enjeux qui y sont reliés sur le niveau juridique avec les lois françaises et sur le plan des enjeux pédagogiques et didactiques. De plus, le concept de situation de handicap est décrit avec le regard que cette perception de l'élève ayant des besoins éducatifs particuliers porte sur l'ensemble des pratiques inclusives mises en place par les intervenants scolaires, dont les enseignants. L'auteur de ce chapitre place ainsi les différentes composantes des pratiques scolaires afin de faciliter la lecture des chapitres suivants et rappelle l'angle de cet ouvrage ; l'inclusion scolaire spécifiquement étudiée pour les élèves ayant des difficultés. Malgré le fait que l'inclusion scolaire ne concerne pas seulement les élèves en difficulté, mais bien toutes les différences possibles au sein des élèves (socioéconomiques, culturelles, langagières, religieuses), cet ouvrage cible les élèves en situation de handicap et les pratiques inclusives mises en place pour favoriser leur accès aux savoirs scolaires.

Le deuxième chapitre intitulé « Analyse critique du processus d'intégration scolaire en Italie : vers une prospective inclusive » est écrit par G. Valada, R. Medeghini et S. D'Alessio. Ce chapitre aborde les conditions actuelles de l'inclusion et de l'intégration scolaire dans le système scolaire italien. De plus, un aperçu est également donné sur les différentes lois prônées par le mouvement de l'inclusion scolaire. Ces auteurs affirment, entre autres, que le processus d'inclusion scolaire est enclenché et qu'il est organisé et optimal pour la majorité des élèves en Italie. Une description des pratiques courantes telles que le « profil dynamique fonctionnel (PD) » et le « plan éducatif individualisé (PEI) » est faite en plus des différents rôles des intervenants quant à ces pratiques. Les pratiques inclusives italiennes sont décrites tout en restant accessible à un lecteur novice. Elles approfondissent les pratiques d'enseignement autant que la socialisation entre les élèves. En cohérence avec le chapitre précédent, le dilemme entre l'approche psychomédicale et l'approche systémique du « handicap » est présent dans le contexte scolaire italien.

Le troisième chapitre intitulé « Les impasses de l'inclusion : obstacles théoriques et résistances langagières » est écrit par Hervé Benoit. Il est question ici des obstacles épistémologiques issus de la profession enseignante. L'auteur fait une analyse théorique de ces obstacles ainsi que des aspects langagiers et terminologiques qui définissent le courant de l'inclusion scolaire et des pratiques inclusives qui l'opérationnalisent. En bref, cette analyse permet de définir et de comprendre le concept de situation de handicap et les différents glissements possibles.

Le quatrième chapitre intitulé « Inclusion scolaire forcée ou immersion dans son handicap en première personne ? » est écrit par Bernard Andrieu. Ce dernier met en exergue le point de vue des personnes qui sont dites handicapées sur leur propre condition de vie. Il est, entre autres, question de la normalisation sociale des corps et des différences. Par exemple, cet auteur s'intéresse à la perception que l'individu ayant un handicap a de lui-même et de ce qu'il accomplit ou de ce qu'il essaie d'accomplir, parce que les normes sociales peuvent l'empêcher de réaliser l'ensemble de ses actions et qu'il est « restreint » à cause de son handicap. Les différents propos soulèvent également l'importance de la perception des directions et des enseignants sur la
« norme » qu'ils construisent au sujet des élèves de l'école. Une question importante de ce chapitre est : « Peut-on effacer le handicap par son inclusion scolaire ? ». L'auteur avance en partie une réponse à cette question en affirmant que « le pouvoir des associations qui revendiquent une réelle égalité de traitement de tous les enfants trouvent que l'inclusion favorise une invisibilisation du handicap. » (Andrieu, 2013, p.66). Toujours selon l'auteur, peu de réflexion ou de formation initiale et continue sur cette mixité entre les différents élèves étant handicap/valide ou inapte/compétent est mise en œuvre par l'éducation nationale, sinon au cas par cas; certains posent le constat d'une dilution des différences, notamment celles des élèves handicapés.

Dans la deuxième partie de l'ouvrage intitulée « Les petits pas du quotidien », cinq chapitres sont présentés. Le cinquième chapitre intitulé « Jeu de l'oie ou jeu de la bande numérique : quelles potentialités? Quels obstacles? » est écrit par Teresa Assude, Jean-Michel Perez, Jeannette Tambone et Aliette Vérillon. Le milieu didactique à l'étude est issu du « jeu de l'oie », un jeu de société culturel et populaire pour les élèves français. Il est intéressant de constater ici que cette activité ludique comporte plusieurs obstacles didactiques. L'analyse principale consiste à décrire et à analyser ces obstacles didactiques (nommés également comme des conditions) issus du jeu de l'oie, dont l'orientation spatiale sur la planche de jeu, la présence d'éléments numériques et la quantité d'informations culturelles qui distraient l'élève de l'enjeu didactique.

Le sixième chapitre intitulé « Pratique philosophique en ASH : quelles médiations pour quels apprentissages ? », écrit par Marie-Paule Vannier et Edwige Chiroutier, traite des rapports que les enseignants ont avec les pratiques philosophiques dans ce contexte spécifique de « sections d'enseignement général et professionnel adapté » (SEGPA). Les résultats ici démontrent quelles pratiques ont été réalisées dans une classe et comment la perception et l'attitude des élèves ont changé au fil du temps pour, parfois, venir modifier leur rapport aux savoirs et leur participation en classe. Ces pratiques sont réalisées de plusieurs façons, mais dans ce cas-ci, le moyen d'utilisation était la littérature jeunesse. Ainsi, un glissement possible est d'utiliser ces livres jeunesse, ciblés pour des élèves du primaire avec les élèves de SEGPA (âge du collège) et de les « infantiliser » d'une certaine manière, tout dépendamment des caractéristiques de l'œuvre choisie. Selon ces auteurs, la pratique réflexive est un élément essentiel pour la pratique philosophique à partir des livres, mais encore une fois, les élèves doivent avoir une connaissance et une ouverture à réfléchir collectivement. Bref, ce chapitre fait état des enjeux et de quelques pratiques intéressantes de l'éducation à la philosophie.

Le septième chapitre intitulé « Adaptation d'un problème mathématique pour des élèves avec autisme ou présentant une dyslexie » est écrit par Teresa Assude, Anne Gombert, Jean-Michel Perez et Carole Faure-Brac. Ce chapitre propose une analyse des pratiques inclusives réalisées par les enseignants lors de l'enseignement des mathématiques. En effet, dans un contexte inclusif, les enseignants sont amenés à adapter les différentes situations d'apprentissage pour optimiser l'accessibilité de ces élèves au savoir. Néanmoins, les adaptations réalisées sont davantage au niveau pédagogique et négligent, parfois, le savoir en jeu. L'outil de recherche employé pour explorer et pour décrire les adaptations d'une situation mathématique est présenté dans ce chapitre ainsi que les différentes modalités d'analyse. Sommairement, une situation d'apprentissage a été présentée à des groupes d'enseignants et ils ont dû l'adapter pour des élèves fictifs ayant un trouble du spectre de l'autisme (TSA) ou une dyslexie. Le cœur de ce chapitre démontre l'analyse de ces adaptations et la portée sur les enjeux didactiques en contexte d'inclusion scolaire.

Le huitième chapitre intitulé « Mises en œuvre parfois paradoxales dans l'action conjointe enseignant-AVS-élève handicapé. Deux études de cas à l'école primaire » est écrit par Marie Toullec-Théry. Ce chapitre approfondit, comme son titre l'indique, l'action conjointe de dyades d'enseignantes et d'auxiliaires à la vie scolaire (AVS) dans un contexte d'inclusion scolaire. Plusieurs recherches citées dans ce chapitre mentionnent les difficultés dans l'arrimage des rôles et des interventions réalisées par les adultes dans une classe régulière où des élèves en difficulté sont présents. L'analyse de ce chapitre se fait sur la base de la Théorie de l'action conjointe didactique, plus précisément en approfondissant le modèle du jeu didactique et les épistémologies pratiques des deux enseignants présents dans cette recherche. L'analyse des résultats révèle, entre autres, des questionnements sur le plan de la professionnalisation des AVS, du regard que les enseignants portent sur les AVS et le partage des responsabilités qui en découle. Selon ces auteurs, cet aspect est primordial dans le contexte de l'inclusion scolaire pour favoriser un arrimage du soutien éducatif.

Le neuvième chapitre intitulé « Pratiques coopératives d'un binôme. Professeur ULIS-Professeur 6e de collège. Articulation d'instances d'apprentissage pour construire des connaissances disciplinaires » est écrit par Isabelle Nédélec-Trohel et Catherine Souplet. Dans le même ordre d'idées que le chapitre précédent, les auteures de celui-ci explorent les pratiques coopératives réalisées en contexte d'unité localisée pour l'inclusion scolaire (ULIS). Cette collaboration entre les deux professeurs est décrite afin de

comprendre le contexte spécifique et les pratiques qui sont mises en place. Sommairement, il ressort de ces pratiques coopératives qu'elles peuvent être qualifiées de respectueuses, de distinctes, mais de complémentaires et qu'elles ont une influence sur le positionnement professionnel de chacun.

Dans la troisième partie de l'ouvrage intitulée « Rendre visibles les corps et les savoirs », quatre chapitres sont présentés. Le dixième chapitre intitulé « Quelle place pour l'aide pédagogique spécialisée dans l'école inclusive ? » est écrit par Serge Thomazet et Corinne Merini. Dans ce chapitre, les auteurs approfondissent la nature des tâches d'une catégorie d'enseignants, les maitres E, chargés de l'aide pédagogique spécialisée. Dans le cours actuel de l'inclusion scolaire, la nature de ces tâches est amenée à évoluer et c'est ce constat qui est étudié. Ils se questionnent à savoir si cette aide pédagogique est désormais appelée à être également une aide collaborative avec les différents enseignants qui gravitent autour des élèves. Ce serait en effet ces situations collaboratives qui permettraient de mettre en place des aides pédagogiques spécialisées efficientes pour les besoins du milieu et des élèves ciblés.

Le onzième chapitre intitulé « Évolution et caractérisation de la professionnalité inclusive. Vers la conception de formes didactiques et d'accompagnement adaptés » est écrit par Muriel Frisch et Antoine Zapata. La professionnalité inclusive, en réponse au mouvement scolaire actuel, est détaillée dans ce chapitre sous le point de vue d'enseignants et de chercheurs. Les hypothèses des auteurs sont qu'il existe une didactique adaptée aux élèves ayant des besoins particuliers et qu'il existe également des formes d'accompagnement adaptées qui mènent à une professionnalisation inclusive. Divers constats ressortent des collectes de données réalisées entre les intervenants. Par exemple, l'accueil d'un élève à besoins particuliers par un enseignant en classe ordinaire constitue un moment déstabilisant, sachant que l'enseignant ne sait pas à quoi s'attendre ni quelles ressources qu'il devra mobiliser. Cette « inquiétante étrangeté » est, entre autres, une des tensions nommées par les enseignants.

Le douzième chapitre intitulé « De quelques pistes pour augmenter les chances de réussir l'inclusion scolaire » est écrit par Benoît Blossier. L'auteur de ce chapitre, ayant une déficience visuelle depuis l'enfance, parle de sa propre expérience comme élève. Une description de son expérience scolaire, des obstacles et des facilitateurs dans son parcours inclusif – du primaire, au collège, au lycée puis aux études supérieures – vient ajouter des nuances quant à l'expérience inclusive perçue par les élèves ayant des difficultés.

Le treizième chapitre intitulé « Formation et handicaps simulés : deux dispositifs en escalade et en judo » est écrit par Éric Mangeant et Michel Calmet. Les auteurs de ce chapitre s'inscrivent dans le domaine des activités physiques et sportives, plus précisément, l'escalade et le judo. Ainsi, des analyses sont réalisées dans une situation de « handicap simulé » (limitation de l'activité par une simulation de handicap sensoriel ou moteur). L'objectif est principalement d'étudier des situations d'enseignement sous contraintes qui sont perçues comme des situations de résolution de problèmes. Ce dernier chapitre met en lumière, entre autres, qu'à la suite de ces simulations, les étudiants ne perçoivent plus les « handicapés » seulement sous l'angle du handicap en tant que tel ; ils sont vus sous l'angle d'apprenants à qui il faut proposer des situations didactiques adaptées aux savoirs ciblés.

En conclusion, les auteurs qui dirigent l'ouvrage explicitent différents aspects de l'inclusion scolaire, notamment dans les différentes pratiques inclusives mises en place par les intervenants pour conserver les savoirs scolaires nécessaires à la formation et prescrits, entre autres, par les programmes de formation. De notre côté, les pratiques inclusives ciblant les savoirs scolaires sont de plusieurs ordres (Dupuis Brouillette, April, Beaulieu et St-Jean, 2018) en analysant cet ouvrage ; il est possible de constater des pratiques sociales, telles que la normalisation et les différentes politiques sociales, des pratiques didactiques, notamment avec l'enseignement réalisé et les adaptations suggérées, mais également des pratiques organisationnelles, telles que la collaboration entre intervenants et les procédures administratives pour favoriser une inclusion scolaire optimale. Ainsi, même si cet ouvrage se situe d'emblée dans une optique didactique de l'inclusion scolaire, les chapitres abordent, à un moment ou à un autre, différents aspects des pratiques inclusives. La complexité de ce phénomène est dès lors reconnue et approfondie.

2. Partie argumentative de l'ouvrage

Sommairement, nous sommes d'avis que la contribution de cet ouvrage pour l'avancée des connaissances sur les pratiques inclusives et les savoirs scolaires est tout à fait pertinente. Toutefois, il est possible de constater dans cet ouvrage que les termes utilisés oscillent parfois entre intégration et inclusion. Certains auteurs utilisent une terminologie respectant plus au moins le processus d'inclusion scolaire, mais ces glissements sont minimes. Il importe au lecteur d'approfondir les affirmations des auteurs de chacun des chapitres afin de bien comprendre leurs postures explicitées.

À la suite de cette lecture, nous statuons que la posture épistémologique de l'ensemble des auteurs de l'ouvrage se situe dans le paradigme systémique en affirmant que la « difficulté » de l'élève serait en fait « situationnelle », c'est-à-dire que l'élève ne manifeste pas des difficultés en tout temps et dans toutes les situations didactiques. Assude, Koudogbo, Millon-Fauré, Tambone, Theis et Morin (2016) abondent en ce sens en soulignant que « ce dernier courant est systémique puisque les difficultés des élèves sont étudiées relativement aux conditions dans lesquelles elles se déploient » (p.64). Cette approche systémique de la situation du handicap est également appuyée par Fougeyrollas (2010). La posture des auteurs de cet ouvrage s'inscrit dans l'approche systémique et fait référence, de ce fait, très peu à l'approche psychomédicale. Ce point de vue est identifié, décrit et justifié dès le premier chapitre de l'ouvrage. Ainsi, ce livre comporte plusieurs avantages sur le plan théorique, pour les chercheurs notamment, mais il comprend également certaines limites pour les enseignants et les intervenants scolaires qui s'y reconnaissent moins étant donné que l'approche systémique est moins présente dans les milieux scolaires que l'approche psychomédicale. La position des auteurs de l'ouvrage est tout à fait pertinente et justifiable, mais les milieux scolaires québécois, dans leur ensemble, sont peu prêts à entrer dans cette voie des pratiques inclusives, sachant qu'ils se situent davantage dans le courant de l'intégration scolaire, de l'assimilation et de la normalisation (Conseil Supérieur de l'Éducation [CSÉ], 2017; Lanaris, April et Dupuis Brouillette, à paraitre; Tremblay, 2012). Toutefois, nous croyons fermement que des ouvrages tels que celui-ci permettent de démontrer les possibilités de l'inclusion scolaire et pourraient, à long terme, en inspirer et structurer l'opérationnalisation dans les milieux scolaires.

Conclusion

Pour conclure, ce livre constitue un élément de réponse quant aux pratiques inclusives à mettre en place pour tout intervenant s'inscrivant dans le processus d'éducation inclusive. En effet, les pratiques inclusives et, notamment, les pratiques d'enseignement inclusives prennent de plus en plus d'ampleur dans les études des chercheurs et dans les préoccupations des intervenants des milieux scolaires. Les auteurs le mentionnent; il convient de les étudier, mais sans oublier l'analyse didactique de ces pratiques inclusives afin de conserver le sens du savoir enseigné.

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