

Framing Teacher Education in Chile: Negotiating Local, National, and International Discourses

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FRAMING TEACHER EDUCATION IN CHILE: NEGOTIATING
LOCAL, NATIONAL, AND INTERNATIONAL DISCOURSES

Dissertation
by

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of the requirements for the degree of
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ABSTRACT

FRAMING TEACHER EDUCATION IN CHILE: NEGOTIATING LOCAL, NATIONAL, AND INTERNATIONAL DISCOURSES

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Since the 1990s, many countries have used accountability mechanisms in teacher preparation. Aligned with this trend, the Chilean Ministry of Education has created national policies, which include national standards and an exit test for student teachers, grants for teacher education programs, and university scholarships for prospective teachers. These policies have been implemented in Chile, within the context of high social segregation and inequality, where accountability and deregulation work together.

The purpose of this study is to explore how teaching and teacher education are constructed in national teacher education policy and university-based programs in Chile by unpacking assumptions about teaching, teacher education, and justice using frame analysis. This study analyzes national policy documents related to initial teacher education in Chile as well as semi-structured interviews and university and course documents from two teacher preparation programs.

This dissertation argues that the influence of Chile's national teacher education policies on local teacher preparation programs was not uniform across the programs. Rather both national and local frames were influenced by international organizations and universities. This overarching argument is based on four related propositions: 1) teacher preparation programs have different conceptions of practice-based teacher education and

teaching while they have similar conceptions of justice; 2) the differences among faculties' conceptions are shaped by different narratives, based on participants' view of themselves and their programs, conceptions of teaching knowledge, participation in policies, and alignment and articulation; 3) national policies and teacher preparation programs have different conceptions of teaching and teacher education, but they have similar conceptions of justice; and, 4) Chilean national policies are influenced by international discourses even though they use different narratives to promote their changes.

This study has implications for research, policy, practice, and activism. Building on the study's findings, I constructed a framework that expands the notion of the policy web, incorporating the connection between local and international discourses in teacher education. This framework also identifies four dimensions that shape university's faculty conceptions and explain the differences among programs.

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LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: <i>Type of University that Teachers Attended and Type of High Schools that Teachers had Attended by Ruffinelli (2009)</i>	4
Table 2: <i>Type of School where the Teacher Worked and Type of High School that They had Attended by Ruffinelli (2009)</i>	5
Table 3: <i>Type of University that Teachers had Attended and Type of School where They Worked by Ruffinelli (2009)</i>	6
Table 4: <i>Differences between Elementary Programs Studied</i>	123
Table 5: <i>Official National Policy Documents Analyzed</i>	126
Table 6: <i>Institutional Documents Analyzed</i>	130
Table 7: <i>Course Documents Analyzed by Program</i>	135
Table 8: <i>Interview Participants</i>	138
Table 9: <i>Interview Topics</i>	140
Table 10: <i>Interview Length</i>	141
Table 11: <i>Example of Questions by Sub-components</i>	143

LIST OF FIGURES

<i>Figure 1. Total Enrollment of Teacher Preparation Programs by Ávalos (2014)</i>	17
<i>Figure 2. Major Regulations and Organizations in Initial Teacher Education prior to March 2016</i>	26
<i>Figure 3. Teacher Preparation Programs' Web.</i>	125
<i>Figure 4. Categories and Data Sources. Research Question 2: How are teaching, learning, and justice framed in two teacher preparation programs?</i>	152
<i>Figure 5. Equity and Diversity in the Curriculum in the Central Campus</i>	211
<i>Figure 6. Equity and Diversity in the Curriculum in the Branch Campus</i>	224
<i>Figure 7. Dimensions that Shape Programs' Conceptions</i>	252
<i>Figure 8. Effect of Teacher Quality by Ministry of Education based on McKinsey & Company's Report 2007 (Barber & Mourshed, 2008)</i>	264
<i>Figure 9. Achievement Gap in Chile by Ministry of Education</i>	289
<i>Figure 10. Teacher Preparation Policy Web in Chile</i>	309

<i>Figure 11.</i> Framework to study and explore policies in teacher education programs	323
<i>Figure 12.</i> General framework to study and explore policies in teacher education programs.....	324

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	i
LIST OF TABLES	iii
CHAPTER 1: Teacher Education Accountability in the Context of Inequity	1
Research Questions and Subquestions	12
Chilean Teacher Education History and Context	14
Teacher Preparation Policies Examined in this Study	20
Overview of this Dissertation	27
Organization of the Dissertation	31
CHAPTER 2: Review of the Literature	35
Theoretical Framework	35
Policy as discourse and policy web	35
Social justice and teacher education	41
Literature Review	47
Research on initial teacher education policy	47
Research about teacher preparation and social justice	80
CHAPTER 3: Research Design	117
Connecting the Literature Review with the Current Study	117
Research Sites	119
Data Sources and Participants in the Study	125
National level	125
University level	129
Data Analysis	146
CHAPTER 4: Teaching and Teacher Education as a Transferable Product or as a Craft	155
The Problem of Teacher Education	157
Central Campus	157
Branch Campus	162
Conceptions of Teacher Preparation and Teaching	168
Central Campus	169
Branch Campus	182
Conceptions of Justice	194
Central Campus	196
Branch Campus	211
CHAPTER 5. Stories of Power that Shaped Conceptions of Teacher Education, Teaching, and Justice	226
The Central Campus: A Story of Control	229
The Branch Campus: A Story of Helplessness	240
Dimensions across the Stories of Power	251
CHAPTER 6. Similarities and Differences between National, Local, and International Policy Frames	256
The Problem of Education and Teacher Education	261
Conceptions of Teacher Education and Teaching	272

Conceptions of teacher education.	272
Conceptions of teaching.....	282
Conceptions of Justice.....	287
Stories that Shaped the Conceptions of Teaching, Teacher Education, and Justice ...	295
A story of national development and justice.....	297
CHAPTER 7. Conclusions and Implications.....	312
Implications for Research.....	314
Implications for National Policy	324
Implications for Practitioners (local level policy makers)	333
Implications for Activism.....	336
Limitations and Future Research.....	338
References	341
Appendices	356
Appendix A	356
Appendix B	368
Appendix C	370
Appendix D	372

CHAPTER 1: Teacher Education Accountability in the Context of Inequity

Controversies about how to prepare teachers have existed in the educational community for a long time. However, debates about teacher preparation quality have been more salient and more contentious during the last twenty years, as teacher preparation has been directly implicated in alleged low teacher quality and school failure. Since the 1990s, educational policies in many Western countries have attempted to regulate the curriculum, form, and arrangements of teacher preparation using new accountability mechanisms as a lever for teacher preparation reform (Cochran-Smith, Piazza & Power, 2013; Cohen-Vogel, 2005; Early, 2000; Stephens, Tønnessen, & Kyriacou, 2004). This trend is reflected in the implementation of new standards, accreditation procedures, and certification policies in many countries such as the U.S., Norway, England, and Chile. Many critics have argued that these accountability policies are consistent with neoliberal principles, such as choice, competition, and individualism (Cochran-Smith et al., 2013; Conway, 2013; Earley, 2000). In addition, some scholars argue that similarities across countries in the increased use of high stakes standards and accountability mechanisms to regulate teacher preparation is the result of a complex interaction between national debates and the influence of international organizations, such as the OECD, European Union, and World Bank (Conway, 2013; Semela, 2014).

Consistent with this international accountability trend, in 2008, the Ministry of Education in Chile created new policies at the national level to strengthen the curriculum and practices of teacher education programs (Cox, Meckes, & Bascopé, 2010; García-Huidobro, 2010; Manzi, 2010). These policies include common standards and a national

exit test for student teachers as well as grants for improving teacher education programs at specific institutions. In 2010, the Ministry of Education made these reforms central to teacher preparation policy and added a new component—university scholarships for prospective teachers who had high achievement scores on the national university admissions test (MINEDUC, 2012a).

This trend of using high stakes standards and accountability policies to boost teacher preparation quality has been accompanied by a great deal of international controversy. There are conflicting opinions about expected and unexpected outcomes and the effects of accountability mechanisms on teacher preparation content and on teacher professionalization (See Bell & Youngs, 2011; Chandler, 1990; Early, 2000; Hickok, 1998; Lerman, 2014; Scannell & Metcalf, 2000; Sears, 2002). For example, some critics argue that more rigorous accreditation of teacher preparation programs will increase the number of qualified teachers in the schools and increase the status of the profession (Hickok, 1998). Meanwhile, others argue that new accreditation processes concentrate inappropriately on basic skills and establish procedures for the continual surveillance of teachers and teacher educators (Lerman, 2014). Furthermore, critics claim that tighter accountability policies in teacher preparation have narrowed the curriculum, omitted critical and moral debates from teacher preparation, reduced local control, and resulted in overall deprofessionalization of teaching, limiting it to an instrumental and technical task (Butin, 2005; Conway, 2013; Earley, 2000; Stephens et al., 2004). Additionally, Cochran-Smith et al. (2013) argue that many accountability policies, although aimed at increasing equity in the sense of providing each student access to a quality teacher, have not attended to larger issues about justice and about what creates inequities in the first place.

In Chile, new accountability policies in teacher education have been implemented in the context of high levels of social segregation and inequality based on the socioeconomic background of K-12 students (Cavieres, 2011; García-Huidobro, 2007; Torche, 2005; Valenzuela, Bellei, & De los Ríos, 2010). Along these lines, García-Huidobro (2007) describes Chilean K-12 education as a highly stratified educational system, which he called a system of “ghettos,” where access to education depends upon socioeconomic background. Students who come from low-income families achieve lower results on the national standardized test (SIMCE) in contrast to students who come from high-income families (Cisterna, 2007; Torche, 2005). Additionally, students who attend voucher schools¹ mostly come from families with medium or high socioeconomic backgrounds, while students who attend private schools come almost exclusively from families with high socioeconomic backgrounds, and students who attend public schools come almost exclusively from families with low socioeconomic status (García-Huidobro, 2007).

This system of segregation and inequality can also be observed in teacher preparation programs at the university level. Ruffinelli and Guerrero (2009) surveyed 247 recently graduated student teachers about their academic and career paths. This sample represented 14.5% of students who graduated from Chilean universities in 2009. They concluded that most teachers who attended teacher education programs in selective universities had also attended private high schools as K-12 students. In contrast, as Table 1 shows, teachers who attended teacher education programs in universities with low levels of selectivity had also attended K-12 public or voucher schools.

¹ Voucher schools in Chile are private schools subsidized by the government through vouchers based on student enrollment and attendance. Usually, they charge parents a co-payment. This situation changed in March, 2016 with the implementation of the “School Inclusion Law,” which

Table 1: *Type of University that Teachers Attended and Type of High Schools that Teachers had Attended by Ruffinelli (2009)*

		Type of school where teachers had attend			Total	
		Public	Voucher	Private		
Classificati on of universities	Public and selective	Number of teachers	21	24	9	54
		Percentage %	38,9%	44,4%	16,7%	100,0 %
	Public with low or non- selective	Number of teachers	35	44	2	81
		Percentage %	43,2%	54,3%	2,5%	100,0 %
	Private and selective	Number of teachers	6	15	19	40
		Percentage %	15,0%	37,5%	47,5%	100,0 %
	Private with low or non- selective	Number of teachers	16	33	2	51
		Percentage %	31,4%	64,7%	3,9%	100,0 %
	Total	Number of teachers	78	116	32	226
		Percentage %	34,5%	51,3%	14,2%	10

Ruffinelli and Guerrero's (2009) and Ruffinelli's (2009) studies showed that this highly

segregated educational system was reproduced in the schools that employed teachers after they had finished their teacher education programs. In other words, most teachers who attended a particular type of school ended up teaching in that same type of school: For example, 65.9% of teachers who worked in public schools had attended public high schools as students. None of the teachers who had attended public schools worked in private schools. Additionally 63.2% of teachers who taught in voucher schools had attended voucher schools. As Table 2 illustrates, among teachers who worked in private schools, 57.6% also had attended private schools.

Table 2: *Type of School where the Teacher Worked and Type of High School that They had Attended by Ruffinelli (2009)*

		Type of school that teachers had attend			Total	
		Public	Voucher	Private		
Type of school where teacher work	Public	Number of teachers	27	14	0	41
		Percentage %	65,9%	34,1%	0%	100,0%
	Voucher	Number of teachers	36	72	6	114
		Percentage %	31,6%	63,2%	5,3%	100,0%
	Private	Number of teachers	3	11	19	33
		Percentage %	9,1%	33,3%	57,6%	100,0%
	Total		66	97	25	188

	35,1%	51,6%	13,3%	100%
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In addition to this highly reproductive system based on types of schools and schooling, different teacher preparation programs were associated with different career paths for teachers. Eighty percent of teachers who graduated from selective public universities went on to work in voucher or private schools. Similarly more than 97% of teachers who graduated from selective private universities taught in voucher or private schools. In contrast, as Table 3 shows, only 7.6% of teachers who graduated from non-selective public universities and 2.5% of teachers who graduated from private non-selective universities taught in private schools.

Table 3: *Type of University that Teachers had Attended and Type of School where They Worked by Ruffinelli (2009)*

			Type of school where teachers work			Total
			Public	Voucher	Private	
			10	26	15	51
Classification of universities	Public and selective	Number of teachers				
		Percentage %	19,6%	51%	29,4%	100,0 %
			22	51	6	79
	Public with low or non-selective	Number of teachers				
		Percentage %	27,8%	64,6%	7,6%	100,0 %
			1	20	15	36
	Private and	Number of teachers				

selective		2,8%	55,6%	41,7%	100,0%
Percentage %					
Private with low or non-selective	Number of teachers	13	26	1	40
	Percentage %	32,5%	65%	2,5%	100,0%
Total	Number of teachers	46	123	37	100,0%
	Percentage %	22,3%	59,7%	18,0%	100,0%

These studies confirm that like the Chilean K-12 school system, the Chilean teacher education system is also highly reproductive: teacher candidates have highly differential access to educational opportunities at the K-12 and university levels and in opportunities to teach in K-12 schools, depending on their own K-12 education and university teacher preparation.

Many authors claim that teacher education has the potential to play an important role in challenging an unequal and segregated educational system like Chile's. Along these lines, Cochran-Smith (2010) argues that teaching and teacher education are not neutral activities. Since these activities involve beliefs and values and since they have to do with access to power and opportunities, they are always ideological and political. Therefore, both educational policy regarding teacher education and the academic knowledge and practices prioritized in teacher education programs play a role in challenging or maintaining systems of power and privilege. McDonald and Zeichner

(2009) also recognize the importance of a social justice perspective to prepare teacher candidates to challenge inequity: “Social justice [teacher preparation] programs explicitly attend to societal structures that perpetuate injustice, and they attempt to prepare teachers to take both individual and collective action toward mitigating oppression” (p. 597).

Despite the important role of teacher preparation in preparing teachers to challenge unjust educational systems, as mentioned above, most empirical studies associated with teacher preparation policies do not explore the implications of these policies for social justice issues.

Instead policy studies at the international level tend to focus on the implications of teacher preparation policies for teacher professionalism or on the teacher preparation curriculum (See Bell & Youngs, 2011; Chandler, 1990; Early, 2000; Fuchs, Fahsl, & James, 2014; Hickok, 1998; Lerman, 2014; Scannell & Metcalf, 2000; Sears, 2002). In contrast, few studies focus on the implications of these policies for issues related to social justice, such as the inclusion of multicultural aspects on the curriculum (Butin, 2005) or the impact of certification tests on minoritized students (Barnes-Johnson, 2008). In Chile, empirical studies related to teacher education policies have focused on: description of regulations and standards (Botzakis & Malloy, 2006; Ingvarson, 2013; Sotomayor & Gysling, 2011); analysis of the implications of policies for professionalization, teacher identity, and the role of the state (Contreras-Sanzana & Villalobos-Clavería, 2010; Inzunza, Assaél, & Scherping, 2011); or policy implementation (Ávalos, 1999; Garcés & Constenla, 2010; Miranda, 2007; Silva Quiroz, 2012), including student teachers’ performance on the exit test and the addition or modification of courses in programs as a result of the policy (See Meckes, Taut, Bascopé, Valencia, & Manzi, 2012).

Recently, three important critical essays about teacher preparation policies implemented in Chile since 2010, have been published (Ávalos, 2014; Cox et al., 2010; Montecinos, 2014). These essays raise important critiques about the teacher preparation policies implemented over the last decade. For example, Ávalos (2014) concludes that teacher preparation policies continue the neoliberal logic that was installed by the dictatorship in the 1970s in Chile. She also argues that teacher preparation policies during the last couple of decades have shifted from providing support and funding for improvement in curriculum and practice to providing funding only to programs that show concrete outcomes, such as students' performance on tests. Montecinos (2014) also points out that current policies have focused on control and accountability instead of support to improve the conditions of teacher preparation programs. She also expresses concern about the danger that current policies will standardize teacher preparation curriculum and practice based on skills measured by the exit test for student teachers, instead of offering a curriculum that prepares student teachers for the complexities of teaching. Despite the important contributions of these essays, to date there has not been empirical research about these new policies or their impact on university-based teacher preparation programs in challenging or maintaining educational inequity and segregation.

Additionally empirical research on teacher preparation and social justice at the international level has focused primarily on specific teacher preparation courses, assignments, workshops, partnerships, or whole programs without analyzing their relationship to teacher preparation policies (See e.g. Anderson & Stillman, 2013; Butcher et al. 2003; Chizhik & Chizhik, 2003; Ensign, 2009; Gazeley and Dunne, 2013; Kuthy & Broadwater, 2014; Le Roux & Mdunge, 2012; Lynch, 2013; Mills, 2013; Naidoo, 2010;

Sobel, Gutierrez, Zion, Blanchett, 2011; Wasserman, 2010).

My literature searches revealed that there are no empirical studies that explore social justice in teacher preparation in Chile. Using “inequity” as a proxy for social justice in Chile also produced few empirical studies published in peer-reviewed journals that focused on inequity in teacher preparation (See e.g. Del Río & Balladares, 2010; Navas & Sánchez, 2010; Sánchez, Navas, Holgado, 2013; Tenorio, 2011). These studies explored issues of immigration, socioeconomic status, gender, diverse abilities, and ethnicity in teacher preparation. Most of these studies focused on student teachers’ attitudes or expectations toward marginalized students while lacking a deep exploration and analysis of teacher preparation programs. For example, these studies do not collect information regarding the opinions of the designers and implementers of teacher preparation programs (e.g., teacher educators) or observation of their practices. This previous research also does not include an analysis of Chilean teacher education policies. Rather studies tend to assume that new policies are appropriate and that problems in teacher education are the result of the lack of implementation of those policies by teacher educators or universities (Infante, 2010; Turra, Ferrada, Villena, 2013), or they do not even mention Chilean policies at all (Del Río & Balladares, 2010; Geeregat, Vasquez, Fierro, 2012). This dissertation study addresses some of the absences in these studies about teacher education related to equity in Chile by analyzing the results of an integrated analysis of national teacher education policies as well as teacher preparation programs instead of focusing on student teachers’ attitudes or expectations.

The purpose of this study is to explore how teaching and teacher education are constructed in national teacher education policies and university-based programs in Chile

by unpacking assumptions about teaching, learning, and justice using frame analysis (Bustelo & Verloo, 2006; Entman, 1993; Oliver & Johnston, 2000). First, this study examines policy documents and tools related to teacher preparation and issued between 2006-2014 in order to explore how teaching, learning, and justice are framed in the national teacher education policies in Chile. Then, this study explores how teaching, learning, and justice are framed in the discourse of university faculty of two elementary university-based teacher preparation programs, which are part of the same institution, using interviews and official university documents. The university faculty interviewed includes deans of the school of education, an academic chair, department chairs, teacher educators, clinical faculty, and the members of the team for “Teaching in Socially Disadvantaged Contexts” certificate. I also collected student teachers’ interviews. This research also analyzes the relation between the frames used in the national policies and the frames used by university faculty.

This study is relevant for the field of teacher preparation for a number of reasons. The study explores accountability policies, which have become prevalent in many parts of the world, in a country like Chile where accountability and deregulation work together, as I explain in Chapter 2. Chile’s particularities make it a strategic research site. Additionally, this study provides evidence across two different locations of policy development and enactment, the national level and the level of teacher preparation programs. This is important for the field of teacher preparation research, which has tended to explore accountability policies in these two locations as separate from one another. This research generates evidence regarding whether, and if so how, teacher preparation policies at the national and local level address issues related to the high levels

of segregation and inequity that are integral parts of the Chilean education system. This aspect is important for a country with the high level of inequality and segregation that Chile has, and this is also relevant to the field of teacher preparation more broadly because it expands the exploration of the implications of accountability policies beyond professionalization and teacher preparation curriculum, which are commonly researched.

Research Questions and Subquestions

This study addresses three major questions, each of which has several sub-questions. The questions focus on teacher preparation policy at two different policy levels and involve multiple data sources.

- How are teaching, learning, and justice framed in teacher preparation policies at the national level in Chile?
 - How do current national teacher preparation policies frame teaching goals, knowledge, and skills?
 - How do current national teacher preparation policies frame teacher preparation program's curriculum, pedagogy, outcomes, selection, recruitment, and partnerships?
 - What is (are) the explicit or implicit definition(s) of justice in the current national teacher education policies in Chile?

- How are teaching, learning, and justice framed in two teacher preparation programs?

- How do university faculty (deans, an academic chair, department chairs, teacher educators, clinical faculty, and the members of the team for “Teaching in Socially Disadvantaged Contexts” certificate) frame the teaching goals, knowledge, and skills promoted by their teacher preparation programs?
- How do university faculty frame the curriculum, pedagogy, outcomes, selection, recruitment, and partnerships used in their program to prepare teachers?
- What are the conceptions of justice as expressed by university faculty?
- Are the ways that university faculty framed teaching, learning, and justice aligned with the frames presented in the university institutional and course documents? If so, how?
- How are the frames used in the current national teacher preparation policies in Chile related to the frames used by university faculty (deans, an academic chair, department chairs, teacher educators, clinical faculty, and the members of the team for “Teaching in Socially Disadvantaged Contexts” certificate) from the university-based teacher preparation programs analyzed?

Chilean Teacher Education History and Context

The last four decades of teacher education in Chile have been greatly influenced by the implementation of neoliberal policies. Chile was the first country to implement neoliberalism in a “pure” form under the dictatorship of Augusto Pinochet (1973-1990). This country is considered a laboratory where neoliberalism was tested with the intellectual support of Milton Friedman and his Chilean students at the University of Chicago (also known as “the Chicago boys”), who held important positions in the government during the dictatorship (Pastrana, 2007). Neoliberal ideas were used to restructure Chilean services such as health, social security, and education (Inzunza et al., 2011; Pastrana, 2007).

During the civic-military dictatorship in Chile (1973-1990), educational reforms based on neoliberalism were introduced at the K-12 and university levels. The main changes infused in Chilean K-12 education during the dictatorship were: the decentralization of educational administration; the creation of a students’ national standardized test; and the establishment of an educational funding system based on student enrollment and attendance and provided by vouchers, which could be used to fund private or public schools, creating private subsidized (voucher) schools (Castro-Paredes, 2012; Pastrana, 2007).

Additionally, during the dictatorship, military authorities intervened in teacher preparation programs and universities (Contreras-Sanzana & Villalobos-Clavería, 2010; Inzunza et al., 2011). This intervention resulted in an ideological and political “clean up” of the curricula of teacher preparation programs. Discussion of controversial issues was considered dangerous for the government’s agenda and removed from the programs by

military authorities (Pastrana, 2007). Teachers were considered suspicious political actors, and the status of the teaching profession was undermined through various strategies (Cox, 2003). For example, teachers lost their rights as public servants, and their salaries were reduced (Ávalos, 2010). Additionally in 1974, normal schools, which were regarded as offering high quality teacher preparation and providing social mobility for middle and low class students, were closed (Ávalos, 2014). The preparation of teachers became the exclusive responsibility of universities and “institutos,” which are similar to colleges in the U.S. (Inzunza et al., 2011). Military authorities controlled both universities and “institutos” (Cornejo & Reyes, 2008). In 1981, the creation of private universities and “institutos” with complete autonomy was authorized by the military government while public funding to public universities was reduced by 50% (Inzunza et al., 2011). These reforms resulted in a weakening of teacher quality and erosion of the democratic goals of education (Ávalos, 2010; Cox, 2003)

Since 1990, the democratic governments in Chile have introduced changes in order to strengthen the education system, but these changes have not challenged its neoliberal base (Inzunza et al., 2011). In fact, Inzunza et al. (2011) maintain that continuity of neoliberal logic explains the lack of governmental intervention in the market of higher education. This has resulted in an increase in the number of private universities and very little public funding for public universities. Furthermore, the little funding provided to universities by the government has had serious consequences for equity. Most of the funding for public and private universities comes from family contributions, which is related to high levels of segregation based on family income at the

university level, which was described in Ruffinelli and Guerrero's (2009) study².

The first initiative implemented by the democratic governments to improve teacher preparation was the Program to Strengthen Teacher Preparation (FFID program). This initiative was implemented between 1997-2002 by the Ministry of Education in order to remediate the negative consequences of policies implemented during the dictatorship, such as the low enrollment in teacher preparation programs and the perceived inferior quality of these students, as measured by scores in the university national admission test (Ávalos, 2014). This strategy provided funding for institutions to improve their teacher preparation programs. Under the leadership of the Ministry of Education, the universities had new opportunities to work together—for example, creating a graduate profile of student teachers or reforming the practicum experiences (Ávalos, 2005, 2010; Cox et al., 2010). Some scholars consider the FFID program a more collaborative and coordinated initiative than the current reforms that are being implemented in teacher education, which are part of the analysis of this study (Cox et al., 2010; Inzunza et al., 2011). The FFID initiative showed a positive impact on teacher preparation by increasing the selectiveness of programs and the enrollment of student teachers (Ávalos, 2014). However, the program was terminated by the government in 2002 despite the fact that the teacher educators involved suggested that prolonged support would be beneficial (Ávalos, 2005).

² This situation has partially changed since March, 2016, when the “Free Higher Education Law” started its implementation. This law states that all public universities and private universities, which agreed to participate in this law, would not charge tuition to their students. This law would be gradually implemented. This benefit is only available for students who belong to the 50% of the poorest population of the country this year (MINEDUC, 2016b).

Between 2000 and 2008, there was a high increase in both the enrollment of student teachers and the number of teacher preparation programs offered in universities and “institutos” in Chile (Cox et al., 2010). The total number of undergraduate programs related to teacher education (elementary, high school, special education, early education) increased 196.4%—from 249 programs in 2000 to 738 programs in 2008. The number of institutions that offered these programs also increased by 53.8%—from 39 institutions in 2000 to 60 in 2008. There was also a rapid increase in the number of enrolled student teachers—from 35,708 student teachers in 2000 to 92,164 in 2002—a 158.1% increase. Figure 1 illustrates the rapid increase of student enrollment in teacher education programs with the vertical axis representing the number of student teachers enrolled and the horizontal axis representing the time in years.

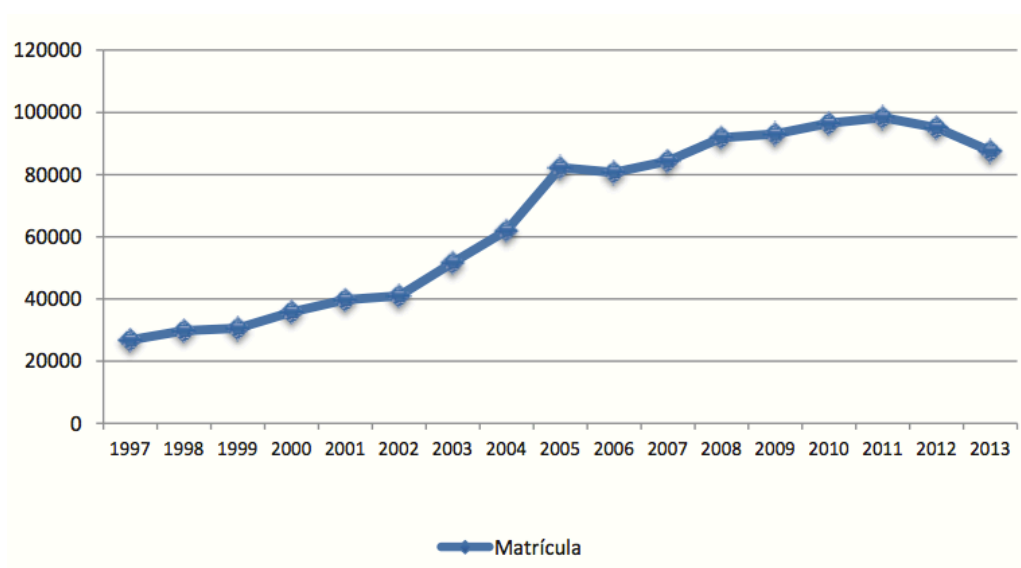


Figure 1. Total Enrollment of Teacher Preparation Programs by Ávalos (2014).

According to Cox et al. (2010), this trend can be explained by a number of factors: the Ministry of Education’s approval of full autonomy for private universities to open

programs and campuses in 2002, the increased demand for teachers in the educational system after the approval of the extension of school hours of operation (*Jornada Escolar Completa*), and increases in the number of students who graduated from high schools and decided to enter to teacher preparation.

Many analysts agree that there were increases in both the number of teacher preparation programs and student enrollment at institutions with low or no selectivity that awarded more loans for students (Cox et al., 2010; García-Huidobro, 2010; Manzi, 2010)³. In fact, these increases were extraordinarily high—the number of programs offered by universities with low or no selectivity increased by 593%, while their student enrollments increased by 566% between 2000-2008 (Cox et al., 2010).

Some researchers have questioned the low level of regulation of university-based teacher preparation programs (Cox et al., 2010; García-Huidobro, 2010; Manzi, 2010). Chile differs from other countries like the U.S. because it neither certifies teachers nor has a national register of teachers. The exit test is not requisite to entering to the profession of teaching. Furthermore, most universities that offer teacher preparation programs are private and have their own academic requirements and rules (Botzakis & Malloy, 2006; Sotomayor & Gysling, 2011). While there is a mandatory accreditation process for teacher preparation programs, this accreditation only has effects on the funding provided to institutions; however, there is not a national organization that controls the operation of these programs. The low level of regulation in teacher preparation is related to the neoliberal logic in place in the Chilean educational system.

³ These authors defined low or no selectivity as programs whose student teachers achieved, on average, below the top 30% of results on the national university admission test.

This unregulation is responsible for the the high variation among teacher preparation programs.

The most important regulations implemented in teacher preparation by new democratic governments—prior to those policies that are studied in this research—were the agreement to close all distance-learning teacher preparation programs in 2005 and the requirement of mandatory accreditation for all teacher preparation programs in 2006 (Ávalos, 2014). However, according to Ávalos (2014), the process of accreditation in higher education has been criticized because it has not shown a positive impact in changing the practices of programs. Additionally, the process has been questioned because accreditation services were privatized and programs directly hire and pay their accrediting organization. Finally, in 2008 a new educational law was passed—the General Educational Law (LGE)—as a response to critiques of the low quality of education, which were brought to the forefront of public opinion by the massive student demonstration that took place throughout 2006. This law allowed professionals without teacher preparation training to teach in schools (Contreras-Sanzana & Villalobos-Clavería, 2010), a regulation that opened the door for the operation of the Chilean version of Teach for America (Enseña Chile).

On March 8th of the year 2016, the “Teaching Career Law” (Ley de Carrera Docente) was approved (MINEDUC, 2016c). This new policy will have important effects on the preparation of teachers as well as on their salaries and workplace conditions. The new policy raises the initial salary for teachers and introduces a teacher evaluation system tied to economic incentives for all teachers. This new policy also changes the point at which the exit test is taken, moving the test from the end of teacher preparation to the

middle of the process. This policy also sets a minimum required score on the national admission test for all students who want to enter teacher preparation. Because this law was approved just weeks before the completion of this dissertation, the new law is not included in this research.

These above elements in the history of teacher preparation in Chile are part of the larger context within which the policies to be analyzed in this study emerged. In the following section, I explain the characteristics of the policies analyzed and the controversies associated with them.

Teacher Preparation Policies Examined in this Study

Democratic governments in Chile have developed specific strategies to improve teacher education in Chile since 1997 (Cox et al., 2010; García-Huidobro, 2010). In 2004, however, the OECD report issued strong criticism of teacher preparation in Chile. This organization pointed out that the curriculum of teacher preparation programs in Chile was not aligned with the requirements of the national school reform program initiated in the 1990s by the Ministry of Education (OECD, 2004). According to this report, the flaws in teacher education resulted in teachers' inadequate preparation to teach the national curriculum. Various national education committees were summoned by successive Chilean presidents, who agreed that there was a need to improve teacher preparation (MINEDUC, 2005; Presidential Advisory Council, 2006). These presidential committees also drew up proposals to improve the quality of the teacher preparation in Chile.

In 2008 based on these reports and proposals, the Ministry of Education created new policy intended to strengthen the curriculum and practices of university-based teacher preparation programs (Cox et al., 2010; García-Huidobro, 2010; Manzi, 2010).

This policy, labeled the INICIA Program, included three components: creating standards for student teachers, testing student teachers at the end of their preparation, and providing economic support for improving teacher preparation program curriculum and staff. The standards for student teachers were to be created to offer guidance to university-based teacher education programs about the content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge that a student teacher should have at the end of the program (MINEDUC, 2011; 2012a). The Ministry of Education aimed to promote the incorporation of these standards into teacher preparation programs by testing student teachers and ranking and publishing their results aggregated by universities (MINEDUC, 2013).

Among these components, however, only student teachers' evaluation was implemented in 2008 when the Ministry's policy was first developed (Cox et al., 2010). The standards for student teachers were released in 2011, while the grants for university-based programs were released in 2012 (MINEDUC, 2011; 2012b). These three components received public attention in 2010, becoming the central part of the Chilean president's policy to reform teacher preparation (MINEDUC, 2012a). In 2010, the Ministry of Education made these reforms central to teacher preparation policy and added a new component: university scholarships for prospective teachers with high achievement scores on the national university admissions test (MINEDUC, 2012a).

The standards for student teachers made explicit the conceptions of content knowledge and pedagogical skills that every teacher should know at the beginning of his or her career (MINEDUC, 2011). These standards were defined primarily by two educational research institutions, which are part of two leading universities in the country, at the request of the Ministry of Education (MINEDUC, 2011). As the Ministry

of Education indicated, these standards were created “based on the experts’ criterion” (MINEDUC, 2011, p.8). The “experts” included in the discussion about the standards were mainly the professionals who worked at the two research institutions in charge of creating the standards and, to a lesser extent, teacher educators who gave feedback on the proposals. Student teachers and teachers were not included in the process of constructing the standards (Revista Docencia, 2009; 2011; MINEDUC, 2011). Consequently, there was not an extended or participatory discussion about what knowledge was of most worth in teaching; rather the “experts’” definitions of the necessary contents and skills to teach were instantiated in the standards.

There are 59 standards for student teachers in elementary education—10 pedagogical standards and 49 standards related to a specific subjects, including mathematics, language arts, social science, and natural science. These standards have 725 indicators, which describe how the standards might be achieved (MINEDUC, 2011). According to my analysis, most of these—707 of the 725—are related to mastering some particular content knowledge, pedagogical strategy, or evaluation strategy. These indicators refer, for example, to mastering a concept or area of disciplinary knowledge, knowing a pedagogical theory, identifying characteristics or distinguishing aspects of a phenomenon, knowing how to plan activities, knowing how to develop activities or learning opportunities for students, and knowing how to evaluate students. Generally, these indicators demand that the knowledge of the student teacher be aligned with the national curriculum or with expert knowledge about teaching, such as requiring that the student teacher: “Know the main perspectives of teaching reading and the theoretical, empirical, and practical foundations of these perspectives, and know the importance of

applying these teaching methods systematically” (Language arts, standard 1, indicator 5, MINEDUC, 2011).

According to my count, only 18 of the 725 indicators are related to the promotion or use of critical thinking in student teachers; ten of these are in the pedagogical standards, 2 in language arts, 1 in mathematics, 4 in social sciences, and 1 in natural sciences. The indicators that require student teachers’ critical thinking vary. Some indicators refer to critical thinking skills not specific to teaching, such as requiring that the student teacher: “Critically evaluate the diverse sources of information, which come from reports or other resources, such as those provided by the information technology” (Social science, standard 9, indicator 2, MINEDUC, 2011). There are other indicators, however, which refer to critical thinking skills related to topics specific to the teaching profession, such as requiring that the student teacher: “Critically analyze and compare the national curriculum with other curricular proposals” (Pedagogy, standard 3, indicator 9, MINEDUC, 2011). Although some of the standards promote critical thinking in student teachers, the vast majority of them are based on mastering expert knowledge with student teachers regarded as consumers of that expert knowledge.

The INICIA test has been criticized because the perceived readiness of student teachers to enter the profession is determined purely by a written standardized test. This test does not include student teachers’ performance in classrooms or the diverse contexts of teaching (Revista Docencia, 2011). In this way, the primary instrument of evaluation not only measures the received knowledge and skills of student teachers, but also narrows the conception of good teaching to the aspects amenable to evaluation by the test.

Furthermore, student teachers’ performance on the test, which is publically

released and aggregated by universities in the form of ranks (Meckes et al., 2012), is used indirectly as a measure of the quality of the teacher education programs. It is assumed that the universities will make improvements in their program based on the test results under the logic of market regulation. Test result information is provided to student teachers so that they might make judgments about their preparation program choices (Manzi, 2010; MINEDUC, 2012a). This information presumably leads to high or low demand by prospective student teachers, which would prompt changes in the supplying institutions. According to this logic, as a result, low-performing teacher preparation programs, which did not adjust to consumer demand by improving their test score results, would disappear in the long term (Inzulza et al., 2011).

Since 2012, government grants have been provided to eleven public and private universities to improve their teacher preparation programs, seven in 2012 and four in 2013. The total budget for these grants was 12.8 million dollars for the first year (Cox et al., 2010). This is the largest amount of funding provided from the Ministry of Education to universities through grants for improving teacher preparation in the history of Chilean education. Eight universities received the bulk of the funding, around two millions of dollars each. The smallest amount of funding received by one university was \$850,000 dollars.

The Ministry of Education argued that even though the policies included grants to improve teacher education programs, the policies did not prescribe or control the curriculum or requirements of programs. In this way, the Ministry of Education maintained that it provided autonomy to universities to decide their curriculum, pedagogy, and the structure of the programs (MINEDUC, 2011; 2012a). However, in the

funding agreement, there is clear reference to the outcomes that programs should have, which are defined by the standards and measured by the test for student teachers. As the Ministry of Education stated: “It is possible to develop different academic pathways in order for student teachers achieve these standards” (MINEDUC, 2011, p. 8).

Additionally, scores on the INICIA test are used as an outcome to evaluate the success of university projects funded by grants (MINEDUC, 2012c).

Finally, scholarships were instituted for student teachers that pay for the full tuition and fees of student teachers who achieve high scores in the university national admission test, called PSU. According to the score achieved, student teachers also may receive additional money for their living expenses, \$130 dollars monthly as well as funding for study one semester abroad. At the end of the program, student teachers need to teach in a school that receives public funding (public school or voucher schools) for three years. In this way, the Ministry of Education expects to increase the selectiveness of teacher preparation programs. This strategy, however, could have undesirable effects on equity due to the fact that historically upper class high school students achieve, on average, higher scores than working class high school students on the national university admission test.

Figure 2 illustrates the major regulations in place in initial teacher preparation (green squares) and the organizations associated with them (blue circles), before the introduction of the “Teaching Career Law” in March 8th of the year 2016. This figure summarizes the regulations currently in place in teacher education, which I have described in previous sections: the context of teacher preparation in Chile and the description of the teacher preparation policies examined in this study. My analysis in this

dissertation focuses only on the regulations and institutions that are marked by the red circle. These policies are the most important incentives and regulations in place on teacher preparation programs since 2008 and March 2016. For this reason, this study focuses on them.

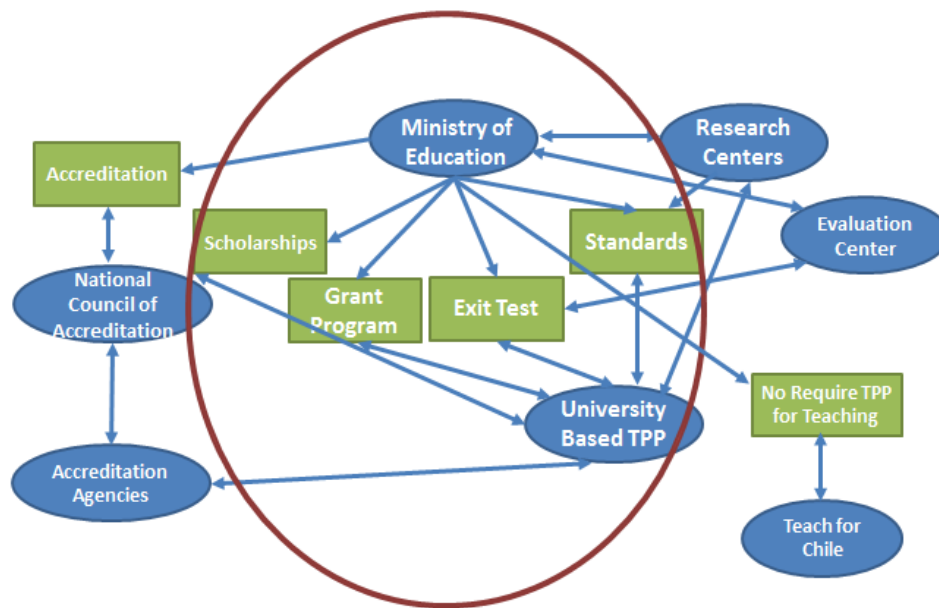


Figure 2. Major Regulations and Organizations in Initial Teacher Education prior to March 2016

Even though some scholars have pointed out that there is not an articulated and consistent vision of teacher preparation policies in Chile (Ingvarson, 2013; Inzulza et al., 2011; Sotomayor & Gysling, 2011), the standards for student teachers, the exit test, the government grants to improve teacher preparation programs, and the scholarships for student teachers are well-defined policies, which influence teacher preparation practices and curriculum. Furthermore, these policies can be traced to the same time period, when they emerged as response to criticisms about the quality of teacher preparation programs and teaching in Chile at the middle of the 2000s. At the same time, although teacher

preparation programs are affected by other regulations such as accreditation processes, and some teacher preparation programs are related to other organizations such as research centers that create the standards and alternative route programs in Chile, these regulations and organizations are not considered in this study because they are more indirectly related to the policies examined for this study.

Overview of this Dissertation

For this dissertation study, I conducted a frame analysis of national policy documents related to initial teacher education in Chile as well as interviews and documents from two teacher preparation programs—the Central and Branch campuses at the National University. This dissertation argues that the influence of Chile’s national teacher education policies on local teacher preparation programs (including the ways they framed teaching, teacher education, and justice in their policies) was not uniform across the programs—even though they belonged to the same institution. Rather both national and local frames were influenced by the interpretations and frames promoted by international organizations and universities. I build this overarching argument based on four related propositions, which I developed from extensive data analysis and interpretation.

First, despite the fact that the Central Campus and Branch Campus belonged to the same university, their two teacher preparation programs represented two visions of practice-based teacher education. University faculty from the Central Campus understood teaching and teacher education as a *transferable product* that could be applied to multiple contexts. They worked from the premise that teaching and teacher preparation are based

on universal knowledge derived from research and exemplary international programs. Therefore, their teacher education program focused on training teacher candidates to enact high leverage practices that had been identified as effective by international scholars in the U.S. (Ball & Forzani, 2011). In contrast, at the Branch Campus, teaching and teacher education were understood as a practical *craft* that was learned through experience and in contact with local sites of practice. Teaching was considered highly sensitive to the local demands and characteristics, requiring teachers to be flexible and willing to learn from and in their experience. From this perspective, teacher preparation should give teacher student teachers opportunities to develop skills by learning from local practice. Despite these differences, both teacher education programs responded to issues of inequity and diversity based primarily in terms of the notion of distributive justice (Fraser & Honneth, 2003; Young, 1990). Along these lines, equity was conceptualized as access to higher education regardless of the diversity of students' backgrounds economically and socially. Given this notion of justice, the primary strategies implemented to respond to *injustice* included making accommodations for student teachers in the admission process and curriculum so that they could enter the program and achieve their predefined goals. Additionally, both Central and Branch Campus programs responded to the need to address issues of equity and diversity by adding-on to the curriculum specific academic support for student teachers and courses related to classroom diversity and equity. Diversity and equity were not articulated in core courses for preparing student teachers to teach.

The second proposition that forms the basis of my overarching argument in this dissertation is that differences between faculty conceptions and enactments of teaching,

teacher education, and justice at the Central Campus and Branch Campus were shaped by different “narrative stories” (Stone, 2012). A “story of control,” which portrayed university faculty as in charge of the changes implemented at their teacher preparation program, was predominant at the Central Campus while a “story of helplessness,” which portrayed university faculty as not in charge of decisions and changes developed in their own teacher preparation program, was prevalent at the Branch Campus. Across these narratives, I identified four dimensions that shaped programs’ conceptions and captured their differences: participants’ view of themselves and their program; conceptions of teaching knowledge; participation in policies; and alignment and articulation among university faculty and with national policies. These dimensions explain how the two programs came to have these different conceptions of teaching, teacher education, and justice. Explanations based on these dimensions may be useful to other researchers as a generative framework for examining how other teacher preparation programs make policy at the local level.

The third proposition I offer in this dissertation is that national policies related to teacher education do not solely or even primarily necessarily determine how local teacher preparation programs frame teaching, teacher preparation, and justice. The frames implicit and explicit in the discourses at the Central and Branch Campuses were sometimes aligned and sometimes misaligned with national discourses. National policy documents emphasized a disciplinary-based teacher preparation approach; in contrast, teacher preparation programs at the Central and Branch campuses both focused on a practice-based teacher preparation. Despite these differences in terms of preferred approach to teacher education, national policy documents as well as interviews and

documents from the two campuses all conceptualized justice in a generally similar way from a distributive perspective (Fraser & Honneth, 2003; Young, 1990). This focused on providing better access for students to the current educational system. Specifically, the frames use in national policy documents aimed to reduce the achievement gap between high and low-income K-12 students by increasing teacher and teacher education quality using standards, evaluation, and selectiveness.

Finally this dissertation also offers the proposition that in Chile, national policy related to teacher education was not shaped by discourses and issues in that country alone. Rather policies were closely connected to and broadly influenced by international discourses. Along these lines, the assumed causal relationship between teachers and students' achievement, the promotion of standards, and the introduction of an exit test for student teachers were all laid out in Chilean national policies, reflecting larger policy discourses and specific strategies used in the U.S and elsewhere. These same strategies were also promoted by the discourses of international organizations, such as OECD and McKinsey and Company. Despite these similarities with U.S. and other international discourses, the prominent "narrative story" implicit in the Chilean national policy discourses was not a "story of decline" or crisis, which are often found in the discourse supporting and promoting new policies in developed countries. Rather Ministry of Education documents reflected a "story of development" to promote their changes in regulations and policies regarding teacher preparation. Along these lines, the national policy documents pointed out that Chile was at a developmental stage and on a trajectory that made it possible to achieve better equity and quality in the educational system by intervening within teacher preparation recruitment, selection, and outcomes. The

Ministry's suggestions highlighted the importance of disciplinary knowledge for teachers and were supported by many of the guidelines recommended by international organizations.

This study makes some potentially important contributions to research, policy, practice, and activism. Based on the findings of my study, I constructed a framework that expands the notion of a policy web (Joshee & Johnson, 2005) for teacher education by explicitly incorporating the connection between local discourses and international discourses in teacher education. Additionally, this framework includes the four dimensions, which shapes the frames related to teaching, teacher education, and justice at the local level. These dimensions also explain the differences between teacher preparation programs.

Organization of the Dissertation

In Chapter 2, I present the theoretical framework and literature review that guided the analysis of the teacher preparation policies implemented in Chile during the last decade. This chapter includes a description of the perspectives on policy and social justice that guided my study. It also includes an analysis of the empirical research about initial teacher education and educational policy in both the international and Chilean contexts. I organized the studies in three categories based on the main topics of research: critical analyses of the content of teacher preparation policies, analyses of the development of policies and their implications for teacher preparation, and analyses of teacher preparation programs' responses to teacher preparation policies. I also provide a critical commentary for each category. This chapter also includes an analysis of literature related to initial teacher education and social justice in both the international and Chilean

contexts. I organized the studies in three categories based on their main topic of research: Pedagogical approaches, assignments, or courses used in teacher preparation; partnerships between teacher preparation programs with communities; and teacher education programs as a whole. I also provide a critically commentary for each category.

Chapter 3 describes the relationship between the literature review analyzed in Chapter 2 and the research design of this study. It also includes description of the research sites for this study, the data sources and participants, and the approach and process of frame analysis, which was the methodological framework I used to analyze the data.

Chapters 4, 5, and 6 describe the main findings of this study. In Chapter 4, I address the question, How are teaching, teacher education, and justice framed in two teacher preparation programs in Chile? In order to answer this question, I described how university faculty in the two programs constructed the problem of teacher education and the solutions that they promoted. I argue that in both programs the problem of teacher education was framed as having had an overly-theoretical approach. Interestingly both programs framed the solution to this problem as the implementation of a practice-based teacher education approach. However, this approach meant different things in both programs. For the Central Campus' faculty, this meant a conception of teaching and teacher education as *a transferable product* or a set of skills established through research in other countries and imported to Chile. For the Branch Campus' faculty, this meant a conception of teaching and teacher education as a local *craft* that was sensitive to context and developed in and from practice. Despite these differences, both programs conceptualized justice from a distributive perspective.

Chapter 5 looks across the university faculty members' conceptions of teaching, teacher education, and justice and identifies the main "narrative stories" (Stone, 2012) implicit in the university discourses. I demonstrate that the predominant narrative at the Central Campus was a "story of control" while the prevalent narrative at the Branch Campus was a "story of helplessness." Based on my analysis of the similarities and differences in these narratives, I developed four cross-cutting dimensions that explain the different conceptions and enactments of teaching, teacher education, and justice among teacher preparation programs: participants' view of themselves and their program; conceptions of teaching knowledge; participation in policies; and alignment and articulation.

The analysis in Chapter 6, focuses on national policy documents. Here I address the question, How were teaching, teacher education, and justice framed in teacher preparation policies at the national level in Chile? In order to answer this question, I analyzed how the Ministry of Education framed the problems of teaching and teacher education as well as the solutions proposed to address these problems. I also address the question, How were the frames used in the current national teacher preparation policies in Chile related to the frames used by university faculty from the university-based teacher preparation programs analyzed? Here, I suggest that while the national policies emphasized disciplinary-base teacher education and teaching, the teacher preparation programs emphasized a practice-based approach. Despite these differences, at both the national and local levels, the predominant perspective related to justice was a distributive perspective, which emphasized providing better access to students to the educational system and curriculum. In this chapter, I also point out the similarities and differences

between the national policies related to teacher education and international trends and the discourses promoted by international organizations. While the emphasis on disciplinary knowledge and the solutions proposed by the Ministry of Education were aligned with international discourses, the narratives used to promote this change were based on a “story of development,” which sharply contrasted with the “story of crisis” identified by other scholars who analyzed policy in developed countries.

Chapter 7 provides a summary of the main findings of this study and its main implications for research, policy, practice, and activism. This chapter connects my findings with relevant literature in the field and offers a framework for understanding and exploring the complexities of teacher education policy.

CHAPTER 2: Review of the Literature

This chapter includes the theoretical framework and the literature review of this study. Both sections present relevant literature related to teacher preparation policies and issues of social justice in the field of teacher education.

Theoretical Framework

In order to explore the research problem and answer the research questions of this study, two theoretical frameworks are needed: one that supports and explains my approach to studying policy and one that explains my conception of social justice. Below, I explain my perspective on policy, which conceptualizes policy as discourse involving a complex web of relationships, in contrast to traditional rational and linear perspectives used to study policy. Then, I describe the theoretical framework that helps me to understand social justice in the particular field of teacher education. These two frameworks are complementary. The framework of policy as discourse offers insight about how to conceptualize and approach/explore my research problem as well as my analytic approach to data, while the framework of teacher education for social justice offers clarity about the aspects on which I focus my data collection.

Policy as discourse and policy web. Policies have been studied using different approaches. In sharpest contrast are traditional approaches to policy development and implementation, on one hand, and critical policy analysis, on the other (Diem, Young, Welton, Cumings Mansfield & Lee, 2014). Traditional approaches are based on a conception of policy that Deborah Stone (2012) defines and criticizes as “the rationality

project.” Governed by scientific and administrative logics, the rationality project conceptualizes policy detached from politics. From this perspective of policy, political science is understood as a “rational analytical tool that would yield definitive answers about the best way to tackle any problem” (Stone, 2012, p. 10). This perspective on policy disregards political conflicts and the values that are always attached to policy decisions, focusing instead on a fully rational model of decision-making. Aligned with this idea of policy, researchers who use a traditional approach to study policy share a set of assumptions. Some of these assumptions are that current practice can be objectively evaluated and that based on this information we can identify problems as well as plan strategies for solutions (Diem et al., 2014). In fact, this decision-making model suggests that policy is the result of a sequence of steps which includes the identification of objectives, the evaluation of alternatives, and the selection of the best strategy to achieve the objectives (Stone, 2012). It is also assumed that strategies can be implemented in different settings without considering variations in context or complex interrelationships of multiple factors (Diem et al., 2014).

In contrast, the critical policy analysis that I develop for this dissertation takes the perspective of social deconstructionists who focus on the discursive aspects of policy (Bacchi, 2000). This perspective assumes that policies are not created simply to resolve already-identified and clear problems. Rather, the assumption is that problems are constructed *in* policy debates and policy documents in order to promote desired perspectives on how policy problems should be understood and to promote desired strategies intended to address those problems (Bacchi, 2000; Edelman, 1998; Stone, 2012). Building on Stone’s (2012) work, Cochran-Smith and Fries (2011a) stated that

with regard to teacher education policy, “policy actors must first formulate and construct what ‘the problem’ is before they can propose plausible solutions and recommendations” (p. 339). Along similar lines, Bustelo and Verloo (2006) argue that policies are not rational interventions but are a result of social and political constructions of public problems and their solutions, which are influenced by multiple factors and actors. From this perspective, we cannot assume that policies simply identify objective problems and offer the best possible strategy to solve these problems based on a rational process of decision-making. Rather, policies are the result of debates based on actors’ worldview, values, and agendas. Indeed, policies are “assemblages,” which combine elements from competing actors and “are constructed in a context of existing and emerging dominant discourse frames” (Bustelo & Verloo, 2006, p.8). In this way, policies are based on and at the same time construct some forms of understanding or “framing” of problems and solutions.

The concept of “frame” was first suggested by Bateson in 1954 in the emerging field of communication studies and further developed by Goffman in his 1974 book about “frame analysis.” Developed as a framework for analysis of communications, a “frame” sets the parameters for understanding the actions and words of others within a context of interaction (Oliver & Johnston, 2000). According to Entman (1993) and others (Rein & Schön, 1996; Davies, 2002), the process of “framing” includes selecting some aspects of a situation, event, context or problem to make them more salient, noticeable, meaningful or memorable for others. Frames usually involve four functions: defining problems, diagnosing their causes, making moral judgments, and suggesting solutions to remedy these problems (Rein & Schön, 1996). The analytic approach for this study, therefore,

focuses on identification of the frames that are implicit in policy documents and policy tools related to teacher preparation policies in Chile, which is further discussed in Chapter 3. In particular I concentrate on how policy makers in Chile frame “the problem of teacher education” and the solutions they propose to resolve those problems.

Both this approach to policy and this analytical approach are relevant because frames have an impact on how people understand and respond to policy. As Entman (1993) argues, frames are defined by what they include and exclude as well as their silences or omissions; all of these have the capacity to have an impact on the reader, listener and audience member. Similarly Ball (1993) recognizes that policy—understood in terms of discourse—creates some possibilities of thought and practice but limits others. In this way, policy acts as a frame that constrain the possibilities of interpretation and action.

These approaches to policy as discourse (Ball, 1993) and framing (Davies, 2002; Entman, 1993; Oliver & Johnston, 2000; Rein & Schön, 1996) were intended to overcome the pitfalls of policy studies that assumed that policy could be translated into or implemented in practice without considering actors and agency in local contexts and/or without recognizing the constraints that policies and their frames place on people’s understandings and actions. Quoting Foucault (1977), Ball (1993) stated: “Discourses are ‘practices that systematically form the objects of which they speak...Discourses are not about the objects; they do not identify objects, they constitute them and in the practice of doing so conceal their own invention” (p. 14). According to Ball, we cannot neglect an analysis of dominant discourses that shape our practices and understanding. This makes the analysis of official policy documents related to teacher preparation policies in Chile

relevant, because they represent the authoritative voice that defines what is wrong in teacher preparation and how to fix it. However, despite the constraints that policy discourses creates, this framework acknowledges that local knowledge and discourses play an important role in policy enactment: “We are enmeshed in a variety of discordant, incoherent and contradictory discourses, and ‘subjugated knowledges’ cannot be totally excluded from arenas of policy implementation” (Ball, 1993, p. 15). This study analyzed not only official policy documents at the national level, but also the discourses of Chilean teacher preparation practitioners through the collection and analysis of institutional and course documents as well as interviews at two campuses. The need to examine the discourses of practitioners in policy studies is complementary to the idea of the “policy web” (Joshee & Johnson, 2005) also considered in this research.

The idea of a “policy web” (Joshee & Johnson, 2005) assumes that policy texts and policy actors do not function in a vacuum, but exist at different levels in complex non-linear relationships. As Joshee and Sinfield (2010) state: “The image of the policy web draws our attention to the fact that policies exist in several locations and that policy texts are interrelated” (p. 57). Along these lines and with an understanding of policy as a complex process in which diverse actors participate, Ball (1993) acknowledges that policy is changed in the context of practice. Practitioners have histories, interests, and values that mediate their interpretations and enactments of policy.

Following from this idea of a policy web (Joshee & Johnson, 2005), my study includes analyses of policy and discourse at multiple levels of teacher education policies in Chile. In their analysis of multiple discourses of teacher quality policies in the U.S., Cochran-Smith and Fries (2011a) identified several levels and actors, including federal,

state, and local agencies; professional organizations and national/regional accreditors; individual higher education institutions; and the many alliances and advocacy groups organized to inform and influence policy. The analysis in this study focuses on two levels of policy within Chilean teacher education policy: the level of Chilean national policy regarding teacher quality and teacher preparation and the institutional level of particular university-based teacher preparation programs. Focusing on both of these levels of analysis, this dissertation includes data from national policy documents and tools as well as university documents and the interviews with practitioners such as deans, department chairs, teacher educators, clinical faculty members, and student teachers.

Additionally the two programs I studied share an important characteristic: both belong to the same university. As I explain in detail in Chapter 3, one program is located in the capital city while the other is located in the South of Chile. The programs are not independent from each other. The program located in the South is subject to administrative and curricular decisions made in the capital. However, we cannot assume that responses to policy in the teacher preparation program in the South are the direct consequences of the decisions that are made in the capital. Following Ball's ideas (1993), it is reasonable to expect that teacher educators' responses to policy in the South are part of a complex process wherein the particular history, vision, and practices developed in that program play an important role. Additionally, some of the faculty members who work in the capital work at or have professional relationships with the research center that created the standards for student teachers and/or the evaluation center which has been in charge of the application of the exit test analyzed in this study. This situation makes the concept of policy web a framework necessary to explore the teacher preparation policies

and their enactment in these teacher preparation programs. A full description of these particularities and the complex web of relationships is provided in Chapter 3 of this study.

Social justice and teacher education. This study seeks to generate evidence regarding if, and if so how, teacher preparation policies at the national and local levels address issues related to the high degree of segregation and inequality in the Chilean education system. Specifically, the study asks how teaching, learning, and justice are framed in teacher preparation policies at the national and university levels. Thus a theoretical framework related to social justice and teacher education was needed, which could also guide the development of the interview protocols used to collect information from practitioners.

The concept and language of social justice has been used extensively in the educational field since the 1990s; however, the meaning of this concept has been highly varied and contested (North, 2008; McDonald & Zeichner, 2009). North (2008) states that the concept has become a catchphrase, referring to different legacies and characteristics of justice. Similarly, in the literature about teacher education in the U.S., social justice has been widely used, often without common definitions, robust theoretical conceptualizations, or acknowledgement of the complex historical roots of the concept (Cochran-Smith, Barnatt, Lahann, Shakman, & Terrell, 2009; McDonald & Zeichner, 2009).

The analysis in this study is informed by three different but consistent conceptualizations, which suggest a way to consider the characteristics of teacher

education from a social justice approach: Sleeter's (2009) concept of "teacher education for social justice," Cochran-Smith's (2010) "theory of teacher education for social justice," and McDonald and Zeichner's (2009) discussion of "social justice teacher education."

Sleeter (2009) suggests that teacher education for social justice involves three key themes: preparing teachers to support K-12 students' access to high quality education that is responsive to students' cultural and linguistic diversity, advocacy for K-12 students' democratic engagement, and challenges to school and societal inequities that structure K-12 students' lives. Sleeter suggests that these themes should be present in three aspects of teacher education programs: recruitment and admission, coursework, and fieldwork. In contrast, McDonald and Zeichner (2009) and Cochran-Smith (2010) provide broader theoretical frames to analyze how social justice plays out in teacher education programs. Cochran-Smith defines teacher education for social justice as an intellectual approach and warns against reducing it to a method or specific actions. She states that teacher education for social justice is "a coherent and intellectual approach to the preparation of teachers that acknowledges the social and political contexts in which teaching, learning, schooling, and ideas about justice have located historically as well as acknowledging the tensions among competing goals" (Cochran-Smith, 2010, p. 447). The three elements that compose the theoretical frame provided by Cochran-Smith (2010) for a theory of teacher education for social justice are described below making references to the similarities and differences in emphasis by McDonald and Zeichner's (2009) and Sleeter's (2009) frameworks.

McDonald and Zeichner (2009) and Cochran-Smith (2010) maintain that teacher education programs oriented toward social justice should have a clear *definition of justice*. Following Fraser and Honneth (2003) and Young (1990), they distinguish between “distributive justice” and the “justice of recognition.” Nancy Fraser (Fraser & Honneth, 2003) develops an integrative normative framework that defines justice as parity of participation. This means that justice “requires social arrangements that permit all (adult) members of society to interact with one another as peers” (p.36). She defines two conditions necessary to achieve this parity of participation: objective and intersubjective. The objective conditions are related to the material conditions that deny or allow the means and opportunities to interact with others as partners. This condition is associated with the idea of redistributive justice (Fraser & Honneth, 2003; Young, 1990). From a distributive perspective, justice requires equality, defined as everybody getting the same thing. For example, distributive justice would require the equal (or same) distribution of access to a quality education regardless of students’ backgrounds (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2011a). The intersubjective dimension is related to the cultural patterns that affect opportunities to achieve social esteem, status, and learning (Fraser & Honneth, 2003; Young, 1990). This last dimension is associated with the idea of justice as recognition (Fraser & Honneth, 2003; Young, 1990). A justice of recognition assumes that injustices are “rooted in social patterns of representation, interpretation, and communication” (Fraser & Honneth, 2003, p. 13). From this perspective, there would be major questions about everybody getting “the same” access if this meant promoting all students’ assimilation into the dominant culture as a way to achieve equal respect in society.

Cochran-Smith (2010) and McDonald and Zeichner (2009) have different propositions about what conception of justice should guide teacher preparation. Cochran-Smith (2010) states that a theory of justice for teacher education should include and articulate both the notion of distributive justice and the justice of recognition. This means that we need to provide access to quality teachers and rich curricula to each student while, at the same time, we need to be sure that teachers know both how to challenge the conditions that create inequity in the first place and how to work with minoritized students and their families and communities to co-create a participatory curriculum that values their knowledge traditions and values. In contrast, McDonald and Zeichner (2009) argue that teacher education programs with a social justice approach should move from a distributive notion of justice to a notion of the justice of recognition with the view that the first approach does not challenge structural inequalities. They argue: “Teacher educators could look to other perspectives on justice to challenge a distributive view and shift the focus away from the individual and toward a greater understanding and awareness of how institutional arrangements and social structures shape the opportunities available to individuals” (McDonald & Zeichner, 2009, p. 599-600).

In the case of this study, both conceptions of justice are relevant. Despite the limitations pointed out by McDonald and Zeichner (2009), the conception of distributive justice is necessary to explore in the context of Chile. As explained in Chapter 1, Chile is a country where there is a well-documented and direct relationship between students’ achievement and their socioeconomic status (Cisterna, 2007; Torche, 2005). Additionally, student teachers’ access to different types of universities and to the schools where they will teach upon completion of their teacher preparation programs, is defined

by the type of schools they themselves attended as high school students (Ruffinelli & Guerrero, 2009). The ideals of a democratic society cannot be sustained in this context of severe income and educational inequality, which maintains the achievement gap between low-income and high-income students (Cruz & Haycock, 2012). Similarly, it is impossible to sustain democratic ideals in a context with high segregation in terms of student teachers' access to different universities and schools. Therefore, my analyses of current teacher preparation policies from the perspective of distributive justice are relevant to consider whether and how these policies challenge the unequal and segregated educational system in Chile. In addition, however, the concept of justice as recognition is relevant for understanding how the curriculum of teacher preparation programs is or is not responsive to the diverse characteristics of student teachers and how standards for student teachers address the skills necessary to teach all students. The conception of justice as recognition was useful to explore the aspects of policies that seek to question the dominant culture and the relationships of power that marginalize some groups.

In addition to having a theory of justice, Cochran-Smith (2010) states that a theory of teacher education for social justice must have a *theory of practice* that describes relationships between teaching and learning. McDonald and Zeichner (2009) mention that teacher education programs place issues of social justice in the foundational courses, and they do not include these issues in courses more directly associated with teaching practice (that is, courses related to subject matter and pedagogical knowledge).

According to Cochran-Smith, a theory of practice should consider teaching practice as theoretical and practical, and include aspects of advocacy and activism. She suggests: "In order to support justice, teaching practice must be theorized as an amalgam of the

following: knowledge; interpretative frameworks; teaching strategies; methods and skills; and advocacy with and for students, parents, colleagues, and communities” (Cochran-Smith, 2010, p. 454). Similarly, Sleeter (2009), and McDonald and Zeichner (2009) emphasize teacher advocacy as an important aspect of teacher education from a social justice perspective.

Furthermore, Cochran-Smith (2010) maintains that social justice teacher education must have a *theory of teacher preparation*, which includes the selection and recruitment of student teachers, the curriculum and pedagogy of the program, the program’s structure and collaborators, and the outcomes of the program. Sleeter (2009) and McDonald and Zeichner (2009) also mention these aspects as important. However, McDonald and Zeichner also emphasize that teacher preparation programs should be connected to social movements through social organizations that work for improving students’ opportunities beyond education. This connection would allow student teachers to understand better the life of their students, to expand their role as teachers, and become politically active.

Consistent with this perspective, this study focuses on the three broad aspects of teacher education for social justice articulated by Cochran-Smith (2010): theories of justice (assumptions about the nature of justice), theories of practice (assumptions about relationships between teaching and learning), and theories of teacher education (assumptions about how teachers learn and what social, organizational, and intellectual context support their learning). The next section of this dissertation focuses on the literature review that I developed. This literature review, similar to the structure of my

theoretical framework, analyzes studies related to teacher preparation policy and studies that focus on social justice in teacher preparation.

Literature Review

This Chapter includes an international review of empirical research about the two major topics explored in this dissertation. The first section includes a review of literature related to teacher education and educational policy. The second section analyzes research about teacher education and social justice. Both sections are composed of two subsections, the review of international literature on the topics and the review of research conducted in Chile.

Research on initial teacher education policy. This section presents an analysis of the scholarly research about initial teacher education and policy in both the international and the Chilean context. This includes a focused summary of a previous literature review relevant to this dissertation, which is then expanded to investigate literature from different countries. Finally, a special subsection that analyzes the research literature from Chile is introduced.

Research on initial teacher education policy in the international context. In 2014, Cochran-Smith and Villegas (in press) completed an extensive literature review of some 1,500 empirical studies on teacher preparation published between 2000 and 2012 in the U.S. and elsewhere. The authors identified a cluster of studies related to what they called “policy responses and trends.” Based on the studies’ research questions, the authors identified two groups of studies in this cluster. The first group of studies is

associated with the analysis of policies themselves. These studies analyze the arguments that influence policies or the content of these policies, focusing on aspects that are present or overlooked. The second group of studies is related to implementation of and responses to policies. These studies explore the response, re-creation, or interpretation, by practitioners, of policies related to teacher preparation. These policies directly affect teacher preparation programs in terms of accreditation and other regulations and requirements, student teachers in terms of performance expectations, and programs' relationships with schools. According to the authors, most of these studies explored the responses to policies of a single institution or program using qualitative research methodology by collecting interviews, observations, and programs documents. Some of these studies used critical discourse analysis or other methodology to identify frames, patterns, or themes in the documents or interviews analyzed.

Even though Cochran-Smith and Villegas (in press) offered an extensive analysis, their literature review does not concentrate on the diverse theoretical perspectives used in studies exploring the implementation of policies. Also, none of the studies reviewed were carried out in Latin America. These two aspects are expanded in the literature review section of this dissertation with a special emphasis on the literature developed in or about Chile. Cochran-Smith and Villegas' (in press) pointed me toward two bodies of literature related to policy, and it helped refine the key words of my own search in order to capture these two conversations in the field.

My literature review was developed from an international approach, and there were no restrictions on publication dates of articles used. I performed a search in the database EBSCO using the key words: "teacher education & implementation"; "teacher

education & policy response”; “teacher preparation & policy”; “Higher Education Act & teacher preparation or teacher education.” From this search, I identified 45 studies related to teacher preparation and policy on any level—state, federal, and national. I considered empirical and conceptual studies, but excluded journal editorials, responses to other studies, or descriptions of teacher preparation programs without reference to external policies. I also did not include studies about the impact of policies on teachers’ practices, teachers’ effectiveness, or K-12 students’ outcomes because the unit of analysis of my research is teacher preparation programs. The final number of studies reviewed was 18. These studies were conducted in the U.S., England, Ireland, Ethiopia, and Norway. I identified three categories amongst these studies based on their main topics of research: critical analyses of the content of teacher preparation policies, analyses of the development of policies and their implications for teacher preparation, and analyses of teacher preparation programs’ responses to teacher preparation policies.

Critical analysis of the content of teacher preparation policies. Nine studies focused on the analysis of the content of policy. Four studies in this group analyzed teacher preparation policies taking a historical perspective. These studies used policy documents and secondary sources to analyze changes over time in the U.S. federal and state policies (Barnes-Johnson, 2008; Chandler, 1990; Cohen-Vogel, 2005; Earley, 2000). The time frame for the analysis ranged between 40 and 60 years in the majority of the studies, with the exception of Chandler (1990), who covered four centuries. Some studies discussed federal policies in general (Cohen-Vogel, 2005; Earley, 2000), while others focused on a specific aspect of teacher preparation, such as teacher certification (Barnes-Johnson, 2008; Chandler, 1990). These studies critically analyzed regulations and their

implications for teacher preparation. Most studies did not follow the traditional structure of empirical research, hence it is difficult to identify their research design or conceptual framework. The only exception in this trend is Cohen-Vogel's (2005) study, which used content analysis to review the role that the federal government plays in teacher education in the U.S., focusing on three analytic dimensions: objectives and assumptions, tools used, and funding. Five other studies in this group centered their analyses on the content of specific policies without looking for trends over time. The focus of these studies included the implications of requirements of the U.S. Higher Education Act (Sears, 2002), requirements for teacher preparation programs' accreditation in one U.S. state (Hickok, 1998), the accreditation process in England (Lerman, 2014), and a centrally-mandated certification process for preparing teachers in England and Norway (Stephens et al., 2004). This group of studies also included analysis of policies issued by non-governmental organizations in the U.S. (Butin, 2005).

Two of the studies that took a historical perspective, Earley (2000) and Cohen-Vogel (2005), agreed that teacher education has been functional and part of but not central to U.S. federal policies implemented from the 1950s. This explains why teacher education is part of a large number of fragmented programs but there has not been a systemic approach to transform teacher education. Chandler (1990) and Cohen-Vogel (2005) argued that many policies related to teacher preparation until the 1990s focused on resolving the teacher shortage by regulating who entered teaching. Cohen-Vogel (2005), however, pointed out that since the 1990s this trend has changed and policies have moved to regulate the content of teacher education through diverse strategies: "By striving to link teacher knowledge and skills to K-12 curriculum standards, by encouraging SCDEs

to partner with schools, and by holding preparation programs to account, policy makers hope to focus content and practice within preparatory and development programs” (p. 38). Stephens et al. (2004) argued that an increment of control over schools and teacher preparation by the government is a trend in Western countries. This control is very explicit in England and Norway. Both countries, despite their cultural and historical differences, defined standards in the 1990s for initial teacher training or education. The compliance of programs with these standards is assured through the provision of funding by the government, and, in the case of England, using an inspection process.

Additionally, Earley (2000) and Cohen-Vogel (2005) both maintained that teacher education policies have introduced the use of accountability mechanisms in the last decades in the U.S. Earley (2000) argued that whenever schooling has been considered in crisis, teacher education has been constructed as the “culprit,” which has resulted in policies that focused on teacher education accountability at the institutional and state level. Cohen-Vogel (2005), who unlike Earley (2000), included analysis of NCLB in her discussion, argued that the major distinction between NCLB and previous policies has been to make schools accountable for teacher quality in addition to teacher preparation institutions and states: “The onus of reform, therefore, has been extended from programs that prepare teachers to individual schools in which teachers teach” (Cohen-Vogel, 2005, p. 38-39). This author also mentioned that the influence of many organizations—federal government, states, districts, schools, teacher preparation programs—on teacher education makes coordination of the overall enterprise difficult.

One of the accountability mechanisms in place in various countries is teacher certification, which has been used as a way to assure teachers’ mastery of content

knowledge and teacher preparation quality, measured by pass rates of the programs' graduates (Barnes-Johnson, 2008). Chandler (1990) argued that despite changes in the instruments used, teacher certification's original role and purpose have not changed much between the 17th and 20th centuries. This purpose has been to distinguish who should and should not enter into the career, rather than who could be a "good" or quality teacher. The author pointed out that, in the field of teacher certification, the discussion of teacher quality has always been secondary to the need for filling teacher shortages. In this way, he mentioned that the theories underlying teacher certification have been based on management rather than education. Sears (2002) raised concerns about teacher certification test content, pointing out that content knowledge and basic literacy skills are not good indicators of teaching quality, and highlighting the importance of knowledge of teaching methods coupled with content. Barnes-Johnson (2008) also criticized teacher certification but focused on the implications for minoritized teachers and students. The author analyzed how the history of teacher certification has been connected to the history of civil rights, characterized by complaints about test bias and the negative impact on minoritized populations. Based on demographic information and on analysis of how teacher certification tests have been designed, Barnes-Johnson concluded that teacher certification reproduces inequality. Barnes-Johnson (2008), Chandler (1990), and Sears (2002) posited that teacher certification does not predict teacher quality and teacher performance in the classroom. Barnes-Johnson (2008) called instead for a different kind of evaluation, which includes cross-cultural skills as well as pedagogical content knowledge, while Sears (2002) argued that teacher certification should measure content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge.

Another accountability mechanism used in higher education in the U.S. and other countries is accreditation. Hickok (1998) argued that licensure tests and teacher preparation requirements (e.g. evaluation and courses) have been insufficient to assure the provision of qualified teachers in classrooms. In response to this problem, Pennsylvania created new state requirements for the accreditation of teacher preparation programs. These include high student admission standards and scores on the licensure test, as well as increased influence of practical experiences and content knowledge in the curriculum. The expected effects of these requirements were: an increase of qualified teachers in the classroom and a rise in the status of the teaching profession. Not all the authors, however, agreed that effects of accreditation are positive.

From a different perspective, Lerman (2014) presented a policy analysis of self-evaluation documents in an accreditation process in England and studied their possible effects on mathematics teacher educators' identities. Using a sociological approach based on the ideas of Ball (2003), Bernstein (1990), and Foucault (1980), the author argued that the self-evaluation process and the definition of the educational task as "training" act as regulatory agents. This produces teacher educators' identities as "trainers" who are constantly under surveillance. According to Stephens et al. (2004) initial teacher training in England emphasizes practical skills defined by experts. Teachers are required to teach the national curriculum, manage the classroom, and create and assign homework. Meanwhile, critical discussion of these practical skills and moral debate about them are scant.

Somewhat similarly, in the context of the U.S., Earley (2000) argued that the accountability policies implemented in teacher education—based on market ideas

promoting competition, choice, and blame—have resulted in a deprofessionalization of teachers: “The consequence of these pressures is the domestication of teachers, perpetuating their role as semiskilled workers (Ingersoll, 1999) and frustrating efforts for teaching to truly be professional work” (p. 37). Similarly, Butin (2005) claimed that the discussion about “quality teaching” reduces teaching to an instrumental task. He analyzed ten policy reports published by non-governmental organizations between 2003-2005 in the U.S. The author concluded that references to social foundations of education (SFE) were scant. The author examined reports issued by organizations, such as the National Council of Teacher Quality (NCTQ), the Progressive Policy Institute (PPI), and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (ACCTE). These reports discussed how to prepare “highly qualified” teachers to respond to NCLB’s requirements. The study concluded that there were infrequent references in these reports to multicultural, sociopolitical, historical, and philosophical matters of education amongst other SFE aspects and their role in teacher preparation. The author argued that this absence in the reports evidenced an exclusion of these topics in policy debate. Furthermore, Earley (2000) discussed the mismatch between accountability policies with the democratic goals of education and collaborative learning and teaching practices.

Commentary. Studies in this category pointed out some important information about the field of teacher preparation policy. First, there has been an increase of accountability and control of teacher preparation content in recent decades, which can be observed in the increase of external regulations such as teacher certification, accreditation, and standards. Second, teacher preparation policies in many countries have been fragmented, being subject to different interventions, requirements, or initiatives.

Third, teacher preparation is influenced by different actors and organizations from different levels that make complex its coordination and study. Finally, the studies have expressed conflicting opinions in the field about the positive and negative effects of accountability policies on professionalization as well as the content of teacher quality and teacher preparation. In these debates, the impact of these policies on minoritized student teachers and students are explored with less frequency. Despite well-supported criticisms about accountability policies and their effects, these studies only used secondary sources and policy documents as data sources in their research without including the perspectives of practitioners. These studies, therefore, neglected the exploration of how these policies are enacted and re-created on the local level. In contrast, the inclusion of practitioners' perspective was a relevant aspect of this study.

Analysis of the development of policies and their implications for teacher preparation. A group of five studies focused on the construction of policies and their implications for teacher preparation. Different from the first category described above, this category focused in the process of policy construction rather than only the content of policies. This process includes aspects such as the decision about who directly participates in the construction of the policy, decisions about the content of the policy as well as the analysis of organizations and discourses that influence the definition of policies. Two studies focused on description of the rationale and the analysis of the process of construction of standards for teacher preparation for sex education (Barr et al., 2014) or the creation of performance-based standards for teacher licensure in one state (Scannell & Metcalf, 2000). These studies shared the assumption that standards provide guidelines to teacher preparation programs to better prepare their student teachers. They

also share the assumption that strong teacher preparation creates quality teachers, with solid knowledge and practices. These studies described the process of construction of standards or guidelines for teacher licensure, including the definition of minimum skills, knowledge, and dispositions for student teachers. They also described the recruitment process and detailed the work of a commission appointed to develop these standards. In the case of Barr et al. (2014), the commission was composed of faculty members, the state department, national organizations, and government agencies who were leaders in teacher education and experts in the content of the standards. Also, members of three national organizations, whose work was related to the content of the standards, participated as partners. In the case of Scannell & Metcalf (2000), the professional standard board authorized to create the standards and evaluations for licensure had a greater presence than other stakeholders. Their 19 members included teachers of diverse subjects and levels and principals as well as teacher educators, the state superintendent, the district superintendent, and corporate representatives. Additionally, the board partnered with state organizations.

The results of Barr's et al. (2014) study demonstrated that faculty members must understand the need for standards and align their curriculum with them in order to ensure successful implementation. Similarly, Scannell & Metcalf (2000) mentioned that it is important to convince policy makers, faculty members, and teachers that standards for licensure and licensure process are related to student learning and, therefore, worth time and funding. The authors argued that this process of persuasion is necessary because of the public's and some policy makers' mistrust of teaching as a profession and their skepticism about the importance of teacher preparation and teacher knowledge. In these

two cases, unlike the studies described in the previous category, standards are not understood as an external control regulation which deprofessionalizes teaching, but as a tool to improve teacher preparation quality. They established the importance of teacher preparation. Specifically, they emphasized the role of teacher preparation in fostering teachers' knowledge, skills, and dispositions. In this way, standards highlight the professional characteristics of teaching.

From a different perspective, three studies in this group deconstructed the process of policy construction. These studies shared the assumption that policy is the result of a political and social process of negotiation, and they focused their analysis on these aspects. Semela (2014) examined the construction of national educational reforms in Ethiopia over 60 years and their interaction with social and political contexts, as well as with local and international actors. Cochran-Smith et al., (2013) and Conway (2013) used a discourse approach to explore the construction of teacher education initiatives in the U.S. and Ireland, respectively, and implications for teacher preparation. Most studies only used secondary sources, policy documents and the authors' experiences to develop their analysis, with the exception of Cochran-Smith and her collaborators who complement their analysis with some interviews of practitioners (teacher educators).

These studies shared the assumption that policy construction is not a technical and rational endeavor but a political process of debate among diverse actors operating in diverse locations and based on their ideologies, power, and knowledge (Cochran-Smith et al., 2013; Conway, 2013, Semela, 2014). In teacher preparation policy debates, discourses of crisis in teaching and teacher education have been a fundamental aspect to call for accountability reforms in these fields for decades. In these debates diverse

organizations and actors intervene, such as government, state, advocacy and professional organizations as well as practitioners (Cochran-Smith et al., 2013).

Additionally, international organizations also participate and influence national policies. “The theory seems to suggest that foreign players are the movers and shakers of educational policies and practices in developing countries” (Semela, 2014, p.118).

Conway (2013) and Semela (2014) showed that national policies in Ireland and Ethiopia are not isolated from international trends. In the case of Ethiopia, Semela (2014) pointed out that the international influence over teacher educational policies have been predominant, for example, during the 1940s and 1950s by the British, in the 1970s and 1980s by the USSR, and in the 2000s by the European Union and World Bank. Similarly, worldwide trends towards the intensification of external accountability, standardization, focusing on numeracy and literacy, and high stakes testing have been influencing the public debate and the teacher education policies implemented from 2010 to 2012 in Ireland. Conway (2013) and Semela (2014) argued that the implementation of accountability policies in Ireland and Ethiopia is no accident. Rather, it was a result of a complex process of policy construction, where national debates and political contexts interacted with influential international organizations’ recommendations or interventions. For example, Conway (2013) explained how students’ low results on international tests, the national economic recession, and a change in leadership within the department of education created a “perfect storm” for stimulating changes in teacher education in Ireland. He also emphasized the importance of OECD, European Union, and World Bank in shaping the direction of these policies towards international trends related to the global educational reform movement (GERM) based on accountability and standardization

(Sahlberg, 2011).

From a somewhat similar perspective, Cochran-smith et al. (2013) agree with Conway (2013) about the central role of accountability in current teacher education policies. However, unlike Conway, she and her collaborators identified nuances in the U.S. discussion about the kind of accountability promoted. For example, the authors analyzed a performance-based assessment for evaluating and certifying student teachers (TPA) and a teacher preparation quality assessment based on standards defined by an advocacy group (NCTQ). The way that these policies framed the problem of teacher education and their proposals was based on different and competing ideas of accountability. Moreover, teacher educators and other actors have raised some concerns and criticisms about these policies in the media. Regarding the implications of these accountability policies, the authors, with some differences, agreed on their negative effects on teacher preparation and teacher educators. The authors agreed that most of these accountability policies would result in a deprofessionalization of teaching and teacher education, an increment of surveillance, a reduction of local control, and a narrowing of the curriculum. Additionally, Cochran-Smith et al. (2013) argued that these accountability policies shared the notion of equity, seeking to provide each student with access to a quality teacher, while omitting issues of social justice. Finally, Conway (2013) and Cochran-Smith et al. (2013) agreed that the accountability policies in education reflect the emphasis on choice, competition, and individualism that govern neoliberal policies present in the countries examined. They also argued that these policies are aligned with human capital theory, which links a country's position within the global economy with its education practices and determine work preparation as the main

educational goal.

Commentary. Most studies in these categories are aligned with the theoretical framework of this study, which argues that policy construction is a result of a complex debate and negotiation among diverse actors located in different positions, and not a process of rational decision. Furthermore, these studies situate understanding of Chilean teacher preparation policies as a part of international trends in education with a heavy focus on accountability. These policies are often promoted, constructed, and implemented within a discourse about crisis in K-12 education and teacher education. It is possible to conclude from these studies that there is not an agreement about the expected consequences of these policies. While some advocates highlight the positive effects of these policies in teacher education and teachers' professionalization, other authors claimed that unanticipated outcomes of these accountability policies include constraining professionalization and increasing standardization. Additionally, some authors criticized the alignment of these policies with neoliberal ideas. These studies also showed that there are different kinds of accountability, which raise questions about whether these nuances could result in varied responses by practitioners and diverse implications for teacher preparation. For this reason, it is important to consider the particularities of the policies implemented in Chile. Despite the interesting contribution of these studies, only one of them, Cochran-Smith et al. (2013), included interviews with practitioners (teacher educators) in their analysis. This absence highlights the importance of this dissertation, which, in addition to analysis of policy documents, collects data from practitioners in different locations about local interpretation and enactment of particular accountability policies implemented in Chile.

Analysis of teacher preparation programs' responses to teacher preparation policies. I identified only four studies in this category, all of them were situated in the U.S. Two studies in this group focused on teacher preparation programs' responses to mandated policies directly related to teacher preparation. Using a cognitive perspective, one study analyzed the responses to a state mandatory accreditation policy by seventeen faculty members from five universities located in one state (Bell & Youngs, 2011). Through a self-study, Fuchs et al. (2014) explored the restructuring process of a teacher preparation program, mandated by the state, seeking to align its curriculum to a set of standards and state's licensure requirements.

Fuchs et al. (2014) described the changes in the curriculum of the special education teacher preparation program as a response to state requirements. The authors explained how a group of four teacher educators worked together to align the coursework and practicum's assignments, observations protocols, and assessments with a set of professional standards, a performance assessment (TPA), and other guides used in the state. For example, these changes included the alignment of student teachers' planning templates and reflective journals to the language style and requirements of TPA. Similarly, Bell and Youngs (2011) showed that most teacher preparation programs made curriculum changes as a response to the accreditation process. These changes focused on the revision of the program's conceptual framework that guides the curriculum and assessment of student teachers progress. These changes were also directed toward aligning teacher education curriculum with external requirements. In addition, the author mentioned that the programs created data systems to collect information about student

teachers' learning. Unlike Fuchs et al. (2014), Bell & Youngs (2011) argued that responses to policy do not always translate into effective changes at institutions. For example, some teacher educators mentioned that some modifications in the program were implemented only in response to the accreditation process, but that these changes were not part of their daily work. The authors called these responses "symbolic" and explained this phenomenon as a result of the participants' perception of the accreditation process only as an external requirement and pressure. In contrast, the teacher educators in Fuchs' et al. (2014) study positively evaluated the experience because they had the opportunity to engage in collaborative work in order to improve their program: "The outcomes proved to be beneficial and worth the extensive time and effort. Rather than viewing these directives as punitive or superficial, teacher educators should view the revision process as an opportunity to make meaningful improvements to their teacher-preparation programs" (p. 151). They also valued having the opportunity to remove aspects from the program's curriculum that were not aligned with "effective" and "efficient" teacher preparation.

Moreover, Bell & Youngs (2011) explored possible factors that mediate the responses of teacher educators to external policies. They concluded that resources allocated for conducting the process of accreditation were an important aspect to avoid overwhelming feelings and frustration amongst teacher educators. The program's structure and size were also important. In small universities the burden of accreditation process was more intense and affected everyone's work load, whereas in large universities some teacher educators could exclude themselves from participating. The process of data collection was also more challenging in teacher preparation programs

whose structure did not fit with the accreditation structure and requirements. Another relevant aspect for teacher educators' responses was the degree of alignment between teacher educators' beliefs about teaching and professionalism and the accreditation assumptions about teacher quality. Some teacher educators, similar to the teacher educators in the Fuchs et al. (2014) study, believed that the standards would allow them to improve the preparation of teachers. Other teacher educators criticized the scant attention to social studies, social justice, and student growth, or the requirement to quantify all the aspects of student teachers' learning in accreditation requirements. Teacher educators' previous alignment of their practice—course syllabi and assessment—with accreditation standards or assessment tools was another important aspect in positive teacher educators' responses.

From a different perspective, two other studies focused on the effect of teacher preparation policies in teacher preparation recruitment. Using hierarchical linear modeling, Liou and Lawrenz (2011) studied the influence of a scholarship to attract STEM students to enroll teacher preparation programs and to teach in low-income communities. The authors concluded that variables such as race, the amount of funding, and previous career and academic history were important in decisions about entering the career. Important variables in the decision of teaching in low-income schools were the perception of preparation to work in low-income schools, race, and amount of funding. Finally, Rogers (2009) discussed the historical context and the effects of a teaching reform called “National Teacher Corps,” which was in place between 1965 and 1981 in the U.S. The author examined the effects of this recruitment approach on teacher candidates' demographics, which ended up attracting mostly white middle-class males.

These studies showed how teacher education policies have different implications towards and impact on student teachers recruitment depending on their racial group.

Commentary. The scant number of studies in this category is not surprising. Bell and Youngs (2011) mentioned that few empirical studies have explored the responses of teacher education programs to state policies and to the factors that mediate these responses. From this research, we can conclude that the institutional context in which the practitioners are situated is important to understanding and interpreting responses to and enactment of teacher preparation policies. Since the particularities of different programs, such as size and structure and resources, are important to understand their responses to accountability policies, these aspects were addressed in my research design. Furthermore, these studies highlighted the importance of exploring teacher educators' assumptions about teaching and teacher preparation, as this study does, as well as the alignment of their practices with teacher preparation policies, in order to understand their responses to particular policies. These aspects were important areas explored in the interviews and in my review of course materials in this dissertation. This literature also points out the importance of discussing the effects and implications of teacher preparation policies in student teachers' recruitment and their impact on different demographic groups.

Summary of international research on teacher education policies and implications for this dissertation. Looking across all studies in this section, there are six summary points relevant for this research. First, the use of accountabilities policies in teacher preparation has been intensified in the last decade and has been promoted by national actors and organizations as well as by international organizations. Research analyzing

these policies highlights the importance of examining the values and discourses that are present within them. This previous research also highlights the relationship between these policies and neoliberal ideas. Secondly, there is scant research that analyzes teacher preparation policies as well as practitioners' enactment of these policies. Most of the studies either analyzed policy or examined responses to these. Only one of the studies reviewed considered these aspects together (See Cochran-Smith et al., 2013). This reinforces the importance of the research design of this dissertation that allows for the exploration of both aspects.

Additionally, there is not agreement about the expected results of accountability policies on professionalization or about practitioners' responses to accountability policies. Usually, studies conducted by scholars who participated in the process of constructing standards or implementing the policies have a more positive view of these policies in comparison with external researchers. Furthermore, despite the limited research in the area of policy implementation, the responses to accountability policies in teacher education seem to be different depending on the participants' context, the resources provided, and practitioners' alignment with the assumptions about teaching, learning, and assessment present in these policies. From this review of the literature, it is possible to conclude that there is a need for research designs that explore and inquire about participants' beliefs within diverse institutional contexts.

A fifth insight is that many of the studies assumed that teacher educators were a more or less homogeneous group of people. The few studies that included teacher educators' voices did not explicate their varying positions in the teacher preparation program (e.g. chair of the department, professor in a subject area, practicum supervisor)

(Cochran-Smith et al., 2013; Fuchs et al. 2014). Additionally, no study considered the perspective of student teachers. Therefore, it is important to explore the responses and enactment of policy by practitioners who represent different points of view. Finally, the research showed that teacher preparation policies have diverse effects on different groups of student teachers. Some policies can promote minoritized students' enrollment in teaching programs and entrance into teaching careers, while other policies work against their inclusion. Therefore, as I explain in Chapter 3, teacher preparation programs with different student body compositions make for interesting sites of research, as the programs examined in this study.

In the next section, I review research on teacher preparation policies conducted in Chile. Two of the categories in which I organized the literature are similar to the categories that I identified in the international literature—analyses of the content of teacher preparation policies and analyses of teacher preparation programs' responses to teacher preparation policies. However, one of the categories is different from the categories identified in the international context—analyses of the alignment between policies.

Research on initial teacher preparation policy in Chile. This section analyzes the literature on teacher preparation policies in Chile. For this review, I did not use restrictions on publication dates of articles. Since I anticipated a small number of articles in this area, I conducted a search for empirical studies in the *Index Scielo Chile* using very broad key words: “formacion de profesores” (teacher preparation); “politica and

profesores” (policy and teachers); “politica educativa” (educational policy); “formacion inicial docente” (initial teacher preparation). I only included empirical studies related to initial teacher education and educational policy. I did not include studies that evaluated or described a teacher education program, assignment, or institutional initiative without linking these to national policies. I also did not include studies that explored student teachers’ or teacher educators’ characteristics, perceptions, skills, or other individual aspects. Only three of the studies I found were related to educational policy and teacher education in Chile. Therefore, I conducted a second search in the database EBSCO using “teacher preparation & Chile” and “teacher education, Chile & government policy” as key words. The final number of studies relevant for this dissertation was ten. The studies focused on the institutional accreditation systems applied in higher education, standards for the inclusion of ICT (Information and Communications Technology), as well as policies exclusively related to teacher preparation, such as standards for initial preparation, the INICIA test, and a project to strengthen teacher preparation. I organized these studies into three categories based on content: analyses of the content of teacher preparation policies, analyses of teacher preparation programs’ responses to teacher preparation policies, and analyses of the alignment between two policies.

Analysis of the content of teacher preparation policies. Five of the ten studies were analyses of the content of teacher preparation policies. Three of them were comparative syntheses or descriptions of teacher preparation regulations in multiple countries, which included Chile as one of the examples (Botzakis & Malloy, 2006; Ingvarson, 2013; Sotomayor & Gysling, 2011). Botzakis & Malloy (2006) describe the

regulations and process of teacher preparation as well as the opportunities of learning to teach reading and writing⁴, while Sotomayor & Gysling (2011) and Ingvarson (2013)⁵ focused on teacher preparation standards. These studies used documents (policy documents, university documents, web information) and, in some cases, conducted a small number of informative interviews with universities authorities or surveys with teachers, researchers or policy makers. These three studies agree that the use of standards in the field of teacher preparation is increasing internationally. Ingvarson (2013) also argued that this trend is a consequence of the recommendations to increase teacher quality by international organizations such as OECD and McKinsey & Company. Also, he described how different countries studied have a similar structure to organize their standards. Ingvarson (2013) argued that this structure is based on the Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005) distinction amongst knowledge, skills, and commitments. The author explained that these similarities were due to the interchange of information amongst countries. He did not consider these similarities across the countries as problematic because he argued standards should be “context free.” However, some authors, such as Fendler (2009), criticized standards-reform initiatives, which are associated with a static definition of knowledge and law-like principles of teaching. The notion of universal knowledge for teaching fails to prepare teachers to respond to a diversity context and non-standardized situations (Bottery, 2009).

Botzakis and Malloy (2006), Ingvarson (2013) Sotomayor and Gysling (2011) also agree that in the context of Chile the implementation of standards or regulations has

⁴ Botzakis & Malloy (2006) reviewed teacher preparation experiences of Canada, Australia, Chile, Estonia, China (Hong Kong), Iran, Nigeria and Oman

⁵ Ingvarson (2013) analyzed the process of construction of standards for graduation and teacher preparation certification in England, Australia, New Zealand, United States, Scotland, Saudi Arabia, and Chile

some difficulties. In Chile, most universities are private, their teacher preparation programs have their own rules, and there is no national institution that controls the operation of these programs (Botzakis & Malloy, 2006; Sotomayor & Gysling, 2011). They pointed out that even though there are standards for teacher preparation in Chile, in contrast to some other countries there is not a systemic approach for implementing the standards because there is no an articulated policy based on standards in the first place (Ingvarson, 2013; Sotomayor & Gysling, 2011). Ingvarson (2013) argued that a teacher preparation system based on standards should include a definition of standards, teacher preparation courses aligned with these standards, a performance evaluation and certification of student teachers based on these standards, and an accreditation of programs based on these standards.

Sotomayor and Gysling (2011) analyzed four cases, which use teacher preparation standards: Victoria, Australia; Quebec, Canada; New York, United States, and England, United Kingdom. The authors explored the characteristics of the countries' standards, the relationship between standards for student teachers and teachers, and the role of the state in these standards and its attribution to regulate them. The authors analyzed web site information and interviews with authorities of one university from each case/state (total of interviews is not provided). Then, the authors used this information to analyze the case of Chile and pointed out similarities and differences. They concluded that despite the efforts in Chile in creating standards for teacher preparation, there is still not a policy of teacher preparation based on standards and that the system of teacher preparation is "deregulated." They argued that, as opposed to the other cases studied, Chile does not have a systemic approach that coordinates diverse initiatives in teacher preparation. This

is because Chilean accreditation only has sanctions for funding but does not have control over the operation of programs, and there is not a certification process for teachers nor an institution exclusively dedicated to teacher preparation policy and standards. Sotomayor and Gysling (2011) also criticized the fact that INICIA test mainly measures disciplinary knowledge and neglects practical aspects.

These three studies more explicitly or implicitly assume that the use of standards is desirable to meet students' needs and to ensure teacher quality. However, referring to Zuzovsky y Libman (2006), Sotomayor and Gysling (2011) pointed out that not all standards have led to improvement. They generally do not contribute to improvement when they are externally defined and only have the function of control over institutions. In contrast, they can promote improvement if they are defined by teacher preparation programs and are used for self-evaluation.

From a critical perspective, Inzunza et al. (2011) and Contreras-Sanzana and Villalobos-Clavería (2010) offered a historical review of teacher preparation policies in Chile analyzing policy documents and tools. Inzunza et al. (2011) focused on a critical analysis of changes in the goals of teacher preparation policies and the role of the state and the private sector from the period of the dictatorship (1973) to the period of democratic government (since 1990), while Contreras-Sanzana and Villalobos-Clavería (2010) focused on the changes in the concepts of teacher professionalization and identity in these policies. Contreras-Sanzana and Villalobos-Clavería (2010) stated that, in Chile, the Ministry of Education has implemented policies to regulate the work of teachers, rather than to professionalize it. Both studies discussed the market logic that was introduced in teacher preparation during the dictatorship and the negative consequences,

for example, for the status of the profession and the quality of programs.

Similar to Sotomayor and Gysling (2011), Inzunza et al. (2011) and Contreras-Sanzana and Villalobos-Clavería (2010) pointed out that there is not an articulated vision and policy about teacher preparation but a set of isolated and disjointed initiatives in the field. However, they argued it is possible to identify some trends. Inzunza et al. (2011) criticized the technical and positivist approach of current teacher preparation policies, and specifically their emphasis on the acquisition of conceptual knowledge (the national curriculum) and the methods to teach this knowledge, and their focus on implementing regulations to the market, such as accreditation, grants, and exit test for student teachers. In somewhat similar lines, Contreras-Sanzana and Villalobos-Clavería (2010) recognize the improvement in the teaching profession conditions during the democratic governments but criticize the emphasis of a culture of rewards for results and the lack of definition of teaching as a public service, which should combine quality and equity.

Commentary. Studies in this category are very important to understand Chilean policies in relation to international policy trends. All studies in this category agreed there is a lack of articulation and coherence across diverse initiatives implemented with the intention of improving teacher preparation, which is also a characteristic of teacher education policies in other countries (Cohen-Vogel, 2005; Earley, 2000). These studies also agreed that the use of standards as a lever for change in teacher educational policies at the international level is increasing. The conclusions of Chilean studies confirm the claims of studies in other countries, which are part of the previous section of this research. However, the Chilean studies also add to the previous studies. They point out that it is not only the logic of accountability and the use of standards is a commonality

amongst countries, but also the structure and dimensions of the standards used.

Additionally, Chilean studies argued that teacher education in Chile is highly “deregulated.” Unlike other countries, such as the U.S., Chile does not have certification for teachers or organizations that control the implementation of standards of student teachers by teacher preparation programs. The complexity of this context makes Chile an interesting case to explore the implementation of accountability policies in teacher preparation.

Additionally, Botzakis & Malloy (2006) and Sotomayor and Gysling’ (2011) studies criticized the lack of regulation in Chilean teacher preparation and identified problems in implementing teacher preparation regulations in Chile. The assumption of these authors is that standards are an effective means to introduce improvement in teacher educational programs, particularly, when they are developed along with practitioners. However, the deregulated context of Chile prevents these standards from being effective in achieving that purpose.

In contrast, Inzunza et al. (2011) and Contreras-Sanzana and Villalobos-Clavería’s (2010) studies criticized accountability policies (accreditation, grants, and exit tests) arguing that they reduced teaching to a technical task and these policies are aligned with market principles, which promoted a culture of punishment and rewards. Interestingly, none of them collected information from practitioners who work in teacher education to understand how these regulations are enacted and experienced at the local level of institutions and/or teacher preparation programs. When interviews were collected, they were only used to describe the teacher preparation policies at the national level and were not used to understand how they are enacted at the local level (See

Botzakis & Malloy, 2006; Sotomayor & Gysling, 2011). The inclusion of practitioners' voices in the debate about teacher preparation policies and their implications for teacher preparation at the local level is one of aspects that make this study relevant to the field.

Analysis of teacher preparation programs' responses to teacher preparation policies. The four studies in this group analyzed the implementation of policies that directly affect teacher education in one program or a group of teacher preparation programs. Most studies analyzed the implementation of regulation policies or initiatives aimed to improve the quality of teacher preparation. They focused on the implementation of a pilot process of accreditation in an educational Masters' program (Miranda, 2007), the implementation of ICT (Information and Communications Technology) standards for teacher preparation (Garcés & Constenla, 2010; Silva Quiroz, 2012) or the implementation of a Ministry of Education's initiative, developed between 1996-2001, which aimed to strengthen the practices and curriculum of 17 teacher preparation programs in Chile providing grants and support from the Ministry of Education (Ávalos, 1999).

Three of these studies combined analysis of documents and interviews with participants, while Miranda (2007) based his analysis only on his own reflection about the process of accreditation in the program where he works. Garcés and Constenla (2010), on the other hand, described ICT standards and used them to evaluate the incorporation of technology in one university using a mixed methods research design. They analyzed a focus group with eight student teachers, surveys of ten teacher educators' ICT knowledge and skills, and syllabi from two teacher preparation programs. Similarly, Silva Quiroz (2012) described the process of constructing ICT standards for

teacher preparation, its dissemination, revision, and pilot implementation in 18 universities. The evaluation of the pilot implementation was based on professors' opinions collected through questionnaires and focus groups.

Also combining diverse data sources, Ávalos (1999) described the main characteristics and challenges involve in implementing changes at the university level based on information collected through her site visits to the 17 universities that participated in the Ministry of Education initiative implemented between 1996-2001. Data collected included focus groups with student teachers and university staff members, one interview with a grant coordinator, two classroom observations, data representing professors' academic and professional experiences, and the annual report presented by each teacher preparation program.

The conclusions of these studies are favorable to the use of external regulations or initiatives to improve teacher preparation programs. These diverse external regulations or initiatives were welcomed by participants and valued as a way to introduce changes and reflect about their practices. Ávalos (1999) pointed out that, as a result of the Ministry of Education's initiative, teacher preparation programs improved curricula, enhanced teacher educators' preparation, and implemented actions to improve the status of the profession in the public opinion. Miranda (2007) concluded that the process of accreditation was useful in learning how to improve the master's in education and teacher education undergraduate program, for example pointing out the importance of strengthening teaching in higher education and aligning the teacher preparation program with the master curriculum. Moreover, he mentioned that the process was useful in developing a culture of evaluation that positively impacted teaching, highlighting the

importance of formative evaluation and the integration of theory and practice and of pedagogy and discipline.

Additionally, Silva Quiroz (2012) concluded that ICT standards have been welcome in universities mainly because they are aligned and promoted by the Ministry of Education and accreditation's requirements, and they are seen as a way to update the teacher preparation curriculum and adjust it to the demands of future classroom. The pilot process also promoted reflection in the universities about how to include ICT in the program in a comprehensive way.

Despite this positive evaluation about the implementation of external regulations, Garcés and Constenla (2010) pointed out some neglected aspects, which are related to changes in teacher educators' practice. Specifically, they concluded that teacher preparation programs' student outcomes and syllabus are aligned with standards, but professors need more preparation to include ICT in their classroom methods, resources used, and evaluation. Student teachers are able to use ICT but they need more guidelines to include them in their teaching methods.

Based on the participants' (professors) opinions, the authors also mentioned that some conditions, such as resources and coordination, are needed to successfully implement these external regulations or initiatives. For example, Miranda (2007) mentioned that professors should receive preparation for the process of accreditation and that the institutions should provide incentives and additional time to participate in the process. Silva Quiroz (2012) stated that the Ministry of Education should financially support universities to improve the use of ICT and to articulate different initiatives related to ICT.

Commentary. These studies provided important insights for my research design. They highlighted the importance of studying how external regulations or initiatives are implemented and perceived in teacher education programs by analyzing university documents as well as by documenting the voices of teacher educators and student teachers. The studies provided some ideas for the data collection process of this dissertation, such as student teachers' and teacher educators' interviews, institutional documents, and syllabi.

However, these previous studies differed from the perspective of this dissertation. For example, studies carried out by Garcés and Constenla (2010) and Silva Quiroz's (2012) shared the assumption that the relationship between national level policies and the local level of practice is unidirectional, focusing on exploring the alignment of local teacher preparation practices with the external regulations represented in the standards. Instead my study assumes that national policies are interpreted, enacted, re-created, and changed in diverse local contexts. This dissertation is not an evaluation of how national policies are perceived and implemented, but how they are enacted by teacher preparation programs as well as how university faculty made local policy.

Additionally, the four studies in this category explored the implementation of external regulations or initiatives in a context different from the policies studied in this dissertation. As I mentioned before, the practitioners in studies value the implementation of external regulations or initiatives. For example, Ávalos (1999) concluded that, when there are favorable conditions and when there is awareness of a problem, governments can successfully foster changes in teacher preparation programs and support them, providing economic resources. The author also argued that monitoring and support from

a central organization to programs is important as well as the search for external ideas and experiences to broaden the possibilities of change. However, these four studies explored the implementation of external regulations or initiatives which were not accompanied and aligned with an evaluation of student teachers and rating of teacher preparation programs based on this evaluation. As opposed to the initiatives explored by these authors, this study explores the additional complexities involved in the implementation of external regulations or initiatives, which in addition to providing grants and defining student teachers' standards, established an exit test.

Analysis of the alignment between two policies. One study analyzed the relationship between two policies (Pedraja-Rejas, Araneda-Guirriman, Rodríguez-Ponce & Rodríguez-Ponce, 2012). This research is extremely different from the goals and research design of the studies in the other two categories, which tend to use qualitative methodologies. This is a quantitative study which used a simple linear regression analysis to evaluate the relationship between the results of institutional accreditation of universities, defined as years of accreditation, and the performance of elementary student teachers in 2010 on the national exit test for student teachers, INICIA test, measured as the average of scores on the content, pedagogical, and ICT test. These two variables were used as indicators of institutional quality and teacher preparation quality, respectively. The study concluded that there was a positive and direct relationship between these two variables ($p < 0.001$) and that the years of institutional accreditation explained in a 56.7% the performance of student teachers on the INICIA test. The authors argued that higher education institutions with higher levels of institutional quality have a higher teacher preparation quality, which is indicated by their student teachers' performance. Finally,

due to their impact on the quality of student teachers' preparation, the authors recommend that higher education institutions focus on institutional quality assurance processes.

Commentary. This study worked with a reductionist conception of teacher education programs' quality and institutional quality, limiting them to a single score by program and institution, respectively. Moreover, the calculation of program quality based on a simple average of student teachers' performance in different parts of the INICIA test (i.e., content, pedagogical, and ICT tests) does not seem appropriate. In fact, usually, the Ministry of Education releases these scores without averaging them, probably because they measure very different types of knowledge. In addition to these problems, this study lacks information about what it means for universities' practices and results, to have different years of institutional accreditation. This could be an important aspect if institutions decide to follow the author's recommendations about improving the quality of institutions in order to improve teacher preparation.

Additionally, this study did not include the analysis of the student teachers' socioeconomic status in the universities studied. This demographic element could offer relevant information to expand the explanation of the scores of student teachers on the INICIA test. Previous studies conducted in Chile have shown that the scores on the INICIA test are correlated to the scores that student teachers obtained on the national university admission test (called PSU) (Manzi, 2010), and in turn they are associated with the socioeconomic status of students. Furthermore, this study assumes that the relationship between policies and outcomes as unidirectional. It assumes that the national accreditation process has an effect on institutional quality and curricular process;

therefore, it has an effect on student teachers' academic results. A more complex depiction of how different policies interact at the local level is provided in this study as well as a critical analysis of the conception of teacher education quality at the national and local level policies.

Summary of research on teacher preparation policies in Chile and implications for this dissertation. Across the empirical studies about Chilean teacher preparation policies, there are three important summary points. First there is an increased use of standards in teacher preparation policies to improve teacher preparation in the international context. This makes the Chilean context an appropriate site for research, reflecting the international trend toward the use of accountability policies. At the same time, however, Chile has some particularities, such as the lack of regulation of teacher preparation programs, which make this context distinctive as a particular site of practice where accountability and deregulation work together in an unusual way.

Additionally, in previous studies that analyzed the content of policy, there were conflicting findings regarding the implications of those policies for teacher preparation and teaching. While some of them pointed out that accountability policies (accreditation, grants, and exit tests) reduced teaching to a technical task and were aligned with market principles and a culture of punishment and rewards, other studies defended the use of accountability policies, particularly standards, as a way to promote improvement amongst teacher preparation programs. While both positions are well argued, none of these studies support their claims with the voices of practitioners. Exploration of the enactment and development of policies at the local level is an important component and contribution of

this study.

Third the scant studies about the implementation of teacher education policies showed practitioners' positive responses to them. However, these studies explore the introduction of ICT standards, accreditation, or grants in contexts that are different from this study. The implementation of standards and grants in these studies was not associated with the national exit test and the national standards for student teachers. The coexistence of standards and evaluation of student teachers' outcomes is a particular aspect that my study explores. In the next section, I present the review of research on initial teacher preparation and social justice.

Research about teacher preparation and social justice. This section includes an analysis of the scholarly literature about teacher education and social justice in both the international and Chilean contexts. Similar to the review of research about teacher education and policy, this section includes a focused summary of a previous literature review relevant for this study that it is then expanded to investigate literature from different countries. Then, a special subsection that analyzes literature from Chile is presented.

Research on teacher education and social justice in international context. Cochran-Smith and Villegas's (in press) teacher education literature review identified three major research programs, one of them was *teacher preparation for diversity and equity*. Their review offers a complete depiction of the landscape of the literature about teacher education and diversity, including social justice. This review allowed me to refine the focus of the literature review for this study. Cochran-Smith and Villegas (in press)

identified more than 350 studies exploring the preparation of student teachers to provide fair opportunities for learning and to achieve equitable outcomes with minority k-12 students. These studies were organized by the authors in four different clusters: 1) *The influence of coursework and fieldwork on learning to teach diverse student populations*, which included studies that focus on exploring the impact of one course or field experience on student teachers' beliefs and practices related to teaching minority students; 2) *Recruiting and preparing a diverse teaching force*, which included studies that focus on recruiting, retaining, and preparing student teachers of color, or on preparing male student teachers for positions with young children; 3) *Teacher educator learning for/experiences with diversity*, which included studies conducted by teacher educators related to their practices in preparing teachers for working with minority students; and, 4) *Content, structures, and pedagogies of teacher preparation for diversity*, which included studies that provide analyses of practices that can contribute to preparing student teachers for teaching in contexts of diversity or, alternatively, examines the process of incorporating these practices in a teacher preparation program.

The literature review about social justice and teacher education for my study focuses only on studies related to the fourth cluster. According to Cochran-Smith and Villegas (in press), most studies in this cluster are conducted by teacher educators and share the assumption that traditional practices in teacher education programs are failing to prepare teacher candidates for encountering diversity. One group of studies examined innovations that entail partnerships between teacher preparation programs and urban schools or minority communities; this group of studies also explores collaborations between teacher educators. A second group of studies in this fourth cluster includes the

report of pedagogical activities considered important to prepare teachers for encountering diversity. The third group of studies in this cluster is most closely aligned with the purpose of this dissertation; they explore the extent to which teacher education programs include issues of diversity, using surveys or case studies.

The literature review of Cochran-Smith and Villegas (in press) offers an excellent categorization of the trends in the issues explored and the omissions in the research about *Content, structures, and pedagogies of teacher preparation for diversity (Cluster 4)*. However, their literature review provides little information about the research design and theoretical frameworks of these studies⁶. I thus provide a more detailed analysis of this set of studies. Moreover, references to Latin American authors or research based on Latin American contexts are almost nonexistent with the exception of few studies. Also, the authors focused on only English-language studies. This is understandable because these aspects are beyond the purpose and scope of a literature review that focuses on U.S. teacher preparation. My literature review is more international in scope, with special attention paid to research developed in Chile.

Using the database EBSCO, I searched for literature related to teacher education and social justice using the key words: social justice and pre-service; social justice and preservice; and social justice and student teachers, which resulted in a group of 134 papers. I narrowed the body of literature to the most important aspects of this study—which is related to the *Content, structures, and pedagogies of teacher preparation for diversity*. I selected empirical research, in which units of analysis were teacher preparation programs, courses, initiatives, pedagogical approaches/tools, or curriculum

⁶ The authors concentrated in the analysis of Cluster 1—*The influence of coursework and fieldwork on learning to teach diverse student populations*—and Cluster 2—*Recruiting and preparing a diverse teaching force*.

approaches/tools. I did not include studies in which the focus was student teachers' beliefs, attitudes, dispositions, practices or studies about how these aspects changed because my study focuses on teacher preparation rather than student teachers. Following the same criteria, I also did not include self-studies conducted by teacher educators about their own beliefs, identities, or other individual aspect. I also did not include editorials or responses/commentaries on other papers. Finally, only studies related to university-based teacher preparation were selected. Using these criteria, the final body of literature for analysis was 32 studies. These studies were developed in diverse locations, including the U.S., Australia, South Africa, Great Britain, Netherlands, and Mexico. They can be categorized into three groups based on their main topics: pedagogical approaches, assignments, or courses used in teacher preparation; partnerships between teacher preparation programs with communities; and teacher education programs as a whole.

Pedagogical approaches, assignments, or courses used in teacher preparation.

Fourteen of the thirty-two studies related to teacher education and social justice explored the use of a pedagogical approach, an assignment, or a course that student teachers completed in a teacher preparation program. Two studies in this group focused on a single course with a social justice approach, such as social studies methods (McCall & Vang, 2012) or an educational psychology course used in a teacher preparation program (Chizhik & Chizhik, 2003). In these courses, teacher educators connected preparation for teaching with issues of students' cultural backgrounds, student teachers' identities, and awareness of oppression, rather than only with teaching skills. Three other studies examined a course or a set of workshops specifically designed to prepare teachers for

social justice or diversity (Le Roux & Mdunge, 2012; Storms, 2013). These courses addressed issues of oppression as well as social and economic injustice.

Four of the studies described the use of inquiry assignments with the aim of developing sociocultural knowledge, developing awareness of inequities and oppression, and/or helping student teachers become critical teacher researchers. These inquiry assignments took the form of institutional inquiry (Hyland & Heuschkel, 2010), professional action groups (Weddington & Rhine, 2006), or participatory action research (Esau, 2013). Similarly, Lynn & Smith-Maddox (2007) describe the creation of inquiry workshops based on dialogue around issues of social justice related to classroom, social, and political contexts.

From a similar perspective, Neely (2011) refers to the process of fostering reflective practices in student teachers. This study combines reflection with practical experiences, such as trips to other cities and countries, or activities in community settings. Additionally, three other studies focused on innovative tools used in their courses to foster student teachers' reflection on their identities. For example, the studies examined online environments where student teachers have the possibility to explore their backgrounds and transform their beliefs (Caruthers & Friend, 2014), the use of ethnographic plays to explore and discuss student teachers' beliefs (Goldstein, 2007), or the use of quilt-making for exploring issues of intersectionality (Kuthy & Broadwater, 2014).

From a different perspective, four studies in this group examined pedagogical approaches designed to understand or enhance the interaction between student teachers and the curriculum, or to enhance the collaboration between teachers and teacher

educators. For example, based on the analysis of classroom dialogues, Schmidt, Chang, Carolan-Silva, Lockhart, and Anagnostopoulos (2012) analyze how student teachers' background knowledge about LGBT issues interacts with the curriculum of a teacher preparation course. Helmer (2014) explored the classroom interactions and social relationships in a teacher preparation course based on a critical pedagogy approach, which questions the traditional conception of learning and teaching. Finally, Graziano (2008) described the experience of co-creating and implementing a curriculum for a teacher preparation course with the student teachers who took that class.

These studies usually used self-study or qualitative methodologies to examine teacher education courses or assignments. That is, the researchers were also the teacher educators whose work was being studied. These studies used as data sources teacher educators' experiences and/or student teachers' artifacts (e.g. Chizhik & Chizhik, 2003; Kuthy & Broadwater, 2014; Le Roux & Mdunge, 2012; McCall & Vang, 2012). In only a few cases, the researchers also used other data sources such as interviews, surveys, and/or transcriptions of classes (e.g. Helmer, 2014; Lynn & Smith-Maddox, 2007; Schmidt et al., 2012).

The authors argued the need for introducing social justice courses, assignments, or workshops, because teacher preparation quality influences teacher quality and teachers' capacity for working towards social justice (Le Roux & Mdunge, 2012; Lynn & Smith-Maddox, 2007; Schmidt et al., 2012). As Schmidt and collaborators (2012) argued, "Teacher preparation programs have a vital role in shaping the justice approaches that teachers enact within schools" (p.1176). Helmer (2014) goes further, saying that teacher educators are role models for student teachers to use critical pedagogy in their future

classrooms. However, some authors argued that teacher education is failing to prepare student teachers to have a social justice perspective (Lynn & Smith-Maddox, 2007). The importance of introducing a social justice approach is also mentioned as a response to the increase of minoritized students in schools and an increased public acknowledgment of their educational rights (Le Roux & Mdunge, 2012; McCall & Vang, 2012; Schmidt et al., 2012; Storms, 2013).

In these studies social justice was usually understood as the disruption of oppressive practices. However, the emphasis of the studies is diverse. Studies focused on aspects related to student teachers' identity, K-12 students' culture, or teacher educators' practices. Some authors pointed out the importance of student teachers' exploration of their identities to help them to understand the connection between their social positions and their experiences. The authors expected that this reflection on their identity would allow student teachers to understand the culture of their students and/or challenge oppressive practices (e.g. Chizhik & Chizhik, 2003; Kuthy & Broadwater, 2014; Le Roux & Mdunge, 2012). As one of the authors pointed out: "It is assumed that, by starting to challenge their own multiple identities, pre-service teachers will gradually become professionally qualified teachers who are prepared to move outside their contingent practices and assumptions to recognize and counteract oppressive practices, especially their own" (Kumashiro, 2002 in Le Roux & Mdunge, 2012, p. 79). From a slightly different perspective, other studies explored student teachers' identities as social justice advocates, focusing on fostering reflection on both their practices as well as the classroom, social, and political contexts (e.g. Chizhik & Chizhik, 2003; Lynn & Smith-Maddox, 2007).

Other authors pointed out the importance of learning about students' cultures in order to comprehend the experiences of students and consider them in teaching decisions. For example, McCall & Vang (2012) described the curriculum of a social studies course for student teachers that included readings, speakers, and other resources related to the culture of Hmong students.

Finally, some studies focused on the disruption of teacher education classroom relationships or curriculum from a social justice perspective. These disruptions were meant, for Helmer (2014), to challenge classroom hierarchies and the traditional role of teacher educators based on a critical pedagogy perspective, using small groups that promote the exploration of different topics, constructing classroom community, and introducing meditation. For Schmidt et al. (2012), these disruptions meant paying attention to aspects of recognition and redistribution related to LGBT in their courses' practices and curriculum. For example, teachers could include these aspects in the readings selected or the discussion of homophobia and heteronormativity in the classroom.

Generally, these studies emphasized the use of collaborative strategies in teacher preparation courses. They argued that learning is a situated activity where knowledge is constructed in communities of practice (e.g. Chizhik & Chizhik, 2003; Helmer, 2014; Kuthy & Broadwater, 2014; Lynn & Smith-Maddox, 2007). Therefore, collaboration was a central aspect in the activities offered to student teachers. Additionally, studies that focused on workshops found traditional teacher preparation courses alone were insufficient to prepare preservice teachers to teach from a social justice perspective because they needed a variety of experiences (e.g. Kuthy & Broadwater, 2014; Lynn &

Smith-Maddox, 2007).

Using qualitative methodologies or self-studies, these research studies analyzed the conditions offered to student teachers to learn based on their different definitions of social justice described above. For example, researchers reported that student teachers had the opportunity to explore issues of their identity and the intersection of different markers (Kuthy & Broadwater, 2014; Chizhik & Chizhik, 2003). Other studies, mentioned that student teachers had the opportunity to know about the culture of minoritized students using authentic resources (McCall & Vang, 2012) or to design lesson plans and assessments considering the background of minoritized students (Chizhik & Chizhik, 2003). However, these studies made these claims based only on teacher educators' reports. In a few cases, they referred to student teachers' artifacts to illustrate their claims without providing a systematic analysis of these artifacts. Lynn & Smith-Maddox (2007) also argued that student teachers' had the opportunity to deliberate and reflect about their practices and students as well as the social, political, and moral complexities of the teaching activity. The authors based their conclusion on their field notes, student teachers interviews, and transcription of the classes. Other studies that focused on the teacher education classroom's interactions described the opportunities provided to student teachers to challenge their ideas about authority as well as teacher-student relationships (Helmer, 2014). Helmer's study analyzed student teachers' and instructor's interviews as well as classroom observations. Teacher educators expected that, after these experiences, student teachers continue the process of reflection or inquiry, the use of students' culture in their curriculum, and the disruption of classroom practices.

In a few cases, studies also mentioned changes or a lack thereof in the attitude and practice of student teachers. For example, student teachers showed interest in learning about students' culture, awareness of the importance of including this aspect in their classes, and in a few cases use of this type of learning in their practices after the course (McCall & Vang, 2012). However, this claim was only based on teacher educators' report. In contrast, in other cases, the studies reported that student teachers continued providing individual explanations to issues related to injustice (Schmidt et al., 2012). The authors' conclusion was supported by the analysis of the transcripts of classroom discussions.

The authors also discussed the challenges, pitfalls, and limitations of their work. For example, Le Roux & Mdunge (2012) analyzed their reflective notes as well as student teachers' journals. They argued that some student teachers showed resistance when teacher educators asked them to reflect on and question their prejudice because they expected to have a class about teaching strategies. They mentioned that this resistance could be avoided if they would have stated the objectives of the sessions. During the process, teacher educators also realized the need to help student teachers to deal with and make sense of the emotional responses and discomfort that discussions about racism and disagreement prompted. They also understood the need of presenting theoretical frameworks as a resource for analysis and not as something that their student teachers need to adopt without critical analysis. Some authors described the limitations of opportunities for learning that focused only on reflection. Based on the analysis of student teachers' interviews and the transcript of the classes, they stated that student teachers require more support to integrate the issues discussed in their classroom

decisions (Lynn & Smith-Maddox, 2007). In a slightly similar perspective, others argued that social justice issues should be imbedded across the curriculum, instead of being reduced to one isolated course (Le Roux & Mdunge, 2012; Schmidt et al., 2012).

Commentary. Most studies in this category highlighted the importance of recognizing students' cultures and examining student teachers' identities. This conception of social justice is aligned with a perspective of justice of recognition, as I defined in the theoretical framework of this study. Despite this commonality, studies in this category showed the diverse approaches that a social justice assignment, workshop, or course could take. They also highlighted the need to examine the opportunities offered to student teachers to learn about social justice in terms of the curriculum proposed and the form in which it is enacted in the classroom setting. Opportunities for exploration and reflection about student teachers' personal and teaching identities are mentioned as important aspects in the process of learning to teach from a social justice approach. Additionally, there was a focus on learning about K-12 students' cultures. These studies pointed out that a social justice approach should be present in teacher educators' practices, such as the opportunities for collaborating and co-creating knowledge in the classroom, as well as disrupting the hierarchical relationship between student and professor. This is part of what Cochran-Smith (2010) defined as a theory of teacher education, which is part of her larger framework of teacher education for social justice. The studies also mentioned the importance of providing readings, resources, and activities to student teachers aligned with the conception of social justice that teacher educators intended to promote in student teachers. All these aspects were considered in this study through the analysis of interviews, institutional documents, and course materials. Most studies in these categories

used the reports of teacher educators and some students' artifacts in their analysis. In a few cases, the studies also included the voices of student teachers and other data sources to complement the analyses from the perspectives of those who participated in the courses, assignments, or workshops. The inclusion of interviews with student teachers was a planned aspect of the research design for this study. However, I as explain in Chapter 3, there were difficulties arranging the student focus groups, which resulted in more focus on the vision of university faculty members.

Partnerships between teacher preparation programs and communities. I identified thirteen studies that analyzed teacher preparation programs' collaboration with their communities. These studies differed in the kind of relationship that the teacher preparation program established with schools or communities. Montesano Montessori (2012) analyzed a participatory network in the Netherlands where school actors have an active role. This network is constituted of researchers, student teachers, schoolteachers, and school students, who explored classroom interactions through participatory action research.

Three other studies described a successful relationship of collaboration with high-need schools where teacher preparation programs and their student teachers provided a service without cost to schools. These services were physical education classes in Australian rural schools for elementary school students (Lynch, 2013), literacy and numeracy tutoring for Australian high school refugee students (Naidoo, 2010), or career mentoring and job coaching for high school students with disabilities in the U.S. (Novak, 2010). Here the role of school members was to help coordinate the activities, or that role is not clearly stated. Anderson and Stillman (2013) and Robinson (2014) analyzed the

challenges of student teaching experience in order to propose a new work model with schools.

In contrast, three studies describe a relationship of collaboration, where teacher preparation programs provide services to the greater community and neighbors, while preparing teachers to teach for social justice. These included service-learning experiences (Butcher et al., 2003; Wasserman, 2010) or cultural immersions in a foreign country (Bradfield-Kreider, 1999). Finally, three studies in this category provide an analysis of experiences of collaboration of student teachers and school students. These studies focused on one-on-one work between these actors through collaborative journals that discuss public issues (Camicia & Dobson, 2010), group activities that provide spaces for dialog about learning and teaching amongst these actors (Cook-Sather & Youens) or mentoring to learn about global education (Power, 2008). These collaborations with schools or communities were developed as a part of a specific course (Lynch, 2013; Novak, 2010), student teachers' practicum (Anderson & Stillman, 2013; Gardiner, 2011; Naidoo, 2010; Wasserman, 2010), field trips to other countries (Bradfield-Kreider, 1999), or across the curriculum in different moments (Butcher et al., 2013).

The research designs used by these studies are diverse; however, none of these studies used quantitative methodologies. Some studies included descriptions and reflections of teacher preparation practices without mentioning a systematic data collection and analysis process. In contrast, they used the experience and perception of teacher educators to reflect on or evaluate a partnership with schools and in a few cases used a couple of student teachers' opinions expressed in personal communication or artifacts to illustrate their points (Lynch, 2013; Naidoo, 2010; Novak, 2010). Other

studies used qualitative methodologies (Anderson & Stillman, 2013; Bradfield-Kreider, 1999; Gardiner, 2011) or case studies (Butcher et al. 2003; Wasserman, 2010), which collected individual or group interviews, questionnaires, and/or student teachers artifacts (e.g. journals, reports, lesson plans, reflections), and in one case teacher educators' participant observations (Bradfield-Kreider, 1999). Unlike most research in this area, one study was based on a participatory action research, which also used a narrative approach (Montesano Montessori, 2012).

Despite the different types of collaborative relationships established between teacher preparation programs and schools or communities, as well as the different types of research designs used, it is possible to identify three main reasons that collaborative relationships were established. Most teacher preparation programs established these relationships to expand the student teachers' opportunities for learning to teach in disadvantaged contexts. The authors pointed out that these experiences in schools or communities offered authentic experiences for student teachers to learn from practice and to understand the complexities of practice (Anderson & Stillman, 2013; Butcher et al. 2003; Lynch, 2013; Naidoo, 2010; Wasserman, 2010). These experiences were considered relevant for teacher preparation from a social justice perspective because they allowed student teachers to familiarize themselves with the backgrounds of minoritized students (Naidoo, 2010; Butcher et al., 2003) and offered an opportunity to change their perception of their families and communities (Bradfield-Kreider, 1999). These experiences are also considered important for student teachers to develop specialized knowledge to work in high need schools from a social justice perspective (Anderson & Stillman, 2013; Butcher et al. 2003; Bradfield-Kreider, 1999; Naidoo, 2010). This

rationale for incorporating collaboration with communities in the teacher education curriculum is well illustrated in this quote from Butcher et al., (2013):

The argument is that integrating community engagement into teacher education programmes provides an avenue for those preparing to teach to gain a deep and extensive knowledge of the contexts of their students' lives (Dunkin, 1996). Such experiences, it is believed, can help student teachers appreciate the complexities of schooling, the tensions between school and community values, the differences of life in rural and urban contexts, and the importance of understanding students and their families (Duesterberg, 1998). This knowledge ultimately allows for the student teacher to be flexible in their teaching (Duesterberg, 1998), and to modify lesson content depending on the community context (Dunkin *et al.*, 1998) (p.112).

A second rationale for using this sort of initiative in teacher preparation is that experiences in diverse communities, which are different from those of student teachers, are indispensable contexts for student teachers to examine their own cultural identities and privileges (Bradfield-Kreider, 1999; Wasserman, 2010). According to the authors, these experiences are necessary in the context of the U.S., where most teachers are white and teach students from diverse backgrounds from a Eurocentric perspective. Having experiences in a community that is not part of the dominant culture helps student teachers understand the complex lived experience of their students. These experiences help student teachers to develop social responsibility awareness about teaching students in high need schools (Wasserman, 2010).

A third rationale for establishing relationships of collaboration with schools, which is only present in one study (Montesano Montessori, 2012), is the assumption that

addressing issues of inclusion from a social justice approach is complex; therefore, it requires that insiders and outsiders of schools work together. Consequently, this is the only study where teachers had an active role and responsibility in the initiative, which is described as a participatory action research network. This is also the only study where the K-12 students were the main focus of the initiative rather than the development of student teachers.

There were diverse meanings for the concept of social justice within these studies. Social justice for Lynch (2013) meant the provision of quality service (classes) to minoritized students (low-income rural students) and the improvement of their achievement. Making references to the goals of equity and social justice, the author mentioned: “A commitment to action in achieving these goals included: promoting world-class curriculum and assessment; and improving educational outcomes for the disadvantaged young Australians, especially those from lower socio-economic backgrounds” (Lynch, 2013, p.10). Here the initiative has the goal of providing a service without cost to schools and students while expanding the learning opportunities of student teachers.

A second conception of social justice focused on the need for student teachers to know the cultural background of their students, recognize their own cultural biases, and expand students’ opportunities using appropriated pedagogies (Anderson & Stillman, 2013; Bradfield-Kreider, 1999; Butcher et al., 2013; Naidoo, 2010; Wasserman, 2010). For example, Naidoo (2010) described a tutoring service that allows an expansion of the cultural and social capital of high school students and develops a pedagogy appropriated for high-need schools by student teachers. A second example of this perspective, which

focused more on student teachers, is related to the examination of student teachers' privilege and cultural identities, facilitated by a service trip to a foreign country (Bradfield-Kreider, 1999).

A third perspective on social justice that was implicit in some of these studies is related to social relationships and power distribution. This perspective was evidenced in two ways: in relationships with K-12 students in the classroom and in relationships between teacher preparation programs and teachers. Regarding classroom relationships, in Montesano Montessori's (2012) study, teacher educators, teachers, and student teachers explored how to balance power in the classroom and foster K-12 students' self regulation.

University researchers made suggestions to pay attention to the individual child and to ask it about the reasons for its behaviour or to invite it to think of more productive ways to deal with problems. The result in terms of processes was that teacher researchers started to let go of their controlling power position and reflected on the possibility of allowing children to take personal decisions in specific situations (Montesano Montessori, 2012, p. 261).

Here, social justice is related to the social relationships, and communication in the classroom, and the patterns of participation and distribution of power. Additionally, the author assumed that social justice should be an aspect present not only in classroom and student teachers perspective, but also in the relationship between teacher preparation programs and schools. Social justice is enacted in a participatory approach to work with schools, which overcomes the deficit perspective over practitioners and the hierarchical relationships between schools and universities. Instead, the network recognized the

knowledge of practitioners and fostered horizontal relationships.

Based on the analysis of student teachers' opinions and artifacts as well as the experience of teacher educators, most studies reported that the interventions were successful and achieved the goals proposed. These studies almost always concluded that the results of developing collaborative relationships between teacher preparation programs and schools or communities were positive on three levels: student teachers, K-12 students, and community or organizations. Most studies mentioned the influence of these projects on student teachers learning. The focus on student teacher learning is not surprising because, as I mentioned previously, most teacher preparation programs established collaboration relationships with schools and communities for the purpose of expanding student teachers' learning experiences.

For example, Lynch (2013) reported that student teachers valued the practical experience, illustrating this statement with one quote from a personal communication with a student teacher. Other authors reported student teachers' increased sense of self-efficacy to teach in disadvantaged communities based on their reflective papers, course artifacts, and focus groups (Wasserman, 2010) or on their journals and responses to self-efficacy questionnaires (Butcher et al., 2013). Other authors argued that student teachers understood their students' backgrounds better, and developed a positive attitude toward teaching in high-need schools based on participant observations and interviews conducted before, during, and at the end of the initiative (Bradfield-Kreider, 1999). Naidoo (2010) made the same claim without providing data to support it. The authors also concluded that student teachers learned to include the community context of students and their backgrounds in teachers' pedagogical decisions (Naidoo, 2010; Wasserman, 2010).

Concerning a more personal dimension of the teachers' experiences, Bradfield-Kreider (1999) mentioned that student teachers declared in the interviews that, after cultural immersion in another country, they became more aware of their power and privilege and more critical of racist practices and their own teacher preparation. However, the author pointed out that a follow-up process and support, when they return to their country, is important in order to maintain the awareness that student teachers developed, and to help them to incorporate what they learned in their teaching practice.

Only a few studies examined the impact of these relationships on K-12 students and their classroom experiences. The studies showed a variety of changes in students' behaviors, identities, or learning, which were all aligned with the goals of the projects or interventions. For example, Montesano Montessori (2012) reported the increase of students' behavior self-regulation, understood as their capacity to make decisions by themselves, as a result of the change in the power relationships in the classroom. This conclusion was based on interviews with teachers and the university participants, and classroom observations. The author also included the collective analysis and reflection of teachers' bumpy moments, classroom events that posed a conflict in teachers' beliefs. Similarly, Naidoo (2010) reported an increase in the confidence and the social and cultural capital of the students based on students' and classroom teachers' opinions without specifying how this data was collected. K-12 students understood language as a situated practice and learned to choose and use linguistic repertoires appropriate to particular settings. Finally, only Lynch (2013) reported results on the community and organizational level. The author, based on his experience, pointed out that parents and schools feel satisfied with the free quality service provided and showed their gratitude.

This study, however, did not describe a systematic data collection and process of analysis. This service also gives to the university a positive image in front of the community.

Commentary. These studies showed the various types of relationships that teacher preparation programs have established with schools or communities from a social justice perspective. These relationships predominantly have the objective of expanding the practical experiences of student teachers in high-need schools or communities and to help them learn to develop a social justice pedagogical approach. Interestingly, there are many understandings of social justice such as providing students from high-need schools better access to the curriculum, developing a culturally appropriate pedagogy in student teachers, or analyzing and changing power relationships in the classroom and between practitioners. The first understanding about social justice is aligned with the idea of distributive justice, while the second and third conceptions are aligned with the idea of justice of recognition, as were defined in the theoretical framework of this study. There were multiple ways to enact these ideas of justice, and these conceptions took many different shapes for student teachers' learning opportunities. This study also included exploration of the collaborative relationships that teacher preparation programs established, the rationale behind their establishment, and the assumptions related to social justice behind these collaborations.

Finally, the research designs used in these studies are qualitative, including a few cases of participatory action research, which collected data on student teachers' interviews and artifacts. In a few cases, they used teacher educators' interviews or

questionnaires, or data collected with the teachers or communities in which the partnerships was in place. There are a number of studies that also did not show a systematic data process of collection and analysis. These studies were based on the description and reflection of teacher educators about a partnership and in some cases they used anecdotal data to illustrate their points. What is needed in studies related to social justice in teacher education are strong research design that include a clear and detailed description of the data sources used as well as a systematic process of analysis.

Teacher education programs as a whole. Five of studies focused on analysis or evaluation of a single or a group of teacher preparation programs with a social justice approach. Using qualitative methodologies, most studies in this category examined the approach to social justice within a teacher preparation program, challenges involved in the process of implementing this approach, and the results. For example, Mills (2013) analyzed the challenges of a teacher preparation program in Australia in fostering a pedagogical approach in student teachers to respond to diversity in the classroom. She conducted a three-year longitudinal research study with 24 student teachers from two teacher preparation programs. She did semi-structured interviews, while student teachers were in the university and then when they were in-service teachers. Similarly, Ensign's (2009) study focused on the opportunities offered by four teacher preparation programs to student teachers in response to diversity, as well as the opportunities offered by the programs to help student teachers to be academically successful. She conducted an in depth study using her participant observational notes as a teacher educator in these programs as well as student teachers' surveys. Gazeley and Dunne (2013) analyzed four

teacher preparation programs' opportunities for learning offered to their student teachers so that they might understand issues of structural inequality in disproportionate exclusion of black students from English schools. They collected student teachers' as well as teacher educators' perspectives through semi-structured interviews, which were conducted individually or in groups. This study calls for the development of a multicultural and social justice approach in teacher education practices.

From a slightly different perspective, Sobel et al.(2011) described the changes that a teacher preparation program in the U.S. made towards developing culturally responsive practices. This study did not explicitly state their research design, but could be conceptualized as a self-study in which a group of teacher educators analyzed the process of restructuring a teacher preparation program. Unlike the three previous studies described, in this research the focus was on the process of restructuring a teacher preparation program rather than on the current teacher preparation practices. Finally, Kapustka, Howell, Clayton, and Thomas (2009) focused on the statements of teacher preparation programs on social justice rather than on their process and practices. Specifically, they analyzed how teacher preparation programs define social justice in their NCATE accreditation reports, using a content analysis to review the conceptual frameworks and mission statements of 596 schools of education (Kapustka et al., 2009).

These studies agreed upon the rationale of introducing a social justice perspective in teacher preparation programs. The authors argued that teacher educators have the complex challenge of preparing a student teacher body that is predominantly white, middle-class, and monocultural to effectively teach K-12 students, who are becoming more demographically diverse in public schools (Ensign, 2009; Gazeley and Dunne,

2013; Mills, 2013; Sobel et al., 2011). They also claimed that teacher preparation is important to shape the understandings and practices of future teachers. In fact, Gazeley and Dunne (2013) argued that teacher educators should offer spaces to disrupt inequalities. These studies explicitly or implicitly shared the assumption that if teacher preparation programs want to prepare teachers for successfully working with students with diverse backgrounds, they should include social justice as a central aspect of their curriculum. Some of them also mentioned that teacher preparation has not adequately responded to the demand of preparing teachers to work in these contexts (Sobel et al., 2011).

Based on previous studies, the authors criticized the current status of teacher preparation programs that include social justice as a fragmented approach or an add-on in the curriculum, which is known to be ineffective to changing student teachers' attitudes, beliefs, and practices (Ensign, 2009; Gazeley and Dunne, 2013; Mills, 2013; Sobel et al., 2011). For example, the authors stated: "the typical response of teacher education programs to the growing diversity among students has been to add a course or two on multicultural education but to leave the rest of the curriculum largely intact" (Ambe, 2006 in Mills, 2013). They also criticized the fact that teacher preparation programs often add these courses at the beginning of the programs and their content is not connected with other program' courses (Ensign, 2009). For these reasons, these scholars pointed out that it is necessary to infuse social justice throughout the curriculum. Furthermore, they stated that teacher preparation programs often included social justice in a superficial way, with more focus in program discourse than in practices and that there is often little discussion of issues of race and injustice from a critical perspective (Gazeley and Dunne,

2013; Mills, 2013). For example, Mills (2013) pointed out that teacher preparation programs understand social justice from a distributive perspective of justice, which help them to maintain the status quo. From a somewhat similar perspective, Gazeley and Dunne (2013) claimed that critical race theory should be an important framework to guide theory and practice in teacher preparation in order to prepare student teachers to face racism.

Regarding the meaning of social justice for teacher preparation programs, Kapustka et al., (2009) pointed out that despite the frequent use of the term in scholarly discussion, there is scant research about how teacher preparation programs use it. The inclusion of social justice in the curriculum means different things to each author; however, they all shared a conception of social justice that recognized cultural differences and structural inequality. For example, even though Gazeley and Dunne (2013) and Mills (2013) did not provide a clear definition of social justice, the authors described some characteristics of a teacher preparation for social justice. They agree that teaching for social justice should go beyond individual analysis and explanations about school situations and should include critical components that address systemic inequality and issues of race and class. Mills (2013) also mentioned that social justice implies that teachers should help marginalized populations to be academically successful. With more precision, Sobel et al. (2011) and Ensign (2009) stated that a teacher preparation program with a social justice approach should be aligned with culturally responsive teaching, which values students' cultures and empowers them. The authors also argued that this commitment to culturally responsive teaching should be present in the practices, content, and syllabus of teacher educators.

The results of these studies can be categorized in two levels: opportunities of learning offered to student teachers and teacher preparation characteristics. Gazeley and Dunne (2013) and Mills (2013) reported that student teachers recognized in the interviews that they have spaces in their teacher preparation program to address issues of diversity and injustice. However, student teachers criticized the theoretical approach of their classes to discuss these issues. For example, they pointed out that the discussion about issues of diversity was scant and teacher educators did not teach them how to address these issues in the classroom (Mills, 2013). Student teachers mentioned that these issues were introduced as traditional lectures, in a non-appealing format to them (Gazeley & Dunne, 2013) and with non-authentic evaluations (Mills, 2013). Student teachers stated that they learned more about social justice from their practicum rather than in their courses at the university (Gazeley & Dunne, 2013; Mills, 2013). However, the practicum was very short and located only at the end of the preparation (Mills, 2013) or student teachers varied in their opportunities to address these issues depending on the schools where they were assigned (Gazeley & Dunne, 2013).

Despite the criticisms highlighted by these authors, these studies did not include analysis of course materials, which are relevant to understanding student teachers responses to their students' struggles. Based on participant observation and student teacher surveys, Ensign (2009), concluded that student teachers from teacher preparation programs with social justice as an add-on to the curriculum disconnected with other courses tended to blame K-12 students and their families for their struggles. In contrast, student teachers from programs where social justice was infused in the curriculum (framework, readings, and assignments) critically analyzed their teaching practices when

their students struggled in the classroom.

Finally, in the only study that collected both interviews from student teachers and teacher educators, it is possible to see some discrepancies about the results of teacher preparation (Gazeley & Dunne, 2013). Student teachers felt unprepared to provide explanations about issues related to racism. In contrast, teacher educators mentioned that despite the short time available to address these issues, university courses provided the foundations for future teaching to student teachers. For example, the authors mentioned that: “the tutors suggested that their key concern was to produce not technicians, but reflective practitioners with the capacity to develop more detailed and structural understanding of this issue in the future” (p. 503). However, student teachers associated individual explanations with issues related to institutional racism in schools (such as exclusion of black students in schools) or they reported that do not feel prepare to talk about it because they do not have knowledge about or do not directly work with black students.

Regarding results related to teacher education characteristics, Kapustka et al., (2009), conducting a content analysis of university documents, pointed out that less than 20 percent of 596 teacher education schools mentioned social justice in their institutional documents and less than one third of them used it as the central term to organize their programs. Additionally, Ensign (2009) found that teacher preparation opportunities for learning about social justice were related to teacher educators’ explanation of student teachers’ struggles. She supported her conclusion on her participant observational notes as a teacher educator in four programs as well as student teachers’ surveys. In programs with a fragmented and add on approach to social justice, teacher educators blamed

student teachers for their failures or their difficulties to take a social justice approach rather than critically analyze their practices. In contrast, in teacher education programs where social justice was present throughout the program, teacher educators questioned whether their own practices were aligned with culturally relevant practices.

Based on their description and reflection on their experience as teacher educators analyzed through a self-study, Sobel and colleagues' (2011) showed that restructuring a teacher preparation program based on a culturally responsive approach is complex and requires time. The process for teacher educators included the revision of their curriculum and teacher professional development opportunities. In this case, the restructuring process allowed teacher educators to define a shared conceptual framework for their program, establish learning outcomes for student teachers based on this framework, and redesign their curricular grid, syllabus, and practicum experiences.

Commentary. These studies are particularly relevant for this research because, unlike studies in previous categories, their unit of analysis is a teacher preparation program as a whole rather than a course, pedagogical strategy, or a specific relationship of collaboration. Interestingly, this is the category with few studies related to social justice. Most studies in this category characterize social justice from a critical perspective, analyzing structural inequalities and developing a culturally responsive teaching. These conceptions of social justice are related to justice of recognition as was defined in the theoretical framework of this study.

The studies in this category provided important suggestions about how to explore teacher preparation program practices and curriculum related to social justice, which were useful for the research design of this study. For example, they pointed out the

importance of including student teachers' opinions about their university courses and their practicum experiences because these can offer different opportunities of learning about social justice. The studies also showed the importance of examining student teachers' and teacher educators' opinions. This aspect is important due to the discrepancy of opinions between teacher educators and student teachers, which was reported in the only study that collected interviews with both groups. As I explain in Chapter 3, despite extensive efforts to collect both student teachers' and teacher educators' opinions, my study focuses more on the viewpoints of teacher educators.

Additionally, some of the studies also argued that a social justice approach should be present in teacher preparation practices and not only in the content of the courses of the program. This is aligned with Cochran-Smith's (2010) ideas of teaching for social justice, which include a theory of teacher education, which was described in the theoretical framework of this study. With the exception of Ensign (2009), studies in this category, tended to use only analysis of student teachers' interviews and teacher educators' accounts of their experiences or only documents from teacher preparation programs. There is a need for more research in this area that triangulates information between participants' voices and official documents.

It is striking that there is no research in this category that includes analyses of teacher education policies. Only one study explored policies that directly impact teacher preparation programs such as accreditation; however, the documents generated by universities to respond to these external requirements were analyzed only in relationship to the boundaries of teacher preparation programs without making connections with external policies (Kapustka et al., 2009). Additionally, in only a few studies were K-12

policies mentioned as essential contexts for understanding teacher preparation efforts to teach for social justice (e.g. Gazeley & Dunne, 2013; Sobel et al., 2011). This is one of the important aspects that make my study relevant to the field of teacher education.

Summary of international research on social justice and teacher preparation and implications for this dissertation. Across all studies in this section, six summary points are relevant for this dissertation. First, the studies illustrated multiple ways that social justice can be incorporated in teacher preparation. Most studies conceptualized social justice from a perspective of justice of recognition rather than distributive justice. The most common approaches for including social justice in teacher preparation program were using activities and resources in order to expand their knowledge of students' backgrounds and cultures, explore student teachers' identities and practices, and provide practical experiences in the community.

Second, studies argued that social justice should not only be present in the content of teacher preparation coursework, but also in the practices of teacher educators, including the classroom dynamic and the opportunities to work collaboratively and co-create knowledge. Third, these studies pointed out the importance of examining the opportunities provided to student teachers to learn about social justice, including the activities and resources used and their alignment with the conception of social justice defined by the program. Also, it is important to identify the rationale used by teacher educators to create these learning opportunities. These aspects were explored in the data collection and analysis process of this study.

Studies in this section primarily used teacher educators' experiences and viewpoints as well as program documents as data sources. More research that includes student teachers' interviews or survey response is needed in this area in order to complement the perspectives of teacher educators with the perspectives of those who attend the programs. Also, it is important that the interviews or surveys inquire about university-based courses as well as the practicum experiences.

Fifth, few studies about social justice focused on the whole program but instead researched a particular assignment, course, workshop, or partnership. The scant research in this area points to the need for more studies that include the analysis of a whole teacher preparation program, including the revision of method courses, courses or workshops specifically designed to address social justice, and practicum experiences or other activities developed with the community along with other components of teacher preparation. Finally, studies about social justice usually focused on what happened in teacher preparation programs (local level) without analyzing the external policies that influence, challenge, or frame the practices of teacher preparation programs. Exploration of both teacher preparation policies and teacher preparation programs were the center of this research.

Research on teacher education and social justice in Chile. Unlike the U.S., where social justice is a concept often used in education and in teacher education (McDonald & Zeichner, 2009; North, 2008), the concept of social justice is not regularly used in the field of education in Chile. Sleeter, Montecinos, and Jimenez (2016) developed a literature review of Chilean research related to teacher education (pre service

and in service) and social justice. Using the relationship of teacher preparation programs or schools with at risk families as a proxy of social justice, they identified 26 studies, 11 of them were empirical studies. Only one of the studies focused on initial teacher education. Based on the review of this previous study, the researchers found that student teachers displayed low expectations for low-income students, expected that these students would require additional academic support, and assumed that they would have less academic success. According to the authors, this trend of low expectations for low-income students and their communities was also present in studies related to in service teacher preparation and the relationship between schools and families.

In my own search for studies related to social justice and initial teacher education, I reviewed studies published in peer-reviewed journals using the index Scielo Chile. I found only four studies that used the concept of social justice. Three of these studies discussed the term in general or in a field outside education (Salvat, 2009; Vidal 2009, 2011) while only one was related to education, specifically to physical education (Moreno, Campos, & Almonacid, 2012). Usually, aspects related to social justice in education are researched in Chile using terms such as: gender, abilities, interculturalism, multiculturalism, equity, diversity, vulnerability, rural condition, and poverty. Even though these terms are not synonymous of social justice, I used them as a proxy for social justice in the context of Chile. Most studies in these areas concentrated on the K-12 context. Other studies focused on issues of equity in higher education, exploring issues such as educational access, retention, and drop out rates among college students (Arancibia, Fritis, Tenorio, Rodriguez & Poblete, 2013; Arancibia, Guerrero, Hernández, Maldonado & Román, 2014; Donoso & Schifelbein, 2007; Moya, 2011). Other studies in

this context included the design, analysis or evaluation of curriculum, the perceptions of students and professors about gender, or differences in academic remunerations by gender (Arcos et al., 2006a; Arcos et al., 2006b; Ramírez, Rondán, & Arenas, 2010; González, Brunner, Salmi, 2013; Vásquez, Apablaza, Osorio, & Zuñiga, 2011).

Only nine studies focused on issues of teacher preparation and equity in Chile: four conceptual studies (Aranda, 2011; Geeregat et al., 2012; Infante, 2010; Rubio, 2009) and five empirical studies (Del Río & Balladares, 2010; Navas & Sánchez, 2010; Sánchez et al., 2013; Tenorio, 2011; Turra et al., 2013). Due to the scant research on this topic in Chile, I included the four conceptual studies in this section of my literature review. These nine studies explored issues related to gender, immigrant students, indigenous populations, students with diverse socioeconomic status, or students with diverse abilities in regular schools. In contrast to other groups of studies in this literature review, the studies related to social justice and teacher education in Chile were quite similar to one another. Therefore, I focus my analysis on their commonalities instead of the aspects that differentiated them. Across these studies, I identified three common themes: critique of the Chilean educational system, critique of teacher preparation programs, and analysis of student teachers' attitudes or expectations.

The authors of these conceptual and empirical studies, referring to previous studies and literature, argued that education should consider not only the needs and interests of the majority of students, but also the particularities of students who come from different socioeconomic contexts, ethnicities, cultures, and abilities (Tenorio, 2011). The authors also established that, historically and currently, education in Chile has had a “homogenizer” role, which teaches and prepares student teachers to teach an average

student who comes from an upper class, without disabilities, and is part of the western culture (Aranda, 2011; Geeregat et al., 2012; Infante, 2010; Rubio, 2009; Turra et al., 2013). As a result, this type of education excludes or denies those students who are not from the mainstream. This problem also has resulted in an achievement gap between minoritized students and those who belong to the dominant culture in Chile (Turra et al., 2013). These studies mentioned that in order to overcome inequity educators need to provide an inclusive education to students, one which would remove structural barriers to students learning (Tenorio, 2011).

Additionally, all studies (empirical and conceptual) emphasized the importance of teacher preparation to respond to the requirement of equity in Chilean education. Regarding the presence of aspects related to equity in the teacher preparation programs, authors took different positions. Authors who conducted empirical research argued that teacher preparation is not responding to social demands by taking into account students' diverse cultures and characteristics in the process of teaching, nor is it reducing prejudices toward students from different cultures (Navas & Sánchez, 2010; Sánchez et al., 2013; Turra et al., 2013). In contrast, authors who conducted conceptual studies, which used some examples of teacher preparation programs' practices to illustrate their points, mentioned that teacher preparation curriculum, student teachers' outcomes, and courses have explicitly included "responses to diversity." For example, the authors mentioned that teacher preparation programs promoted intercultural relationships, considering students' cultures, special educative needs, and vulnerability conditions, as well as revitalizing indigenous cultures and languages (Geeregat et al., 2012; Infante, 2010). These efforts in teacher preparation programs are oriented towards preparing

student teachers to adapt the national curriculum to their students' particularities.

However, these authors argued that changes in teacher preparation programs have not been coupled with deep changes in the concept of inclusion (Infante, 2010) or with a critical analysis of how education has historically had the role of reproducing relationships of domination (Geeregat et al., 2012).

Tenorio (2011) explored the preparation of 80 student teachers, from different specializations within one university, for working with special need students. Based on student teachers' opinions from a questionnaire and interviews, and the analysis of their curriculum grid, the author concluded that student teachers' preparation was insufficient. 56% of the participants did not remember that their preparation included aspects related to the work with students with special needs, and 59% stated that they had been prepared to teach only students without special needs. They mentioned that their teacher preparation emphasized disciplinary aspects, issues about diversity were superficially discussed, and they lacked knowledge about methodologies and strategies to work with special need students. However, they valued their programs preparation to develop reflexive and inquiry strategies, which could be useful to teach special needs students.

The authors of conceptual and empirical studies argued that students from other cultures (indigenous people or immigrants), students from low-income families, and women obtained lower academic achievement than other K-12 students, which can be explained by teachers' expectations, prejudice, racist and xenophobic representations, and/or stereotypes related to marginalized students (Aranda, 2011; Del Río & Balladares, 2010; Navas & Sánchez, 2010; Sánchez et. al, 2013).

In addition, the empirical studies assumed that teacher preparation has an

important role modulating or changing student teachers' attitudes (Del Río & Balladares, 2010; Tenorio, 2011).

They used surveys to measure student teachers' attitudes toward immigrant students (Navas & Sánchez, 2010; Sánchez et. al, 2013) or student teachers' expectations toward low-income students and women (Del Río & Balladares, 2010). They found a subtle prejudice toward immigrant students and low expectations toward low-income students. In order to address this problem, these studies proposed the creation of interventions that change student teachers' attitudes, expectations, or social representations in teacher preparation. Conceptual analyses agreed that student teachers have been exposed to xenophobic and racist representations and that without an explicit reflection about these experiences, they would reproduce these representations in the classroom (Aranda, 2011). Similarly, Infante (2010) proposes that teacher education should focus on providing student teachers the opportunity to reflect about their conceptions of inclusion and diversity in order to develop more complex understandings of those. This conceptual study also argued that, beyond providing spaces for reflection, teacher education should develop student teachers' evaluation skills to be more respectful of diversity. In general, these empirical and conceptual studies assumed that a change in teachers' attitudes, expectations, or beliefs will modify student teachers' practices and improve learning opportunities for marginalized students.

With a slightly different emphasis, Rubio's (2009) conceptual study proposed a teacher preparation curriculum based on the development of communicative intercultural competency in student teachers. This means the development of the ability and knowledge to interact in diverse contexts as well as the development of critical awareness

and human rights advocacy. Even though this proposal goes beyond the emphasis on student attitudes, it does not include any strategy that would allow student teachers to learn how to use this communicative intercultural competency in their teaching practices. It seems that the goal of this proposal is to understand those students from a different culture, and change student teachers' attitudes and interactions with them.

Commentary. These nine studies lack a deep exploration and analysis of teacher preparation programs. Even though four empirical studies included student teachers' opinions through surveys and/or interviews, they do not collect information regarding opinions from the designers and implementers of teacher preparation programs (e.g., teacher educators or education school deans) or an observation of their practices. Only one study (Tenorio, 2011) included a systematic analysis of some aspect of the curriculum of teacher preparation programs, examining the program requirements. However, the results of this study do not include an in-depth discussion about this data source, and the analysis is limited to describing the number of courses which include some aspects that aim to prepare student teachers to work with diversity in their classroom.

Conceptual and empirical studies also do not include an analysis of Chilean education policies in general or teacher education policies more specifically. The studies describe the policies that are in place in Chile as context for their research, without making Chilean policy the object of analysis itself (Aranda, 2011; Navas & Sánchez, 2010; Sánchez et. al, 2013; Rubio, 2009; Tenorio, 2011). They assume that the policies are appropriate and that problems in teacher education are the result of the lack of

implementation of the policies by teacher educators or universities (Infante, 2010; Turra et al., 2013), or they do not even mention Chilean policy at all (Del Río & Balladares, 2010; Geeregat et al., 2012).

Summary of Chilean research on social justice and teacher preparation and implications for this dissertation. Across all studies in this section, four summary points are relevant for this research. First, conceptual and empirical studies argued that Chilean teachers and the national curriculum were not adequately responding to the needs and interests of minoritized students in K-12 classroom and that student teachers often held low-expectations and prejudice towards minoritized students. Second, empirical studies related to social justice in Chile focused on student teachers' attitudes or expectations, neglecting analysis of the learning opportunities provided in teacher preparation programs and the perspectives of teacher educators. These two aspects were explored in the study.

Additionally, this body of research on social justice in teacher education did not analyze the relationship between teacher preparation practices and educational policy in Chile. Often educational policies were mentioned in the context of the conceptual and empirical studies, but they were not the object of analysis. My study addresses some of the absences in previous studies about teacher education related to equity by analyzing both national teacher education policies and teacher preparation programs.

CHAPTER 3: Research Design

This study takes the perspective of a critical policy analysis and includes the collection of data on teacher preparation policies at the national and local levels. The data collected at the local levels involved two university-based teacher preparation programs for elementary teachers in Chile—hereinafter referred to as the Central and Branch Campuses at the National University. The data sources of this study include national policy documents as well as institutional documents, course materials, and interviews with university faculty and student teachers at the university level, which were analyzed using frame analysis. In this chapter, I describe the relationship between my literature review and my research design, the research sites for this study, the data sources and the participants of the study, and the data analyses.

Connecting the Literature Review with the Current Study

The literature review in the preceding chapter illustrates the scholarly debate about the implications and effects of accountability policies used in teacher education. While some authors point out that high-stakes accountability policies reduce teaching and teacher education to a technical task, other authors defend the use of accountability policies, particularly standards, as a way to promote improvement amongst teacher preparation programs. The literature review also shows that these policies have been commonly analyzed in relation to issues of professionalization and teacher preparation program changes, while issues of social justice have been less frequently explored. Given this research landscape, this study is particularly relevant. Its purpose is to expand scholarly knowledge about the implications and impact of accountability policies on

social justice issues in teacher preparation in Chile, a South American country with some of the greatest economic disparities on the continent.

Additionally, the use of accountability policies as a pathway to improve teacher preparation has increased since the 1990s in the international context, which makes the analysis of these policies and their implications and effects a very timely focus of research. The Chilean context represents a particular interesting site of practice. Despite the implementation of standards for student teachers, accreditation of teacher preparation programs, and the implementation of an exit test for student teachers, Chilean scholars agree that there is a lack of regulation and cohesion of teacher preparation programs. This makes Chile an international example of both stepped-up accountability promoted by the government and increasing deregulation through markets; this unusual context where accountability and deregulation work together in particularly intense ways in shaping teacher education is important to study. Furthermore, the international and Chilean literature reveals a dearth of research about practitioners' enactment of these policies. The lack of research reinforces the importance of developing a research design that allows for the exploration of both the university and national levels of policy development and enactment, which is what this critical policy study set out to do.

This dissertation analyzes the national policy tools and documents related to current teacher preparation in Chile. These policies include: national standards for student teachers, the national exit test for student teachers, Ministry of Education's competitive grants program for improving university-based teacher preparation programs, and scholarships for student teachers who achieve higher scores in the national university admission test. Even though some authors (Ingvarson, 2013; Sotomayor & Gysling,

2011) claim that policies implemented in teacher preparation in Chile are not consistent or well-articulated, each of the above policies can be clearly identified. Therefore, it is imperative to examine the ways in which these policies have influenced teacher preparation programs in Chile.

Additionally, the few previous studies conducted in Chile about the implementation of teacher education policies were developed in a context in which educational standards and the Ministry of Education grants program were not associated with the national exit test and the national standards for student teachers. This makes the examination of these policies and their enactment at the university level relevant to expand the knowledge in Chile about the implications and effects of policies where the provision of additional funding, the use of standards, and the control of the outcomes of teacher preparation coexist.

Research Sites

This study focuses on two university-based teacher preparation programs for elementary teachers, which are part of the same university. As I explain below, this university and its programs offer a strategic research site for analyzing how policy is interpreted at the local level and how issues of social justice are/are not enacted. A strategic research site refers to “a research site that exhibits, to advantage and in an accessible form, the phenomena to be explained or interpreted” (Fox, Sonnert, & Nikiforova, 2009, p. 334).

My study focuses on university-based teacher preparation programs for elementary teachers in Chile because there is more homogeneity in the structure of elementary programs than in secondary programs. The school or department of education

offers all university elementary education programs, and most of them have a length of eight semesters. In contrast, preparation for teaching secondary levels is offered by schools or departments of education or by the departments associated within each specialization, such as language arts, history, mathematics, among others. Additionally, these programs sometimes require a previous major in social sciences, language arts, or natural sciences, and offer teaching preparation in either two or four semesters. These programs may also offer a ten-semester program that includes a major in social sciences, language arts, or natural sciences, and teaching preparation.

There are 44 universities in Chile that currently offer elementary teacher preparation programs. Ruffinelli and Guerrero (2009) identified two dimensions of classification for universities in Chile—administration (public or private) and selectiveness. Drawing on Ruffinelli and Guerrero’s classification dimensions (2009), this study used Brunner’s indicator of selectiveness (2009), which is calculated based on the average of students’ scores by university in the national university admission test. When selectiveness is coupled with the dimension of public/private, the result is four groupings of universities, which tend to enroll teacher candidates based primarily on their socioeconomic backgrounds and the types of K-12 schools they have themselves attended (public, private, voucher) (See Table 1, Chapter 1). Parsed in this way, the 44 universities that offer elementary teacher preparation include: six public and selective universities; thirteen universities that are public and non-selective or had a low level of selectiveness; seven private and selective institutions; and eighteen universities that were private and non-selective or had a low level of selectiveness.

The selected university for this study is part of the category of public and selective universities, which make it a strategic research site for exploring how participants in the local context constructed and implemented policy and also enacted issues of social justice. This university is the top ranked university in the country, and it received a grant from the Ministry of Education of approximately 1,300 million Chilean *pesos* (\$2 million USD) to improve its teacher preparation programs in the year 2012. This grant program is one of the teacher preparation policies under study in this dissertation. One of the university indicators of success in the project funded by this grant has to do with the increase of student teachers' scores on the INICIA national exit test for student teachers. Moreover, the university documents state that this university has aligned its student teachers' outcomes, curriculum, and syllabus to the national standards for elementary education teachers.

This university, which is referred to here as National University, offers teacher preparation for elementary teachers in several regions of Chile which again makes this university a strategic research site. One of these locations is in the capital (Central Campus) and one of the others is located in the south of Chile (Branch Campus). My literature review suggests that the responses of participants to policy differ depending on the participants' context, the resources available, and practitioners' alignment with assumptions about teaching, learning, and assessment present in these policies. This means that a research design intended to explore participants' enactment of accountability policies in teacher education should include contexts with diverse characteristics. In this case, the Central Campus program located in the capital enrolled 852 students, including 178 first year student teachers, while the Branch Campus

program located in the south enrolled only 165 students, including 19 first year student teachers. Also, in the Central Campus program, 58% of the teachers educators have doctoral degrees and 32% have master degrees. In contrast, in the Branch Campus program, only 41% of teacher educators have doctoral degrees and 53% have master degrees. Further in contrast with the Chilean capital, the city in the south where the Branch Campus is located has a number of indigenous and rural communities. Although these two programs belong to the same institution, they also reveal differences pertaining to tuition expenses for students—\$5,563 US dollars in the Central Campus program and \$3,528 US dollars in the Branch Campus program for one year of tuition.

My literature review suggests that teacher preparation policies have diverse effects on student teachers from different demographic groups. The university selected for this study presented great differences in its student teaching body located in the Central Campus and the Branch Campus. Teacher candidates who attended the program at the Central Campus came from primarily urban private high schools and high-income backgrounds. They had also achieved high scores in the national university admission tests. In contrast, student candidates who attended the Branch Campus program primarily came from rural or urban public high schools and medium or low-income backgrounds, and had also achieved lower scores in the national admission tests than the students who studied at the Central Campus.

Despite the differences, both programs were under the umbrella of the same institutional values, and officially the preparation offered in these two sites was equivalent. Table 4 summarizes the main differences between these two elementary teacher preparation programs: Central and Branch campuses.

Table 4: *Differences between Elementary Programs Studied*

Aspects	Central Campus	Branch Campus
Location	Capital	South (high number of indigenous communities)
Enrollment	852 Total 178 First year students	165 Total 19 First year students
Tuition	\$5,563 USD (3,264,000 Chilean pesos)	\$3,528 USD (2,070,000 Chilean pesos)
Mean Students' Scores - National Admission Test	658	557
Max. Students' Scores - National Admission Test	760	648
Min. Students' Scores - National Admission Test	576	501
Professors with a Doctoral Degree	58%	41%
Professors with a Master Degree	32%	53%

Additionally, National University started offering a specialization in “Teaching in Socially Disadvantaged Contexts” to their teacher candidates in 2015. This specialization includes five courses that prepare student teachers to work in contexts of socioeconomic and cultural “disadvantage” in urban and rural settings. This new specialization also makes this university particularly interesting for purposes of this study, which includes the examination of the impact of accountability policies in social justice aspects of teacher preparation.

One additional aspect of National University that made it a strategic research site is the relationship between the Central Campus located in the capital and the Branch Campus located in the south. The teacher preparation program at the Branch Campus did not have full autonomy to make administrative and curricular decisions; instead, it was

dependent on the decisions made at the Central Campus. This dependency relationship had implications for the work of the Branch Campus and their responses to the policy. For example, the Central Campus program applied for the government grant and included in its application some activities and outcomes for the Branch Campus program. Moreover, some of the faculties who were part of the program at the Central Campus also worked in the research and evaluation centers that created the standards and applied the exit test respectively. This relationship affected the enactment of policies at the Central Campus and Branch Campus as I explain in the following chapters.

Despite the fact that teacher education programs at the Branch Campus had a somewhat dependent relationship on the Central Campus, policy construction and implementation were complex and not linear. Before the time of this study, it was not possible to determine whether the response to policy at the Branch Campus program was or was not simply a consequence of the decisions that were made at the Central Campus. It was also not possible to know the importance of the particular characteristics and practices developed at the Branch Campus in the enactment of national policies and the construction of local policies. Figure 3, which represents some of the complex relationships and interrelationships involved in policy construction, shows how the interaction amongst these three locations—national level, the Central Campus, and the Branch Campus—are not linear but related through a complex process of interaction.

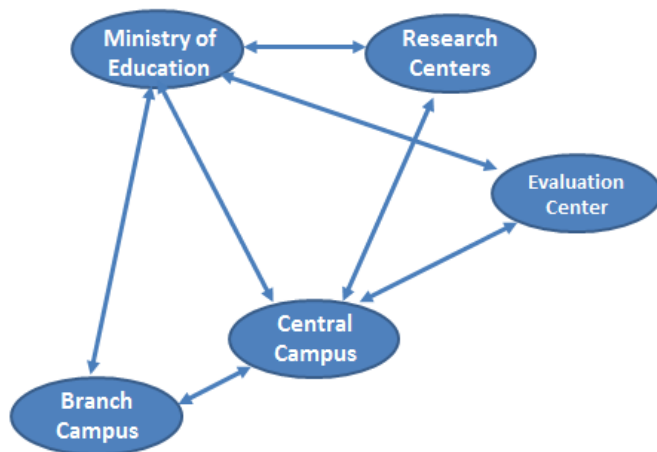


Figure 3. Teacher Preparation Programs' Web.

Data Sources and Participants in the Study

The data sources for this study include documents and interviews. These are organized based on the two levels of policy explored: the national level and university level.

National level. My analysis of teacher preparation policy at the national level is based on the examination of *policy tools and documents*. The major data sources were 23 documents and policy tools related to teacher preparation in Chile, published between 2006 and 2014, and related to the standards for student teachers, the national exit test for student teachers, the Ministry of Education's competitive grants program, and scholarships for student teachers who achieved higher scores in the national university admission test. These data sources encompassed all publically available official documents that expressed the rationale for national teacher preparation policies and all publically available documents used to disseminate these policies. As Table 5 indicates,

the data include: two reports issued by national educational committees commissioned by Chilean presidents, which evaluated and developed proposals for teacher preparation during the second half of 2000s; ten documents used to disseminate and explain teacher preparation policies; three normative policy tools, which contain instructions, guidelines, or standards to be used by university-based teacher preparation programs; two President's messages and proposals submitted to the Congress; and six congressional meetings reports wherein the President, Minister of Education, or similar authority presented the perspective of the government related to teacher preparation. When these documents mentioned specific diagnostic information, strategies, or results for different teacher specializations (elementary, secondary, early childhood or other), I focused my analysis on the information provided for elementary teacher specialization taking into account that policy guidelines and tools were created for and implemented in this specialization originally.

Table 5: *Official National Policy Documents Analyzed*

Type of Document	Document ID	Author	Title in Spanish	Title in English ⁷
Committees' reports	1	Expert Educational Panel (2010)	Informe final: Primera etapa. Propuestas para fortalecer la profesión docente en el sistema escolar chileno	Final report: First stage. Proposals to strengthen teaching profession in the Chilean educational system.
	2	Presidential Advisory Council (2006)	Informe final de consejo asesor presidencial para la calidad de la educación	Final report by the presidential advisory council for the educational quality
Dissemination	3	Manzi, J.	Programa INICIA:	INICIA program:

⁷ All the translation of the title of the national policy documents, university documents, and course materials are provided by the author of this dissertation

ion and explanator y documents		(2009)	Fundamentos y primeros avances	Foundations and first advances
	4	Manzi, J. (2010)	Programa INICIA: Fundamentos y primeros avances.	INICIA program: Foundations and first advances
	5	MINEDU C (2010)	Formación inicial de Profesores	Teacher initial education
	6	MINEDU C (2012a)	Seminario difusión de políticas de formación inicial d ocente	Dissemination seminar of initial teacher education policies
	7	MINEDU C (2013a)	Antecedentes de las pruebas inicia	Background of INICIA tests
	8	CPEIP (2012a)	Reunión informativa evaluación inicia 2012	Informative meeting INICIA evaluation 2012
	9	MINEDU C (2011a)	Políticas para mejorar la calidad de la formación inicial en Chile	Policies for improving initial education quality in Chile
	10	CPEIP (2012b)	Evaluación inicia 2012 jornada de socialización de temarios	INICIA evaluation 2012, dissemination of collection of themes meeting
	11	MINEDU C (2012d)	Evaluación inicia presentación de resultados 2011	INICIA evaluation, presentation of results 2011
	12	MINEDU C (2013b)	Evaluación INICIA presentación de resultados 2012	INICIA evaluation, presentation of results 2012
Normative Document s	13	MINEDU C (2011b)	Estándares orientadores para egresados de carreras de pedagogía en educación básica: Estándares pedagógicos y disciplinarios.	Guidelines standards for teachers graduates in elementary education: Pedagogical and content knowledge standards
	14	MINEDU C (2012b, April 23)	Aprueba formato de bases tipo administrativas y técnicas y de convenios tipo para concurso de convenios de	Approves bidding conditions forms (administrative and technical), and agreements for competition of performance agreements (convenios de desempeño)

			desempeño en formación inicial de profesores, innovación académica y fortalecimiento técnico profesional	in initial teacher education, academic innovation, and professional strengthening
	15	MINEDU C (2012c)	Guía de postulación convocatoria convenios de desempeño 2012 ámbito: Formación inicial de profesores	Guide performance agreements application call 2012 field initial teacher education
President's messages	16	President (2011)	Mensaje de s.e. el presidente de la república, con el que inicia un proyecto de ley que crea el examen de excelencia profesional docente y la asignación de excelencia pedagógica inicial	President of the republic's message that start a bill which create the professional excellence examination and the initial pedagogical excellence incentive allocation
	17	President (2013)	Formula indicación sustitutiva al proyecto de ley que establece el sistema de promoción y desarrollo profesional docente del sector municipal (Boletín N° 8189-04)	States substitutional text to the bill which establishes the teacher advancement and professional development system in the public sector (Official Bulletin N° 8189-04)
Congressional meetings reports	18	House of Deputies (2012a)	Cámara de diputados legislatura 359ª sesión 141ª, en miércoles 7 de marzo de 2012	House of deputies 359st legislature, 141st session on Wednesday March 7th, 2012
	19	House of Deputies (2012b)	Informe Financiero: Proyecto de ley que crea el examen de excelencia profesional docente y la asignación de excelencia	Financial report: Bill that creates the professional excellence examination and the initial pedagogical excellence incentive allocation

		pedagógica inicial. Mensaje N° 120-359	
20	House of Deputies (2013a)	Cámara de diputados legislatura 361ª Sesión 80ª, en martes 8 de octubre de 2013	House of deputies 361st legislature, 80th session on Tuesday October 8th, 2013
21	House of Deputies (2013b)	Oficio N° 10.951 (Proyecto de ley enviado por la cámara de diputados)	Official letter N° 10,951 (Bill sent by the House of Deputies)
22	Senate (2014a)	Informe de la comisión de educación, cultura, ciencia y tecnología, recaído en el proyecto de ley, en segundo trámite constitucional, que establece el sistema de promoción y desarrollo profesional docente del sector municipal. Boletín N° 8.189-04	Report by the education, culture, science, and technology committee, passed to the bill, in the second constitutional process which establishes the teaching advancement and professional development in the public sector. Official Bulletin N° 8,189-04
23	Senate (2014b)	Diario de sesiones del senado publicación oficial legislatura 361ª Sesión 89ª, en miércoles 22 de enero de 2014	Official publication journal of senate's sessions 361 st legislature, 89 th session in Wednesday January 22th, 2014

University level. As I point out in the literature review of this study, most teacher education research about social justice focuses on the exploration of a particular course, assignment, or partnership in teacher preparation programs, while few studies focus on analysis of a whole teacher preparation program. Also, most studies in Chile related to equity focus on student teachers' attitudes or expectations instead of the opportunities for

learning that they have in their teacher preparation programs. This study is intended to address the limitations of the majority of previous studies by analyzing two whole elementary teacher preparation programs. Accordingly, analysis of policies at the university level was based on the examination of *teacher preparation programs' documents* and *interviews with local actors*.

Teacher preparation programs' documents. Teacher preparation program institutional documents analyzed for this study included publically available official documents from each program that described: 1) general information about the program (description of program, departments, admission, etc.), 2) strategic information about the program (mission, vision, objectives, and action plans of the selected university and the teacher preparation programs), 3) the institutional project developed by the National University to apply and earn the Ministry of Education's grant to improve its teacher preparation programs and its related documents, 4) the curriculum of the program (e.g. plan of study) as well as the competences that these programs foster in student teachers, and 5) the relationship of the program with external organizations and the community. All these documents were provided by university faculty and complemented by information provided on the programs' web sites. Length of documents ranged between one and 214 pages. Table 6 illustrates the type of institutional document analyzed by program.

Table 6: *Institutional Documents Analyzed*

Institutional Documents Analyzed – Central Campus				
Type	Title in English	Title in Spanish	Date	Type/length
General information	General description (include graduation	Descripción general (incluye perfil egreso, campo laboral y	2015	Web document (one page)

	profile/outcomes, work possibilities and academic degree)	grado académico)		
	Education (name university) in numbers	Educación (nombre universidad) en cifras	2015	Web document (one page)
	Admission and academic calendar	Admisión y calendario académico	2015	Web document (one page)
	Accreditation	Acreditación	2015	Web document (one page)
Strategic information	University Development Plan 2010-2015	Plan de desarrollo (name of university) 2010-2015.	October 2010	Text document (27 pages)
	School of Education Development Plan 2013-2017	Plan de desarrollo facultad de educación 2013-2017	November 20, 2013	Text document (24 pages)
	Words by the former dean	Palabras del antiguo decano (web)	2014	Web document (one page)
	Words by the new dean	Palabras de la nueva decana (web)	2015	Web document (one page)
	Dean: (name of the former dean)	Decano: (nombre del antiguo decano)	2014	Text document (one page)
MOE Grant (convenio de desempeño)	Institutional Improvement Plan. Innovation in teacher preparation: Integration of disciplinary, pedagogical and professional competences for effectiveness in the classroom	Plan de mejoramiento institucional definitivo. Innovación en la formación de profesores: integración de competencias disciplinarias, pedagógicas y profesionales para la efectividad en las aulas	2012	Text document (149 pages)
	Innovation in teacher	Innovación en la formación de	n.d.	Text document

	preparation: Integration of disciplinary, pedagogical and professional competences for effectiveness in the classroom	profesores: integración de competencias disciplinarias, pedagógicas y profesionales para la efectividad en las aulas	(1 page)	
	MOE grant	Convenio de desempeño (web)	2015	
	Progress in MOE grant June 2015	Avances CDD Junio 2015	June 2015	Text document (18 pages)
	MOE grant informative report. September 2014- March 2015	CDD minuta informativa septiembre 2014- marzo 2015	Marzo, 2015	Text document (11 pages)
Curriculum	Administrative decision 077/2011 (plan of study, education degree and elementary teaching)	Resolución 077/2011. (plan de estudios licenciado en educación y profesor de educación general básica)	June 1, 2011	Text document (3 pages)
	Annex Administrative decision 077/2011 (Curriculum grid for each specialization)	Anexos resolución 077/2011. (curriculum grid for each specialization)	2011	Text document (5 pages)
	Competencies for elementary education graduates	Competencias Educación Básica: Licenciado y profesional (20.09.2012)	September 20th, 2012	Text document (9 pages)
	Plan of study and curricular grid	Plan de estudio y malla	2015	Web document
	Department: theology and evaluation	Departamento: Curriculum, teología y evaluación	2015	Web document
	Department: methods	Departamento: Didáctica	2015	Web document
	Department: learning and development	Departamento: Aprendizaje y desarrollo	2015	Web document

	Department: theory and educational policy	Departamento: teoría y política de educación	2015	Web document
	Peer tutors	Tutores pares	2015	Web document
Relation with external organizations or community	Mission and vision (practicum)	Misión y visión (sistema de prácticas)	2015	Web document
	How to be part of the network (practicum)	Cómo ser parte de la red (sistema de prácticas)	2015	Web document
	Schools participants (practicum)	Colegios participantes (sistema de prácticas)	2015	Web document
	Practicum handbook	Manual de prácticas	2014	Word document (51 pages)
	International connections	Vínculos internacionales	2015	Web document
Institutional Documents Analyzed – Branch Campus				
Type	Title in English	Title Spanish	Date	Type/length
General Information	Historical background of the campus	Antecedentes históricos del campus	2015	Web document (one page)
	Infrastructure	Dependencias	2015	Web document
	Admission	Admisión	2015	Web document
	Tuition and scholarships	Aranceles y becas	2015	Web document
	Research	Investigación	2015	Web document
Strategic information	Strategic development plan 2009-2013	Plan de estratégico de desarrollo 2009-2013	July 2008	Word document (214 pages)
	Minutes of agreements. Based on the development plan 2009-2013	Acta de acuerdo. En base al plan de desarrollo 2009-2013	Sept. 21th, 2009	Word document (55 pages)
	Strategic development plan 2009-2013	Plan de Desarrollo Estratégico 2009-2013 (make reference to the first	July 2013	PPT

		document)		
	What is our essence?	¿Cuál es nuestra esencia?	n.d (2013)	PPT
	Chair: (name of the chair of the campus)	Director: (nombre del director del campus)	2014	Text document (one page)
	Development plan axis (city name)	Ejes plan desarrollo (nombre ciudad)	2013 (make references to the previous ppt)	Word (5 pages)
	Campus mission and vision	Misión y visión campus	2015	Web document
Curriculum	Elementary teaching with specialization. Accredited.	Pedagogía en Educación General Básica con mención, acreditada	2015	Web document
	Education degree and elementary teacher title with specialization, regional campus (name city)	Licenciatura en educación y título de profesor(a) de educación básica con mención sede regional (nombre ciudad)	2012	Text document (1 page)
Relation with external organizations or community	Outreach	Extensión	2015	Web document
	Cultural management	Gestión cultural	2015	Web document
	Museum	Museo	2015	Web document
	Communications	Comunicaciones	2015	Web document
	Preparation for the university national admission test	Preuniversitario	2015	Web document

In addition to the institutional documents, I also reviewed the syllabi of the courses taught by the six teacher educators and four clinical faculty I interviewed as well as, whenever possible, the guidelines that they provided for their students' assignments, focusing on the objectives, activities, assessments and literature required for students.

These syllabi were provided to me by the interviewees themselves, and when that was not

possible (four cases), I obtained the most updated version of the syllabus from the university website. Despite my efforts to contact university faculty, only five provided their course guidelines. I also analyzed all the documents related to the new specialization being offered to student teachers in Santiago, called “Teaching in Socially Disadvantaged Contexts.” Finally, I also included in the body of documents I analyzed materials related to the support offered to student teachers at the Branch Campus, which were mentioned in the interviews: the writing center project and the syllabus of one basic skills course (language arts). Table 7 lists the course documents analyzed by program.

Table 7: *Course Documents Analyzed by Program*

Course documents – Central Campus			
Course	Syllabus	Guidelines for activities or evaluations	Additional documents
Math methods	X	X	
Language methods	X	X	
Diversity & Inclusion	X	No available	
Practicum	X	X	
Practicum	X	No available	
Certification in teaching in socially disadvantaged contexts	X	No available	Project report used to create the certificate (foundations-master document) & resolution (approval) from the dean
Course documents – Branch Campus			
Course	Syllabus	Guidelines for activities or evaluations	Additional documents
Math methods	X	No available	
Language methods	X	X	
Diversity & Inclusion	X	X	
Practicum	X	No available	
Practicum	X	No available	
Writing center	X	No available	Project report used to create the writing center (foundations)
Language arts	X	No available	

Interviews. My review of the international literature shows that typically studies that analyzed the enactment of teacher preparation policies collected information about teacher educators, assuming that they are a more or less homogenous group of people. The few studies that include teacher educators' voices do not identify their position in the teacher preparation program. In addition none of the international studies I reviewed about teacher education policies considered the perspectives of student teachers. In order to address these lacunae in the literature, my study explores the policy enactment and construction by practitioners who represent different points of view, including both faculty in different positions and student teachers.

I interviewed the dean of the school of education and the respective department chairs of the two programs, because they were in charge of designing institutional policies and implementing national policies in their programs. Additionally, I interviewed a sample of teacher educators, clinical faculty, and student teachers of the teacher preparation programs. I also interviewed teacher educators who were in charge of the design and implementation of the new certificate for "Teaching in Socially Disadvantaged Contexts"⁸.

To select the sample of professors and student teachers, I used the following criteria. I interviewed three teacher educators in each institution who taught the language and math methodology courses, and a teacher educator who taught a course related

⁸ Public information about the university is not clear about the number of faculty who teaches in the elementary teacher preparation program. The total number of faculty in the school of education in Santiago is 56 while the total number of faculty in the school of education located in the south is 34. However, the school of education located in Santiago offers graduate programs, certificates, and seven other teacher preparation programs in addition to the elementary teacher preparation program, while the school of education located in the south only offers early child education and an elementary teacher preparation program.

explicitly to diversity or equity issues, as indicated by the education school dean. Also, I interviewed two clinical faculty members and two teacher educators who were part of the team that designs and implements the new specialization and who volunteered for the interviews. At the time of this study, this new specialization was offered only in the capital.

I also interviewed two research participants that I did not anticipate in my research design. I interviewed the academic chair of the program located in the south, a position that I did not know about when I designed my data collection process. This position was pointed out as important in the program by research participants from the Branch Campus. This position also seemed relevant in a campus located far from Santiago, which did not have a daily interaction with the dean of the school of education. Additionally, in the process of data collection, I was informed that the dean of the school of education would change at the end of January 2015, midway through my study. Therefore, I included an interview with the new dean.

My research design included interviews with 10 student teachers in their last year of study, five for each program. Student teachers in their final year of their preparation were the first cohort of students that would graduate with the new curriculum implemented in both programs since 2012. This cohort of students was also interesting for my research because I assumed that student teachers in their last year of study would be able to describe and analyze their teacher preparation program better than first year students due to the fact that they would have been in the program for four years. It was also assumed that they would know more than first year students about the current national teacher preparation policy, because they were on the verge of taking the exit test,

which is one of the policies studied. These interviews were conducted through focus groups. Although my plan was to hold focus group interviews at each campus, after several months of intense but failed recruitment, I was only able to conduct the focus group with four student teachers from the program located at the Branch Campus. Because I did not have a parallel focus group from the Central Campus program, I used the perspectives of student teachers at the Branch Campus in a minor way to add to my primary analysis of the perspectives of university faculty of the Central and Branch Campus.

A total of 18 interviews were conducted, 17 with individual university faculty and one group interview with four student teachers from the program located at the Branch Campus. Ten of the university faculty interviewed worked at the Central Campus while seven worked at the Branch Campus. Consistent with the gender trend in the educational profession in Chile, most of the participants were female (12 of the 17 university faculty and 3 of the 4 student teachers). Table 8 shows the total number of interviews and participants.

Table 8: *Interview Participants*

Title	Total Number of participants	Total Number of interviews
Former and New Deans	2	2
Academic Chair (Branch Campus program)	1	1
Department Chair	2 (one from each program)	2
Teacher educators	6 (three from each program)	6
Members of the new	2	2

specialization team		
Clinical Faculty	4 (two from each program)	4
Student teachers	4 (Branch Campus program)	1
Total interviews	21	18

Interviews were conducted using a semi-structured protocol. The interviews covered the three aspects of teacher education for social justice and their sub-components as defined by Cochran-Smith (2010). These topics include the theory of justice, theory of practice, and theory of teacher preparation present in practitioners' discourses. These aspects, which have been underlined as central to teacher education by Cochran-Smith (2010), are also relevant in the analyzed international literature. For example, these studies point out how social justice should not only entail the discussion of how to teach K-12 students, but should be also woven into the curriculum and pedagogy of teacher educators. These aspects are similar to the theory of teacher preparation described in Cochran-Smith's framework.

Furthermore, I included in the interviews one aspect related to the enactment of teacher preparation policies and their impact on teacher preparation programs (See table 9). The subcomponents related to the enactment of policy were guided by the research questions proposed by Vidovich (2007) for the exploration of policy construction at the micro level and the effects of national policies. The questions and aspects suggest by Vidovich (2007) were adapted to the context of this study. I decided to explore these subcomponents after the examination of practitioners' description of their conceptions and practices pertaining to their teacher preparation programs. This decision allowed

practitioners to describe their practices and pedagogical decisions without forcing them to examine these issues in relation to the current national policies. This allowed practitioners to draw connections with the national policies only if these policies were relevant to the teacher preparation program's practices and curriculum. At the same time, this interview structure/organization allowed me to collect information about practitioners' perception of the policies at the end of the interview process, independently if they were or not relevant in their description of their practice. Table 9 shows the interview protocols areas and subcomponents.

Table 9: *Interview Topics*

Area	Sub-components
Theory of Justice	Conception of equity and strategies to achieve it in education Conception of diversity Goals of education Role of teachers (with all students and with marginalized students)
Theory of Practice	Knowledge promoted by the program Methods and skills promoted Interpretative frames promoted Aspects of advocacy and activism promoted
Theory of Teacher education	Selection and recruitment strategies Relationships with collaborators (e.g. schools, district administration) Principles that guide the curriculum and pedagogy in the program Expected outcomes and evaluation strategies
Current Teacher Preparation Policies	Knowledge about the goals and strategies of these policies Notions of equity and diversity in these policies Reception and implementation of these policies, and people responsible for their implementation Effect of these policies in program curriculum and practices Effect of these policies in student teachers outcomes Disjunction/agreement between the original policy and teacher preparation practice Estimation/opinion of these policies Resistance towards these policies

Interview data were collected between January and November 2015. The interview protocol was designed for 90 minutes, however, the length of the interviews varied according to the participants with the shortest interview 62 minutes and the longest 121 minutes, as Table 10 indicates. In total, 25 ½ hours of interviews were audio recorded and later transcribed.

Table 10: *Interview Length*

Participant Position	Location	Transcription file identification	Length (H:M:S)
Former dean	Santiago	Interview 5	1:31:00
New dean	Santiago	Interview 16	2:01:34
Department chair	Santiago	Interview 12	1:24:42
TE Language methods	Santiago	Interview 11	1:22:56
TE Math methods	Santiago	Interview 9	1:38:51
TE diversity and equity	Santiago	Interview 10	1:23:57
Clinical faculty	Santiago	Interview 13	1:23:08
Clinical faculty	Santiago	Interview 15	1:18:58
Specialization	Santiago	Interview 8	1:25:12
Specialization	Santiago	Interview 14	1:02:12
Department chair	South	Interview 3	1:12:39
Academic chair	South	Interview 6	1:23:53
TE Language methods	South	Interview 7	1:05:11
TE Math methods	South	Interview 17	1:13:48
TE diversity and equity	South	Interview 1	1:59:20
Clinical faculty	South	Interview 2	1:14:41
Clinical faculty	South	Interview 4	1:16:32
Branch Campus' Student teachers	South	Interview 18	1:37:54
			25 hours, 36 minutes

I used a semi-structured protocol based on the areas and sub-components listed above. There were some variations in the specific questions depending of the actor who

was interviewed. The full protocols for each type of participant are attached in *Appendix A*. There were three interview protocols: Protocol #1, Interview protocol for deans of the school of education, academic chair in the south, chair of the departments, teacher educators, and clinical faculty; Protocol #2, Interview protocol for the team of “Teaching in Socially Disadvantage Contexts”; and Protocol #3, Interview protocol for student teachers. Table 11 includes examples of the questions associated to each of the interview topics.

Table 11: *Example of Questions by Sub-components*

Area	Example of Sub-components	Example of Questions Protocol #1
Theory of Justice	Goals of education Role of teachers (with all students and with marginalized students)	3. If you had to describe the elementary teacher preparation program using three key words, which one will you use?
		4. What is the vision and mission of the elementary teacher preparation program in your opinion? Probe: How does the program prepare student teachers to achieve these goals? Probe: Are there differences between the goals of education promoted in the student teachers who will take the new specialization (teaching in socially disadvantage contexts) and the goals promoted amongst student teachers who takes the regular program? Probe: Do you think the role of a teacher who works with marginalized students is different from other teachers? Why or why not?
		5. Given what you stated about the goals of education, what are the responsibilities and roles of teachers in that vision?
Theory of Practice	Knowledge promoted by the program	2. In your opinion, ¿What is the most important knowledge that student teachers should learn in the program/your courses? Probe: How is this knowledge encouraged to be learned by student teachers? Probe: What are the courses or activities designed to promote this knowledge? (to the Dean and department Chairs) Prove: What are the activities, tools, readings, and tasks designed to promote this knowledge in student teachers in the courses that you teach?

		(to teacher educators) or in the practicum (to clinical faculty)?. (Look for concrete examples)
Theory of Teacher education	Selection and recruitment strategies Principles that guide the curriculum and pedagogy in the program	<p>2. How would you describe the type of student that enters the elementary teacher preparation program?</p> <p>3. What are the strategies for selecting and recruiting students by the program?</p> <p>Probe: What is the criteria for selecting student teachers?</p> <p>5. Do you remember any important decision that the faculty members have made in relation to the curriculum or the teaching strategies used in the elementary teacher preparation program? Can you describe that experience?</p> <p>Probe: How was the process of decision making?</p> <p>Probe: ¿What were the principles that guided those decisions?</p> <p>Probe: Have these principles been important in other moments in the program?</p>
Current Teacher Preparation Policies	Effect of these policies in program curriculum and practices Effect of these policies in student teachers outcomes	<p>2. How do you think that these policies impacted your program?</p> <p>Probe: Can you give an example of this impact?</p> <p>Note: Delve into the impact in the curriculum, practices, and goals of the program as well as the student teachers' outcomes IF these aspects are mentioned by the interviewee.</p> <p>3. What are some changes that the program has initiated as result of these policies?</p>

I created these protocols in English and then translated them into Spanish. The interview protocols in English were reviewed by an expert in the field of teacher preparation policy and social justice and modified based on her feedback and observations. Also, one of versions of the protocols in Spanish for faculty members was piloted with a teacher educator. Based on this review process, I made changes in the organization of the content of the interview questions, which allowed me to make the interviews more similar to a conversation. As result of these changes, the protocols followed from general aspects to more specific ones, instead of rigidly following the areas and interview topics described in Table 11.

I also modified the Protocol #3 for student teachers based on expert observations. Additionally, I piloted the focus group protocol with two groups of student teachers in their final year of their preparation from two universities located in Santiago. These universities had a mission and student body that were similar to those of the programs studied. One university, where I piloted the protocol, received mostly upper-class students while the other received predominantly low-income students. These settings allowed me to pilot the focus group with two groups similar to the group of student teachers from the two studied programs. I introduced changes in Protocol #3 after piloting them. Most changes were related to making the language of the questions more accessible for student teachers. For example, instead of asking them to define their program in three key words to prompt discussion as I did with university faculty, I asked them to define the program's "sello" (hallmark or focus). This word was used often by the pilot participants to describe the main characteristics of their programs. I also added a question at the beginning of the interview referring to the progress stage of student

teachers in the program and the courses that they were taking. This question allowed me to have a concrete sense of the involvement of student teachers in the university in their daily basis.

Data Analysis

This study is a critical policy analysis. Different from traditional policy studies, critical policy analyses do not use a set of fixed frameworks, approaches, or methods (Diem et al., 2014). Instead, critical policy analyses use frameworks and methods that allow the analysis of research problems and their many complexities. As Diem and collaborators state after interviewing scholars who conducted critical policy analysis:

Researchers described critical policy analysis in a variety of ways and used a range of theories, approaches, and tools to thoroughly examine educational policy issues. A strict definition of critical policy analysis may have no place within critical policy analysis as that would imply a “one best way” to conduct education policy research. Indeed, this would run counter to the epistemological variety out of which critical policy analyses are derived (Diem et al., 2014, p.1184)

While the scholars who use critical policy analysis are eclectic in their use of different methods and frameworks, there are some aspects that distinguished this research approach from others (Diem et al., 2014). Critical policy analysis often focuses on these five aspects: the symbols and rhetoric used in policy and the disparity between rhetoric and practice; the process of construction of policy; issues of power in policy construction and implementation as well as the construction of winners and losers in this process; the effects of policy in institutions and participants; and agency (Diem et al., 2014). Specifically, this dissertation emphasizes the first aspect on the list.

This dissertation uses frame analysis to examine national policy documents and tools; the official documents of university-based teacher preparation programs; and the interviews conducted in the teacher preparation programs selected for the study. This methodology allowed me to answer the research questions of this study, which focus on how national teacher preparation policies and university faculty frame issues of teaching, learning, and justice.

In 1974, Erving Goffman introduced the term “frame” in sociological research and developed the “frame analysis” methodology. In a related way, policy frame analysis seeks to identify the dominant frames present in policy, their connections with ideologies, and what actions are legitimized and delegitimized through these policies (Viesca, 2013). This methodology assumes that policies do not describe found reality but rather construct problems and solutions, an assumption that is consistent with the theoretical framework of this dissertation. Generally frame analyses ask “What is the problem and how it is represented? What is the solution offered to this problem? Who has the problem...? Which is the normative group? Which is the target group? Who are responsible for creating or solving the problem? Who has voice in defining the problem solution” (Bustelo & Verloo, 2006, p.13). These questions were used as guidelines to code national policy documents and tools, and teacher preparation documents.

My analysis of Chilean teacher preparation policies emphasizes three kinds of frames that are present in policies (Snow & Benford, 1998). Diagnostic frames include the identification of problems and the attribution of causes. Prognostic frames involve the suggested solution to the problem as well as the strategies used and targets. Motivational frames include inducements to take actions. These three kinds of frames were used in this

study in the first stage of analysis to organize the emergent codes of my analysis of documents and interviews. Additionally, this study identified the symbolic devices (Stone, 2012) used to develop the frames in the documents analyzed. Symbolic devices are used in policies to influence and shape others' thinking and feelings. Following Stone, in this study, attention was placed on narrative stories constructed in these policies. Stone (2012) suggests "Problem definitions are stories with a beginning, a middle, and an end, involving some change or transformation" (p.158). Narrative stories are used to define problems and provide resolutions for them through the policies proposed. In addition narrative policy stories also have embedded within them definitions of heroes and antiheroes. The typical analysis of narrative stories suggests that the predominant or common aspects across data, which fit the stories, are emphasized while the counterexamples or aspects that do not fit the story are less accentuated. Stone (2012) suggests that some common stories implicit in policy discourse are stories of change and power, often expressed as in terms of the dichotomy of decline or rise or the dichotomy of control or helplessness, respectively. Additionally, my study analyzed the emergent symbolic devices used by policy makers and authorities in Chile.

Frame analysis has been used extensively to analyze documents and speeches produced by policy makers. Bustelo and Verloo (2006) point out that frame analysis can be used to analyze policy documents, but also interviews conducted with policy makers or other actors. However, frame analysis has not been widely used to analyze information about who enacts or re-constructs policies at the local level. Coburn (2006) also points out this criticism related to the use of frame analysis in research, she states: "Little if any attention has been paid to how local actors frame problems during policy implementation.

Yet, research on policy implementation suggests that local actors are also policymakers... in that their decisions and actions shape how policies play out in practice.” (p. 344). The histories and interest of local actors change policy in the context of practice (Bowe, Ball, & Gold, 1992). These ideas are also consistent with the idea of a policy web (Joshee & Johnson, 2005), which states that policies are constructed in multiple locations, and is part of the theoretical framework of this study. In light of the consistencies among several key perspectives, I used frame analysis to examine the official university documents and interviews along with the qualitative research software Atlas.ti.

In order to analyze university faculty interviews. I read interview information in three different ways. First, I read all interviews organized by program, looking for underlying ideas that were often repeated among participants. I started reading interviews from the program located at the Branch Campus because these were the first set of interviews I collected and transcribed. Through this reading, I identified emergent codes and code families (groups of codes) related to my research questions, which I later organized based on my theoretical framework (theory of practice, theory of teacher education, and theory of justice) and methodology (diagnostic, prognostic, motivational frames (Snow & Bedford, 1998) as well as symbolic devices (Stone, 2012).

Second, I added to the research software, Atlas.ti the codes and code families identified in the previous stage of analysis. I used this software to analyze all interviews in a more systematic way. I organized interviews according to teacher preparation programs (Central Campus and, then, Branch Campus). I started the analysis of interview from participants with highest position in the program (dean, academic chair, department chair), then teacher educators (mathematic, language arts, and diversity and equity

professors), after that clinical faculty, and finally teacher educators who work in the “Teaching in Socially Disadvantage Contexts” certificate located at the Central Campus. Through this process, I identified new codes and code families which I added to my previous list code. At the same time that I developed this analysis, I also wrote analytic memos about the more salient characteristics of each program, preliminary ideas for my research argument, and narrative stories that I identified across interviews. As I was progressing in my analysis, I revisited and edited these analytic memos.

Finally, I used the updated list of codes to code all my interviews for third time, organized them by participant position (dean, department chair, clinical faculty) and without distinguishing between teacher preparation programs. Finally, I analyzed the focus group interview with student teachers using Atlas.ti and the same set of codes used to analyze the university faculty’s interviews. The final list of codes used to analyze all interviews is attached in Appendix B.

After analyzing the interviews, I analyzed institutional and course documents from teacher preparation programs. I examined these documents in two different ways: First, I listed all institutional documents and I organized them by the two programs and five types of institutional documents described in Table 6. I first analyzed documents related to the program located at the Central Campus, because the strategic documents from this program also included objectives and activities for the program located at the Branch Campus. Also, the documents from the program located at the Central Campus were more numerous (27) than documents from the Branch Campus program (19). I organized and examined the documents from each program by document types following the criteria of general to specific (general information, strategic information, Central

Campus' grant project, curriculum, and relationship with external organizations and the community). I used the same logic to examine the course documents (syllabus and guidelines): I analyzed them by program and type (subject or area). Initially in my analyses, I used the same code list I had used for interviews. I examined the documents using the software Atlas.ti. As I progressed in my analysis, I added new emergent code families and codes, which I organized using my theoretical framework and methodology references.

Second, I coded the institutional documents a second time organizing them chronologically, without distinguishing between programs and types of documents. My organizational criteria did not apply to the course documents. Syllabus and course guidelines were coded for a second time being organized by subject or area without differentiating them by program. The final list of codes used to analyze institutional and course documents is attached to Appendix C.

After I completed the coding process, I revisited all analytic memos and the codes across interviews as well as institutional and course documents organized by categories. I used these materials to answer the question, How are teaching, learning, and justice framed in two teacher preparation programs? This analysis is presented in Chapter 4. I also identified the narrative stories used across data sources in order to explain the differences between the Central and Branch campuses. These findings are presented in Chapter 5.

I realized that the institutional documents provided more abundant and diverse information than the interviews about the diagnostic and motivational frames as well as about the symbolic devices, whereas they provided less information than interviews about

the current practices and curriculum of the program as well as the perception, participation of national policies, and the changes implemented at this time. Figure 4 explains how much information about each category of the study was provided by each data source. This figure reinforces the idea that different data sources, which include interviews and documents, should be used to achieve a complete overview of teacher education programs.

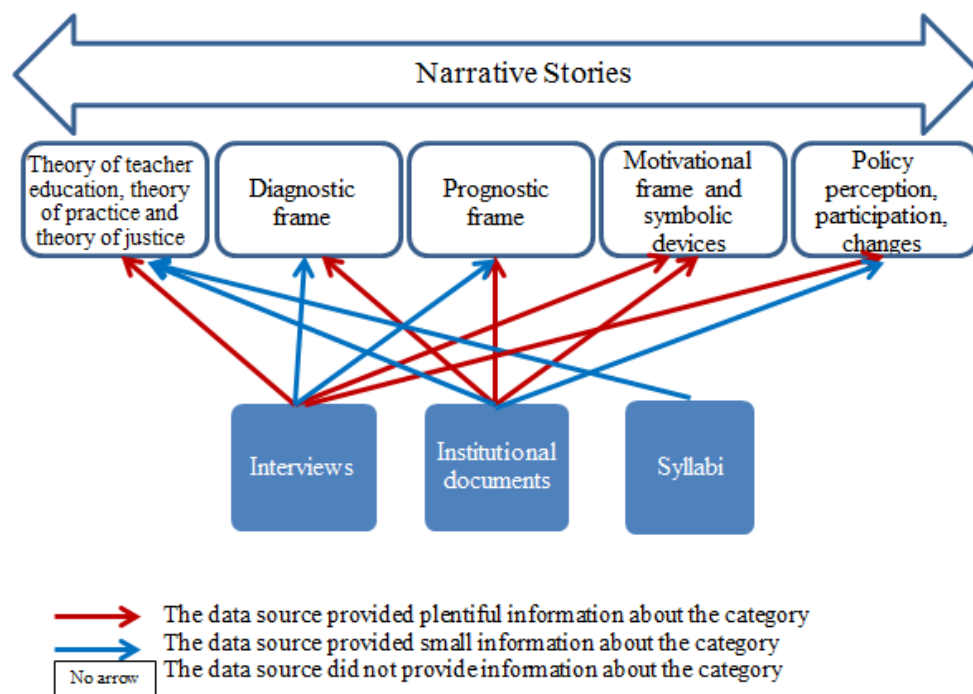


Figure 4. Categories and Data Sources. Research Question 2: How are teaching, learning, and justice framed in two teacher preparation programs?

After I analyzed documents and interviews of the programs, I analyzed national policy documents in two different stages: First, I listed all national policy documents and I organized them chronologically, without distinguishing amongst types of documents. I identified emergent codes and code families related to my research questions using the software Atlas.ti. Then, I organized these codes and code families based on my

theoretical framework (theory of practice, theory of teacher education, and theory of justice), methodology (diagnostic, prognostic, motivational frames (Snow & Bedford, 1998), and symbolic devices (Stone, 2012). During this review process, I wrote analytic memos regarding the more salient characteristics of the national policies, preliminary ideas for my research argument, and narrative stories that I identified across national policies documents. As I progressed in my analysis, I revisited and edited these analytic memos.

Second, using the code list that I had developed in the initial stage, I coded national policy documents a second time and organized them by type of documents as they are presented in Table 5 (Committees' reports, dissemination and explanatory documents, normative documents, president's messages, and congressional meetings reports). I added new code families and codes during the process. The final code list for national policy documents is attached in Appendix D.

After I completed the coding process, I again read through all my analytic memos and revisited the codes across national policy documents organized by categories. Then, I answered the research question: How are teaching, learning, and justice framed in teacher preparation policies at the national level in Chile? This analysis is presented in Chapter 6. Once I performed this process of coding and analysis from data sources related to the institutional and the national levels separately, I looked across these analyses to identify similar and different patterns. This cross analytical process allowed me to answer my research question: How are the frames used in the current national teacher preparation policies in Chile related to the frames used by university faculty from the university-

based teacher preparation programs analyzed? These findings are also presented in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 4: Teaching and Teacher Education as a Transferable Product or as a Craft

This chapter focuses on how two programs from the National University made policy at the university level based on my analysis of interviews, institutional documents, and course materials. My analysis indicates that university faculty from both the Central Campus and Branch Campus constructed “the problem of teacher education” in ways that were highly similar—i.e., they perceived that teacher preparation programs had historically taken an overly-theoretical and disarticulated approach. I argue that despite this similarity, what faculty proposed as the “solution” to the problem of teacher education was very different based on two different understandings of a practical approach for teacher preparation, one as a *transferable product* and the other as a *craft*.

In the teacher preparation program located at the Central Campus, university faculty worked from the premise that teaching and teacher preparation were based on universal knowledge that could be applied to multiple contexts. Therefore, teacher education programs focused on training teacher candidates in core teaching practices that had been identified as effective by international scholars in the U.S. In this sense, I suggest that teacher education and teaching were understood as more or less transferable products which could be imported from other countries. In contrast, at the Branch Campus, teaching was understood as profession that was learned by experience and contact with practice. Teaching was considered highly sensitive to the demands and characteristics of the local context, requiring teachers to be flexible and willing to learn from the challenges that they encountered in practice. Therefore, the elementary teacher

preparation program allowed student teachers opportunities to develop pedagogical skills by learning from local practice.

I build this argument about the two programs by addressing these research questions: How are teaching, learning, and justice framed in two teacher preparation programs? In order to answer this question, I examined the following subquestions: 1) How do practitioners frame the teaching goals, knowledge, and skills promoted by their teacher preparation programs? 2) How do practitioners frame the curriculum, pedagogy, outcomes, selection, recruitment, and partnerships used in their programs to prepare teachers? 3) What conceptions of justice are expressed by practitioners? 4) Are the ways that practitioners frame teaching, learning, and justice aligned with the frames presented in the university institutional and course documents? If so, how?

As I stated in Chapter 2 and 3, this critical policy analysis assumes that policy making is a complex process in which multiple actors participate and that happens in multiple interrelated locations (Ball, 1993; Joshee & Sinfield, 2010;), including the local level of teacher preparation programs. Exploring the teaching, teacher education, and justice frames used by university faculty at the Central and Branch campuses allowed me to explore how teacher education policies were constructed and enacted at the local level. I used frame analysis to explore my research questions. Frame analysis assumes that problems and solutions are not discovered in the real world and then simply presented in policy documents, rather they are created in policy and political discourses (Bacchi, 2000; Edelman, 1998; Stone, 2012). The methodology of frame analysis has been used extensively to analyze national policies but rarely has been use to explore the construction and enactment of policies at the local level (Coburn, 2006). Consistent with

the framework of the policy web, which I discussed in Chapter 2, this dissertation uses frame analysis to study institutional documents, course materials, and interviews at the local level of teacher education.

To answer my research questions, I first explain how “the problem of teacher education” was understood by university faculty at the two campuses, which included aspects of their teacher preparation programs they perceived as failing and in need of “fixing.” Then, I examine the solutions proposed by university faculty to fix these problems while unpacking their conceptions of teaching and teacher education sought and enacted in these programs, as well as their conception of justice.

The Problem of Teacher Education

University staff interviewed in the two teacher preparation programs framed the problems of teacher education in a similar manner: It was an overly-theoretical perspective on teacher education and a disarticulated approach among courses and university faculty about what requires learning to teach in the program. However, there were clear nuances in their university staff’s narratives about these problems, which were connected to the differences in programs’ conceptions of teacher education and teaching and current characteristics. Below I describe the problems identified by university faculty in their teacher preparation programs.

Central Campus. University faculty at the Central Campus discussed the problems of teacher education as a matter of the past, referring primarily to the period before the implementation of great curricular change in the year 2013. This major curricular change had been supported by the Chilean Ministry of Education through competitive grants for teacher preparation programs in Chile, one of which had been

awarded to faculty members at the Central Campus. Their curricular change included re-designing 75 practicum, content knowledge, and methods courses based primarily on ideas about the core practices of teaching developed by researchers at the University of Michigan and Stanford University, and especially grounded in conceptions of teaching and teacher education developed by Deborah Ball (Ball & Forzani, 2011). Specifically, this approach at the Central Campus involved the incorporation of a number of core “high leverage practices” (translated in the program as *practicas generativas*) into program courses.

In my interviews, university faculty holding administrative positions, teacher educators, and clinical faculty mentioned that, before 2013, the program had emphasized theoretical aspects in their university courses, without providing practical tools to student teachers. As the new dean of education mentioned, this lack of practical tools for teaching was reported as a problem by student teachers: “What the students most demanded was how to manage process with their students in the classroom, they found that many things were very theoretical and they had few practical tools for working” (Interview 16, new dean, Central Campus)ⁱ. However, as the dean argued, this was not exclusively a problem of this teacher preparation program; it was a national trend in teacher education.

I believe that in some periods of the curriculum, the pendulum went to the other end, that is to say a lot of theory of education, a lot of sociology, a lot of philosophy, but nobody knew how to teach a student with difficulties to read in a classroom, do I explain myself?, and I believe Chile had for long time the defect of having a very discursive and less pragmatic pedagogy in the sense of acquiring

specific elements or tools so that children would develop their learning (Interview 16, new dean, Central Campus)ⁱⁱ.

As one teacher educator clarified, this did not mean that the program did not address teaching strategies before, particularly in method courses, but the approach to teach these strategies to student teachers was not practical. It was based on the presentation of diverse methods without allowing student teachers to try them out.

It happened that in Chile a lot of the initial teacher training was much more theoretical even though practical topics were addressed, it was from a perspective much more theoretical and declaratory, that is, I don't know, I think of the specific case of reading methods, for teaching to learn to read these are the strategies, and you gave a lot of strategies but we give very few opportunities for students to translate a strategy, practice specifically for example, how I will conduct a discussion about a text, so, how I choose a text, eeh after that how to divide this text into segments, like what do I have to ask a child and practice that, to rehearse, to decompose those practices... (Interview 11, language methods teacher educator, Central Campus)ⁱⁱⁱ.

Additionally, university staff argued that before the implementation of the changes funded by the Ministry of Education grant, the program lacked an articulation of courses and alignment among faculty. Especially in the practicum, there was not a common criterion to evaluate student teachers progress. The process of learning to teach was described by the university faculty as informal and subjective, which left to each supervisor and cooperating teacher the decision about what was considered good teaching

and how to help student teachers to achieve this goal. In other words, there was not a shared theory of teacher education and teaching that guided the practicum process.

I believe that a major alignment between the courses and the practicum was sought and that there would be an articulating nexus of the practicum because before a lot that the practicum was almost based on the supervisor criteria, there were guidelines and things in common, but I would say that it was much more based on subjectivity, now the process is much more objective, more descriptive what we have to look at, and so this also allows you to guide much better those processes (Interview 13, clinical faculty 1, Central Campus)^{iv}.

Interviewees indicated that this lack of a common understanding of teaching education and teaching was also related to the lack of opportunities of university staff to meet and talk about these issues, which highly contrasts with the current situation, in which there are some agreements about the topic of the classes and a formal time for meetings. As one of the clinical faculty mentioned:

We all go to do the same, in the same line, or achieving the same goals, doing the same activities, that also was before, a supervisor had a class segment and did the activities that she/he considered pertinent according to the needs of that group, and according to the needs of that context, and there were not, there was a bimonthly meeting for discussing general issues, but now no, there are meetings every week, we have a shared calendar and program, I think that that is a big change (Interview 15, clinical faculty 2, Central Campus)^v.

This lack of alignment among faculty perspectives was not an exclusive characteristic of practicum courses; rather it was also a problem identified across courses.

Particularly there was a disconnection between disciplinary or content knowledge courses and the rest of the program. However, this was described by the interviewees as a common characteristic in teacher preparation programs in Chile, due to the fact that most content knowledge courses were offered by disciplinary schools outside of the school of education. This distribution of courses among educational and disciplinary schools had consequences for the integration of content and pedagogical knowledge. According to the former dean: “The integration of these two constitutive dimensions, the look and professional work of teaching was left in students’ hands, who would do it progressively and if they survive, somehow they make it in their professional life... we did not have that extreme situation, but close to it” (Interview 5, former dean, Central Campus)^{vi}. This absence of spaces for integration of knowledge had important effects on the program, leading to a lack of coherence in the program as a whole. Each professor had his or her own theoretical framework for understanding teaching and teacher education without a common language to talk about these issues. As the new dean of the school of education described:

The strongest diagnosis that we had was that we were not talking in common language as a program..., I am making a metaphor, but basically it is talking about education and preparing teachers in one way, other groups talking in other ways, and then, we decided to handle a common language about the needs and initial teacher preparation. And I think that this Ministry of Education grant has helped us...it allowed us to hold this comprehensive vision and to set up a common language (Interview 16, new dean, Central Campus)^{vii}.

According to the interviewees, the identification of this problem in the preparation of teachers—an overly-theoretical and disarticulated teacher preparation program—led to the search for new models of teacher preparation that emphasized practical knowledge and could provide a common language for aligning and articulating the program. The specific solutions that university faculty generated to address these problems are analyzed in the next section of this chapter.

Branch Campus. The frames used by interviewees in the Branch Campus to talk about the problem of teacher education was similar in some ways to the frames used by those in the Central Campus, but they also had important differences. As noted above, University faculty from the Central Campus primarily discussed the problems of teacher education as a matter of the past, meaning prior to the changes introduced later on in their curriculum as result of the 2013 Ministry of Education grant. In contrast at the time of the interviews, few participants who worked at the Branch Campus teacher preparation program had heard about the Ministry of Education’s grant program or the grant earned by the Central Campus of the National University. Even though the programs located at the Branch Campus and the Central Campus both belonged to the National University, the program located in the Branch Campus had only been mentioned as part of a few indicators and objectives of the project funded by the Ministry of Education’s grant, and these were not associated to the redesign of courses. These indicators were related to the Branch Campus program’s increase of selectiveness and the provision of support to high school students in their preparation for taking the university national admission test.

The university staff interviewed in the Branch Campus referred to problems in teacher education both before and after the implementation of an important curricular

change implemented in the year 2012. This change was not related to the Ministry of Education grant and consisted on a change in the program of study that detailed the number of credits and required courses for the program. This change included an increment of content knowledge and practicum courses. Despite the fact that participants in the Branch Campus had different opinions about the direction of these changes, most of them perceived them as an imposition from the Central Campus, as this comment from a faculty member in the Branch Campus shows:

The thing about the program of study was a super practical issue and it was that the school of education said that it was not possible that we have a different curriculum, that we needed to have the same and that it had to be their curriculum... and the school of education has also another perspective than us,... this is the big problem, I mean the problem for some, for others it is not a problem (Interview 7, language methods teacher educator, Branch Campus)^{viii}.

Interestingly, however, similar to university faculty from the Central Campus, university faculty in the Branch Campus framed the problems of teacher preparation as an overly-theoretical approach and an overall disarticulation across components and courses in their program. However, there were important differences between Central and Branch Campus university faculty's understandings about these issues, which had consequences for the conceptualization and enactment of teacher education in their program.

Despite the fact that university faculty in the Branch Campus acknowledged that their teacher preparation program was not clearly articulated and that there was not a

common understanding about teacher preparation and teaching among faculty, they described that the new program of study focused on theory, this means for them content knowledge, specifically on language arts, math, science, and social studies. University faculty described this content emphasis as problematic, because student teachers had fewer opportunities to develop pedagogical skills. As the academic chair stated:

Something that seems we were not fully preparing them [student teachers] has to do with the control and management of groups of human beings. Our students value adequately the knowledge they have, disciplinary knowledge, theoretical knowledge, but they are permanently telling us that they not feel competent to work with groups of children that conform school courses nowadays... I think that is one critical aspect, especially considering from my point of view at least the matter of knowledge is very relevant, but access to knowledge is nowadays very easy, what is needed is that one has the capacity to conduct those human groups towards that learning, towards that knowledge and towards that ability (Interview 6, academic chair, Branch Campus)^{ix}.

This indicates that overly-theoretical approach of teacher education, which was the main problem identified in both teacher preparation programs, had different meanings for faculty at the Central Campus and the Branch Campus. For faculty from the program located in the Branch Campus, an expression of the overly-theoretical approach of the program was the lack of student teachers' pedagogical skills and the emphasis of the program on disciplinary knowledge. In contrast, at the Central Campus, an overly-theoretical approach to teacher preparation meant that student teachers lacked practical tools and that there was too much of an emphasis on foundational educational courses.

Furthermore, faculty at the Branch Campus expressed that this overly-theoretical approach was not a matter of the past, and it had not been overcome with the changes implemented in the program. Instead, they saw this problem as a consequence of the changes in the program of study imposed on them by the Central Campus in 2012. With this new program of study, they felt that student teachers had few possibilities for developing classroom management skills that allowed them to respond to classroom challenges and deal with the “reality” of the classroom. In contrast, the Branch Campus faculty reported that in their former program of study, students had had more courses related to art and body expression, which were an example of the emphasis on comprehensive education that the program had in the past. The emphasis of the previous program contrasted with the new program of study, since it emphasized content knowledge and particularly the four disciplines of mathematics, language arts, science, and social science. A clinical faculty explained these changes in program emphasis as follows:

Well, the program was changed quite a bit in the last turn, and I notice that is more geared towards the part of mastering content but they have overlooked one thing that for me is very important, in the new plans and programs, these don't include for instance manual works, they don't include music, physical education. And I compare this almost without wanting to past curricula that used to include these and that we used to worry about teaching the whole person in the first years here...those people are going to go work in schools where there are a lot of needs, and they have to be ready for many other things. For instance, one class in elementary education requires above everything else the domain of a

professor who knows music, who knows art, who knows how to engage children who are bored all day to physically grow and not to be people who are settle down in a seat all day (Interview 4, clinical faculty 2, Branch Campus)^x.

Branch Campus faculty also mentioned that they were making changes to overcome the overly-theoretical approach by incorporating more activities related to real issues, which meant activities more connected to the practice of teaching using interactive activities with student teachers and including student teachers' input from their practicum. However, these changes were still in process. They had not been fully institutionalized, and they were not officially part of the whole curriculum. As the department chair of the Branch Campus program, who was also a science methods teacher educator and clinical faculty in the program, stated:

The [activities] are going to depend on the lectures but for example in method courses, we are working a lot with the recording of classes, study of class, problem resolution, case studies, reflection on practice, field notes, portfolio, work with Plaint...these are things that were not done before, they used to be more theoretical and that is it and now we are doing more interaction among students, small things, we have not done more constant things because we are seeing possibilities that open up like also a course, so these are some strategies we have tried to develop, and the topic of finding a connection among courses, understanding that they are concomitant [with the practicum] and that they have a place where to get information about reality and being able to work on these (Interview 3, department Chair, Branch Campus)^{xi}.

However, changes in the program developed after the implementation of the new program of study were not perceived as positive by all university faculty in the Branch Campus. Some teacher educators argued that the foundational courses had been removed from the curriculum and teacher preparation was taking a more technical approach. Additionally, despite the lack of alignment of perspectives among university faculty and the disarticulation of courses into a coherent whole, there was a shared perception that the teacher preparation program was not responding to the needs of their student teachers or to the contexts in which they taught.

It [the curriculum] is a curriculum that has no logic, that does not respond to a model, a basic knowledge, from my point of view. That has sacrificed formative aspects that to me are critical in education, for instance, in the old curriculum I used to teach philosophy of education, that is over, that was made more technical, I am not sure where it is going, I am not sure what this curricular grid is looking for, what is its goal, do you understand what I mean? It does not respond to the reality, to the needs of the educational reality, of the system, it does not respond to the one we have, nor the one we would like to have, or the ones we would like to have...we are forming a professional to work in a place in which we don't need those professionals, we don't have those schools, you see? (Interview 1, diversity and equity teacher educator, Branch Campus)^{xii}.

In contrast with university faculty at the Central Campus, the fact that Branch Campus university faculty framed the problem of teacher education in terms of its overly-theoretical approach did not mean that they all wanted more practical tools for teaching

and fewer theories about learning and teaching. In fact, Branch Campus faculty did not conceptualize the problem of teaching as an excessive focus on foundational educational courses as faculty in the Central Campus did. Instead, the Branch Campus faculty complained about the new emphasis on disciplinary knowledge over pedagogical knowledge, which would have allowed student teachers to respond to the “reality” of their classrooms. Branch Campus university faculty wanted a teacher preparation program that was more connected to the local context, which they referred to as classroom reality, and less based on content knowledge.

Conceptions of Teacher Preparation and Teaching

In this section, I analyze what the conceptions of teacher education and teaching were in the programs located at the Central Campus and the Branch Campus. I argue that the two programs shared the idea that the solution to fix their programs should be the implementation of a more practice-based approach to teacher preparation. However, the university faculty’s understanding and enactment of these ideas played out very differently across the two programs.

I first analyze the conception of teacher education in the two programs. In the process of analysis, I examine how the programs devised the idea that practice-based teacher preparation was the right solution to the problems identified (prognostic frames), what this approach meant to university faculty in each program, and how these ideas were enacted. Then, I examine the explicit and implicit conception of teaching in the analyzed programs related to the idea of practice-based teacher preparation. Across my analysis, I refer to the main aspects used in each program to convince others that their conception of teacher preparation and teaching were the right approach to teacher

preparation (motivational frames) as well as the aspects used to support and validate their conceptions (symbolic devices).

Central Campus. In this section I explain the conceptions of teacher education and teaching in the program located in the Central Campus. I also explain the motivational frames and symbolic devices used to promote and support these conceptions.

Conceptions of teacher education. Based on the teacher preparation problems identified by faculty at the Central Campus program, the institutional documents (especially the strategic documents) established that a change in the curriculum was needed. Coupled with this solution, other predominant prognostic frame used in institutional documents was the need to create capacity among university staff and incorporate new professors in the program in order to implement the curricular changes needed. The creation of capacity was often associated with the provision of opportunities for university faculty to have internships in other countries, especially in universities with high quality teacher preparation programs, as well as to have the opportunity to attend seminars, workshops, and work meetings with international scholars. It was assumed that in order to reform the program, it was necessary to establish international connections that could guide the process of change.

There were three main changes that the strategic institutional documents presented as necessary to improve the program's curriculum. These three changes were the incorporation of high leverage practices, pedagogical content knowledge, and ICT (information and communications technology). However, in the interviews the incorporation of ICT was only mentioned by the math methods teacher educator, which

indicates that this aspect was not widely perceived as an important change in the curriculum among faculty. In contrast, pedagogical content knowledge and especially high leverage practices were mentioned across the interviews and multiple times. High leverage practices were a set of practices identified by Deborah Ball's team at University of Michigan, which they claimed represented the core practices of effective teaching: "Along with our colleagues at the University of Michigan, we have worked for the past several years to identify a set of high leverage practices that underlie effective teaching. We also have been developing ways to teach these practices... We have defined high-leverage practices as 'those activities of teaching which are essential; if they cannot discharge them competently, teachers are likely to face significant problems. Competent engagement in them would mean that teachers are well-equipped to develop other parts of their practice and become highly effective professionals'" (Ball & Forzani, 2011, p.19). As Deborah Ball (2015) mentioned in her recent visit to Chile, these practices break or decompose the work of teaching into 18 specific practices possible to teach to student teachers.

Interestingly, in institutional documents and interviews, faculty promoted and justified the use of high leverage practices by making references to international research and U.S. teacher preparation programs. Research and university scholars were used not only to support the decisions or solutions implemented in the program, but they also functioned as "symbolic devices." According to Stone (2012) symbolic devices are used to shape people's understandings and feelings. For Stone, "a symbol is anything that stands for something else. Its meaning depends on how people interpret it, use it, or respond to it" (2012, p. 157). Following this line of thinking in Stone's work, symbolic

devices “function as weapons in the problem-definition arsenal... Political actors use them strategically to define problems in a way that will persuade doubters and attract support for their own side in a conflict” (p.160). Similarly, the Central Campus faculty used international research and university scholars in documents and interviews in order to attribute credibility and objectivity to the solutions decided upon and implemented at their Campus. International research and university scholars were used to symbolize that Central Campus faculty were informed by international discussions about teacher education and that the curricular changes they were implementing were based on scientific research. Research and university scholars were a symbol of objectivity and scientific knowledge.

The use of this kind of symbolic device is not new to policy discourses. As Deborah Stone stated, “science can be and is increasingly used as an instrument of influence in political conflict” (2012, p. 319-320). Similarly, in this program research and university scholars were used to justify that the use of high leverage practices was the best/right approach to teacher preparation. Participants argued that the decision to implement a curriculum based on high leverage practices was based on research led by the best U.S. universities. In the application for the Ministry of Education grant, quotations from numerous international scholars were used to justify why the reforms that the teacher preparation program were planning should focus on the inclusion of high leverage practices in the curriculum. Usually the name of University of Michigan and Stanford University, as well as scholars such as Deborah Ball were mentioned time after time across interviews. As the clinical faculty stated, “These high leverage practices come from research by University of Michigan which says that teachers, who achieve

good learning results [with students], use these practices in the classroom, so from there, they are eighteen” (Interview 15, clinical faculty 2, Central Campus)^{xiii}. Analyzed interviews and institutional documents, as it is exemplified in the quotation, also mentioned that literature showed that these practices were effective in K-12 classrooms. It is assumed that if student teachers had the opportunities to know and learn these high leverage practices, they would be able to be effective in their classrooms. Classroom effectiveness was not only a desired outcome but also functioned as an incentive or motivational frame to promote the incorporation of these high leverage practices in the curriculum. Assuming that achieving effectiveness was a legitimate outcome, approaches that have been associated with this goal by research should be chosen over other approaches which had not proved their contribution to this goal.

In addition, the use of high leverage practices was associated with achieving objectivity, alignment, and articulation in the process of teacher preparation. High leverage practices were perceived by interviewees as the way to overcome the overly-theoretical approach and disarticulation of the program, which were the two problems university faculty felt were at the heart of their previously weak teacher education program. In contrast to the situation of the program before the implementation of the Ministry of Education grant, ideas about high leverage practices provided a common language among university staff across the courses that were reformed including disciplinary, methods, and practicum courses. The importance of these high leverage practices was evident because it was mentioned by every university staff member who was interviewed. These ideas about core practices allowed university staff to unify the content, methods, and resources used in their courses as well as to identify and label these

practices. The idea of high leverage practices became the core of the curricular reform implemented in the program and funded by the Ministry of Education. As the former dean stated:

We work with Deborah Ball's categories and her high leverage practices, these 19 [sic] practices go across. They are not only there, in the school context organizing completely the work of supervisors and cooperating teachers, but they are here, in the method courses, in the vision of professors who are teaching a mathematics or science course. Each one of the 19 HLP and we have this in terms of a model and graph representation of this, a matrix where the intersection of these high leverage practices is identified... that high leverage practice has the opportunity of to be worked, displayed, taught, absorbed in this course, in this unit of this course, in this context of practice, in this point of the sequence of the practicum 3, etc., a quantum leap in comparison with the conceptualization and implementation in the practicum system in teacher preparation (Interview 5, former dean, Central Campus)^{xiv}

As this quotation showed, high leverage practices were not just a reference for the program's work, they explicitly guided and organized the skills that student teachers should develop in each point of the preparation. As the interviewees mentioned often, these practical skills were not just part of the practicum but also they were part of university courses. According to the interviewees, this was the most important change in the curriculum in the last years and it has had consequences for the objectives, activities, evaluation, and resources used in the teacher preparation courses.

Of equal importance to the idea of focusing on high leverage practices, the institutional documents also included the concept of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) (Shulman, 1987). PCK was a key aspect in the curricular changes funded by the Ministry of Education grant. Interestingly, the idea of pedagogical content knowledge was not mentioned in all interviews. Rather it was only mentioned by methods teacher educators and by the deans, while it was omitted by clinical faculty, the department chair, and the professors who taught courses related to diversity and equity, and those who taught in the “Teaching in Socially Disadvantage Contexts” certificate. The idea of pedagogical content knowledge emphasized teachers should not only master the content that they taught, but also specific knowledge about how their discipline is learned: “It represents the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction” (Shulman, 1987, p. 8).

International scholars such as Lee Shulman, who developed the idea of pedagogical content knowledge, were mentioned a couple of times by the interviewees. Again, international research and scholars were used as symbolic devices to justify and promote the incorporation of this knowledge in the curriculum, specifically into disciplinary and methods courses. For example, according to a math methods teacher educator:

The other emphasis that the Ministry of Education grant put was [intended] to delve into in the pedagogical context knowledge, Shulman and company, as a general framework... basically enter to [discuss], how does deep disciplinary knowledge allow us to achieve better learning and what are the methods to achieve it? (Interview 9, math methods teacher educator, Central Campus)^{xv}.

This solution, that is the incorporation of pedagogical content knowledge into the curriculum, was proposed as a response to the disarticulation between disciplinary and methods courses. Professors who taught in these disciplines and were not part of the school of education, and methods professors who were part of the school of education, were now expected to know how to incorporate PCK into their courses. The incorporation of this approach not only had effects on the approach of these courses, but also on the number of incidences in the curriculum. As the former dean of the program expressed, in order to make room for this emphasis on disciplinary and method courses shaped by pedagogical content knowledge and high leverage practices, the program reduced the number of foundation educational courses: philosophy, sociology, and history of the education. In sum, they reduced the theoretical courses in order to allow more methods, disciplinary, and practicum courses based on high leverage practices and pedagogical content knowledge.

The participants in the Central Campus shared the assumption that the main objective in teacher education should be developing practical skills in student teachers. As previously explained, this idea was based on their diagnosis about teacher preparation's problems and on international research. The core aspect of the current teacher preparation program, mentioned by all participants, was teaching teacher candidates high leverage practices. These practices were the common language used to talk about teaching and teacher education. These high leverage practices guided the main activities and evaluations developed by university staff in disciplinary, methods, and practicum courses. Students read about these high leverage practices and these practices were explicitly part of the courses. Most university faculty mentioned that student

teachers learned these practices in a practical way. In their methods and practicum courses, student teachers had opportunities to learn, identify, rehearse, and evaluate high leverage practices. Most of the opportunities for learning these practices were based on a practice and modeling approach. Common teacher preparation practices included asking one student teacher to lead a segment of the class using one or two high leverage practices while some student teachers acted as K-12 students, and other student teachers evaluated their classmates using a high leverage practice list and a rubric. These high leverage practices were also practiced and evaluated in the practicum. A manifestation of the modeling approach was the use of university faculty's practices or videos of school teachers as an example of a specific high leverage practice that student teachers need to learn. This modeling process was exemplified in the words of a clinical faculty member:

So what we do, we help students and model situations where a good performance of this high leverage practice is noticed, we work with videos from the U.S. where they can also see small video clips where this high leverage practices are displayed ... and teaching strategies are taught so students can, student teachers can replicate them with their students (Interview 13, clinical faculty 1, Central Campus)^{xvi}.

As demonstrated by the quotation, it was expected that the practices modeled and rehearsed in the university classroom could and would be replicated by student teachers with their students. Interestingly, videos developed in the context of the U.S. in English-speaking schools and classrooms by American teachers were also used to model high leverage practices. Some of them were in other languages and a translated version of the script was provided to student teachers. This shows that high leverage practices were

understood in this program as best practices that could be used across linguistic and cultural contexts. They were assumed to be generally relevant for teaching student teachers and K-12 students, and it was assumed that they could be applied in the U.S. and the Chilean contexts and that they were similar whether teaching in English or in Spanish.

Other activities where high leverage practices were taught in the program included reflection and evaluation activities. Student teachers were required to implement a couple of high leverage practices in their practicum, which changed in their complexity based upon students' progress in the program. In their reports, student teachers were asked to reflect on their practices. Based on videos of their performance in the classroom and based on their study plans, student teachers reflected on to what extent their practice was aligned with high leverage practices. This reflection also included an evaluation of student learning based on evidence of their work. For example, one clinical faculty member stated,

A reflective student, how do I notice him/her? For example, he or she is always questioning him or herself a little... what is happening in her or him school, or how he or she can improve, he or she is analyzing his or her teaching; for me, that is a student who is thinking about what he or she does...that they think about what they are doing and the effects that has on children's learning.... There is a critical aspect, but critical about their own teaching work ... around my teaching work in the classroom, rather than being critical around the educational system that I think is super important (Interview 15, clinical faculty 2, Central Campus)^{xvii}.

It is important to note that this kind of reflection had a technical emphasis, which focused on how to improve student teachers' practices by using high leverage practices.

Reflection did not emphasize a critical perspective; omitted was reflection about aspects related to the goals of education, the role of teachers, and the purpose or consequences of the educational system. A technical approach was consistent with the focus of the teacher education program, to develop and refine student teachers practical skills, which meant teaching practical tools for instruction.

Conceptions of teaching. The program's emphasis on practice represented a shift in faculty members' conceptions of teacher education as well as an important shift in their conceptualizations of teaching. As the department chair of the program stated, a good teacher should manage practical tools that allow him or her to develop effective learning processes with school students. In this way, effectiveness was defined as the main goal of teaching. Moreover, teaching was defined by its outcomes (the capacity to generate effective processes of learning) instead of being defined by teachers' inputs (knowledge that teachers can have). As the department chair stated,

What we seek is that indeed, for that is the focus centered on practice, it is that our students, more than people very knowledgeable of theory, of the conceptual or the discipline at a conceptual level, are able to generate effective process in the classroom with children (Interview 12, department chair, Central Campus)^{xviii}.

This did not mean that content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge were not needed; in fact university faculty often mentioned these aspects as an important part of teacher preparation. However, these types of knowledge by themselves were not enough to achieve effectiveness. Mastering specific practices, identified by research as

associated with effectiveness, were required for teaching. Again, research was used as a symbolic device, this is, as an element to support and validate the claim that high leverage practices were the key aspect for good teaching practices. As one of the methods teacher educator mentioned, high leverage practices were very specific practices that each teacher should demonstrate:

This [is] the set of professional skills that each teacher must be able to develop and have opportunities to learn during his or her initial teacher preparation, and we refer to very specific but also complex things, that is, how I learn to make an explanation using different models or how to learn to facilitate a productive discussion in the classroom, or how I plan a sequence of teaching, or interact with professional in a school, or learn to communicate with parents. This is the set of professional abilities that we think are key (Interview 11, language methods teacher educator, Central Campus)^{xix}.

According to the participants, good teaching involved the ability to collect data about students' abilities, to contextualize content taught to students' abilities and course level, to teach the content using high leverage practices, and finally, to evaluate and reflect on teaching using evidence. As in the reflection exercises in teacher preparation, teacher reflection meant collecting teaching and students' learning data in order to improve teaching practice. Data related to students included observation of what they were able to do in relationship to their developmental age and evidence of students' learning achievement. It was believed this model of teaching would allow teachers to make pedagogical decisions and be effective at promoting student learning in all contexts.

Across the interviews, the idea that high leverage practices and data-based reflection would lead to effectiveness in any context was often mentioned by participants, with the exception of teacher educators who taught the diversity and equity course, and one of the professors who was part of the “Teaching in Socially Disadvantaged Contexts” certificate. For the majority, a good teacher was a teacher who was able to generate learning in any context using high leverage practices and adjust their teaching based on school teaching resources and students’ abilities. As the new dean of the program argued, a teacher should be able to:

Go to a school in need, and with the resources and spaces that they have, be able to contextualize themselves, to read the clues of the context, make contextualized pedagogical decisions, all based on evidence that we taught them to collect. I also mean that with a curriculum based on practice, this is, we are working with what is called in education “pedagogies of the practice” ... high leverage practices, these are abilities transversal in nature that allow teachers to promote quality learning opportunities, so the quality of those opportunities doesn’t depend on the economic situation of the children nor the school, but on the capacities that we have been able to promote in our teachers or our future teachers, so they are able to offer these quality opportunities in the contexts where they have to work (Interview 16, new dean, Central Campus)^{xx}.

Along these lines, teaching was conceptualized as a practical skill, and learning differences were characterized as individual characteristics. The student differences relevant to adjust teaching were related to developmental stages and their previous knowledge and skills. Social and cultural aspects of learning were not emphasized by

participants. Only when participants were directly asked about differences in teaching in disadvantaged contexts did they mention some cultural aspects. Usually participants mentioned that when teachers taught in schools with few resources or in public schools, they needed to consider the low cultural capital of students and their families. Teaching in these contexts meant for example to acknowledge that students had been exposed to less vocabulary and had fewer discursive resources.

What changes is the context and clearly this makes for different challenges, therefore the teacher has to be able to analyze this context and then to know what tools must be applied for each one. When there is more cultural and social capital, I can develop some strategies, I can approach children in a particular manner, ... If I am in at-risk contexts, I also have to guarantee that children learn, and I have to have my best attitude to be able to do that, and maybe I have to even be more creative, because maybe I would have fewer personal resources, less social capital, less cultural capital...But at the end, he or she is a high quality professional, where, who has to develop effective processes of teaching and evaluation to guarantee that children learn, and monitor that children learn (Interview 12, department chair, Central Campus)^{xxi}.

As these words show, for Central Campus faculty, “cultural” aspects of learning were associated with negative characteristics of students. When university faculty discussed cultural aspects they emphasized aspects that placed students from public and under-resourced schools at a disadvantage for learning in comparison to other students. Also, these cultural aspects were only found to be important for teachers involved in public and under-resourced schools. As the former dean of the program mentioned: “If

you are unaware that the talk in the houses of children in poverty has 15,000,000 fewer words at four years old than children in professional contexts and you do not know that, and your reading and writing strategies do not take that into account, you would not be effective” (Interview 5, Central Campus)^{xxii}. Additionally, teaching in disadvantaged contexts implied the need to make adjustments so that students could achieve the same learning as students in more privileged contexts, without questioning how that learning was relevant for students from “disadvantaged” contexts.

In summary, as a way to overcome an overly-theoretical and disarticulated approach to preparing teachers to teach, a practice-based teacher preparation was implemented at the Central Campus teacher preparation program. Practice-based teacher education in this context meant providing the contexts wherein teacher candidates could learn to teach, rehearse, model and evaluate high leverage practices. Participants shared the assumption that knowledge and practices based on research, produced by U.S. scholars, were pertinent to Chile. It was assumed that teacher education and teaching knowledge were universal and that best practices—high leverage practices—were transferable across contexts and cultures. Individual differences were considered the most relevant aspects among students worth to consider for making adjustments on the content taught and teaching activities. Aspects of teacher’s reflection were included in teacher preparation from a technical perspective, as a way to move teaching practices closer to the high leverage practices defined outside the country.

Branch Campus. In this section I describe the conceptions of teacher education and teaching in the program located at the Branch Campus. I also discuss the similarities and differences in these conceptions between the two analyzed programs.

Conceptions of teacher education. In contrast to institutional documents from the Central Campus, institutional documents from the Branch Campus did not mention a change in the curriculum as a relevant solution for overcoming an overly-theoretical approach to teacher preparation. Instead, most Branch Campus documents pointed out that the program needed to contribute to the local development of the region. This was expressed as a goal of the program in a very general manner without being clear about how this goal was connected to the curriculum or the practices of the program. Usually this goal was expressed very briefly with the idea that the program should respond to the needs of the community where the program was located. Thus, the argument related to the need to respond to the context was used as a rationale for the program's goal of contributing to local development. The institutional documents, for example, stated that the program should: "Respond to the needs that emerge in the community, focused on the territory, as a contribution to the sustainable development of the region" (Institutional document, Branch Campus, What is our essence?, p. 2)^{xxiii}. Despite the fact that making contributions to local development was mentioned as a hallmark of the Branch Campus program, there was not a clear connection between this aspect and the teacher preparation curriculum there. Most of the time this aspect was associated with cultural and artistic activities offered to the community in which the program was located. Furthermore, this desired aspect of the program was associated with research about indigenous people conducted by a research center that was part of the Branch Campus. It was also connected to agricultural training workshops for local farmers, which had been previously developed by the Branch Campus faculty.

Hence, this aspect related to local development was not explicitly present in the teacher preparation program itself even though it was a goal of the Branch Campus in a more general sense. In fact, some university faculty mentioned that this idea of making contributions to local development was part of the program before the change in the program of study was imposed by the Central Campus in 2012. My analysis of documents and interviews indicated that recovering an emphasis on contributing to local development was a desire of the university faculty who acknowledged that this aspect had been disappearing. This tension was conveyed in the following comment by the academic chair of the Branch Campus program.

The current curriculum...lacks the emphasis that acknowledges our tradition, our trajectory and the issues that cause us concern, then we are having many discussions to know what we can do, for example, for having in the preparation of our students a clear and sharp identification with interculturality, the work with diversity, the local world, the development,...we want to do it from excellence, we do not want to do it from intuition, we do not want to do it only from tradition, we want to do it from research, ...we do not want to move away from this hallmark, in fact, we want to recover it and return its emphasis (Interview 6, academic chair, Branch Campus)^{xxiv}.

In addition the academic chair at the Branch Campus also mentioned that program emphasis on local development and cultural diversity had previously been developed based primarily on faculty members' hunches about what to do to contribute to local development and respond to the community's needs. Currently, however, as indicated in the previous quotation, the Branch Campus faculty wanted to recover an emphasis on

local development, but this time informed by research. Related to that desire, another common solution or prognostic frame that was explicitly mentioned in Branch Campus documents was the idea that the Branch Campus program should improve the research capacities of their entire university faculty. Often, the development of international and national academic connections, including relationship with scholars at the Central Campus, was characterized as the pathway for improving Branch Campus faculty research capacities. Establishing funding for conferences, internships, and hiring new university staff with doctoral degrees were specific activities and goals mentioned in the strategic documents. As stated in one of the program's strategic documents, one of the program's objectives was:

To generate competencies for constructing knowledge and strengthening research and communicative faculty's capacities of the campus, through the development of research lines, the creation of interdisciplinary work teams and associations with other researchers from academic international and national, public and private institutions and centers (Institutional Documents, Branch Campus, Minutes of agreements based on the development plan 2009-2013, p. 9)^{xxv}.

Despite this intention, there was not a clear connection between the generation of research by the Branch Campus faculty and their teacher preparation program, neither was there a connection between the expected consequences of a collaborative relationship with other international and national researchers to the practice or curriculum of the Branch Campus program. Moreover, these two aspects, which were underlined in institutional documents—local development and emphasis on research—were not highlighted by participants in interviews as the main aspects that shaped the current

teacher preparation program or the aspects that were part of their vision of teacher education. Rather when these aspects were mentioned by university faculty, they were mentioned in a very general way in both documents and interviews.

Interestingly, in contrast to the program located at the Central Campus, there was not an articulated and shared vision among university faculty at the Branch Campus about the core aspects of teacher education. Branch Campus faculty mentioned that some departments or groups of professors agreed with some ideas but these ideas were not officially part of the curriculum. Despite not having a common vision, Branch Campus faculty agreed that content knowledge should not be the center of their program. As I mentioned above in my discussion of how Branch Campus faculty constructed the problem of teacher education, most university faculty had a negative opinion regarding the emphasis on disciplinary content in their curriculum, a consequence of the change in the program of study defined by Central Campus faculty in 2012. However, at the same time most of the Branch Campus faculty appreciated that the new program of study had more practicum courses than previously. Even though the Branch Campus faculty had nuanced perspectives, they shared the notion that teacher education should be practice-based.

I believe that the issue of teacher preparation should be a constant, a constant reflection...and to have one foot very very located in the reality, very located in the reality, I believe that teacher preparation cannot be a theoretical preparation because when students arrive to the reality and feel without tools to respond to that reality, or without the possibility of observing in the best way the potentiality

of that reality, you would have a frustrated student (Interview 3, department chair, Branch Campus)^{xxvi}.

Along these lines, practice-based teacher preparation for this program was meant to emphasize practicum experiences. University courses, in addition, should contribute to these experiences with knowledge about methods and by helping students to develop professional skills so they can learn from and in practice. Across the interviews with the Branch Campus faculty, there was the idea that some aspects of the work of teachers could not be learned at the university because of the inherent complexity of teaching. The teaching profession was conceptualized as contextual, shaped by many unpredictable factors, and requiring too much knowledge that could not be learned in the short period of teacher preparation (4 years).

I am favor of that idea that not everything should be taught, each one of us have to learn from his or her experience and has to go through the things in order to learn because in this way everyone begins, the university cannot, cannot include all knowledge, neither all the areas, neither all the little details, ... if she or he does not solve her or him problem in the classroom something to do should come to her or him mind, you have the tools to begin... It is an issue of motivation,... one has to inculcate as much as one can the motivation for doing things well and wherever the student has to succeed, even in an island or in a private school or in a [public] high school, in a big or small school, wherever (Interview 2, clinical faculty 1, Branch Campus)^{xxvii}.

Based on this kind of rationale, faculty at the Branch Campus believed that teacher preparation could only give student teachers a basis from which they could learn from practice over time and in an ongoing way. Most of the skills that university faculty mentioned that student teachers should develop during their teacher preparation period were related to professional skills. Here, there was not agreement among university faculty about which professional skills should be promoted in student teachers. Some university faculty, especially clinical faculties and the department chair, who also worked as clinical faculty in the program, emphasized the development of respect for school practices, commitment to do what was demanded in school contexts, motivation to find solutions to school problems, and professional habits, such as punctuality and responsibility. In contrast, other Branch Campus university faculty emphasized reflection skills, commitment to learning from practice, and research skills for investigating issues that they identified from practice. As the diversity and equity teacher educator mentioned:

A lot of knowledge is needed; what happens is that in a one semester course you would not develop it, you go it? What I want to achieve is that they realize that, to wake up a sensibility for the topic, that they understand that to be able to address diversity they will have to study 15 years of their life. That the program would be not enough for them, they have to keep studying, and therefore they need to cultivate study skills and the capacity for studying, self-development, and self-management (Interview 1, diversity and equity teacher educator, Branch Campus)^{xxviii}.

Despite the fact that these two positions among the Branch Campus' university faculty were very different, both of these positions shared the idea that the main aspects of teaching were learned in and from practice and that teacher education should prepare student teachers to be willing to learn from practice and to have the skills for learning in this context. Both positions represented the idea that the most important process of learning to become a teacher happens during practice. Along these lines, Branch Campus faculty conceptualized teaching as a *craft* in that it was learned and shaped by the work of teaching itself in various local contexts. This was a very different conception of practice-based teacher preparation from the conception of practice-based teacher education that was common among faculty in the program located on the Central Campus.

Additionally, practicum courses were conceptualized by the Branch Campus university faculty as a testing field for student teachers' skills. Some university faculty mentioned the increase of practicum courses as a positive change in the program because student teachers had the opportunity to test early in their preparation whether they were good or bad at teaching. In this way, practicum was regarded as a crucial moment that defined whether student teachers wanted to stay in or leave the program. In addition, some university faculty mentioned that the practicum courses were opportunities for student teachers to prove the methods that they learned in the university courses as well as that the practicum would offer experiences that could be used as resources in method courses. However, this connection between coursework and practicum was not often mentioned by university faculty, and the department chair of the program acknowledged that the process of articulation across the two was in an early stage.

In a way that was similar to the program at the Central Campus, at the Branch Campus modeling was a common resource used by university faculty to promote student teachers' learning. However, different from the Central Campus program, modeling at the Branch Campus did not focus on high leverage practices. University faculty at the Branch Campus modeled a teaching approach that focused on using innovative methods and responding to student's needs. This teaching approach was used by university faculties in their courses, and it was expected that student teachers would use it in the future. Additionally, for clinical faculty, modeling focused on professional attitudes such as responsibility, respect, and honesty. In terms of both teaching approaches and professional attitudes, it was assumed that student teachers learned from the practice of their professors. This idea is exemplified in this quotation from a clinical faculty member:

To be a mirror of what they should do in the future, maybe knowledge is not the important thing, because any person can teach content, but the small details are what make a difference. That is, if as a teacher I get to teach on time, if I do not skip work, if I comply with the program I created myself, if I am consistent with what I ask, and what I do, if I am fair to the things they need, I think that is the most important... and I think that the most important in the classroom is to have them see that if he/she, if a student does not learn in a certain way, I, as a teacher, have the tools and let him/her know that another way can also teach to reach the 35 students in the classroom... I always try to search all the possible strategies for everyone to learn, but I make the student know that. I say "in the classroom, there are always students who do not understand all the same, then you need to try that

everyone learn content somehow" (Interview 2, clinical faculty 1, Branch Campus)^{xxix}.

Consistent with their idea of practice-based teacher preparation, university faculty at the Branch Campus assumed that specific teaching strategies should be learned in and from practice; however, this teaching approach and professional skills could be learned in the teacher preparation program.

Conceptions of teaching. In the Branch Campus teaching work was conceptualized as a craft, which was highly sensitive to the challenges presented by the context in each moment. As I explained in the teacher education conceptions section, it was assumed that teaching was a complex work that it was impossible to capture in one theory or plan with exactitude.

To be a teacher, is a very complex thing that is subjected to many situations in daily life. The teacher is never completely made and neither is the teaching activity practically defined by any theoretician, because the circumstances of the moment, the best theory can fail if the situations are adverse. Then, to be a teacher is to be open, in the first place, to the changing moment that you got to live.

Secondly, students are not uniforms, each person is different, each day is different for that person. Teachers have to have that immense capacity to adjust to situations (Interview 4, clinical faculty 2, Branch Campus)^{xxx}.

Therefore, for the Branch Campus faculty, teaching requires that teachers had professional skills that allowed them to respond to these constantly changing variables and settings. This conception meant that teachers should have the capacity to be flexible and able to adjust to any situation. This conception was also connected to the vision that

teachers should be committed and open to learning from practice. As the math methods teacher educator stated, a teacher should be “a reflective professional, open to change, who adapts to the different situations that could have to work” (Interview 17, Branch Campus)^{xxx}. As the quotation above suggests, teacher educators at the Branch Campus assumed that teachers should not only be open to learning from practice, but also committed to making changes if they identified negative or deficient aspects in schools and their classrooms. However, the direction of these changes or the contexts of these changes could not be defined beforehand. Since teaching was contextual, also the challenges defined by the teachers would be contextual. Teachers should be proactive and they should intervene if they identify some problems.

I think that when we talk or when I talk about change is a bit to be attentive to be able to recognize what there is and where they can contribute, ... not only as inside the classroom but there can also be changes at the school level, ... [that] they have the capacity to observe their reality and see what they can contribute with, it will depend on what they are doing, in their work with caregivers, maybe there are things that are not being well conducted on the part of directives, then they always be a contribution to that and not exclude themselves. That I speak about change agents (Interview 3, department chair, Branch Campus)^{xxx}.

In summary, despite the fact that they belonged to the same university, these two teacher preparation programs represented two divergent visions of practice-based teacher education. Although there were nuances in how the problem of teacher education was framed by leaders and faculty members in these programs, they tended to agree that a less theoretical approach to teacher education was needed to improve teaching and teacher

education. Both programs agreed that a practice-based approach to teacher education was needed. However, as Forzani (2014) argues, practice-based teacher education has different understandings and can take various shapes: “Focusing teachers’ training on core practices is not the same as situating professional learning in a K-12 classroom” (p. 366-367). Practice-based teacher education could mean training student teachers to engage in core practices, similar to the conception of good teaching and teacher education that I found in the teacher preparation program at the Central Campus. However, practice-based teacher preparation could also mean learning from experience in the classroom, which is closer to the conception of teaching and teacher education that I found at the Branch Campus program.

With the teacher preparation program at the Central Campus, university faculty assumed that teacher preparation had a universal knowledge base, which was based on research and could be applied to multiple contexts. This meant that the high leverage practices identified in the U. S. and used in “excellent” teacher preparation programs in that country could be translated and applied to the Chilean context. This set of underlying assumptions and this model of teacher preparation shaped the activities, evaluations, and language used by university faculty in the teacher preparation program at the Central Campus. In this way, teacher education knowledge was understood as a transferable product that could be imported from other countries.

In contrast, the Branch Campus conceptualized teacher preparation as a craft that was shaped by the context. Good teaching was learned by experience and in contact with practice. Teaching was likewise based on adjustments the teacher made to the particular context in which he or she worked. The addition of more practicum courses at the Branch

Campus was seen as a positive change in the program of study because it allowed student teachers to have more opportunities to develop pedagogical skills from practice. Practice-based teacher preparation in this context meant offering student teachers opportunities to learn from experience and providing professional skills for achieving this goal.

Additionally, the emphasis of the Branch Campus on improving faculty's research and the contribution to the local community, which were the solutions proposed in the institutional documents seem not to be emphasized by the current Branch Campus program as described by university faculty. The current emphasis of the program enforced by the Central Campus over the Branch Campus was a disciplinary-based approach for teaching and teacher education. In contrast, the enacted emphasis on teaching and teacher education by the Branch Campus faculty was a practical emphasis. The idea of focusing on local development seemed to be more a desire or aspiration than a current key element of the curriculum and practices of the program at the Branch Campus.

Conceptions of Justice

As I explained in the previous sections, the core ideas of teacher preparation in the program located at the Central Campus included methods, content knowledge, and practicum courses, with high leverage practice and pedagogical content knowledge the aspects most emphasized throughout. In contrast, in the program located at the Branch Campus, the ideas of high leverage practice and pedagogical content knowledge were for the most part unknown with the one exception of the math methods teacher educator, who came to know about this approach due to her friendships with the math methods teacher educator from the Branch Campus. Despite the fact that the Branch Campus

faculty valued a practical-based teacher education approach, the official imposed curriculum at the Branch Campus focus on content knowledge and more recently had incorporated more practicum courses. However, even though there was an agreement among faculty in the Branch Campus program that teacher preparation should be less theoretical, there was not a consensus among the Branch Campus faculty about which elements should be the focus of these courses.

Informed by an understanding of the contrast between these two programs, I next address questions about the role of justice in these two different curricula. As I explained in Chapter 2, the conception of justice is one of the essential components of the framework of teacher education for social justice defined by Cochran-Smith (2010). It is important to mention that the university faculty did not explicitly discuss the term social justice or justice, nor did the institutional or course documents. However, as I explained in previous chapters, in the case of Chile, I am using references to diversity and/or equity as a proxy or close relative of social justice issues in order to explore the implicit notions of justice in teacher preparation programs. In this section, I argue that despite differences in their conceptualizations of teaching and teacher education, these two programs addressed issues pertaining to diversity and equity in similar way. Both programs conceptualized justice as an issue of student access to the university and/or students' fulfillment of university curriculum requirements. Thus the programs created specific courses or additional supports to respond to student teachers and/or K-12 students' needs and characteristics.

These ideas about justice are related to what have been referred to as a "distributive" paradigm of justice (Fraser & Honneth, 2003; Young, 1990), which was

explained in detail in Chapter 2. From a distributive perspective, for example, justice would be achieved if each individual had access to a quality education. In keeping with this viewpoint, the main strategy used by both programs to respond to inequity and diversity was to provide additional courses or resources in order to help high school students who would ordinarily not have been admitted to programs meet university admissions standards or to support student teachers in meeting the requirements of their courses once they were matriculated. Also, special courses or certificates were provided to student teachers so that they could develop skills to deal with diversity in the classroom and to teach in at-risk schools. In most cases, these courses and supports worked as an add-on to the curriculum, disconnected from the core methods, practicum, and disciplinary courses. As I explain in detail in this section, despite the similarities in programs' conception of justice and their similar general approaches to dealing with injustice, they enacted these ideas differently. Programs differed in their admission practices and curricular decisions. In the sections that follow, I first consider admission practices and curricular decision at Central Campus, and then I describe these aspects at the Branch Campus.

Central Campus. In this section I describe the admission practices and curricular decisions in terms of conceptions of justice that were implicit in the program located at the Central Campus based on the analysis of the interviews, as well as institutional and course documents.

Admission practices. University faculty from the Central Campus program described student teachers in the elementary program as part of Chile's academic and economic "elite." Participants mentioned that most student teachers entered the program

through the regular national admission process, which relied primarily on standardized test scores and high school grades. This meant that historically they admitted student teachers with the highest scores on the national university admission test. This decision was explained using excellence as a justification; they worked in a university noted for its general excellence, which was accustomed to receiving the best academically prepared students in the country. This admissions decision had major consequences for the composition of the student body at Central Campus—their students had a high socioeconomic status and had graduated from private high-schools. As I stated in Chapter 1, in Chile low-income students traditionally attend public schools. As one of the teacher educator stated:

The university faces the challenge that here students with the best scores in the PSU [national admission university test] enter, and we know that Chile is a very fragmented society, and therefore those that have the best grades in the PSU come from schools of a high socioeconomic status and tend to go back to schools of a high socioeconomic status (Interview 11, language methods teacher educator, Central Campus)^{xxxiii}.

Strategic documents written in 2012 mentioned a concern with the decrease in the number of student teachers from public schools due to an increase in cut-off admission scores: “It is observed that the composition of the student body has changed in the last two admission processes noting a decrease of approximately 50% of the students of public schools enrolled in kindergarten and elementary education as a result in part of the increase in admission scores” (Institutional document, Central Campus, Institutional improvement plan, p. 122)^{xxxiv}. Even though according to a couple of university staff

members, the diversity of the student body had increased somewhat over the last five years prior to this study, the general trend in terms of students' socioeconomic status and type of high schools persisted. Some university faculty connected the minor change in the demographic characteristics of the student body to national policies, particularly to the scholarship called "Vocacion de Profesor," which is a government-funded tuition scholarship for high-school students who achieved high-scores on the national university admission test. Other university staff members were unsure about whether the change in the student body had started after the implementation of the scholarship, and they were unsure about the reasons behind the shift.

Teacher educators who taught methods courses and the one professor who taught the diversity and equity course argued that changes in the student body characteristics had had effects on their classrooms. The professor of the diversity and equity course perceived this change as a positive shift. She argued the change allowed more student teachers to connect with her curricular proposal because these students had experiencing situations of discrimination before and can relate better with issues of equity and diversity. In contrast, the methods courses professors argued that the change in the diversity of the student body presented some challenges. Particularly they described a high degree of self-segregation among student teachers in their classrooms, and they talked about the challenges of creating activities that allowed for the integration of students from different social backgrounds. This challenge is exemplified in the following quotation:

When one enters our classrooms and works with students one realized, and I am going to tell you bluntly, but there is strong segregation. Since we are the

university with the best scores in the university admission test....all our student teachers enter with the scholarship “vocación de professor”, so this... has allowed that students from different socioeconomic backgrounds enter,... one sees this in the classroom... In the classroom half of the students have blond hair and the other half black hair,...there is segregation within our own classrooms...So we have high academic quality..., but we also have people from different social backgrounds,... but we have the challenge to do social integration (Interview 9, math methods teacher educator, Central Campus)^{xxxv}.

The government tuition scholarship allowed for an increasing number of low-income student teachers to apply to and enter the program. Even though student teachers admitted to the program had achieved high-scores on the national admission test and this meant that they belonged to the *academic elite* of students in the country as most students in the program did, they came from different social and economic backgrounds. This meant that they did not come from the *economic elite* of the country nor the same geographic areas as other students. These social differences had an effect on social relationships inside the classroom in this program, as one teacher educator commented on the way the students chose to sit in the classroom: “The groups even sit in determined places because they come from different places in the city” (Interview 11, language methods teacher educator, Central Campus)^{xxxvi}. Despite the fact that all university staff members described the diversity in the student body as positive, they also acknowledged that they themselves needed to figure out how to teach in this new context without any support or help. According to the professors, there was neither an institutional approach

to responding to the increased diversity in the classroom nor even an institutional awareness of this change.

A special admission process was intended to help recruit a more diverse student body, but most of the university faculty did not have a clear picture about these processes, understanding that they existed in the university, but unaware of the criteria and mechanisms involved. Most university staff mentioned the “special” admission process, which was an alternative to the national process, when they were asked directly about admission process different from the admission through the national admission test. Few university faculty mentioned the special process for people with disabilities in the university in a general way, but most of them referred to an admission based on students’ academic “talents.” This was an admission process for students who were admitted taking account of their school grade ranking instead of their scores in the national admission test. Interestingly, some university faculty recognized that this special admission process was more the result of a university policy than the decision of the school of education or the program. Also, they acknowledged that this special admission process was part of new national educational trends, which in the last few years were being promoted among universities to give more weight in the admissions process to high-school grades than to the test scores on the national admission test. Central Campus faculty understood the principle behind this initiative as diversifying the student body while retaining the program’s hallmark of excellence. In this way, students with high high-school scores were admitted, because that score was an indicator that they had good study habits that would allow them to respond to the university high quality academic standards. As the department chair stated:

Now, every time, we have opened ourselves to other spaces,...meaning, students that do not come from elite schools, they are the best students in the schools and so they apply through other mediums... I think that excellence is very important, it does not matter what socioeconomic sector you come from, but you have to have a commitment with your formation,...you have to have showed that you are able to discipline and organize your formation and be responsible so that we can intervene using demanding and high quality academic processes (Interview 12, Central Campus)^{xxxvii}.

At the Central Campus program, diversity was primarily understood as socioeconomic diversity among student teachers while retaining high-level academic abilities as a common characteristic across their student teachers. From this perspective on diversity, equity was conceptualized primarily in terms of meritocracy. That is, students with lower socioeconomic status could be part of the program as long as they demonstrated that despite their difficult conditions, which did not allow them to achieve high scores in the national admission test, they nevertheless had demonstrated outstanding performance among their peers in high school. Students with these characteristics were perceived as able to achieve the high standards of the university. This strategy allowed the institution to achieve equity and diversity without sacrificing excellence.

Curricular decisions. At the Central Campus, three supports had been created to address issues of diversity and equity: tutoring sessions for student teachers, a certificate explicitly related to teaching in at risk-schools, and a special course called diversity and

equity. Both tutoring sessions and the new certification were created and implemented as part of the project funded by the Ministry of Education through its competitive grants.

Tutoring sessions for student teachers were mentioned more often and in more detail in the institutional documents than in my interviews with faculty. The tutoring sessions were conducted by advanced student teachers, and they were offered to student teachers who were struggling in basic skills, methods, and content knowledge courses related to language, math, science, and social studies. Usually when these tutoring sessions were described in the documents, frames related to efficiency, such as increasing the program's retention and graduation rates, as well as supporting students were used as reasons to support and justify them. For example, the School of Education development plan mentioned as one of the areas of improvement: "Improvement of retention and timely graduation through identifying delays and developing tutoring for basic skills (English, academic writing and mathematical reasoning), and opportune support in disciplinary and methods courses in the four main areas (language arts, mathematics, science, and social sciences)" (Institutional document, Central Campus, School of Education development plan 2013-2017, p. 22)^{xxxviii}. The tutoring sessions were mentioned in only two interviews with a clinical faculty member and a language methods teacher educator, and they were mentioned only briefly as a way to support struggling student teachers, as this clinical faculty member indicated:

There is...there was an indicator of the Ministry of Education grant that is related to how to support the students and how to try to reduce the rate of failures to pass the courses, so when I think about it, I think that students that fail courses, students that might have difficulties, like social difficulties very often that don't

allow them to come to class, or cognitive also like learning issues, and there was like an action to improve that like working with tutors... that is where you can see it...like equity, so that every has that, so that no student is left behind and they can advance, so if one has more difficulties they can have more supports (Interview 15, clinical faculty 2, Central Campus)^{xxxix}.

This was the only interviewee who explicitly framed the tutoring sessions as a program strategy to achieve equity. Basically, the tutoring sessions aimed to help students to boost their academic performance and reduce attrition or delayed graduation. The few references by the interviewees to this strategy and the high scores of student teachers who entered the program could indicate that student teachers used this kind of support very few times. The omission of the tutoring sessions as a topic during interviews could be also indicate a disarticulation between regular courses and the tutoring sessions. It was, however, not clear what the reason was from the interviews.

The second support created for student teachers related to equity and diversity was the certificate for “Teaching in Socially Disadvantaged Contexts”. This certificate was open to any student from the university—even from a non education major—who wanted to expand his or her knowledge about education in disadvantaged contexts. This social disadvantage could be related to issues of poverty, disability, violence, or other problems. The concept of “disadvantage” was used as a proxy for any kind of situation that interfered with students’ opportunities for learning. The certificate included five courses, the first and the last one were mandatory. The certificate was piloted during 2014, the

courses were officially available at the beginning of 2015 academic year, and the certificate was officially approved in November 2015.

There was not agreement among university faculty about why this certificate was needed. Some university faculty suggested that this certificate had been created to better serve K-12 students in disadvantaged contexts, and it aimed to provide more analytical and practical tools to student teachers in order to work in disadvantaged schools. The existence of this certificate was defended by people who asserted that there was special knowledge related to sociology and critical analysis that was needed to teach in disadvantaged social contexts. Literature and research were used as symbolic devices for scientific support and to argue that there were specific knowledge and frameworks needed to understand these contexts and to teach in them. This knowledge was perceived as necessary in the university, because traditionally student teachers came from private schools and they had had few interactions with students or schools considered to be at risk. However, this knowledge was thought to be needed primarily because of the perceived increase of national public demands that universities address issues of diversity and the explicit requirement of the Ministry of Education grants program that programs respond to this issue. As the former dean mentioned: “The instrument of the Ministry of Education grant pushes for equity and integration, and the acknowledgement of diversity, involving teacher preparation with varied external contexts, and we take that to create the certificate, we answered to the Ministry of Education grant in the way I described to you about the certificate” (Interview 5, former dean, Central Campus)^{xl}.

In this way, offering the certificate allowed the university both to respond to the national demands and to address the lack of experiences their student teachers had within

at risk-schools. A desire to address issues of diversity in the classroom was used as a motivational frame to push for the creation of the certificate. The foundational documents of this certificate and the university application to the Ministry of Education grants program reflected this position.

The second position regarding the certificate was that instead of having a specialization separate from the regular curricular grid, the knowledge needed for the certificate should be inserted into all mandatory courses. In fact many of the people in favor of this position thought that this knowledge was already part of university courses and faculty members' research, and they believed that the certificate should not have been created.

Those of us working in the formative core think that the same courses that they are taking should enable them to teach in diverse contexts, you know, that is what I am describing about the reading course, that course offers the students possibilities to teach in different schools, this mean, without making specific distinctions to teach in at risk contexts (Interview 11, language teacher educator, Central Campus)^{xli}.

People who held this position asserted that the knowledge and skills required to teach in disadvantaged contexts were not different from the knowledge and skills needed to teach in other contexts. They claimed that teachers needed to know the contexts and characteristics of their students and needed to know how to make decisions, such as how to adjust methods and evaluations, based on their student's needs and skills. Usually, people who held this position stated that the knowledge required for teaching in at risk-schools was related to issues of individual differences, developmental stages, learning

differences, and the use of students' resources, which were the main aspects relevant to teaching and learning. Cultural aspects of learning were only mentioned as limitations that teachers encountered at risk-schools.

Interestingly, the two teacher educators whom I interviewed and who worked in this specialization had different expectations about the objectives and activities that students could develop in the certificate. One stated that the certificate focused more on expanding the understanding of student teachers, while practical activities and skills were difficult to develop in five courses:

We are not going to give tools because they are courses, it is not a four year program,... we are opening a space for conversation, a space for discussion, of deepening in some aspects, in the first stage is a more theoretical aspect more than practical, the last course points at the students being able to, with our support, write an initial paper about a possible way to work in these contexts, but I think more than that is impossible (Interview 14, professor of certificate in "Teaching in Socially Disadvantaged Contexts", Central Campus)^{xlii}.

As suggested above, some faculty thought that the certificate focused more on developing analytical skills than teaching skills, which contrasted sharply with the emphasis on a practical-based teacher preparation approach that the program emphasized in their core courses (methods, content knowledge, and practicum courses). In contrast, the second teacher educator who worked on the certificate stated that even though the first course would be theoretical, the last course would include a field experience that the students needed to create in collaboration with communities. The expectations and activities described by the two teacher educators who worked in the certificate

represented two conceptions of how to teach in at risk schools. While the first focused on the development of critical lenses, the second added to that skill the capacity to do collaborative work with communities in order to galvanize social changes. More interestingly than this misalignment among professors, none of the students who were taking the first course of the certificate during the 2015 academic year were student teachers. All of them were students from majors outside of education. Thus at least in the first year of official implementation of this certificate, no student teachers participated in the discussions and were exposed to the knowledge related to the content of the certificate.

The third support in this area was the diversity and equity course. This was a one-semester course, which addressed how “normality and difference” are created. This course, in contrast to the two previous supports presented, was mandatory for every student teacher. However, according to the professor who taught it, this course was disarticulated from other courses in the program. It was disconnected from methods and practicum courses, and it was not part of the courses that had been reformed using the funds provided by the Ministry of Education. This meant that the content, activities, and evaluations related to this course were not complementary or related to other courses requirements.

We are in the second year, in the second year of the program and we go before they start the methods courses and we with the team of people that always works we have been thinking about how this course should align with methods courses since that is when students start planning, the activities, the things, so that is a good resource for the course on diversity and inclusion to look at what they are

doing ...and look at the problems they have when they don't think, you see, when they take the content of curricular basis and start with the activities, these are the evaluation methodologies and they don't think about what they are teaching there. So in that sense it is out of fashion (Interview 10, diversity and equity teacher educator, Central Campus)^{xliii}.

There was also an evident disconnection between this course and the rest of the curriculum, which could be observed in the Central Campus program of study. This course was not connected to any other courses thematically or content-wise, nor was it pre-requisite for other courses, and no other courses were pre-requisites for this course, as indicated in the plan of study. This course was not only disconnected from other courses in the curriculum, more importantly this course represented a different way to understand teaching and teacher preparation, which included different conceptions of how to deal with diversity and equity, but also different definitions of what diversity and inequity entails. As the diversity and equity teacher educator explained, the Central Campus program conceptualized diversity as an issue of individual differences in learning, without emphasizing cultural and social aspects. In fact, the social and cultural aspects were viewed from a deficit perspective. As the teacher educator who taught the diversity and equity course mentioned:

I think that in general, the programs or this program is very oriented towards psychologizing... our students come out with few skills, for instance, to draw conclusions about the classroom that perhaps are more critical or more complex. So, the way to look at the social and the cultural is focused on stereotypes...so, I

think that the program is too much focused in here, you see? (pointed to the head)...all I learn as a student is to identify how students should better learn from a cognitive perspective or developmental, that takes away, takes away the space to work on other things that for me as a professor are essential (Interview 10, diversity and equity teacher educator, Central Campus)^{xliv}.

She argued that this approach was not an exclusive problem present in the Central Campus program, but a common characteristic of teacher preparation programs across many countries, where teaching is understood as a technical skill and institutions that prepare teachers try to maintain the idea of neutrality about cultural and structural issues related to diversity. She explained this idea of neutrality as an effort to keep critical analysis outside of the programs. The professor who taught the diversity and equity course perceived the isolation of this course in the curriculum and the different vision of teaching and teacher education among faculty as a problem for the continuation of her course. She mentioned that she was engaged in a permanent battle with other teacher educators to prove that her course was important and was needed in the curriculum.

Unlike other courses in the program, in the diversity and equity course, student teachers were asked to address and deconstruct cultural and social issues in ways that challenged the exclusive focus on individual approaches to learning. The course helped students consider how ideas about “normality and difference” were produced and reproduced in the schools drawing on ideas from poststructuralist and feminist theory. Student teachers were asked to examine how power was used to construct categories of exclusion in schools, specifically categories related to race, class, gender, and disability. The teacher educator who taught the course described some of the activities as:

Well, those are the jobs we do...planning, correct the use of language, how one organizes the space in the classrooms...for instance, the topic of looking at national curricular basis...that they see what the problems of that are, what is being reproduced through a particular content...it has to have the capacity to see what is there or what is out of place, you have to problematize to work with the people you work...these are little things that give complexity to something that was not even in their heads that have to be complex, so I would say that that is the motto, that is the main objective to achieve (Interview 10, diversity and equity teacher educator, Central Campus)^{xlv}.

As the quotation above exemplifies, the course attempted to help student teachers think about how they could interrupt deficit views of normality and difference in their daily interactions and in their study plans. However, due to the fact that these study plans were not connected to the practicum or the methods courses, they were not created with real K-12 students in mind, and they were never actually implemented in any classroom. The course, therefore, emphasized providing critical lenses to student teachers in order to observe their context and others' practices and discourses omitting aspects related to teaching performance.

In summary, most of the responses to diversity and inequity at the Central Campus were targeted, meaning that they were created for a particular group of student teachers who needed tutoring—or who wanted the new certificate, “Teaching in Socially Disadvantaged Contexts.” In contrast, the strategy that had a broader scope and was intended to address diversity and equity issues more structurally and systematically was reduced to a single course in the curriculum that was not part of the main curricular

reform and was disconnected from other courses. Therefore, diversity and equity issues were presented as an add-on to the curriculum of teacher education. The Figure 5 below explains how diversity and equity were addressed in the curriculum in the Central Campus. As the figure illustrates, all the courses related to equity and diversity were disconnected from the core courses of the teacher preparation programs: disciplinary, methods, and practicum courses.

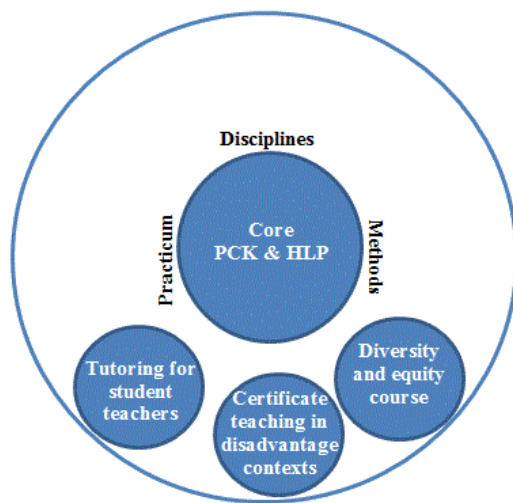


Figure 5. Equity and Diversity in the Curriculum in the Central Campus

Branch Campus. In this section I unpack the admission practices and curricular decisions related to justice at the Branch Campus based on my analysis of the interviews as well as institutional and course documents.

Admission practices. University staff from the program located at the Branch Campus stated that their student teachers were different from the students at Central Campus. They mentioned that their student teachers came primarily from public and voucher (private-subsidized) schools from the South of Chile, which implied that they did not come from the elite economic families of the country. At the Branch Campus, there was also a sizable number of students from rural schools and students who had an

indigenous background. Most faculty members indicated that their student teachers had lower scores on the national admission university test than students from the program at the Central Campus. They explained that this was a result of national trends in standardized testing, in which students from public and rural schools historically scored lower on the national admission test than students from private schools and schools located in cities, especially in the capital. Most university faculty described alternative admission processes that they had undertaken when I asked them to describe the characteristic of their programs or their student teachers. Most of them knew about admission process alternatives to the national admission test. Like the alternative process available at the Central Campus, the alternative process at the Branch Campus was a special arrangement for students with superior high school rankings. Additionally, the Branch Campus had a special admission process for students with vocational training or with an indigenous background.

They can access the career through three paths...by regular PSU [university national admission test], by raking admission, talent ranking, talent ranking are the students that are within their class' top 10%... and complementary students..., from technical professional schools...and/or mapuche descent...technical students we know that they stopped learning basic science in 10th grade so that is why I am telling you that of course we need to take care of that, if we are giving the opportunity to enter...therefore we have to give scaffoldings so that this student can advance and is not left behind or produce frustration (Interview 3, department chair, Branch Campus)^{xlvi}.

At the Branch Campus there was also an institutional response to the consequences of diversifying the student body. As the quotation above suggests, the program provided additional support to student teachers who had been admitted through the alternative process, which are discussed in detail in the next section about curricular decisions. Also unlike the Central Campus program, the definition of diversity at Branch Campus was based on the academic abilities and race of student teachers who entered the program, instead of their socioeconomic status. Equity in this program was understood to be possible by changing the admission criteria in order to allow student teachers who traditionally were not perceived as outstanding academically to enter the program and to be supported once in the program. In this way, equity was conceptualized as removing the barriers for a broader population of students to accessing and staying in higher education.

Importantly this commitment to diversity and equity was defined as a core aspect of the program at Branch Campus. In fact, this commitment was part of the historical motivations for creating this campus, and it was part of the hallmark of the program. The program was founded by a priest to offer the possibility of entering the university to high-school students from the South, specifically low-income students, students from vocational training or rural schools, and students with indigenous backgrounds. This history of the program was recalled by various university faculties in the interviews. When I asked what “inclusion” meant in this context, one of the clinical faculty said:

It means there are accepted students who would not be accepted by regular PSU [national university admission test] admission. They enter by other admission paths, they enter by, we have an Indigenous scholarship, of Indigenous descend,

and we have an inclusion scholarship for those students who achieve a media between language and math to apply, but by PSU admission path they could not enter. Basically, they have a low score... it is a program hallmark, because it started in that way, started as a foundation created by a priest,... he founded this as a university for people who have not access, because they also study with scholarships, almost everybody has scholarships, it have student residences, they pay not much (Interview 2, clinical faculty 1, Branch Campus)^{xlvi}.

In this way, achieving equity was part of the rationale for creating the campus and the program. As the quotation above shows, all the admissions pathways at the Branch Campus were in some way different from those at Central Campus. Even the “regular” admission process through the national admission test was different. As most of the university faculty mentioned, they accepted students with very low scores on the test—100 points less than the scores of students at Central Campus on average. The program’s commitment to respond to the context and students’ characteristics was often mentioned to justify this admission decision in interviews and documents. However, this decision also brought tensions and conflicts with the School of Education located at the Central Campus. The Central Campus’ application for the Ministry of Education grants program indicated that one of the goals of the program’s project and an indicator of its success would be an increase in the average score of Branch Campus student teachers on the national university admission test. That was perceived as problematic by university faculty at the Branch Campus because these indicators were not realistic and not appropriate to their students, and this goal had not been discussed or endorsed by Branch

Campus faculty members. As this quotation by the academic chair of the Branch Campus program illustrates:

For the purpose of the Ministry of Education grant is a little bit questionable, the achievement indicators that they defined to rise PSU [scores] and to rise the enrollment and to rise the ranking were not given by us, then of course, they defined a numbers totally inappropriate that have been not accomplished, because they never asked us how the reality was (Interview 6, academic chair, Branch Campus)^{xlvi}.

Equity defined as access to higher education was a key aspect of the Branch Campus program. Alternative processes and criteria that admitted high-school students who came from public, rural or vocational schools as well as low-income and indigenous students were considered part of the program's hallmark. In addition equity was often used by Branch Campus university faculty as the motivational frame to justify and support their admission decisions. This frame sharply contrasted with the motivational frame of excellence that guided the admission decisions at the Central Campus. This discrepancy in the motivational frames used to present and defend their admission processes and criteria was part of the disagreement between the Central Campus and the Branch Campus about how to select student teachers.

Curricular decisions. Four different support structures were created at the Branch Campus program to respond to issues of inequity and diversity: tutoring sessions and a writing center, additional basic skill courses, a course on diversity and equity for student teachers, and a course on indigenous language and culture. Additionally preparation for

taking the national university admission test was provided by the Branch Campus program for high school students.

The tutoring sessions and the writing center were created to support student teachers to meet university academic demands. These tutoring sessions were created as result of the Ministry of Education grant, and they were similar to the sessions facilitated at the Central Campus. The tutoring sessions were provided specifically for the disciplinary courses (related to language arts, mathematics, science, and social science) and they were led by academically advantaged student teachers. The writing center was an initiative created and implemented solely at the Branch Campus, and it was mentioned only by the language methods teacher educator there. Both the tutoring sessions and writing center provided additional hours to the formal curriculum, were non-mandatory, and were only directed to student teachers who were identified by university faculty as struggling in their courses.

Despite similarities between the tutoring sessions developed at the Central Campus and the Branch Campus, university faculty used different justifications in their documents and interviews to explain the creation of these tutoring sessions. According to the interviewees, most student teachers entered the program with low writing skills, and they lacked study habits. Some of them also came from public and rural schools in which students have historically achieved low scores in the national admission test in mathematics, language arts, social studies, and sciences. According to interviews, faculty commitments to accept students from these types of schools was important to support them in these areas: “We receive students with few resources, from at risk contexts from the cultural point of view, from the economic point of view and therefore we have to lead

a significant and intense process of leveling their skills, leveling their knowledge” (Interview 6, academic chair, Branch Campus)^{xlix}. Justification for the creation of tutoring sessions was often described by interviewees. The most common rationale offered by participants related to the tutoring sessions was that these sessions responded to the need of their student teachers. In contrast, at the Central Campus explained above, the tutoring sessions were justified as a way to support student teachers and to achieve efficiency in terms of boosting program retention and graduation rates. In contrast, at the Branch Campus, tutoring sessions were considered part of the program responsibilities with its mission:

We do not have students from private schools, then also we cannot ignore the reality of the country, the [achievement] gap exists and therefore our gap is not here up to the top, but our students are the gap down. Then from there has been generated this network in order to support them because we cannot lower the National University’s standard. It is as such a dichotomy that exists and that you have to get the standard, to achieve with the profile but you also you have an entry level that is low, therefore you need to worry. Then our discourse today is that well if we permit these students to enter this level, we need to deal we cannot set the bar and you make it by yourself but we need to take responsibility (Interview 3, department chair, Branch Campus)^l.

Tutoring sessions and the writing center were understood as ways to resolve the tension between the historical mission of serving students who had had fewer learning opportunities, which was a Branch Campus program hallmark, and the demand for holding to high standards, which was a university hallmark. University faculty provided

these supports to bring the skills of their student teachers up to the level of university requirements.

A second support provided to student teachers was additional basic skill courses. These courses focused on the math reasoning, writing and reading, and English that student teachers should have learned during their high school experience. At the Branch Campus, all first-year student teachers took an exam that identified their skill levels in these areas. Both interviews and institutional documents indicated that most student teachers at the Branch Campus failed this exam. The math teacher educator described the math reasoning course as follows:

Consider six basic skills that should be developed during high school, that every student should have achieved by the 12th grade but since they have low scores when they enter and the context where they come from, they lack those skills. They take the test at the beginning of the academic year and the truth is that almost none of them passes,... so then they had to take a course that was mandatory, that course foments the development of those six mathematical skills and then they get support and everything and those who passed that test achieved the requirement,... it was an graduation requirement... so they have supports, this courses exist (Interview 17, math methods teacher educator, Branch Campus)^{li}.

As this quotation illustrates, student teachers' failure on this test was not interpreted by university faculty as an individual problem, but as a consequence of the larger systemic inequities in Chile's school systems. Thus providing additional courses to reinforce mathematic and language arts content was perceived as a strategy to respond to the inequity of the country rather than just fixing individual failures. Responding to

inequity issues and the idea of achieving justice were used as motivational frames to promote and introduce these courses to others.

The third strategy used to support student teachers at the Branch Campus was a diversity and equity course. This course had the same title as the course provided at the Central Campus and, similarly, it was required for each student teacher. However, the course's content, activities, evaluations, and position within the program of study were different. At the Branch Campus, the course aimed to foster an inclusive vision of education in student teachers. The content of the course focused on showing the value of an inclusive vision to student teachers and helping them identify practices that excluded others from the process of learning. As the professor who taught the course stated:

My big objective with this course is to generate in the students an understanding an inclusive vision of education, the importance of that look and ethical problems that are generated if one does not have that look... change the look to one look that education is for all kinds of peoplethat all kinds of people have the right to receive an education and participate in society and also that it is immoral to ask someone to change to do that (Interview 1, diversity and equity teacher educator, Branch Campus)^{lii}.

Similarly to the course at the Central Campus, this course included some practical activities such as student teachers designing a study plan from an inclusive perspective. However, these study plans were designed for imagined students who did not exist in reality, and the plans were never actually implemented in the classroom. Despite the fact that this course was connected to two psychology courses—developmental psychology and psychology of learning—the instructor of the diversity and equity course did not

mention any attempts to articulate these courses with his course or any current practice involving collaboration. The creation of study plans was an effort to articulate the diversity and equity course with a methods course, but as the professor mentioned, there were many difficulties involved in schedule coordination meetings with the methods teacher educator, which made collaboration and articulation impractical. In addition, the diversity and equity course focused more on teaching student teachers to avoid using strategies that could exclude others than it did on introducing strategies that could be inclusive. The latter, which were characterized as complex, were assumed to be learned in and from classroom experience.

The first thing you can do is to generate an inclusive environment and that is the big objective of the course, is finally that exams ask them to design an inclusive environment of learning in which in the end pedagogical actions that you are doing are...sensitive to diversity and that when doing a pedagogical action you are not excluding anyone from learning and participating, it is like having clear what you should not do, that is to exclude people, and have a consciousness of things that exclude others...what would be some strategies that are inclusive?,...

That means a study that goes beyond the possibilities of one course (Interview 1, diversity and equity teacher educator, Branch Campus)^{liii}.

Branch Campus faculty members believed that teaching knowledge and skills for teaching from a diversity and equity perspective should be learned in practice. The assumption was that teacher preparation should provide a basis from which student teachers could understand and analyze school practices from an inclusive perspective, but

ultimately student teachers were expected to learn how to develop inclusive practices in their positions as teachers.

The fourth strategy used to respond to inequity and diversity in the program was a course related to indigenous culture and language. This course was mentioned by several university faculty in interviews as the main program effort to incorporate indigenous knowledge into the curriculum and to respond to the backgrounds of their student teachers and K-12 students in the area. However, the content of this course was not explicitly connected to core program methods and practicum courses or to the equity and diversity course taught by the university faculty. In fact, on the program of study, the indigenous course was connected only to a language arts course on Spanish grammar. There was no evidence that the content or skills developed in the indigenous course built on or connected to other teaching knowledge and skills. Some university faculty also mentioned that there were some optional courses related to indigenous knowledge, but those courses were not offered each year in the program of study. Additionally, university faculty mentioned that student teachers generally used optional credits for the courses that were designed to boost basic skills. In short, indigenous knowledge played a very minor role in the curriculum.

The final strategy related to equity and diversity did not focus on improving student teachers' skills or knowledge. Rather the final strategy was support potential university candidates through a training program for the national admission university test. This strategy was mentioned only once in interviews, but there were many references to it in the institutional documents at both the Branch and Central campuses. As stated in the goals and indicators of the grant application the Central Campus

submitted to the Ministry of Education, improvement of the admissions test scores of student teachers at the Branch Campus was deemed necessary and was a goal of the grant. However faculty from the Branch Campus argued that due to the fact that the Chilean educational system was unequal in terms of types of schools and geographic distribution and due to increases in the cut-off scores for university admissions, it was not possible for the program to follow through on the commitment to prepare students from nearby cities and towns. Most of the students at the Branch Campus came from cities, small towns, and islands close to their campus, and most of them came from public and rural schools. This was true not only of the student body in the elementary teacher education program, but also of the student body generally at the Branch Campus, which had been created for this target group:

We believe that PSU [the national university admission test] segregates, so if we start increasing the requirements for access via PSU to have better students, for instance how they do in the program in the Central Campus...that is very complicated in this area, because scores are lowered, because this area is poorer, true. The score is related to the socioeconomic situation and it would be a way to discriminate people (Interview 1, diversity and equity teacher educator, Branch Campus)^{liv}.

Given this situation, creating a national university admission test preparation program for high school students was a way to respond to the needs of the Branch Campus target group and to the demands the Central Campus imposed on it. The predominant motivational frame for promoting test preparation, as expressed in Branch Campus institutional documents, was that it would help achieve justice by responding to

the systemic inequity of the Chilean educational system. With the Central Campus institutional documents, however, the test preparation strategy was framed as a way to attract better students and to raise cut-off scores at the Branch Campus.

The quality of students who access careers in education will improve in the Branch Campus, developing an action plan that includes offering pre university training courses to students among the top 10% (NEM) in their schools, in the regions [name of the regions]. The committed goals in this area mean more that doubling the presence of students with high academic potential in enrollments in elementary and initial teaching programs in the Branch Campus (Institutional document, Central Campus, Institutional improvement plan, p. 91)^{lv}.

Here there were not only difference in the frames used by university faculty from the Central and Branch campuses, but also an implicit difference in ideas about what the characteristics of a student teacher—and therefore a teacher—should be. Branch Campus faculty emphasized that student teachers should come from communities around the campus, while Central Campus faculty focused on the necessity of student teachers' high basic academic skills.

Despite important differences in the strategies used and in nuances in the motivational frames deployed to promote and justify them, the primary responses to diversity and equity at the Branch Campus were similar in scope and approach to the responses generated at the Central Campus. Most of the responses to diversity and inequity at the Branch Campus were targeted in that they were created to serve a particular group of university-level student teachers or high school-level students who needed academic support, such as tutoring, attending a writing center, taking additional

basic courses. In contrast, the strategy that had a broader scope and was not limited to a single target group was relegated to a single course in the curriculum, which was connected only to psychology courses that were not part of the main program. As at the Central Campus, diversity and equity issues were incorporated as an add-on to the curriculum of teacher education at the Branch Campus, and these were not an essential part of the process of learning to teach. Figure 6 captures how equity and diversity were incorporated in the curriculum at the program located in the Branch Campus. As the figure illustrates, like the situation at the Central Campus program, all the Branch Campus courses related to equity and diversity were disconnected from the core courses of the teacher preparation programs. Additionally, the initiatives implemented to achieve equity and diversity at the Branch Campus went beyond the curriculum of teacher education and included a test preparation program for high school students.

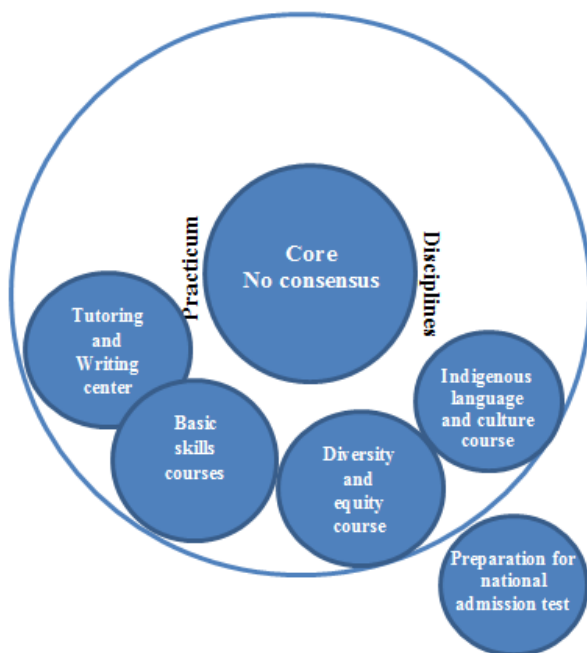


Figure 6. Equity and Diversity in the Curriculum in the Branch Campus

In summary despite significant differences between Central Campus and Branch Campus visions of practice-based teacher preparation, programs at both campuses responded to issues of inequity and diversity based primarily on ideas related to distributive justice (Fraser & Honneth, 2003; Young, 1990). Equity was conceptualized in terms of access to higher education regardless of the diversity of students' backgrounds economically and socially. The primary strategies implemented to respond to *in*justice included making accommodations for student teachers in the admissions process and curriculum so that they could enter the program and achieve predefined goals. Changes in admission practices allowed the Central Campus program to recruit a student body with more diverse socioeconomic backgrounds and allowed the Branch Campus program to admit students from non-elite academic and socioeconomic backgrounds. Both programs treated issues of equity and diversity as an add-on to the curriculum. The most common responses at both campuses were strategies that provided targeted support to student teachers who needed reinforcement of skills or abilities through additional courses or tutoring sessions. Meanwhile the courses related to diversity and equity that were required for all student teachers were not connected to courses identified as the centerpiece or core courses of the teacher preparation programs.

CHAPTER 5. Stories of Power that Shaped Conceptions of Teacher Education, Teaching, and Justice

In this chapter, I explore program characteristics that help to explain the differences between two teacher preparation programs located at different campuses of the same university and how they made policy at the local level. Specifically, I explore programs' characteristics that shaped the different conceptions of teacher education, teaching, and justice identified at the Central Campus and Branch Campus, which I introduced and discussed in Chapter 4. As I argue in the previous chapter, despite the fact that university faculty at both campuses agreed that teacher education should be practice-based, they understood this approach very differently. At the Central Campus, teaching was conceptualized as a more or less transferable product, and teacher preparation focused on training student teachers to engage in high leverage practices that were assumed to apply across contexts, cultures, and languages. At the Branch Campus, teaching was conceptualized as a local craft to be developed in the professional site of practice, and practice-based teacher education was understood as providing opportunities and skills for student teachers to learn from and in experience. Despite these differences about the meaning of teaching and teacher education, the implicit conceptions of justice in both programs were similar in terms of university access and were instantiated as providing support to student teachers so that they could fulfill university admission and curricular requirements. However, as I pointed out in Chapter 4, these admission and curricular supports took different shapes at the Central and Branch Campuses.

In this chapter, I suggest that differences between Central and Branch Campus faculties' conceptions and enactments of teaching, teacher education and justice—were

shaped by different “stories of power,” as Stone (2012) defines them. As noted in Chapter 3, Stone argues that one way to unpack policy discourses is in terms of a classical three-part narrative plot structure that involves a set of characters, portrayed in a variety of ways, along with a setting, a conflict, and a resolution. “Narrative stories”, as defined by Stone (2012), are implicit in policy discourses and they often provide coherence to the frames that major policy actors use to explain and justify policy and to exhort others to agree and/or take up those policies. Applying Stone’s (2012) ideas in the analysis of environmental policies and networks, Lejano, Ingram, and Ingram (2013) suggest that a story is “a coherent unity or sequence linking one specific set of events and actors” (p. 54). Identifying the stories that unified the frames and concepts about teacher education at the two campuses I studied helps to explain how the university faculty understood and made policy at the local level. In Chapter 4, I analyzed how university faculty at the Central and Branch campuses framed teacher education, teaching, and justice. Building on Lejano, Ingram, and Ingram’s (2013) and Stone’s (2012) conceptualizations, in this chapter, I use the idea of “narrative stories” to analyze how the frames that were deployed at each of the two campuses made sense in connection to one another as well as how the differences between these programs can be understood.

Stone (2012) suggests that the “stories of power” that are implicit in policy discourses can often be understood in either of two opposite directions—as stories of control or as stories of helplessness. In this chapter, I make the case that a story of control about local policy intended to reform teacher preparation was prevalent at the Central Campus, while a story of helplessness was predominant at the Branch Campus. Each of these is elaborated in some detail below. However, in short, the “story of control” at the

Central Campus went something like this: 1) National University is a leading university, the Central Campus faculty were important actors within the university who influenced national policies and were connected with leading international scholars; 2) based on international research, Central Campus faculty were familiar with the notion of high leverage practices in teacher preparation in the U.S. and other places; 3) to solve the problem of teacher education as they had constructed it (that is, as disarticulation among courses and an overly-theoretical emphasis across the program), Central Campus faculty made the decision to implement high leverage practices as a core focus of their program; 4) as a result, faculty and student teachers shared in and were aligned with this approach to teaching and teacher preparation and successfully implemented a practice-based teacher education curriculum. In this story, university faculty at the Central Campus described themselves as in charge of the changes implemented at their teacher preparation program.

In contrast, the “story of helplessness” at the Branch Campus went like this: 1) the Branch Campus was small, their faculty were concerned about the local context in which they worked, and they had not been part of national policy decisions; 2) based on their experience and the problem of teacher education as they had constructed it (that is, disarticulation among courses and an overly-theoretical emphasis across the program), the Branch Campus faculty determined that teacher preparation should be locally contextualized, and teacher candidates should learn to teach from and in experience; 3) however, in its role as the flagship of the university system, the Central Campus imposed on the Branch Campus a curriculum disconnected from their own faculty’s vision and from their construction of how to address the problem of teacher education; 4) amid

considerable frustration, the Branch Campus faculty reluctantly implemented an imposed curriculum focused on disciplinary knowledge without buy-in among faculty, which resulted in the implementation of a disarticulated practice-based curriculum. In this story, university faculty at the Branch Campus described themselves as not in charge of changes developed in their own teacher preparation program, which were not aligned with their values and beliefs about what was needed to make teacher preparation more effective and appropriate for the local community.

At the end of this chapter, I further theorize the differences identified in the stories that unified the frames and concepts that operated at these two campuses. Moving my analysis up a layer of abstraction, I organize the key differences of the two program's stories in terms of four dimensions which may also be used by other researchers as a generative framework for examining how other teacher preparation programs make policy at the local level. These dimensions represent a general way to look and explain how the two programs came to have quite different conceptions of teaching, teacher education, and justice. The four dimensions, which are elaborated below, are: 1) participants' views of the status and role of their own campus/program and their own faculty; 2) valued conceptions of teaching knowledge; 3) level of participation in the design of national and university policies; 4) articulation and alignment among the viewpoints of university faculty members and between faculty and national policies.

The Central Campus: A Story of Control

Based on the frames I identified in Chapter 4 and on the interviews and institutional documents I analyzed, what I am suggesting here is that it is possible to identify a "story of control" about local policy intended to reform teacher preparation at

the Central Campus. The Central Campus faculty had an elevated image of their university and themselves, describing themselves as rightly in charge of university changes and as influencers of national policies⁹. Across interviews and documents the Central Campus faculty consistently stated that National University was a university of excellence and a leading institution in Chile and Latin America. In this context, they stated that they received the best students in the country, that is, students who had achieved the highest scores in the Chilean national admission tests. They also reported that they held high standards for research and teaching for their university faculty. In Central Campus institutional documents, this viewpoint was very clear:

Our university has transitioned from a teaching institution to a complex one...

This development has entailed an outstanding research activity and the development of doctoral programs in almost all areas of knowledge, situating our university among the pioneers in Chile and in Latin America. Concomitantly... at the national level [our institution] leads in attracting the best undergraduate and post graduates students, and a significant percentage of competitive research funds. Our university is considered one of the best universities in the world, occupying as well an important place among Latin American universities...

Within the country, the National University continues to hold a preeminent place in all areas of an university (Institutional document, Central Campus, university development plan 2010-2015, p. 4-5)^{lvi}.

⁹ It is important to mention that despite the fact that both the Central and Branch Campuses belonged to the National University, in general the Central Campus faculty did not refer to the Branch Campus in the interviews I conducted with them except when I directly asked them about it. Usually they referred to the National University, meaning their own Central Campus.

As this excerpt suggests, the Central Campus faculty had an elevated image of themselves, their university, and their students. Like many other research intensive universities internationally, one of the most common symbols of excellence for Central Campus university faculty was the production of research. In fact, in the interviews I conducted, the admirable research trajectories of university faculty members in the areas that they taught were often mentioned. For example, when one of the teacher educators who taught in the “Teaching in Socially Disadvantaged Contexts” certificate was asked how professors were selected to be part of this new certificate, she mentioned as the main factor the professors’ years of research experience in their field. Similarly, when the teacher educator in the diversity and equity course was asked why she decided to teach that course, her response was that her research in the area made her the most qualified person to teach this course. Central Campus faculty members not only had long experience doing research, but they had also obtained a high number of competitive research grants. Faculty saw themselves as leaders in their respective research fields at the national level.

The Central Campus faculty’s research leadership in the country was also demonstrated by their influence and participation in the national policy decisions. Specifically, they participated in the discussions and design of national policies related to teacher education. For example, two participants who held administrative positions and two teacher educators had worked on the creation of the national standards for student teachers, which are analyzed in the next chapter. They participated as experts, creating standards for some of the main elementary-level disciplines including language arts, math, science, or social science. Central Campus faculty not only participated

individually in the construction of standards, but they were also part of one of the research centers in charge of the coordination and design of the standards. It is clear from these and other examples of leadership that the National University and its faculty at the Central Campus were influencers of and active participants in the creation of national policies related to teacher education that were in place in Chile. This quotation by the Central Campus new dean reflects the faculty's active participation in policy:

Indeed, our professors are participating in these public policy decisions and public policy instruments and in fact I participated in these developments that is why I am going to speak from a close perspective since I was connected to the standards for elementary teachers' preparation in language (Interview 16, new dean, Central Campus)^{lvii}.

Despite the Central Campus faculty's participation in the creation of national policies, the faculty did not totally agree with every aspect of these policies, nor did these policies fully govern the practices and emphases of the Central Campus teacher preparation program. Rather the Central Campus faculty perceived the Ministry of Education's policies as guidelines with which the programs should be aligned. However, according to the participants, the Central Campus did more than what was suggested by national policies. Ministry of Education policies, especially standards for student teachers, were considered by the Central Campus faculty as minimum preparation, while their program offered more than this to their student teachers. As the department chair at the Central Campus mentioned:

The standards....order what a society expects regarding teachers' preparation at the disciplinary and pedagogical levels, right? I have always considered that this

is a minimum not a maximum...one would expect that this is just the basic foundation, let's start the conversation from this premise, and we have aligned with the standards following this logic, in such a way that this is a foundation that allow us to dialogue with and that our students can also compare them or have a basis of preparation that allows them to tell society that 'yes, they have the requirements and they are aligned with what Chile needs in curricular terms". But we want more so it is not just the standards what we considered but also other models (Interview 12, department chair, Central Campus)^{lviii}.

The active participation of the Central Campus faculty in national policies coupled with their elevated image of their university and their faculty—as leaders at the national and regional levels—helps explain why they did not feel forced to completely align their teacher preparation program with the Ministry of Education's requirements. The image of the university and their faculty could also explain why they perceived the national standards for student teachers as a minimum requirement. They saw themselves as operating at a higher level than the average teacher preparation program in Chile, and, as the quotation above shows, they also had other alternative models besides the model stipulated by the Ministry of Education that guided their teacher preparation program.

These alternative models came from international scholars and universities. The Central Campus faculty often mentioned in interviews and documents that they were well connected with leading international scholars and institutions and that they were up to date in terms of current discussions and developments in the field of teacher education. As it was mentioned in the institutional documents: "The continuous improvement of professors' education, for example, has generated close relationships with foreign

universities, which has incorporated this university to the sphere of the leading Latin American universities, due to its academic quality and its contribution to knowledge” (Institutional document, Central Campus, International connections, p. 1)^{lix}. This connection and collaboration with international scholars was especially important when the Central Campus faculty discussed the curricular changes implemented in their program.

As a result of the exchange of information with leading universities in teacher education, Central Campus faculty had determined that the most effective way to prepare student teachers was using the concept of “high leverage practices,” developed primarily by Deborah Ball and her colleagues at the University of Michigan (Ball & Forzani, 2009; 2011). Here the main characters in the Central Campus “story of control”—the Central Campus faculty members—connected themselves to other international scholars and leaders of teacher education, who also became characters in the story. This connection allowed the main characters to address the main conflict in the story (overly-theoretical and disarticulated teacher education approach) and also led to resolution of the conflict (new and improved teacher education based on a coherent approach to curriculum, instruction and assessment that was practice-based). As I explained in my previous chapter, Central Campus faculty believed that the problem of their previous approach to teacher preparation was that it had been overly theoretical. This belief was reinforced in their exchanges with leading scholars and institutions in the field. The Central Campus faculty had concluded that Deborah Ball and her colleagues at the University of Michigan were developing and implementing a model of practice-based teacher preparation founded on research and geared towards teacher effectiveness. The Central Campus

faculty agreed with international scholars such as Ball who argued that teacher preparation should be based on shared knowledge regarding the practical skills required to teach, as this key quotation from Ball and Forzani (2011) makes clear:

Educators must establish a common core of fundamental professional knowledge and skill that can be taught to aspiring teachers, across all types of programs and pathways. This common content should include knowledge and skills on which novices can be assessed reliably in order to make decisions about their readiness for independent practice and for advancement (p.19).

As I explained in Chapter 4, the Central Campus faculty not only shared this vision of teacher education, but they also shared the idea that the practical skills should be based on accumulated evidence about teaching effectiveness. Similarly, Ball and Forzani (2009) argue that teaching should be based on scientific investigation: “Intuition and everyday experience are poor guides for the specialized work and judgment entailed by teaching” (p.500). Consistent with this argument, the Central Campus faculty implemented a practice-based teacher preparation model based on research, which allowed them to incorporate “scientific” knowledge about teacher preparation practices. The following quotation by a teacher educator at the Central Campus illustrates this connection:

Since we began to think about how to improve the initial teacher preparation, especially [name] who works in the practicum system, she began to look at international experiences that were effective in teacher preparation, and then she got to the topic of the high leverage practices, especially the proposal developed by the school of education of Michigan, of University of Michigan, and there it is, there is a group specially Deborah Ball's and Forzani's group who have worked on

these high leverage practices or core practices (Interview 11, language methods teacher educator, Central Campus)^{lx}.

This idea of placing research at the center of teacher preparation program decisions is similar to the idea of “knowledge for practice,” which is one of three relationships between knowledge and practice suggested by Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999). They suggest that with this knowledge-practice relationship, “It is assumed that university based researchers generate what is commonly referred to as formal knowledge and theory (including codifications of the so-called wisdom of practice) for teachers to use in order to improve practice” (p. 250). This assumption is similar to the operating assumptions I found at the Central Campus, where it was presumed that competent teachers were teachers who knew and applied the findings of current research about effective practice, which were generally produced outside the classroom by university researchers. Cochran-Smith and Lytle suggest that this conception of knowledge-practice relationships implies that research-based knowledge for teaching can be more or less directly applied by teachers across diverse contexts. This was the conception of knowledge-practice relationships that was implicit in the viewpoints of Central Campus faculty regarding high leverage practices. They assumed that high-leverage practices identified by researchers as effective could be applied across cultures, countries, and languages.

Based on these positions that teacher preparation should be both practice-based and research-based, Central Campus faculty decided to implement a curricular change in their program, which would be supported by funds from a grants program offered by the Ministry of Education. This project included the redesign of Central Campus methods, practicum, and content knowledge courses (Institutional document, Central Campus,

institutional improvement plan) based on the ideas of high leverage practices as developed by Deborah Ball and colleagues (Ball & Forzani, 2009, 2011) and pedagogical content knowledge as developed by Lee Shulman (1987) and colleagues. Even though not all Central Campus faculty directly participated in the creation or implementation of this project, they all participated in periodic meetings during which they received information about the progress of the project (Institutional document, Central Campus, MOE grant informative report September 2014-March 2015). In addition, the university faculty directly involved in the redesign of the courses held regular work meetings to discuss issues related to the project.

All the people I interviewed at the Central Campus knew about the project funded by the Ministry of Education and mentioned that a special team had worked systematically around this project. Even though there were some disagreements about the focus of the project, for example, the decision to redesign disciplinary and methods courses over other courses, none of Central Campus faculty I interviewed referred to this project as something that should not be implemented, and none understood this project as something that was imposed on them. In fact, most of the Central Campus faculty praised the project. They often asserted that the incorporation of high leverage practices into their program gave them a clear and shared vision of teaching and teacher education. As I discussed in Chapter 4, the diagnostic frame of the Central Campus faculty about the problems of their previous teacher education program focused on disarticulation among courses and a lack of common language to talk about teacher education. In contrast, making high leverage practices the centerpiece of their program allowed the Central Program faculty to have a shared language to talk about teacher education and teaching.

The 18 high leverage practices guided the practices of teacher educators and the learning of student teachers. As the following quotation illustrates; these high leverage practices were shared and known by the Central Campus faculty and by student teachers alike:

So, there is a component that is basic and shared regarding dialogue in the classroom, the way of working in the classroom, the 18 high leverage practices with which we work are numbered and our students say ‘of that is HLP four’, is like high leverage practice four, and everybody knows what we are talking about, there is a shared language...this Ministry of Education grant has helped us to work together redesigning everything in the line that I am telling you about, it allowed for a more comprehensive gaze and the development of a shared language (Interview 16, new dean, Central Program)^{lxi}.

This alignment among teacher educators in terms of their understanding of teacher education as a practice-based enterprise focused on high leverage practices also affected the collaborative work among teacher educators. The Central Campus faculty involved in changes to the methods, practicum, and disciplinary courses worked together redesigning their courses, which is mentioned in the institutional documents that registered the changes (Institutional document, Central Campus, Progress in MOE grant June 2015). These regular work meetings of the university faculty were also mentioned in the interviews. This allowed for articulation across the program courses and the achievement of a common objective, which is reflected in the following quotation from the language methods teacher educator:

I think that one of the changes is mainly our interactions as academics...I remember that I was given the course syllabus, I developed my classes and at the

end I gave a grade to the students but never had interactions with other academics that were preparing student teachers not even with those in the area of language and much less with others in different content areas, not even with the chair of the program, you see? Today, our conversations are more complex because preparing educators is difficult but exciting... so I found to be very important that one listens that the professor of one course wants to know what is going on in other classes, and they want to know teachers' demands, and they want to know what [student teachers] need when they go to the practicum, that the chair of the program is looking that the admission profile is met and that students are not overloaded, so these are signs that things are changing...we are much more connected with what future educators need to do (Interview 11, language methods teacher educator, Central Campus)^{lxii}.

Despite the fact that not all participants perceived this process of articulation as something that had been fully accomplished, most of them agreed that university faculty had a shared understanding of teaching and teacher education and tried to develop activities and evaluations guided by the ideas of high leverage practices. The idea of articulation across courses and having a shared language to talk about teacher education was aligned with Ball and Forzani's (2009) idea that teacher educators should have a common understanding of what teaching practice and teacher education entail.

In summary, there was "story of control" implicit in the interviews, materials, and documents at the Central Campus program that unified the multiple frames and concepts that guided the ways policy was made at the local level. The Central Campus faculty had an elevated image of themselves and their participation regarding current changes at the

university and national levels. They perceived themselves as advanced researchers working at a university of excellence, who were in charge of the changes in their own teacher preparation program and who had already played a major role in shaping national policies. They also mentioned in interviews that they had higher requirements for student teachers than the requirements national policies proposed. Interviews suggested that the faculty were proud of the fact that they had the social networks and capacities to implement the same model of teacher education used by leading universities from other countries. It is important to emphasize that the implementation of a model from another country was not perceived as an imposition by the Central Campus faculty, but rather as a faculty decision they had made—as the main characters in their own story—based on research and developed in collaboration with international leading scholars. The Central Campus faculty consistently described themselves as empowered and active actors. The decision to implement high leverage practices as developed by researchers in another country was also aligned with their conceptions of teacher preparation and teaching knowledge, which included the idea that best practices could be identified through external research and then applied across local contexts. Due to the fact that high leverage practices were conceptualized as effective practices, which would lead to learning for each student, despite background, context, and culture, it is not surprising that issues of justice emphasizing the recognition of the cultural backgrounds of students were not central in the predominant narrative at the Central Campus program.

The Branch Campus: A Story of Helplessness

In contrast to the “story of control” that animated the discourse at the Central Campus, the prominent story implicit in the discourse of interviews, documents, and

materials at the Branch Campus was a “story of helplessness” about local policy intended to reform teacher preparation. In the story of helplessness that pervaded the discourse at the Branch Campus, the main “characters” and their work were described very differently from the descriptions at the Central Campus. Similar to the Central Campus faculty, the Branch campus faculty highlighted the prestige and standards of excellence held by the National University. In fact, the university’s prestige and excellence were one of the main aspects considered by the Branch Campus faculty before applying for and accepting their positions within the university system. However, the Branch Campus faculty described their decisions to work at the Branch Campus not in terms of the university’s overall excellence and prestige, but more in relation to quality of life in the South of Chile or to family reasons, such as a partner who obtained a job in the area. In way that was very different from the image of faculty members at the Central Campus, the Branch Campus was perceived by its faculty as a small campus committed to local development as well as student teachers’ needs, diversity, and inclusion.

Most institutional documents emphasized the contribution of the Branch Campus to local development; however, as I explained in Chapter 4, this claim was stated very generally while the connection between these aspects and the teacher preparation program remained unclear. In the interviews, most faculty members emphasized that one of the characteristics of the campus was the commitment to diversity, inclusion, and the culture of the indigenous communities that lived close to the campus. As explained in Chapter 4, the Branch Campus faculty’s commitment to inclusion was translated into recruitment practices, admission decisions, and acceptance of students by alternative admissions process, which placed less weight on student teachers’ scores on the national

admission test. Additionally, the Branch Campus faculty's commitment to diversity and the culture of indigenous populations was translated into specific courses in the curriculum, which focused on these topics. However, it is important to note that these aspects were not necessarily present across the curriculum. The quotation below by the language methods teacher educator illustrates this approach for including diversity and indigenous culture in the curriculum:

It is not a hallmark across the program, but there are courses that provide support, I believe that they are not enough of course, because I believe that this kind of things have to be worked across the program, but there is, as I told you, a course for inclusion, interculturality and diversity, [the student teachers] have a course on indigenous language, they do not graduate speaking an indigenous language of course, but they have at least the basic knowledge of an indigenous language (Interview 7, language methods teacher educator, Branch Campus)^{lxiii}.

On the other hand, the faculty's commitment to their student teachers' needs was explicitly and consistently mentioned across interviews. This commitment took the shape of additional supports for student teachers who needed it. This commitment was also conveyed in the close relationship established between the Branch Campus faculty and their student teachers. This type of relationship was perceived as one of the components of a comprehensive education, which not only focused on teaching a specific content, but also on educating the whole person including student teachers' professional behavior. The quotation below explains that this close relationship between faculty members and student teachers at the Branch Campus was also possible because of the small size of the campus:

I believe that we help to educate, because we have a very big closeness with students, then in addition to teaching them the contents that they have to know,... we try to teach her or him how to face a school,... how to behave, from that he or she has to greet others when they come into, he or she has to dress properly and he or she has to be responsible for what he or she does...I believe that our hallmark is educating person-to-person due to the small size of the place. We have in average like 150 students entering and rotating, and rotating and at the end we have more or less a transient population of 200 students, hence we are as a school (Interview 2, clinical faculty 1, Branch Campus)^{lxiv}.

As the same faculty mentioned, this close relationship with student teachers was a hallmark of the Branch Campus program, which differentiated this from other programs in the country: “I studied at a big university,... I was a number..., the professor knew me while he taught the course and after that he had no idea of who I was. In contrast, this does not happen here” (interview 2, clinical faculty 1, Branch Campus)^{lxv}. Additionally, the university faculty often mentioned they were concerned with the comprehensive education of their student teachers. They were also involved in aspects of student teachers’ life beyond academic aspects, such as their health and family relationships. This could be related to the fact that some of the Branch Campus faculty also were in charge of the low-cost residences offered by the program to student teachers, which implied that these faculty were informed about their students’ life outside the campus. This close relationship could be also related to the small size of the program and the characteristics of the city where the program was located. As one of the faculty member stated, this

concern for student teachers beyond academic aspects was a hallmark of the program, which was not written or mandated but was part of the culture of the program.

I noticed that professors here, maybe it is not because the program, but because the conditions that we experience here, we, the professors are very close to the students, students are close to us, so there is almost no need that it is in the program...the conditions are that we are close all days and we see each other.

Imagine it rains, some years it rains a lot, the cold, where do the kids spend most time? they are in the residencies or they are here. There is nothing else, then, when they are here, who do they want to talk with? Among them or with the professors, then, one starts to know not only the person, but the student, his or her family, where they come from, the girlfriend that they have,... one knows the name of the kids, even one knows their parents many times... Then this sense is unique here (Interview 4, clinical faculty 2, Branch Campus)^{lxvi}.

Regarding the image that faculty members had of themselves, the Branch campus faculty did not see themselves as leading researchers in the field as the Central Campus faculty did. The Branch Campus faculty also had not participated in the design of national policies as the faculty members at the Central Campus. In fact, some of the Branch Campus faculty questioned whether the standards for student teachers were overly ambitious in terms of the disciplinary content required. These standards were perceived by Branch Campus faculty as the expression of a maximum goal, which was impossible to achieve in their program. As the department chair mentioned:

I believe that the standards, the standard is very hyper high,...so, that is the discussion that we have had, well here we need to make a decision, we have 16

weeks, multiply that for the 3 course units, take out the vacations of something, the vacations of something, the day off of something, so you have fewer weeks and the student have to graduate with the basic skills and knowledge for what she or he will teach..., but we will not achieve this [the standards] and that we have it very clear (Interview 3, department chair, Branch Campus)^{lxvii}.

Moreover, most of the Branch Campus faculty did not share the logic and emphasis of the national policies related to teacher education and K-12 education. The Branch Campus faculty did not share the emphasis of the standards and the national test for student teachers. As the quotation below illustrates, most of the faculty questioned the emphasis on standardization and argued that a more comprehensive conception of education should rule the teacher preparation programs and schools of the country.

We have the impression, some professors of the campus, that education in schools in Chile is very focused,...very oriented towards the achievement of the indicators suggested by standardized test, such as SIMCE [K-12 national standardized test], PSU [national university admission test], INICIA [national exit test for student teachers] what do I know?, and what this has done is that it has generated a sort of obsession for achieving important/high results there, ...and the quality of education has been fundamentally understood as achieving good scores in that tests. We believe this is terrible... a change that is needed to be generated is expressing the idea that the education of kids cannot nor must be limited to these areas, I mean, we cannot forget about the education in values, we cannot forget about the preoccupation for others, the learning of oneself, the development of the possibility of enjoy the life, of the relationship with others, of the nature, of the

enjoyment, pleasure, of recognize the cultural values that there are where live
(Interview 6, academic chair, Branch Campus)^{lxviii}.

In contrast to the Central Campus faculty, the Branch Campus faculty primarily perceived themselves as concerned with their community and with their student teachers rather than perceiving themselves as national and international research leaders as did the Central Campus faculty. The Branch Campus faculty highlighted how they were locally connected instead of emphasizing that they were nationally and internationally connected. This Branch Campus faculty's emphasis on context had to do with the knowledge valued by them. Different from the discourse and decisions of the Ministry of Education, the Branch Campus faculty believed that teaching knowledge could not be completely standardized and that teacher education quality should not be reduced to a score on a test. Therefore, even though the Branch Campus faculty acknowledged that the Central Campus faculty participated in the design of the national policies related to teacher education, for example the national exit test for student teachers (INICIA) and the standards for student teachers, the Branch Campus faculty criticized these policies. Even though some university faculty mentioned that they partially agreed with the idea of having a consensus about teaching knowledge, the general position of faculty members at the Branch Campus was in opposition to these policies. The department chair's words illustrate the campus position:

The INICIA test was developed, it was greatly supported by the National University, so, like with the standards, part of the standards, but as campus we always have had the perspective that "yes, the INICIA test is important, but it

cannot be our SIMCE [national standardized test for K-12 students]”..., “yes, we cannot ignore it [the INICIA test], it is, but we cannot prepare our student to pass a SIMCE”... We cannot forget the things that are important too and are not measure in that this test... yes, this test exists, but there are other things too that are important” (Interview 3, department chair, branch Campus)^{lxix}.

In contrast to the assumptions underlying a national exit exam and standards for student teachers, which focused on content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge that could be measured in a paper and pencil test, the Branch Campus faculty conceptualized teaching as a practical and highly contextual activity. As I explained in Chapter 4, the Branch Campus faculty considered that the activity of teaching should be learned primarily in and from practice. Therefore, teacher education should offer the basis for student teachers to be able to learn in and from practice. This conception of knowledge is similar to what Fenstermacher (1994) defines as “practical knowledge,” in particular Clandinin’s notion of personal practical knowledge:

We see personal practical knowledge as in the person’s past experience, in the person’s present mind and body and in the person’s future plans and actions. It is knowledge that reflects the individual’s prior knowledge and acknowledges the contextual nature of that teacher’s knowledge. It is a kind of knowledge carved out of, and shaped by, situations (Clandinin 1992 in Fenstermacher 1994, p. 10).

Interestingly, none of the Branch Campus faculty referred to the international literature to support their conception of teaching and teacher education as the Central Campus did.

The Branch Campus faculty’s notion of “practical knowledge” seemed to be based on

their personal experience and beliefs instead of the literature. The idea here is that “practice is practical” and should be learned in the site of practice.

All the aspects previously described regarding the features and beliefs of the “characters,” their work site, and their conception of teaching and teacher education set the scene for the main conflict in the “story of helplessness” that was central to the discourse at the Branch Campus. The main conflict in this story was the imposition of a teacher education curriculum on the Branch Campus by the Central Campus. Despite their clear conceptions of teaching and teacher education, the Branch Campus faculty were not authorized or allowed to implement their own ideas in their program. Rather the Central Campus had defined a curriculum to be implemented at the Branch Campus which was not aligned with the Branch Campus faculty’s beliefs. Rather, the new required plan of study imposed by the Central Campus was perceived by the branch Campus faculty as directly aligned with the idea of national standards for student teachers, which they did not accept as appropriate or feasible for their students. However, this new required plan of study, which focused on content knowledge, had not been able to change the conception of teaching and teacher education of the Branch Campus faculty, at least at the time of data collection for this study. This perspective is exemplified in the quotation below by the academic chair at the Branch Campus:

The standards...are closely related to our new plan of study, which I told you about the process, which was a response, basically came from better responding to standards. Then, of course the [standards] directly affected us, because they generated a new plan of study, but in the concrete practice, our own practice, our modifications, our adjustments, in the way that we understand education, they

have not have such significant effects (Interview 6, academic chair, branch campus)^{lxx}.

The new required plan of study imposed by the Central Campus was disconnected from the Branch Campus faculty's vision of teaching and teacher education, but they were still compelled to implement it. In fact, in my interviews with them, the Branch Campus faculty often complained that had autonomy to decide only about 20% of their curriculum due to the fact that the Central Campus required that 80% of their programs be the same at both campuses in order to offer an equivalent teaching degree. The Branch Campus faculty did not agree about what to do with the 20% they felt they controlled. Some of the Branch Campus faculty also mentioned that after they were notified that they must implement a curriculum that was not decided by them, they felt frustrated and they did not want to discuss what to do with the other 20%. The curriculum imposed by the Central Campus was not consistent with the Branch Campus faculty's vision of teacher preparation. Even though the prevalent conception of teaching and teacher education of the Branch Campus faculty was a practice-based approach, they did not explicitly and collectively articulate this notion. Eventually the curriculum at the Branch Campus ended up to be a somewhat unconnected collection of courses without a shared vision that helped the courses cohere with one another. This was the result of what was imposed by Central Campus, what was required by national policies, and the decisions made by each faculty in her or his classroom. Each Branch Campus faculty member tried to include some aspects that they considered relevant in this imposed curriculum. The quotation below by the diversity and equity teacher educator illustrates this point:

We have a way to educate teachers that, similar to many other universities in Chile and the world, makes no sense, it is a Frankenstein, a result of the natural selection which does not have a knowledge base, which does not respond to a clear graduation outcome, which has, which is a kind of negotiation among the expectation of each of the professors, the academic chair, the demands of the public policies, the birth of the INICIA test, etc., etc., the values of the institution, the church,... what survives to these things, remain this Frankenstein, who in this moment is very ugly (Interview 1, diversity and equity teacher educator, Branch Campus)^{lxxi}.

In summary, the Branch Campus approach to making policy related to teacher preparation was by and large a “story of helplessness.” Faculty did not have an image of themselves as leading researchers as did the Central Campus faculty. Instead, the Branch Campus faculty viewed themselves as members of a small campus with a close relationship with their students. The Branch Campus faculty did not participate in the design of national policies, and they did not agree with the emphases of these policies. They thought that national policies focused too much on content knowledge and standardized testing. In contrast, the Branch Campus faculty considered teaching as a more or less practical activity and considered that teacher education should not focus content knowledge but on the development of skills for learning from and in practice. However, their position has not been listened to by the Ministry of education or the Central Campus. Different from the “story of control” clearly identified at the Central Campus, where the faculty were in charge of the design of national policies and curricular decisions at the campus, the Branch Campus faculty were not in charge of

changes. The Central Campus members made decisions about the teaching education curriculum implemented at the Branch campus. The Branch Campus faculty regarded their curriculum as imposed considering that their position or conception of teaching and teacher education was not valued. In fact, their curriculum was highly influenced by national standards for student teachers as well as the Central Campus decisions. In practice, each faculty member at the Branch Campus taught his or her course tried to add their perspective to their course curriculum in the limited space for flexibility allowed by the Central Campus. Despite the disarticulation among Branch Campus faculty, they agreed on teacher education needing to be practice-based and they conceptualized teaching as similar to the conception of “practical knowledge”, which highlights the contextual and local aspects of teaching knowledge and practice.

Dimensions across the Stories of Power

The “story of control” that pervaded the discourse about teacher preparation policy at the Central campus and the “story of helplessness” identified at the Branch Campus were clearly very different “stories of power” (Stone, 2012). These differences between two programs are very interesting due to the fact that the two programs belonged to the same university. A way to capture and make sense of the differences between these two programs in a more generic way is identifying dimensions across their stories of control and helplessness. These dimensions could be used by other researchers in other countries to analyze local level policy in teacher education in the context of accountability. These dimensions could be used in a generative way in order to capture how teacher preparation programs make policy at the local level.

As noted at the beginning of this chapter, these dimensions are: 1) Participants' views of themselves and their institutions; 2) Conception of teaching knowledge valued; 3) Participation in national and university policies; 4) Articulation and alignment among university faculty and with national policies. As it is shown in Figure 7, if we placed these programs on a continuum according to these four dimensions, they would be located at very different points. For example, for the first dimension of participation, the Central Campus would be located at a point of high participation in university and national policies while the Branch Campus would be located at a point of low participation.

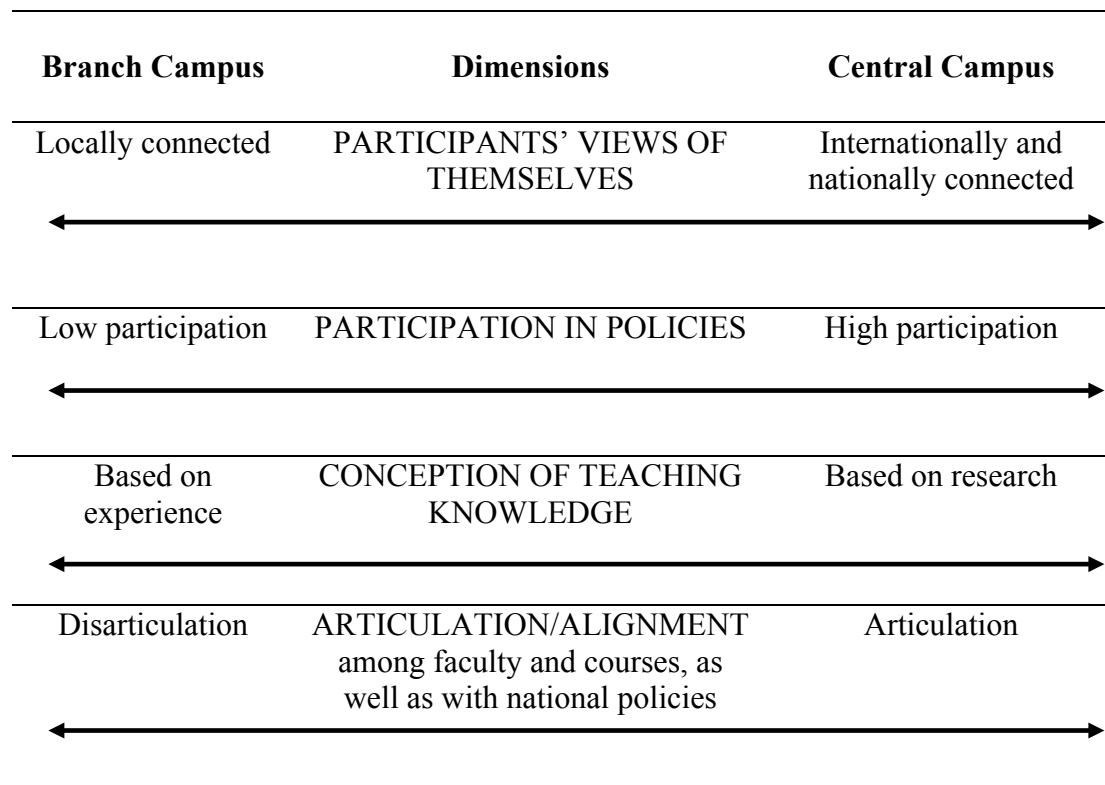


Figure 7. Dimensions that Shape Programs' Conceptions

Using the dimensions expressed in Figure 7, we can state that the Central Campus faculty envisioned themselves as international and national leaders, who had connections

with the Ministry of Education and with leading international scholars. The Central Campus faculty also actively participated in the design of national policies related to teacher education. However, the Central Campus believed that they could and should offer to their student teachers more than what it was required by the national policies; they could offer for instance a program similar to the programs offered on leading universities in other countries. They offered a practice-based teacher education based on the accumulated research about the field. This decision allowed them to have a shared vision and language about teaching and teacher education, which resulted into an articulated program.

In contrast, the Branch Campus faculty perceived themselves as a small campus highly connected with the local context, but not with the national level of policy making or the international research context. They did not participate in the design of policy and they disagreed with the emphasis on content knowledge and standardization presented in the national policies. They believed that teacher preparation should be practice-based, meaning that preparation was based on practical knowledge, which each teacher accumulated in and from his or her experience. However, they did not have control about the curricular decisions in their program. The Central Campus decided the Branch Campus' curriculum would be influenced by an emphasis on national policies. Each faculty member at the Branch Campus adjusted this imposed curriculum to their teaching perspective without having a shared language to talk about teaching and teacher education or an articulation among their courses.

In this way, the different and almost opposite descriptions provided by participants regarding their faculty and campus, the level of participation in university and national

policies, the conceptions of teaching knowledge and the articulation and alignment in the program, could explain the differences identified at the Central and Branch campuses in terms of their conceptions of teaching, teacher education, and justice. In this way, these two programs interacted with each other while enacting national and university policies in different ways based on these four dimensions.

Furthermore, these dimensions could be useful beyond the analysis of the two teacher preparation programs analyzed in this dissertation. These dimensions could be relevant to explore how teacher preparation programs make policy at the local level in the contexts of reform or change. For example, these dimensions could be used as entry points for exploring how teacher preparation programs in developing countries make policy, considering their perception of themselves, participation in national policies, and appraisal of and connections with international scholars. These dimensions could also be useful exploring teacher preparation programs' enactment of state mandated initiatives in the U.S., such as edTPA, an evaluation for student teachers increasingly used across states in this country. The dimensions described above could be especially useful in exploring for instance, how teacher preparation programs that differ in their participation in the development of edTPA's evaluation tools and process, as well as in their conception of teaching knowledge, respond to this evaluation. Interesting cases to explore in this line of inquiry would be the responses to edTPA by the teacher preparation program at Stanford University, the university that led the development of this evaluation (Cochran-Smith et al., 2016), in comparison to other universities which did not participate in the design of this evaluation and have held different conceptions of teaching knowledge.

The dimensions identified in this dissertation could also be useful to explore how teacher preparation programs respond to the new U.S. Department of Education regulation for teacher education, which proposes a new federal mandated and state implemented accountability system for teacher preparation programs (Teacher Preparation Issues, 2014). Based on the dimensions identified in this study, it would be interesting to analyze the responses of university faculty in teacher preparation programs based on the university faculty's views of themselves and their alignment with the assumptions and evaluation tools proposed in the new federal accountability regulations. For example, it would be interesting to explore how university faculty respond to these new regulations in states that already implemented accountability systems similar to the new federal regulations (based on teacher preparation outcomes), such as Tennessee and Louisiana. Additionally, it would be interesting to explore how teacher preparation programs respond to this regulation in states where teacher preparation accountability systems emphasize inputs. These are just some examples of situations in which the dimensions identified in Figure 7 could be especially useful.

CHAPTER 6. Similarities and Differences between National, Local, and International Policy Frames

In Chapters 4 and 5, I analyzed the predominant frames and narrative stories related to teacher education deployed on local teacher preparation policies at the Central and Branch University campuses. I emphasized that the conceptions of teacher education and teaching at both the Central and Branch campuses were based on a practice-based approach which was understood very differently by university faculty from the two campuses, as a transferable product or as a craft, respectively. Additionally, I stated that the implicit conception of justice at both campuses was related to the paradigm of distributive justice, focusing on providing support to student to gain access to, and fulfill university requirements. I also argued that the differences between the two teacher preparation programs were based on their “stories of power,” which focused on a “story of control” over their decisions for the university faculty at the Central Campus and a “story of helplessness” regarding curricular decisions for the faculty at the program at the Branch Campus.

Similar to the analysis of teacher education programs’ frames and narratives that I presented in Chapter 4 and 5, I use frame analysis in this chapter in order to examine national level policy discourses. Analyses of the policy frames and narratives have been carried out by previous scholars who work from a critical perspective to deconstruct policy, as I explained in Chapter 2. Critical policy analysis assumes that policy problems and solutions are not “discovered” or “identified” by policy makers but rather are constructed in policy documents (Bacchi, 2000; Edelman, 1998; Stone, 2012). This means that analysis of policy documents can reveal underlying motivations, interests, and

conceptions instead of simply identifying responses to existing problems. In this chapter, I use frame analysis to examine problems and solutions proposed by policy makers at the national level related to teacher education in Chile in order to identify policy makers' conceptions of teaching, teacher education, and justice.

This chapter analyzes the major frames used in 23 national policy documents, published between the years 2006 and 2014 that have to do with teacher education in Chile. As I described in Chapter 3, for this analysis I divided the national policy documents into five categories: Committees' reports, dissemination and explanatory documents, normative documents, president's messages, and congressional meeting reports. Table 5 in Chapter 3 includes the full list of the documents. As I noted, these documents were primarily drafted by people who worked for the Chilean Ministry of Education or represented the official vision of the Ministry of Education members.

In this chapter, I argue that the frames related to teacher education, teaching, and justice implicit in national policies did not determine how teacher preparation programs framed teaching, teacher preparation, and justice in Chile. I show that national policy documents emphasized a disciplinary-based approach to teacher preparation. In contrast, as I showed in Chapter 4, despite their differences, the teacher preparation programs at the Central and Branch campuses of the National University focused on a practice-based teacher preparation. National policy documents framed "the problem" of teacher education (i.e., the diagnostic frame) as a problem of teacher quality and particularly one of low-quality in teacher preparation programs, defined as the lack of preparation of student teachers in disciplinary knowledge. My critical examination of the national policy documents revealed that they constructed "the solution" to this problem (that is, the

prognostic frame) as the creation of standards, the implementation of a national exit test for teacher education students, and economic incentives (scholarships) for student teachers who achieved high scores in the national university admission test. All these strategies highlighted the importance of disciplinary knowledge for teachers. The standards and exit test gave considerably more weight to disciplinary knowledge over other types of knowledge that teachers need to have. In addition, economic incentives were provided to student teachers who achieved high scores on the national university admission test, which measured the mastery of disciplinary knowledge in language arts, mathematics, social sciences, and sciences.

The diagnostic and prognostic frames presented in the national policies, which conveyed the problem of teacher education and its solution as constructed by the Ministry of Education, were similar to those found in the discourse about *teacher quality and teacher education* in the context of the U.S. (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2011b). In the discourses identified in educational policies in the U.S., teachers were framed as the main determinant of students' learning, and it was assumed that improving teacher quality required strong professional preparation and certification before teachers could be ready to begin teaching.

Despite differences in conceptions of teaching and teacher preparation implicit in Chile's national policies and in statements made by university faculty at the Central and Branch Campus of the National University, conceptions of justice were similar at the national and local levels. The predominant discourse about justice in Chile's national policies documents was aligned with a distributive notion of justice (Fraser & Honneth, 2003; Young, 1990), focusing on providing better access for students to the current

educational system. Despite national policies and the discourses presented at the Branch and Central campuses sharing this notion of justice, there were some important differences between the target groups they had in mind and the strategies deployed at the national and local levels. The national policy documents focused on reducing the achievement gap between high and low-income K-12 students by providing access to good teachers, whereas faculties at the Branch and Central University campuses focused on providing access to support for student teachers in order to fulfill university requirements.

In this chapter, I also suggest that the prominent “narrative story” (Stone, 2012) used across the national policy documents in Chile was different from those often used in developed and developing countries. Stone suggests that “narrative stories” are implicit in policy discourses. They usually follow the structure of a classical narrative plot while giving coherence to the frames deployed in the policies (Lejano et al., 2013; Stone, 2012). Stone argues that the most common narrative stories used to promote policy are stories related to change and power. “Stories of change” usually are expressed in one of two opposite directions as “stories of decline” or “stories of rising.” “Stories of decline,” which usually include description of a crisis and a proposal for avoiding negative outcomes, have often fueled education reform in developed countries like the U.S (Stone, 2012). According to Stone, “What gives the decline story dramatic tension is the assumption, sometimes stated and sometime implicit, that things were once better than they are now, and that the change for the worse causes or will soon cause suffering” (p.160). This version of the story of change, a “story of decline,” is very compelling, and is often used to promote reforms by policy makers in developed countries. “Stories of

rising,” on the other hand, are usually used in developing countries; these are inspirational stories where the progress of the country is highlighted and celebrated (Stone, 2012).

Different from the narratives of decline or crisis identified previously by other scholars, the “story of change” used to promote the creation and implementation of Chilean teacher education national policies was based on what I call a “story of development.” Somewhat like a “story of rising,” this development narrative recognized previous educational policy achievements, but it was not simply celebratory and positive. At the same time that it lauded policy achievements, the story of development also recognized many current national challenges. The story of development was combined with a “story of power.” As noted, Stone (2012) suggests that “stories of power” are usually expressed as stories of control or helplessness. The former revolve around a narrative in which characters have influence over their problems and are actually able to change their conditions. In the national policy documents I analyzed, the story of control was clear. It was assumed that Chile was in a developmental stage at which it was possible to make profound educational changes. In addition, it was stated that there was evidence from research and the example of successful educational systems about what was needed to change in order to improve students’ achievement. According to the Chilean national policy documents, the most important change that was needed was a change in the quality of teachers, which could be accomplished by influencing who was attracted to and selected for teacher education programs, proposing guidelines for the curriculum of teacher preparation programs, and measuring the quality of student teachers before they start their professional careers.

In this chapter, I construct the two arguments regarding the similarities and differences between the policy frames and “narrative stories” implicit in Chile’s national documents regarding teacher education, on one hand, and the frames and stories implicit in the discourse of the two local teacher preparation programs I studied, on the other hand. To do so, this chapter addresses the following research questions: 1) How are teaching, learning, and justice framed in national teacher preparation policy documents in Chile? 2) How are the frames in the national teacher preparation policy documents related to the frames used by university faculty in two university-based teacher preparation programs? In order to answer these questions, I focused on how current national teacher preparation policies in Chile frame teaching goals, knowledge, and skills. I also considered how the current policies framed teacher preparation program’s curriculum, pedagogy, outcomes, selection, recruitment, and partnerships. Additionally, I examined the explicit or implicit definitions of justice in the current national teacher education policies in Chile. At the end of this chapter, I concentrate explicitly on the “narrative stories” I identified across these national policy documents. Making these “narrative stories” explicit shows how the conceptions of teacher education, teaching, and justice cohere and make sense together in Chile’s national policy documents.

The Problem of Education and Teacher Education

As I have shown in the previous chapters, university faculty at the Central and Branch campuses of National University constructed the problem of teacher education as an overly-theoretical approach to preparation and as disarticulation among courses and faculty. In contrast, in the national policy documents, the Ministry of Education constructed the problem of the overall education system in Chile as a problem of justice,

especially the achievement gap between high and low income K-12 students coupled with the low quality of teachers, while the problem of teacher education in particular was defined as the inability of preparation programs to attract and select strong students and to offer a high quality curriculum. These problems identified in documents produced by the Ministry of Education were connected to the perceived overall low quality of Chilean teachers and the rising achievement gap among high and low-income students.

The construction of the problem of the Chilean educational system as a problem of inequity in student achievement was frequent in the committee's reports written between 2006 and 2010. It was also present in some of the dissemination documents issued between 2010 and 2011, and it later appeared in a Congressional meeting report in 2012. Inequity was understood as the gap in achievement between low and high-income students as measured by the national standardized test (SIMCE). As it was stated in one of the national policy documents, in low socioeconomic groups, only five out of 40 students learned what it was expected; in contrast, 26 out of 40 students in high socioeconomic groups met benchmarks (National policy documents, dissemination document, document 9). Also, as indicated by the excerpt below from the Expert Educational Panel, there was clear concern about the gap between the educational achievements of Chilean students and students from developed countries, as measured by international tests such as PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment).

Our country has made laudable efforts to assure a quality education for its girls, boys, and young. However, despite the undeniable progress, we cannot be satisfied. The gap [of Chile] with developed countries is considerable and the weight of the students' economic, social, and cultural background is decisive on

the results of a Chilean high school or school (National policy document, committees' report, document 1, p. 5)^{lxxii}.

The difference in student achievement between developed countries and Chile was characterized in two ways—as an issue of quality and of equity. For example, in one of the dissemination documents issued in 2010, document 5, the 2006 PISA results were presented by means of a figure that showed that Chile was behind the OECD countries' average in quality and equity of education. This was based on the assumptions that educational quality was adequately captured by student performance on the PISA test and that inequality was defined as the variance between the test performance of low-income and high-income students.

In national policy documents, the cause of the achievement gap between students from high and low socioeconomic groups on national and international evaluations was usually associated with low teacher quality. The national policy documents often mentioned that the main factor in improving student achievement was having better teachers. This argument was supported using international evidence, which showed the impact of high and low-performance teachers on students' achievements, and a few times was also supported by national evidence. For example, a quotation from 2007 McKinsey's report (Barber & Mourshed, 2008) was used in several dissemination documents which stated that: "The quality of an educational system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers" (National policy document, dissemination document, document 8, p. 42)^{lxxiii}.

Statements like this one, which connect student achievement with teacher quality, were presented across documents and over time. They were present in two committee's

reports, more than half of the dissemination documents, one normative document, and two of the congress meetings analyzed. Most of the time when this argument was made in the national policy documents, it was supported with facts and figures from a McKinsey report 2007 which focused on the impact on students' results of high and low-performance teachers (Barber & Mourshed, 2008). The charts constructed by McKinsey Company showed that after 3 years, students taught by low-performance teachers, situated at the bottom 20th percentile of performance evaluation, produced a gap of 53 percentile points in achievement between students and the achievement obtained by students taught by teachers who performed at the top 20th percentile in an evaluation (e.g. National policy documents, dissemination document, document 6). This chart was used in several dissemination documents under the title “effect of the teacher quality” (National policy documents, dissemination document, document 5):

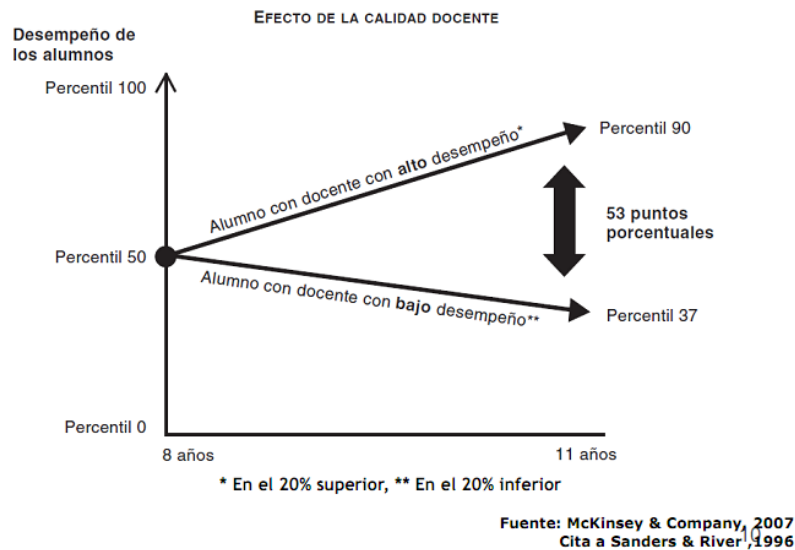


Figure 8. Effect of Teacher Quality by Ministry of Education based on McKinsey & Company's Report 2007 (Barber & Mourshed, 2008)

In addition, the 2005 OECD report “*Teachers Matter*” (OECD, 2005) was also used support the claim that the main factor influencing student achievement was teachers.

The educational policies in most of the countries around the world are conceding a growing role to teachers. The existence of important reports, such as the 2004 OECD (sic) [report] ‘Teachers Matter,’ as well as the McKinsey report (Barber and Mourshed, 2008), have stimulated a renewed interest in the role of teachers in the improvement of the educational system achievement (National policy document, dissemination document, document 4, p. 285)^{lxxiv}.

In ways that were similar to uses of evidence in statements made by university faculty at National University’s Central Campus, international evidence was used in the national policy documents as a symbolic device (Stone, 2012). As I explained in Chapter 4, Stone suggests that “a symbol is anything that stands for something else” (p.160) and that symbolic devices are used in order to support claims and persuade people. In the case of the Chilean national policy documents, international evidence was often used as a symbol not only to support a particular construction of the problem of teacher preparation, but also to signify that this construction and educational policy consistent with it were scientific and were substantiated by evidence. The argument was that scientific fact, based on both international and national evidence, showed that teachers were the key factor in influencing students’ performance validated and legitimated the problem constructed in national policy documents. Moreover, it also implicitly showed that the Ministry of Education made decisions based on the objective evidence available nationally and internationally. The use of international evidence signified that the Ministry of Education was not “ideologically” influenced in the making of policy, but

rather was acting in response to an objective diagnosis of what the key problem was in the educational system. This diagnosis—that teachers were the key problem and the key solution to the overall problem of a low quality and unequal education system—was supported by the work of international organizations, such as McKinsey and OECD which gave more credibility and objectivity to the statements made by the Ministry of Education. Additionally, international data were used to signify “objective” and “precise” estimations of teachers’ effectiveness and their effect on students’ performance even after a short time of teaching. This implied that the importance of teachers in student achievement could not only be stated but also quantified. This excerpt from the President of the country in a congressional meeting in the year 2012 exemplifies the use of international data:

A key factor to achieve a better education is teachers’ effectiveness in the teaching process. Both international and national evidence point out that this aspect helps explain to a significant degree differences in children and youth’s learning. Thus, it has been proven that an ineffective teacher can hold up a child’s learning each year even six months in comparison to students who faced appropriate teachers. At the same time, the most effective teachers can make their students’ progress in a similar period of time up to an equivalent of 1.5 academic years (National policy document, congressional meeting reports, document 18, p. 67)^{lxxv}.

As this excerpt shows, the international evidence also provided a motivation for change in that there was a sense of urgency that justified interventions that would have an impact

on teacher quality, which was the most influential variable in students' progress. It was also explicitly stated in national policy documents that one of the main causes of low-quality teachers was a low-quality teacher preparation. Therefore, to address the problem of the student achievement gap, which was associated with low-quality teachers, the problems identified by the Ministry of Education in teacher education should be also addressed.

The Ministry of Education stated in national policy documents that teacher preparation programs in Chile lacked quality due to issues pertaining to student teachers' recruitment, selection, and preparation. The national policy documents pointed out that teaching was not an attractive career for "talented" high school students who obtained high scores on the national university admission test, which was related to the low capacity of the educational system to produce high quality teachers. The implied causal relationship between strong teacher candidates and high quality teachers was supported by reference to the 2005 OECD report "*Teachers Matter*" (OECD, 2005). Additionally it was mentioned that the low interest of "talented" students in entering teaching was related to the low status of the profession as well as the lack of economic incentives, such as low teachers' salary. This construction of the general problem of teacher education as a problem of teacher recruitment of "talented" students is illustrated in the quotation below from the Expert Educational Panel's report:

We know that the best teachers are essential to the development of effective schools and the progress on student learning. However, we are aware that the traditional policies do not guarantee that the best teachers are being attracted, embraced, and retained in the teacher profession. To change this situation, we

consider that the job compensations and conditions should be adjusted in order to make more attractive the career. However, it also aims to create conditions for young people that are currently thinking on entering to other undergraduate programs being persuaded for teaching (National policy document, committees' report, document 1, p.7)^{lxxvi}.

Related to this problem, the Ministry of Education also claimed that in Chile, there had been a general increase in student enrollment in education programs coupled with a lack of selectiveness. In the national policy documents, it was shown that between 1996 and 2008 the enrollment of student teachers, especially in elementary teacher preparation programs, had radically increased using a number of graphs and tables. The message was clearly expressed using language that captured this radical increment in enrollment: "Explosive increase of enrollment. The enrollment is multiplied by 5.4 in 12 years" (National policy document, dissemination document, document 5, p.15)^{lxxvii}.

According to the Ministry of Education, while the enrollment had gone up, the selectiveness of the programs remained low. In contrast to the academic requirements for enrollment in other university programs across the country, university cut off scores on the national admission test for those entering teaching programs were very low, or there was no minimum score necessary to apply. This concern is illustrated in this quotation from the Minister of Education in a Congressional meeting report on 2014:

The 73% of the graduates from education programs in 2011 neither they did not take the [national] university admission test nor obtained less than 500 points on it. In our higher educational system, the number of graduates from educational programs has quadrupled in the last ten years. The requests to achieve that

condition are in practice nonexistent (National policy document, congressional meetings report, document 23, p. 157)^{lxxviii}.

When national policy documents referred to curricular aspects in teacher preparation programs that affected the quality of teachers, the lack of disciplinary knowledge was pointed out as the main problem. National policy documents stated that teacher preparation had failed to prepare student teachers with adequate disciplinary knowledge. This claim was supported using quantitative data, such as the performance on international tests of student teachers who graduated from teacher preparation programs. For instance, the following quotation suggests that the math knowledge of student teachers was deficient and that a change in this area was crucial for improving students' achievements:

The reality of Chile differs from what it is observed in the countries with better performance...[in] the results on the international test TEDS-M (Teacher Study in Mathematics), which evaluated the mathematical knowledge of the graduates of elementary teaching between 2006-2009,... 60% of who took the test did not achieved a minimum level of mathematical knowledge required... Without important changes in these achievements, the possibility of accomplishing an effective educational system is significantly reduced (National policy document, congressional meetings report, document 22, p. 5-6)^{lxxix}.

It is clear across the national documents that the Chilean Ministry of Education focused on problems regarding deficiencies in mastery of disciplinary knowledge by student teachers. This aspect was mentioned not only as a problem of teacher preparation outcomes, but also as a problem of teacher preparation inputs, which referred to student

teachers' capacities and qualifications before entering the programs. As I described above, national documents expressed a concern about lack of selectiveness of teacher preparation programs. In practice, the Ministry of Education defined low selectiveness in relation to low scores in student teachers' admission tests, which measured their knowledge of mathematics, language arts, social science, and science at the end of 12th grade. The Ministry of Education was concerned about the low levels of disciplinary knowledge student teachers had both before and after studying education. In contrast, at the Central and Branch University Campuses, the university faculty I interviewed emphasized that the major problem with teacher preparation programs was that they were overly-theoretical. The problem they constructed was not rooted in the lack of teacher candidates' disciplinary knowledge, but in the lack of practical knowledge student teachers had when they graduated from university programs.

In addition, the national documents were clear that the Chilean educational system was not doing what successful educational systems elsewhere do in order to address the problematic aspects identified by the Ministry of Education: selection, recruitment, and preparation of student teachers. The national policy documents not only incorporated international research in order to support the Ministry of Education's claims about what was needed to fix in the educational system and teacher education, but also international experiences were often used in the same way. Description of successful educational systems was used as a comparison model to diagnose the problems of teacher education in Chile. For example, discrepancies between selection process in teacher preparation programs in Chile and other countries were framed as part of the problem that had to be overcome. At the same time, other countries' policies and strategies were used as part of

a motivational framing; they were presented as desirable and necessary in order to improve the quality of teaching and catch up with other countries. The importance of foreign countries' examples in the construction of the problem in national policy documents is exemplified in the following quotation that captures the Minister of Education's speech during a congressional meeting:

She [the national minister of education] emphasized that in other countries to obtain these results, the 30% of the best [high school] graduates are selected to pursue the teacher career.

In this context, she pointed out that the reality of the country is far from this aspiration. In 2011, 73% of graduates from educational programs had not taken the PSU [national admission test] or had obtained less than 500 points in the test. In that sense, she said that in some higher education institutions candidates are automatically selected to study pedagogy just providing their RUT (national identification number) (National policy document, congressional meetings report, document 22, p. 8)^{lxxx}.

In summary, the discrepancy in the emphasis in the construction of the problem between the national policy documents and the university faculty at the Central and Branch University Campuses clearly illustrates the complexity of policy making. Given that the Ministry of Education is an important player in education in Chile, one might presume that these discourses would shape the discussion of teacher education problems at the local level. However, there were significant differences in constructions of the problem of teacher education and teacher quality between the national and local levels.

While national policies focused on problems related to recruitment, selectiveness, and disciplinary knowledge in teacher education, the Central and Branch University campuses faculty were concerned about aspects related to an overly-theoretical approach and disarticulation inside of the programs. In fact, instead of criticizing the lack of disciplinary knowledge, as did the national policies, the university faculty on the Central and Branch Campuses complained about the lack of practical knowledge in the curriculum. Interestingly, similar to the Central Campus faculty, national policy documents often used international research as resources and examples from foreign countries to promote their vision of problem construction and make their case. These similarities and differences between discourses at the national and local level showed that the voice of the Ministry of Education influenced but did not determine the construction of the problem at the local level.

Conceptions of Teacher Education and Teaching

In this section, I explain the conceptions of teacher education and teaching that were explicit and implicit in the national policy documents. I describe these aspects, analyzing the solutions proposed in these policies to the problem of teacher education. Throughout this section, I also point out the similarities and differences between the conception of teaching and teacher education in the national policy documents and the conceptions presented at the Central and Branch University campuses.

Conceptions of teacher education. Not surprisingly, in the same way that the problem of teacher education was constructed differently in national policy documents and by educators at the Central and Branch University campuses, the possible solutions to

problems of teacher education were also framed differently at the national and local levels. In national policy documents, the solutions to the problems constructed regarding recruitment, selectiveness, and disciplinary knowledge were associated with economic incentives, standards, and a national exit test for student teachers. All of these strategies focused on improving the disciplinary knowledge of student teachers. In contrast, at the Branch and Central campuses, the proposed solutions suggested creating teacher preparation programs that were more practice-focused. By analyzing the frames deployed in the proposed solutions to the problems of teacher education in the national policy documents, it is possible to uncover the underlying conceptions of teacher education proposed.

As part of the diagnostic frame used in national policy documents, it was often mentioned that the problem of teacher education had to do with the recruitment and selection of teacher candidates and the lack of quality of teacher preparation programs. Aligned with this construction of the problem, the solutions highlighted by the Ministry of Education included an increase in the selectiveness of teacher education programs, along with scholarships and economic incentives in the first year of teaching in order to attract talented students. The quotation below from the Expert Educational Panel's report shows the importance of providing scholarships for student teachers as a form of economic incentive to attract "talented" students:

The commitment of the country to a quality education has to be also translated in concrete steps which be an incentive with immediate effects for entering into this profession... One way to do it is to make the cost of studying 'cheaper' or make the initial investment in the more skilled students... This must be complemented

with other steps which show with clarity that it is socially valued that these young people have made the decision to work as teachers (National policy document, committees report, document 1, p. 61)^{lxxxii}.

Scholarships were seen as concrete and effective incentives to attract student teachers. At the same time, examples of the high degree of selectiveness of teacher education programs in educationally successful countries were used to support the proposed changes for Chile. According to what was stated in the national policy documents, the best educational systems worldwide selected student teachers from the top of the college-going population, and teaching was a valued and attractive profession. In the Chilean policy documents, “talented” students were defined as students who scored high on the standardized national university admission test that measured disciplinary knowledge. Therefore, as the quotation below shows, one of the main requirements to obtain a tuition scholarship “vocacion de professor,” funded by the Ministry of Education, was to achieve a high score on the national university admission test.

In an effort to revert this situation, the Scholarship Vocacion de Profesor [Teaching Vocation] was created in 2010, whose main objective is to incentive young who obtain high scores on the national university admission test to follow educational degrees by funding their studies, and with some requirements for the institutions that give those degrees, such as a program’s cut off score of 500 points (National policy document, congressional meetings report, document 18, p. 69)^{lxxxii}.

As this excerpt suggests, the proposed solution for recruiting and selecting “better” students was a targeted policy based on market logic. This solution assumes that

economic incentives for teacher candidates in the form of scholarships will increase the selectiveness of the programs. It is important to emphasize that this economic incentive is not a universal policy but a targeted policy which focuses on rewarding only student teachers with high scores on the admission test. Consistent with the problem constructed in national policy documents, scholarships would be provided only to “talented” students instead of increasing student teacher enrollment without consideration of their “quality.” The Ministry of Education made the decision to affect recruitment and selection in an indirect way. Instead of regulating program requirements such as a minimum cut off score for student teacher selection in all programs, the Ministry of Education chose to try to influence the market of university programs, using scholarships. If higher education institutions wanted to enroll students with these scholarships, the Ministry of Education required a program cut off of 500 points on the national admission test (National policy documents, congressional meetings reports, document 18). It was assumed that these scholarships, which were provided only for college-going students who were going to study for education degrees would stimulate students to choose teaching over other undergraduate majors. It was also assumed that student teachers would choose to study at the universities that qualified for scholarships over those that did not. In this way, the Ministry of Education assumed that teacher education recruitment and selectiveness would be based on and fixed by market incentives.

Additionally, in order to address the low quality of teacher preparation programs, the solutions proposed in national policies focused on controlling student teachers’ outcomes. The main strategies proposed were related to defining minimum criteria for teaching, which would be stated as standards and evaluated using the exit test. These

criteria encompassed the minimum knowledge that student teachers should have, according to the Ministry of Education, at the end of their preparation and beginning of their teaching career. The quotation below showed the objective defined by the Ministry of Education for standards:

The objective of these standards is to clarify, on the one hand, what every teacher must know and know to do in the classroom, and on the other hand, the professional attitudes that the teacher must develop as a result of his/her preparation as an elementary teacher. In this sense, the standards are a useful and needed reference for teacher preparation institutions, because [the standards] reveal the knowledge, skills, and competences that these institutions must be able to teach to their students in the course of their studies (National policy document, normative document, document 13, presentation section, para. 5)^{lxxxiii}.

In the national policy documents, it was emphasized that national standards and the exit test were not intended to control individual programs' curricula, which could include different pathways to foster the expected outcomes in student teachers. Despite the fact that these standards were not mandatory for teacher preparation programs, they made explicit the aspects of the teacher preparation curriculum that were valued and promoted by the Ministry of Education: Disciplinary knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. The standards were organized into five areas; four of them were related to disciplinary knowledge and one of them to pedagogical knowledge (National policy documents, normative document, document 13). There were 59 standards total, 49 of them were related to disciplinary knowledge and 10 of them were related to pedagogical knowledge. The emphasis on disciplinary knowledge was consistent with the

construction of the problem in national policy documents. The documents said prospective teachers and teachers were lacking disciplinary knowledge. Therefore, one of the most frequent sets of knowledge and skills defined by these standards was knowledge and understanding of the content of the subject matter to be taught (National policy documents, normative document, document 13).

Even though it was not required that teacher preparation programs align their curricula with the standards, the Ministry of Education indirectly promoted the incorporation of the standards into the curriculum through the publication of the results achieved by student teachers on the national exit test. The national exit test was based on the national standards and evaluated teacher candidates according to disciplinary knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and basic skills (writing skills)¹⁰. In fact, the Ministry of Education's analysis of the content of the test confirmed that the emphasis of the exit test for elementary education student teachers was on disciplinary knowledge over pedagogical knowledge. In one of the dissemination documents, the Ministry's own analysis of exit test materials indicated that the test evaluated three topics related to pedagogical knowledge, including knowledge of student learning and development as well as design and implementation of teaching (National policy document, dissemination document, document 10). In contrast, the test evaluated 19 topics related to disciplinary knowledge, including knowledge of grammar, geometry, and the earth and the universe. Only four of these topics related to disciplinary knowledge included some pedagogical aspects, such as "Scientific knowledge and its learning" (National policy document,

¹⁰ Between 2009 and 2011, a test for ICT skills (information and communications technology) was applied. However, this test is not currently applied (National policy documents, dissemination document, document 12)

dissemination document, document 10, p. 26)^{lxxxiv}. In short, the national exit test focused on evaluating disciplinary knowledge.

All teacher preparation programs were indirectly affected by the national exit test (INICIA test) because their results were published each year in the press. National policy documents suggested that the educational system should provide information to student teachers, teacher preparation programs, and the public in general about the quality of programs; therefore, the results of student teachers on the exit test would be public. According to national policy documents, this public information would prompt the improvement of teacher preparation programs and provide information about their quality to student teachers and the community. The quotation from the Expert Educational Panel' report illustrates the importance the Ministry of Education attributed to exit test results as a guide for prospective student teachers' decisions:

These tests have important effects even if they only were used to provide information and without high stakes. Particularly, because they mean important information for the educational organizations, but especially for the student teachers and future student teachers, as far as the [tests] allow them to make informed decisions. In that sense, it is key that the results [on the test] be made transparent to the public, especially at the level of the program or the higher education institution (National policy document, committees' report, document 1, p. 46)^{lxxxv}.

The assumption here is that the exit test would provide an objective measure of quality that would allow universities (providers) and student teachers (consumers) to make better decisions. Student teachers' decisions would include choosing universities whose

students had the highest scores on the exit test. In this way, it was expected that the result of the exit test would allow teacher preparation programs to make changes to align their programs to standards based on student teachers' consumer decisions and demands.

Despite the fact that there were not direct negative or positive consequences associated with the exit test (INICIA) for all teacher preparation programs, there were important consequences for the institutions who earned a Ministry of Education grant, such as National University, which was in charge of the Central and Branch University campuses. Universities that earned Ministry of Education grants to improve their teacher preparation programs were evaluated based on the performance of their student teachers on the exit test. The general objective of the grant program was to improve the professional competences of student teachers. One of the two main indicators used to evaluate the achievement of this objective was the students' scores on the exit test, as the quotation below from a dissemination document issued in the year 2012 illustrates: "In order to evaluate the general objective, the concept of the quality of the graduate will be used, which will be associated with the following outcome indicators: Inicia Test [exit test] (or other official test that would be valid at the time of the cohort graduation)" (National policy document, normative document, document 14, p. 24)^{lxxxvi}. Another indicator of quality of the program's graduates mentioned in this document was the evaluation of the learning produced by them on their K-12 students using value-added assessment measures. However, Central Campus university faculty members said during interviews that the evaluation of that indicator had not yet been required by the Ministry of Education. As the quotation above shows, universities that received Ministry grants were accountable for their students' results on the exit test, which was a direct way to

promote the alignment of teacher preparation programs' curriculum with the standards and the content of the exit test.

The Ministry of Education promoted national standards for student teachers indirectly by releasing publicly student teachers' test results as well as directly by stipulating that the results of the exit test were a required grant outcome. Despite these requirements, the way teacher education was enacted on the local level was diverse. Even though the National University earned a grant, this did not mean that its two teacher preparation programs were totally aligned with the disciplinary-based teacher preparation approach promoted by the Ministry of Education. As I explained in Chapters 4 and 5, the Central Campus faculty believed that teacher preparation should be practice-based and they used the Ministry of Education grant to change their curriculum based on this conception. Moreover, Central Campus faculty stated that although they were aligned with the national standards, the standards were not their educational goal because Central Campus faculty already offered student teachers preparation beyond the standards. On the other hand, despite the fact that the Branch Campus official curriculum, which had been imposed by the Central Campus, focused on disciplinary knowledge, the Branch Campus faculty believed in and implemented a curriculum that focused on practice-based teacher preparation. Conceptions of teacher education that were claimed to be important at the local level were different from the conceptions promoted by the national policies. Local level enactment of these policies depended upon characteristics of programs rather than the content of national dispositions or regulations.

It is important to mention that the grant provided by the Ministry of Education was the most significant policy reshaping conceptions of teacher education and university

faculty's practices at the Central Campus. However, the grant program funded by the Ministry of Education was the policy that got less attention in the national policy documents. Most of the solutions proposed to fix teacher education in the national policy documents referred to the creation and implementation of the standards and the exit test, and to a lesser extent to the scholarships. Interestingly, the Ministry of Education grant had a large effect on a daily basis on the university faculty at the Central Campus, because this grant allowed them to reform their curriculum based on a practice-based approach and to cultivate or make stronger connections with international scholars. In this way, the relevance of national policies for local actors did not depend on their emphasis or the frequency of the discourses created at the national level, but depended on the policies' connections with the daily work of the local actors.

The conception of teacher quality and the strategies proposed to improve it in the national policy documents were similar to the discourse about *teacher quality and teacher education* identified in the context of the U.S. (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2011b). In both Chile and the U.S., the policies' diagnostic frames recognized that teachers were central to improving the achievement of students. Additionally, the policies' solutions suggested that teacher quality required strong professional preparation and certification before teachers were ready to teach. Specifically, strategies proposed were designed to strengthen teacher preparation programs by defining and measuring progress of student teachers toward common standards. Even though standard-based reforms to strengthen the teaching profession had been implemented in other countries, diverse critics had questioned these strategies. Usually standards and tests for student teachers are framed as representing agreement among experts about the knowledge and skills needed for

effective teaching and a just education for all children. Fendler (2009), on the other hand, criticizes standard-based reforms, arguing that standards are associated with a static definition of knowledge and law-like principles of teaching. Along similar lines, Bottery (2009) suggests that universal knowledge for teaching fails to prepare teachers for diverse contexts and non-standardized situations. Additionally, Sleeter (2008) mentions that using testing as a measure of teacher quality emphasizes the testable aspects of teacher preparation while reducing the importance of aspects difficult to test, such as teachers' skills to connect the curriculum with the culture of diverse students and dispositions to work with them. These aspects are important in the development of culturally responsive teaching which is part of a social justice approach. The emphasis on standards as a solution to inequity was related to the implicit and explicit discourse about justice in the policy documents which is developed later in this chapter.

Conceptions of teaching. A critical analysis of the conception of teaching valued in the national policy documents was also discrepant from the conceptions of teaching valued at the Central and Branch University Campuses. Consistent with the aspects of teacher education valued in the national policy documents, the aspects of teaching that were valued by the Ministry of Education were also related to formal knowledge, emphasizing disciplinary knowledge. This conception stood in sharp contrast to the conception of teaching that was emphasized at the Central and Branch University campuses, where, despite their differences, good teaching was associated primarily with practical knowledge and skills.

The teaching skills and knowledge valued by the Ministry of Education were present in national policy documents in two ways. First, these aspects were mentioned in

the construction of the problem of teacher education regarding the elements lacking in teachers or student teachers. As I discussed above in the section about the problem of teacher education, the policy documents stated that teachers and student teachers lacked disciplinary knowledge for teaching. This information was supported by the Ministry of Education's use of the low results of student teachers on international tests that measured disciplinary knowledge. This claim, in the more recent national policy documents, was also supported using evidence of the low achievement of student teachers on the disciplinary section of the exit test during the first years of its implementation. For example, this quotation from a dissemination document of the Ministry of Education presented the results of student teachers on the exit test in the year 2011:

- 69% of the graduates of elementary teaching education have unsatisfactory knowledge (disciplinary knowledge)
 - 42% of the graduates of elementary teaching education have an unsatisfactory level in the pedagogical area
 - 21 of 25 institutions have more than 50% of their graduates of elementary teaching education at an unsatisfactory level (in disciplinary knowledge)
- (National policy document, dissemination document, document 11, p. 32)^{lxxxvii}.

Although the results of student teachers were low in both disciplinary and pedagogical knowledge, the documents emphasized in particular the low results on the disciplinary section. It was emphasized as a major concern that a large proportion of student teachers did not correctly answer questions related to disciplinary knowledge on the exit test.

Second, the Ministry of Education's conception of good teaching was implicit in national standards for student teachers and the national exit test. Standards for student teachers included pedagogical and disciplinary knowledge, with disciplinary knowledge being the most prominent. Specifically, disciplinary knowledge related to language arts, mathematics, social sciences, and science was included in the standards. Similarly, the most frequent aspect of teaching knowledge evaluated by the exit tests was disciplinary knowledge, followed by pedagogical knowledge and basic skills (writing skills). This is not surprising given that the exit test was based on the standards. For example, one of the dissemination documents issued in 2012 showed both how each standard was associated with a topic evaluated on the test and the number of questions associated with each topic. The topic of geometry was associated with mathematic standards number seven to eleven, and there were two to five questions on the test associated with this topic (See National policy documents, dissemination document, document 8, p. 28). Also, 19 topics related to disciplinary knowledge were evaluated on the national exit test versus 3 topics related to pedagogical knowledge (National policy documents, dissemination document, document 3).

Identifying the preponderance of disciplinary knowledge included on the standards and evaluated on the exit test is very relevant to understanding the conception of teaching valued in national policy documents. As the quotation from the standards for student teachers below shows, the aspects included on the standards and the topics evaluated on the exit test were presented in the national policy documents as the minimum criteria for teaching for graduate student teachers, or what is sometimes referred to as "the floor" in terms of requirements for teachers.

The standards have the purpose of communicating to the society, and especially to the field of the professions, a vision of which are the competences that teaching professionals must have when entering elementary education teaching (National policy document, normative document, document 13, p. 8)^{lxxxviii}.

In this way, the content of the standards and the topic evaluated on the exit test represented the vision of the Ministry of Education regarding the knowledge and skills that new teachers should have. These were the minimum knowledge and skills that each graduating elementary student teacher should have. In this way, for the Ministry of Education, the minimal condition for teaching was to have mastered disciplinary knowledge and, to a much lesser extent, pedagogical knowledge.

In contrast, at the Central and Branch University campuses, disciplinary knowledge was not conceptualized as the main knowledge that teachers should master for teaching. This did not mean that disciplinary knowledge was not part of the Central and Branch University campuses. However, according to university faculty at the Central and Branch University campuses, the most relevant knowledge for teaching was practical knowledge. In fact, the Branch Campus' faculty explicitly disagreed with the emphasis on disciplinary knowledge in their official program curriculum and argued that practical skills, which were learned in and from the work site, were the most important knowledge needed to teach. The Central Campus faculty, on the other hand, pointed out that their teacher preparation was overly-theoretical in the past and high-leverage practices were the most important knowledge for teaching in the current era. Although the Ministry of Education communicated its conception of teaching knowledge through their teacher

preparation policies, this conception did not overrule the conception of knowledge at the local level.

Additionally, there were discrepancies between the cognitive skills required for teaching according to the Ministry of Education and according to the Central Campus. The Ministry of Education evaluated the cognitive demands required by the items of the national exit test (National policy documents, dissemination document, document 8). The analysis showed that the 70% of the items were associated with low cognitive demands. It was stated that 30% of the items were associated with knowing disciplinary and pedagogical knowledge, while 40% of the items were associated with understanding and connecting concepts. Only 30% of the items were related to analyzing and using knowledge; this means that in order to correctly answer the item, student teachers should:

Turn to its disciplinary and pedagogical knowledge to analyze and evaluate information based on which [she or he] must arrive at a conclusion. [She or he] is able to set out hypotheses and questions, elucidate meanings and implicit information, establish generalizations, contrast evidence, [and] criticize concepts, models, actions, strategies, phenomenon, or situations to make decisions (National policy document, dissemination document, document 8, p. 22).

This meant that 70% of the items involved low cognitive demands; therefore, the emphasis of the policies was to ensure that student teachers knew and understood concepts. This was the main criticism of Central Campus' faculty about their former model of teacher preparation. That is, its curriculum was based on theoretical aspects of teaching and disciplinary knowledge without connecting these aspects to the practice of teaching. This not only pointed out the discrepancies between the Central Campus'

faculty's beliefs with the national policies' emphasis regarding the exit test, but also regarding the standards defined by the Ministry of Education. The national policy documents stated that the level of the cognitive demands required by the test and the proportion of items related to each level of cognitive demand was aligned with the level of cognitive demands and their presence on the standards: There was "Coherence between the cognitive skills emphasized by the standards and those proposed to be evaluated by the test" (National policy document, dissemination document, document 8, p. 21) . Therefore, the standards and the exit test defined that the minimal criteria for teaching required low cognitive demands, which focused on knowing and understanding concepts; instead of practical skills for teaching as demanded and valued by the Central and Branch University campuses.

Conceptions of Justice

References to aspects of justice were more prominent and more often mentioned in national policy documents than by the participants in the Central and Branch University campuses. The conception of justice across national policy documents, however, was similar to the conception identified in the two teacher preparation programs. Justice was understood from a distributive perspective (Fraser & Honneth, 2003; Young, 1990), as a matter of equity within the existing educational system. In national policy documents, justice was understood as the distribution of a quality education regardless of students' backgrounds. Specifically, the discourse deployed in national policy documents focused on providing better learning opportunities to K-12 students. In contrast, the distributive perspective on justice that was enacted at the Central

and Branch University campuses was a matter of providing support to student teachers to accomplish university requirements.

Across the national policy documents, justice/injustice were constructed in three ways, usually presented together. First, injustice was constructed as part of the diagnostic frame. That is, injustice was portrayed as the largest level problem that could be overcome by improvements in the educational system. The policy documents stated that there was a student achievement gap based on socioeconomic status, and teachers were constructed as the most important factor in solving this problem. As the excerpt from the Presidential Advisory Council below indicates, to support this construction of the problem, a narrative of common knowledge and consensus was used. It was stated that there was an agreement among diverse actors that inequity existed in Chile and that this was the most important issue to solve at this historical moment.

The [Presidential Advisory] Council has achieved large agreements... They are supported by a shared ascertainment: the education of our country has progressed, but it is far from having the quality needed and required in the present world, nor is it able to reduce the noticeable beginning inequalities which children start their educational experience with (National policy document, committees' report, document 2, p.14)^{lxxxix}.

As this excerpt suggests, injustice was identified as a problem across actors and was part of the shared diagnosis of the problem with the general educational system. Not only was this narrative of consensus used to construct and validate injustice as a problem, but also quantitative data were used with the same purpose. Although less frequent than the narrative of consensus, data from students' performance on national and international

tests were used as a symbolic device indicating that the student achievement gap had been well documented scientifically. These data represented an “objective” measure of inequality amongst students based on their socioeconomic status. For example, a graph in one of the dissemination documents showed an increase in the achievement gap between low income and high income students after four years of school, using as two time points the fourth and eighth grades (National policy documents, dissemination document, document 5, p. 6).

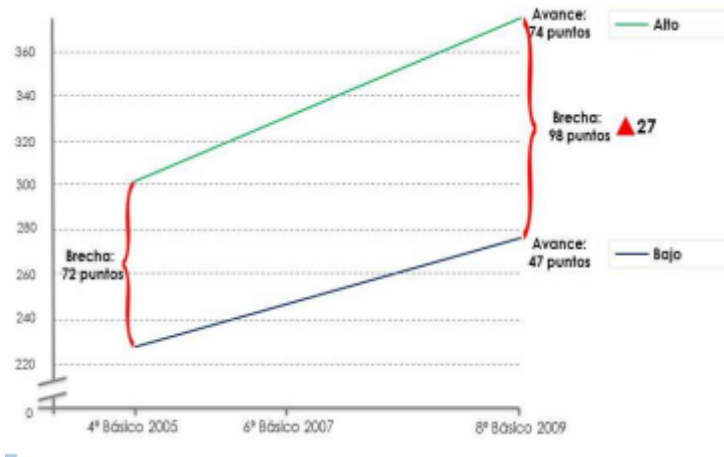


Figure 9. Achievement Gap in Chile by Ministry of Education

Pointing to that graph, the document stated that the gap between low and high income students on the national standardized test, SIMCE, had increased 27 points after four years. These data were complemented with international evidence about the effect of teachers on students’ achievements, as noted in the previous section of this dissertation discussing national construction of the problems of the educational system and teacher education. With this coupling, the attribution of responsibility for this problem was implicitly located in teachers. Again, data were used as the proof of “objectivity” to

establish the relationship between teacher quality and students' performance on the standardized test.

Secondly, justice was framed as the moral inducement to persuade the public and educational leaders to implement the solutions and strategies proposed by policies regarding teacher education. It was made very clear that the proposed solutions, which focused on teacher variables, should be supported because they would have an effect on the achievement of students, and it was a matter of morality and ethics to provide better opportunities to students who were disadvantaged. This idea is illustrated in this excerpt from the Expert Educational Panel's report:

To these [Expert Educational] Panel was assigned to contribute ideas to strengthen teacher capacities in the country... In this task [the panel] have had in sight the general interest of the country. [The panel] is convinced that these are essential reforms to achieve a more equitable and quality education (National policy document, committees' report, document 1, p. 73)^{xc}.

As the quotation above shows, national policy documents also suggested that providing better opportunities to students who were disadvantaged was a desire that all Chileans shared. Similar to strategies used in the construction of injustice as a problem, the idea of consensus was also used to promote the proposed solutions or policies related to teacher education.

Additionally, justice was constructed as an object and expected outcome of policy implementation. The final goal of the changes proposed was to improve the quality of the education system available to all students, regardless of socioeconomic background. Justice as the final outcome of national policies related to teacher education was

explicitly mentioned for example in one of the normative documents, which describe the standards for student teachers:

One the greatest challenges that our country faces is to make substantial progress in the quality and equity in the education that our children and youth receive today... The Quality and Equity Law... centers its interest precisely on progress toward a better and more just educational system, arising based on it numerous initiatives that today set the educational agenda. Among these [initiatives], those related to initial teacher education stand out. In this sense, the Scholarship *Vocación de Profesor* [teaching vocation], the Ministry of Education's grants for higher education institutions and INICIA evaluation [exit test] are some of the initiatives aimed at driving the improvement of teachers since their first years of professional education (National policy document, normative document, document 13, presentation, par 1-2)^{xc}.

As national policy documents suggested, new teacher educational policies should be implemented in order to improve the quality of teachers, but this objective was subordinated to the largest goal of improving the equity of the educational system. For policy makers, equity meant reducing the gap between low and high-income students on standardized tests such as SIMCE, the Chilean national standardized test, and PISA. As I have explained in this chapter, each time the problem of injustice was explained in concrete ways, policy documents referred to differences in students' scores on standardized tests. This association between equity and students' achievement on standardized tests was also present in the grants program created by the Ministry of Education. The grant program was the only policy where the Ministry of Education

required specific goals for teacher preparation programs to achieve. In these documents, it was stated that the general objective of the grant program was to ensure that teacher preparation programs produced teachers with high professional competences who had an impact on learning, especially on students in at-risk contexts. The measure of that objective included the scores of student teachers on the exit test and the achievement of students on standardized tests. As I discuss above, the Central Campus faculty argued that the Ministry of Education had not yet required evaluation of the achievement of the K-12 students taught by program graduates for evaluation of the grant program. However consideration of this approach to evaluating teacher education programs by the Ministry of Education in its official documents reveals its conception of learning and equity. The achievement of students was supposed to be measured through value-added assessment, understood as:

Increase of the student learning in the schools as a consequence of the intervention of teachers and the educational means, such as: increase of SIMCE [score], increment in the result of other tests applied to students in the schools and other mechanisms, or which the applicant institution would define to measure it (National policy document, normative document, document 14, p. 24)^{xcii}.

Thus, quality and equity in policy documents was understood as what could be measured by the national standardized test. Equity was defined essentially as a reduction of the achievement gap in K-12 students. Across the policy documents, ideas about justice that were both explicit and implicit were aligned with a distributive notion of justice (Fraser & Honneth, 2003; Young, 1990)—namely a concern about providing access for all students to quality teachers regardless of students' background. Teachers were considered

the most important factor in improving students' achievement and reducing the achievement gap between low and high-income students. Quality teachers were those who raised the scores of low-income students on national and international standardized tests and reduce the gap based on socioeconomic status. It was assumed that a teacher who was able to raise these scores was a teacher who had the main skills and knowledge promoted by the standards and the exit test—strong disciplinary knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and basic skills. Additionally, teacher preparation was defined as the top priority to address in order to improve teacher skills and knowledge. In this way, it was assumed that reforming teacher education would assure that each student received a good education. This conception seemed to assume that previous injustices and the achievement gap among students from high and low income groups could be overcome by providing a quality teacher to each student, emphasizing teachers' disciplinary knowledge and ignoring structural inequalities. This conception did not question whether the current educational system goals, teaching strategies, teacher knowledge, and standardized tests responded to the culture and needs of students from low-income backgrounds or other minoritized groups. As Cochran-Smith and Fries (2011a) argue:

The premise of this discourse is that the remedy for inequality is ensuring that everybody has access to the existing system, more or less assuming that those who are currently 'unequal' want to be like the dominant group and will be like that group once they have equal access to teacher quality (p. 346).

Scholarships for high achieving students who want to be teachers, new national standards, and an exit test for teacher candidates are the primary means being established in Chile to guarantee that each student has access to a high quality teacher. In many ways,

this conception of justice is relevant in a country like Chile, where there is a clear and direct relationship between students' socioeconomic status, on one hand, and the type of school that they attend and their academic achievement, on the other hand (Cisterna, 2007; Torche, 2005). A democratic society and its ideals cannot be sustained in a context of educational inequality, where there is an achievement gap between low-income and high-income students (Cruz & Haycock, 2012). However, some teacher education scholars, such as Sleeter (2008) and Cochran-Smith & Fries (2011a), are critical of discussions about equity that have been reduced to how teachers can raise students' scores on standardized tests without consideration and attention to larger systemic and structural inequalities. Absent in the discussions of equity in Chilean teacher education policy documents was recognition of the impact of the segregation of students based on socioeconomic status. Chilean scholars have identified a clear set of relationships between students' family socioeconomic status, the type of K-12 schools they attend, the type of university teacher education programs they experience, and the type of schools they then teach at after graduation (Ruffinelli, 2009; Ruffinelli & Guerrero, 2009). It is clear from this work that there is an ongoing pattern of relationships among these factors that forms a cycle of disadvantage that produces and reproduces inequity and inequality among students and their families. Discussion of this larger cycle of inequality is missing from the discourse about equity in the Chilean national policy documents and in the discourse of teacher education at the Central and Branch University campuses I studied. Finally it is worth noting that the content of the standards and the exit test for student teachers focused on disciplinary knowledge and, to a lesser extent, pedagogical knowledge. However, neither of these included aspects related to advocacy and activism

as part of teaching. These aspects are considered relevant in a teacher education program oriented to social justice (Cochran-Smith, 2010).

Stories that Shaped the Conceptions of Teaching, Teacher Education, and Justice

Across the conceptions of teaching, teacher education, and justice I identified in the national policy documents, I uncovered two prevalent “stories” or “narratives.” As I noted earlier, Stone (2012) suggests that stories are central to the ways various discourse frames are linked to one another logically and build coherence in policy discourses; two of the most prominent stories in policy discourse are what Stone calls “stories of change” and “stories of power.” Across the national policy documents, the “story of change” implicit in the Chilean national policy was what I am referring as a “story of development.” The policy documents recognized important current achievements as a result of the implementation of educational policies and, at the same time, pointed to current national challenges. This narrative of development stood in sharp contrast with the “stories of decline” usually deployed in national policies discourses in developed countries and the “stories of rising” often identified in developing countries (Stone, 2012). The “story of decline,” which I explain in detail later in this chapter, paints a picture of crisis and warns the nation that educational quality is in direct trouble unless drastic measures are taken (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2011b, Mehta, 2013). “Stories of rising” are inspirational stories that highlight the achievement or progress of the country. This story could be observed for example in policies in Poland 2009 (See Stone, 2012).

In contrast, the “story of change” implicit in the Chilean national policy documents is not a story of decline since it is not about a nation that was once at the top

its game but is now facing a crisis. Neither is it a story of rising, because the pitfalls of previous policies are acknowledged. The narrative of development is not so surprising given Chile's recent history of recovering from almost two decades of dictatorship during which time funds for education improvement and teachers' salaries were frozen or decreased. Since 1990 there has been an increase of funding and concern about education in the democratic governments that have been elected.

The "story of power" in the Chilean national policy documents is expressed as a "story of control," which emphasized the current capacities of the country to make changes and overcome the challenges constructed as problems. According to the national policy documents, Chile is in the midst of a developmental stage when it comes to fixing the problems identified in its educational system. In the section below, I show that the "story of control" implicit in the national policy documents was similar to the "story" identified at the Central Campus where their faculty described themselves as fully in charge of the changes developed at the university level. However, both the National and Central Campus "stories of control" stand in sharp contrast to the "story of helplessness" identified at the Branch Campus, wherein university faculty perceived that important decisions about their teacher preparation program were made by outsiders, specifically by the Central Campus university faculty.

Chile's particular story of change and story of control reflect the particularities of an emerging country, which is not yet part of the group of developed countries, but also does not consider itself at the bottom on the list of developing countries. Additionally, the "story of control" presented in the national policy documents showed similarities to the narrative presented at the local level, at the Central Campus.

A story of national development and justice. As I suggested above, the story of change that was predominant in the national policy documents analyzed was a story of national development, which is different from the stories of decline and rising previously identified by Stone (2012) in many other countries. As noted, according to Stone, developed countries usually use “stories of decline” or crisis to promote their policies. This trend has been also observed by other scholarly critical analyses of policy documents in countries such as the U.S., England, and Ireland (Conway, 2013; Early, 2000; Stephens et al., 2004). For example, in the case of Ireland, Conway (2013) states that in 2011 a discourse of crisis in teaching and teacher education set the context for the promotion of drastic reforms in teaching and teacher education. The author uses the metaphor of a “perfect storm,” to describe this convoluted context, which allowed for the proposal and implementation of radical reforms in Ireland. This context took into account both the fall in the achievements of the country’s students on the PISA test in the year 2009 and an economic recession between 2008 and 2010. The resultant reforms were characterized by an increase of accountability, standardization, and curriculum reduction.

In contrast, the national policy documents related to teacher education in Chile used a “story of development,” in which stories of change and control were juxtaposed. Similar to the case of Ireland (Conway, 2013), national policy documents in Chile mentioned the low results of the country in the PISA test; however, these results were not expressed as a decline. Neither did the national policy documents in Chile use the narrative of crisis; rather they used a narrative of development instead. The Ministry of Education acknowledged these problems while mentioning how Chile was in an ongoing

stage of development in which it was possible to address these problems. This “story of change,” portrayed as emerging development, overlapped with the “story of control,” which was present in the national policy documents. The assumption here was that it was possible to have a major impact on student achievement and institutional practices if the right policies were put into place. These policies were based on strategies identified in research and present in successful educational systems. This is similar to the idea developed by Furlong, Cochran-Smith, and Brennan (2009) –teacher education as a “policy problem”—in their collection of international analyses of teacher preparation. The authors argued that teacher education has been increasingly linked to the improvement of students’ achievement and to the improvement of national economic competitiveness in developed countries throughout the world.

In short, the “story of development” in teacher education policies in Chile goes something like this: 1) At the present time, Chile shows a gap in students’ achievement based on their socioeconomic status and falls behind developed countries regarding students’ achievement; 2) If Chile is to become a developed country, it must improve the equity of its educational system, reducing the achievement gap between low and high-income students; 3) Chile is now in a developing stage wherein it is possible to reduce the achievement gap among students as well as the achievement gap between Chile and developed countries. 4) However, the Chilean educational system is not doing what successful educational systems around the world are doing in terms of improving teacher preparation; 5) Following the example of successful countries and based on international evidence, the Ministry of Education decides to implement efficient tools to reform teacher education; this means creating incentives, standards, and consequences.

Consistent with the idea of stories or narratives that are implicit in policy, the “setting” of Chile’s “story of development,” was frequently portrayed in the committee reports written in 2006 and 2010 as well as in dissemination documents issued between 2010 and 2011, and this also appears once in a Congressional meeting report in 2012. In these documents, the main problem of the Chilean educational system is constructed as a problem of inequality, conceptualized as the achievement gap between low and high-income students as measured by the national standardized test (SIMCE) as well as the achievement gap between Chilean students and the students from developed countries, as measured by international tests such as PISA.

In the construction of this problem, the connection between an equitable educational system and future national development was expressed as a causal relationship. That is, it was assumed that access to quality education would provide access to better opportunities for each person, allowing for personal development and ultimately an equitable society. Further, it was assumed that equitable education was the pathway to national economic development. This relationship is exemplified in this excerpt from the presidential advisory council’s report issued in 2006:

Behind these demands there is a conviction that I share and it is a national consensus: a quality education distributed with justice is the only way to continue our development.... The presidential advisory council (...) must put a lot of effort for showing pathways to achieve the just and quality education that Chile needs (National policy document, committees’ report, document 2, p. 5)^{xciii}.

As this quotation suggests, promoting equity was not only a moral task, but also a strategic one, which would allow the country to make progress and overcome a situation

of underdevelopment. This close relationship between equity and national development was also conveyed in many ongoing debates related to teacher education. For example, the association between these two ideas was clear in a report from one of the Congressional meetings carried out in 2012:

There is a consensus regarding the importance of education to improve the quality of people's lives, not only because this allows access to better opportunities, but because it allows a more comprehensive development and a fuller personal fulfillment. Furthermore, this results in more progress for the country and in the advance toward a more free and equitable society. Despite the improvements that Chile has accomplished reflected, for example, in international tests such as PISA ..., the country is still far from assuring quality, effectiveness, and equity in the educational system (National policy document, congressional meetings report, document 18, p. 67)^{xciv}.

Despite the previously defined problems in the national policy documents related to quality and equity, the narrative used in the national policy documents avoided narrative of crisis which could easily have been done using these identified problematics. Instead, the predominant story in the national policy documents emphasized development. This story recognized the existence of previous educational policies aimed at improving coverage, quality, and equity in education and acknowledged the progress generated by them as well as their pitfalls. Thus, policies that had been in place previously in Chile were not portrayed as totally negative, but as strategies that had situated the country in a position where it could pursue more ambitious challenges, as this excerpt from the Expert Educational Panel's report suggests:

Precisely, because the country has resolved the historical deficiencies and has achieved a reasonable performance standard, the [Expert] Panel considers that the Chilean education situation is far from being characterized as a crisis....

However, the [Expert] Panel acknowledges with the same strength that our education has great challenges ahead. There is, then, a historical opportunity to advance in reforms which will allow the country during the next decades to achieve educational performances similar to those of more developed countries, in terms of the average mean of learning as well as in [achievement] gaps amongst students from different socioeconomic background (National policy document, committees' report, document 1, p. 16)^{xcv}.

Underlying this story of development was a conception of improvement as a developmental process where prior stages were the basis for new changes and future improvements. This conception was evidenced by the fact that early policy documents often cautioned that new policies should be implemented gradually and current policy documents emphasized that the strategies have been implemented in this way. This developmental vision of improvement was also clear in the national policy documents pertaining specifically to teacher education. These documents acknowledged teacher education policies previously implemented as well as their positive results. For example, the contributions of the FFID, Program to Strengthen Teacher Preparation, implemented from 1997-2002, which provided funding for 17 universities were mentioned in these documents (Ávalos, 2010). This quotation from a dissemination document illustrates the positive portrayal of a previous teacher education policy, FFID, in national policy documents:

- It promoted the renewal and extension of the practicums
- It improved the material conditions associated with teacher preparation (infrastructure, libraries, educational resources, and computational equipment)
- It supported the improvement of academic staffs (National policy document, dissemination document, document 3, p. 17)^{xvii}

As the quotation above illustrates, previous national initiatives aimed to improve teacher education were not represented as failing in the national documents. Rather previous initiatives were described as positive and their contributions were acknowledged.

However, as I explain later in this section, the Ministry of Education considered that the new developmental stage, at which Chile was located, required “more efficient tools” than the initiatives previously used to improve teacher education.

An additional factor related to the national developmental stage reflected in the national policy documents was the country’s willingness to pursue greater challenges. The national policy documents stated there was an agreement among different social actors on the relevance of making changes in teacher education. These actors included policy makers, teacher educators, and the community in general. This willingness and convergence of interest would be an additional aspect that established the developmental readiness of the country to address these changes. In other words, the country was technically and socially ready to face new challenges. This argument could be observed in this excerpt from a dissemination document created by the Ministry of Education in 2010:

In conclusion, we need to take charge of a great country challenge: to renew the educational offer and institutional capacities in order to prepare educational

professionals, who lead a process of significant improvement of Chilean children's learning achievements, particularly in the most disadvantaged environments. To accomplish this we have a historical opportunity: Public policies, higher education institutions, and the national community are all aligned to work towards this great aim (National policy document, dissemination document, document 5, p. 26)^{xcvii}.

The acknowledgement of progress in previous policies and the agreement across actors about the need for changes were the elements used to set the background of this "story of development." This background allowed for the affirmation that Chile was in a developmental stage in which it was possible to pursue greater changes in teacher education. Therefore, there was discrepancy between the "stories of decline" presented in national policy narratives in developed countries such as the U.S., England, and Ireland (Conway, 2013; Early, 2000; Stephens et al., 2004) and the Chilean "story of development." This distinction could be related to the country's history and global position. Chile does not have a history of previous success or global leadership in education. One of the challenges that democratic governments have faced in Chile after the dictatorship is the lack of quality of education provided to students who are disadvantaged (Ávalos, 2001). Therefore, even though the international and national reports pointed out the low performance of Chilean students, especially low-income students, in the last decade, this fact has not been interpreted as a decline in the educational system, but as an inherited problem that the democratic governments have tried to overcome by making some progress, even though there also have some pitfalls. Additionally, during the period when the first documents were issued, Chile was still

trying to become an OECD member, a status not achieved until 2010. This could explain the emphasis of the national policy documents on creating a narrative about the need for change while avoiding statements about crisis; the latter signals the progress of the country even in the face of major challenges.

As I explained above, national policy documents stated that Chile was at the perfect moment in terms of momentum to make changes. However, here lays the main conflict in Chile's "story of development." Chile was not doing what successful education systems were doing in terms of teaching and teacher education. The Ministry of Education used reports by international organizations to construct this conflict. According to the Ministry of Education, international organization reports, OECD (2005) and McKinsey and Company (Barber & Mourshed, 2008), claimed and demonstrated based on quantitative evidence that teachers were the main factor contributing to the improvement of students' achievements. However, Chile was not doing what successful countries and the international evidence considered relevant to do in teacher education in order to improve teaching. The recruitment, selection, and preparation of student teachers in Chile were different from those in successful countries and from what international evidence underlined.

According to the Ministry of Education, the teaching profession was not attractive to "talented" high school students, meaning students with high scores on the national university admission test. The national policy documents stated that in educationally successful countries, the top academic high school students entered teacher education programs. In contrast, teacher preparation programs in Chile enrolled students with low scores on the national admission test, and some programs did not even require that

applicants achieved a minimum score on that test, as this quote from a dissemination document issued in the year 2010 indicates:

Attracting the best to the teacher career... The McKinsey report emphasizes this aspect as one of the key issues in the best educational systems in the world. In those cases, it is confirmed that teacher education is focused in the best high-school graduates, observing that in some systems that [teaching] preparation enrolls the 15% of the best graduates. This reveals to us, on one hand, that it is not the case that in all countries this profession has the low prestige that it has in our environment. Countries that have progressed on this issue, they have done so establishing powerful economic incentives (associated with the teacher preparation or the subsequent professional career), as well as modifying negative social attitudes (National policy document, dissemination document, document 4, p. 286)^{xcviii}.

Additionally, the quality of teacher preparation in Chile in general was considered deficient especially when it came to preparing student teachers with adequate disciplinary knowledge. In contrast, the national policy documents mentioned that successful countries applied mechanisms to ensure a common level of quality among teachers entering the profession. These mechanisms included the implementation of a common examination for all teacher candidates. These tests could take a variety of forms, but each case required an agreement about what knowledge was needed to enter the teaching profession. This point was made clearly in the Expert Educational Panel's report:

[I]n several countries it is required that the student teachers pass an exam, which can include tests of knowledge about a subject, observation of the student teachers

while they are teaching, in depth interviews or presentation of portfolios OCDE (2009) (sic). These requirements imply an unified criteria for accessing the teaching profession, establishing professional standards detached from the teacher preparation institutions (National policy document, committees' report, document 1, p. 45)^{xcix}.

Following the example of successful countries and based on international evidence, the Ministry of Education decided to reform teacher education in Chile. These changes included the incorporation of incentives for student teachers when entering teacher preparation programs, national standards for student teachers, and consequences in the form of allocation of funding for student teachers and institutions, and publication of exit tests results. The implicit assumption in the national policy documents was that if the right policies were in place, the country could make changes and reverse the course of the problems they faced. To do so, Chile should use what the Ministry of Education called “more efficient tools” to impact teacher preparation programs. The following quotation, from the Presidential Advisory Council in 2006, exemplifies this narrative: “In the new development stage in the education of the country, tools with a major capacity to transform institutions, programs, and behaviors in teacher preparation are required. It is also required to increase the probability of generating the intended educational results” (National policy document, committees' report, document 2, p. 40)^c. These tools were proposed as problem solutions in the policy documents and were aligned with the experience of successful foreign educational systems and with evidence provided by international organizations, including OECD and McKinsey & Company. These tools

were associated with incentives, standards, and consequences for student teachers or teacher preparation programs, such as the exit test.

Throughout this major “story of development,” the Chilean Ministry of Education was portrayed as in charge of policy decisions about how to reform teacher education. Even though the Ministry of Education acknowledged that the country faced challenges, these were perceived as possible to overcome if the right policies, which were to be designed by the ministry, were implemented. Additionally, similar to the viewpoints of Central Campus University faculty, the favored policies of the Ministry of Education were influenced by international narratives. While the Central Campus faculty was influenced by the models and approaches to teacher education developed by international universities, the Ministry of Education was particularly influenced by international organizations, including OECD and McKinsey & Company. The Ministry of Education’s beliefs that teachers were the key to improving student achievement and their decision to introduce changes in teacher education were related to the discourses of international organizations. Additionally, most of the examples referred to in national policy documents about the recruitment, selection, and teacher preparation quality came from the description of other countries’ educational systems by international organizations.

Similar to what Semela (2014) and Conway (2013) found in the context of Ethiopia and Ireland respectively, the national educational policies in Chile reveal the complex interaction between national debates and international discourses. Semela (2014), for example, examines the construction of educational policies in Ethiopia over 60 year, showing how national policies were the results of complex interactions between local and international actors within complex social and political contexts. The author

states that international players in their country not only indirectly affected national decisions, but also in some periods of the Ethiopia's history, they directly intervened in national policies, as I noted in Chapter 2. Semela (2014) describes international organizations as "the movers and shakers of educational policies and practices in developing countries" (p. 118). Clearly, the construction of the Chilean Ministry of Education as fully in charge of the policy decisions made in Chile is different from the history of policy construction in Ethiopia. However, like Semela's (2014) and Conway (2013)'s studies, this dissertation shows the influence of frames and narratives of international organizations on national debates and policies in Chile. This finding provides important insights for rethinking and adding to previous ideas about how policy is constructed and developed within a "policy web" (Joshee & Johnson, 2005) and the role of the policy web notion in the context of this research.

According to Joshee & Johnson (2005), policy construction and implementation happens within a web of multiple levels and connections that are the result of complex and non-linear relationships. In Chapter 3, I illustrated how this idea of policy web played out in the context of my research using a set of circles and arrows, which represented different Chilean organizations (Ministry of Education, the Central and Branch University campuses, Research Centers) and national policies (exit test, national standards, grant programs, and scholarships), and the relationships among them (See Figure 3). However, this figure did not include the role of international actors in policy construction and implementation. Findings from this dissertation related to national policy documents as well as Central Campus' interviews and documents reveal the importance of international organizations and universities in the process of policy

construction and implementation at the national and local levels in Chile. Therefore, a more accurate figure to represent the idea of policy web in the context of this dissertation is represented by Figure 10.

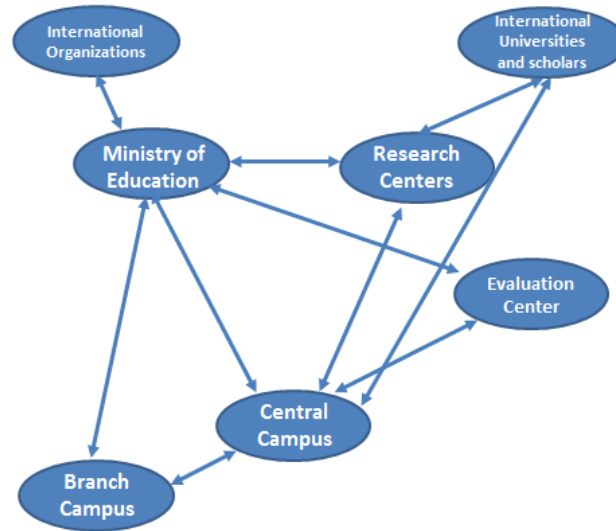


Figure 10. Teacher Preparation Policy Web in Chile

In summary, this chapter shows how national policies, despite being tied to particular countries, are connected and influenced by international discourses. The stated causal relationship between teachers and students' achievement, the promotion of standards, and an exit test for student teachers were aspects presented not only in Chilean national policies, but also in policy discourses in the U.S. These aspects were also promoted by the discourses of international organizations, such as OECD and McKinsey and Company, and were aligned with the examples of educationally successful countries referenced by the Ministry of Education. The influence of international organizations in national policies has been previously reported in other countries. It demonstrates how policy works simultaneously at different levels and it exposes the complexities embedded

in the process of policy construction and implementation, which transcend national borders.

Despite these similarities of the national policy frames with discourses related to teacher education in the U.S., the prominent “narrative story” presented in the Chilean national policies discourses was not a “story of decline” or crisis, which has fueled educational reform in developed countries like the U.S, England, and Ireland (Conway, 2013; Mehta, 2013; Stone, 2012). Instead, Chilean policies deployed a narrative of development to promote their changes in teacher preparation, recognizing previous educational policy achievements as well as national challenges in Chile as a developing and emerging country after the dictatorship, which ended in 1990. The Ministry of Education stated that Chile was at a developmental stage where it was possible to achieve better equity and quality in the educational system, intervening on teacher preparation recruitment, selection, and outcomes. All these suggestions were supported by the guidelines provided by international organizations.

Across this “story of development,” the conception of justice holds an important role. The country was in an initial stage of development that allowed for the implementation of policies aimed to achieve equity. At the same time, the desire to advance to a higher developmental stage (in the sense of becoming a developed country) required an equitable educational system. Thus, justice became an ethical imperative and, at the same time, a strategic target related to the political and economic position of Chile in the world.

This chapter also reveals the similarities and differences between the Ministry of Education’s frames and “narrative stories”, mentioned on the national policy documents,

with the frames and “narrative stories” presented at the local level. This chapter shows that national policy discourses do not necessarily mandate local discourses. The frames and “narrative stories” presented in the Central and Branch University Campuses were sometimes aligned and sometimes misaligned with national discourses. The Ministry of Education emphasized disciplinary-based teaching and teacher education, while Central and Branch University Campuses focuses on a practice-based teacher preparation approach. Despite the differences, national policy documents as well as interviews and documents from the two campuses conceptualized justice from a distributive perspective, framing justice as an issue of access for students.

CHAPTER 7. Conclusions and Implications

The purpose of this study was to explore how teaching and teacher education were constructed in national teacher education policies and two university-based programs in Chile by unpacking assumptions about teaching, learning, and justice using frame analysis. Specifically, I analyzed how teaching, teacher education, and justice were framed in practitioners' discourses in the Central and Branch campuses of National University using interviews and official university and course documents. I also explored how teaching, teacher education, and justice were framed in national teacher education policies in Chile, examining national policy documents and tools related to teacher preparation issued between the years 2006 and 2014. Furthermore, I examined how the frames used in the current national teacher preparation policies in Chile were related to the frames used by practitioners from the two university-based teacher preparation programs.

This dissertation argues that the influence of Chilean national teacher education policies on local teacher preparation frames related to teaching, teacher education, and justice was not uniform across two programs even though they belonged to the same institution. Rather both national and local frames were influenced by the frames promoted by international organizations and universities. I constructed this overarching argument based on four related propositions which I elaborated based on my analysis of national and local teacher education policies presented through Chapter 4 to 6 of this dissertation.

The four propositions are: First, despite the fact that the two teacher preparation programs belonged to the same university, they represented two visions of practice-based

teacher education. At the Central Campus, teaching and teacher education were understood as a *transferable product* focusing on training teacher candidates in core teaching practices identified as effective by international scholars. At the Branch Campus, teaching and teacher education were understood as a practical *craft* highly sensitive to the local demands and characteristics that should be learned by experience and in contact with practice. Despite these differences, both programs responded to issues of inequity and diversity based primarily on the ideas of distributive justice (Fraser & Honneth, 2003; Young, 1990), focusing on providing support for student teachers to gain access to higher education regardless of the diversity of students' backgrounds. Second, the differences between Central and Branch Campus faculties' conceptions and enactments of teaching, teacher education, and justice were shaped by different "narrative stories" (Stone, 2012). A "story of control" was predominant at the Central Campus and a "story of helplessness" was prevalent at the Branch Campus. Across these narratives, I identify four dimensions which explained how the two programs came to have these different conceptions. These dimensions were: participants' view of themselves and their program; conceptions of teaching knowledge; participation in policies; and alignment and articulation.

Third, national policies related to teacher education did not determine how teacher preparation programs frame teaching, teacher preparation, and justice. National policy documents emphasized a disciplinary-based teacher preparation approach; in contrast, teacher preparation programs focused on practice-based teacher preparation. Despite the differences, national policy documents as well as teacher preparation programs conceptualized justice from a distributive perspective (Fraser & Honneth, 2003; Young,

1990), focusing on providing better access for students to the current educational system but not problematizing structural or systemic conditions that produced inequity. Fourth, Chilean national policies were connected and influenced by international discourses. However, despite similarities to international discourses, the prominent “narrative story” used to promote teacher education policies in Chile was a “story of development” instead of a “story of decline” or crisis, which is often used to promote new policies in developed countries. This revealed the similarities of Chilean national policies to the predominant frames in international policy discourse but also pointed out the particularities of the Chilean context.

This study contributes to expanding the knowledge about policy making at national and local levels and can be useful for researchers, policy makers, teacher educators, and activists. In this final chapter, I discuss the main implications of this study for research, policy, practice, and activism. At the end of this chapter, I refer to the limitations of this study and possible future research.

Implications for Research

This study shows that teacher preparation policies at the national and local levels in Chile were influenced by international organizations, universities, and scholars. For research, this means that the influence of international institutions and international discourses should be incorporated into the ways we conceptualize the policy web of teacher education and teacher quality, including how international discourses influence national and state policies (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2011b; Joshee & Johnson, 2005; Joshee & Sinfield, 2010) as well as local teacher preparation program discourses. The direction of national policies in Chile was articulated by the Ministry of Education, but

this was influenced by the ways international organizations had previously diagnosed “the problem” of teacher education and teacher quality as well as what solutions they had proposed to fix this problem. National policies were also influenced by the experiences of other successful educational systems. The major reports of international organizations, such as the OECD and McKinsey and Company, were consistently used to support new national teacher preparation policies in Chile. The influence of international organizations on teacher education policies has been reported before by other scholars in analyses of countries such as Ireland (Conway, 2013) and Ethiopia (Semela, 2014). In both of these cases, the researchers argued that national debates were influenced by international organizations’ suggestions and/or direct interventions. In the case of Ireland, the international organizations that influenced national debates and policies were OECD, European Union, and World Bank. In Chile, similar to other countries, references from international organizations or examples from other countries were used to justify the introductions of changes in teacher education, such as the increase of teacher education selectiveness and the creation of an exit test. Thus, it is important to acknowledge that the discourses of the Chilean Ministry of Education were not circumscribed by national borders. Rather the viewpoints and perspectives of international organizations had an important role in the constructions of policies in countries such as Chile, Ireland, and Ethiopia, and these organizations were influential when it came to illuminating problems and solutions in education and other areas.

International influences were also important for local level policies in Chile. For example, as I showed in previous chapters, the Central Campus program implemented a curricular reform in its teacher preparation program based on a model developed in the

U.S.—the practice-based model of teacher preparation developed at University of Michigan, which focused on teacher candidates developing high leverage practices (Ball & Forzani, 2011). The underlying assumption operating at the Central Campus faculty was that teaching and teacher education were based on universal knowledge which could be applied to different contexts. In this way, teaching and teacher education were understood as more or less transferable products that could be imported from other countries. The influence of foreign universities and scholars was clear in the evaluations, activities, and language used by university faculty at the Central Campus. In both the Central Campus program and in national policies, data, examples, and suggestions from international organizations or foreign universities were used as symbolic devices to indicate that university and national policies were not ideologically biased, but rather were based on exemplary models and scientific research. Along similar lines and based on the analysis of Takayama (2008), Sung (2011) has argued that “externalized references” were used by policy makers in Japan to introduce changes in educational policies: “the main reason for resorting to external sources is to draw consensus for the validation of domestic education reforms that would otherwise be contested” (p. 525). In Chile as in other countries, international references, examples, and discourses have likewise played an important role in how new educational policies regarding teacher preparation and teacher quality have been constructed and validated. This means that identifying and unpacking the connection of national and local policies to international references is important in critical policies analysis.

Recognizing the influence of international discourses on national policies is not new, and this has been reported in previous studies, which, similar to this study, use the

idea of a policy web as a way to conceptualize the complex influences that shape policy (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2011b; Joshee & Johnson, 2005; Joshee & Sinfield, 2010). As Joshee and Sinfield (2010) state, “To thoroughly study national policy, we would need to think about policies and discourses at the level of schools, school districts, teacher organizations, provinces or states, national educational associations, federal agencies, and international and supranational bodies” (p.57). However, the influence of international discourses on local level teacher education policy has been commonly neglected by previous research that uses the idea of policy web. For example, Cochran-Smith and Fries (2011b) describe the influence of McKinsey and Company’s discourse on federal and state level discourses related to teacher education and social justice in the context of the U.S. These authors show how predominant discourses in teacher education policy and social justice at the federal and state level focused on the idea of injustice in terms of the problem of a teacher quality gap, and they related this issue to the alleged decline of the U.S. as a global competitor. Federal and state discourses in the U.S. were influenced by the McKinsey and Company report issued in 2010, which describe multiple aspects of the achievement gap and linked these to the U.S. economy. However, Cochran-Smith and Fries’ (2011b) analysis of local policy discourses related to social justice at the level of teacher preparation programs does not mention the influence of international organizations, universities, or scholars. Similarly, Joshee and Johnson (2005) analyze multicultural policies in the U.S. and Canada across decades. The authors describe the influences of international discourses related to neoliberalism in national multicultural policies in the last decades in both countries. However, the specific organizations which promoted these discourses are not mentioned and, more importantly, the specific

influences of these neoliberal discourses at the local level are not pointed out. This omission could indicate that the influence of international organizations, universities, and scholars has been neglected in previous analyses of policy at the local level or that these international discourses are not relevant to the constructions of local policy in countries like the U.S. and Canada.

Based on the findings of this study, I argue that at least in countries like Chile, which are not ranked at the top of world educational systems and whose university staff look for exemplary models and research in other countries, the policy web idea should be expanded to include analysis of how local discourses are connected or aligned with international discourses. Typically, the acknowledgment of international influences has been reported at the level of national policies instead of at the level of local or regional teacher preparation programs. Previous studies have often ignored the influence of international institutions on local discourses or implicitly assumed that the influence of international discourses on national policies was then either transferred or trickled down to the local level. My study, however, shows how international influences at the national and local levels come from different sources, such as the OECD and the University of Michigan respectively. These international influences may have different emphases concerning the teaching knowledge valued and promoted. As I have shown in previous chapters, in the case of my study, national policies emphasized a disciplinary-based teacher education approach, whereas the Central Campus promoted a practical-based teacher education approach at the level of local policy.

Interestingly, these different international influences can coexist in the same country. Therefore, the influence of international discourses at the national and local

levels is more complex and less linear than the transference of ideas from the international field to national policies and then to local contexts. Acknowledging the connections between and among local actors and international organizations, universities, or scholars is especially important in the field of teacher education given that most university faculty are scholars who are constantly reading and having conversations with international scholars as peers. This international influence is especially significant in a world with an increasing globalization of knowledge and policies (Winstanley, 2012). One contribution of this dissertation study to research is an expanded notion of the policy web, which explicitly incorporates the connections among local discourses and international discourses in teacher education. Also, this study contributes to our understanding of how international discourses influence local discourses that may or may not be mediated by or aligned with national policies.

Additionally, this study shows that in practice, policy making quite unlike the image of traditional policy studies in which there is a clean and sharp division of designers of national policies in one location and implementers in another. Diem et al. (2014) argue that one of the assumptions of traditional approaches to analyzing policy is that changes or reforms are understood as: “A series of steps, including problem definition, goal setting, policy alternative identification, policy selection, implementation, and evaluation” (p. 1071). Consistent with this division of steps, I would add that traditional research often implicitly assumes that there is a clear distinction between policy designers and policy implementers. However, the idea of a policy web implies that the process of policy construction is much messier than that and is developed in multiple locations with multiple complex crisscrossing connections (Joshee & Johnson, 2005).

This study further reveals that, in the process of national policy construction related to teacher education, the division between the designers and implementers of policy was significantly blurred. In the process of national policy construction, not only do people from the Ministry of Education participate but also university faculty who are part of particular teacher preparation programs. For example, some Central Campus faculty members participated actively in the development of national policies, leading the design of the national standards for student teachers and a national exit test.

This is not a characteristic of policy development that is only present in Chile. Working in the U.S. context, for example, Barr et al. (2014) and Scannell and Metcalf (2000), respectively, documented the active participation of university faculty in the construction of standards for teacher preparation for sex education and in the construction of performance-based standards for teacher licensure in one state. Due to the fact that university faculty are also scholars who have more or less influence on policy decisions, it is difficult to draw a line between policy designers and implementers as traditional research on policy has sometimes done. University faculty from teacher preparation programs are sometimes influencers and active participants in the construction of national policies. This means that university faculty should not be regarded in the research about teacher education policy simply as responders to national policies as has been the case with some previous research that has explored the responses of teacher educators to state policies (Fuchs et al., 2014; Bell & Youngs, 2011). Instead, University faculty should be considered as both constructors and influencers of national policies. This statement could be relevant in any analysis of national or state policies, including K-12 policies, but it is especially important in teacher education policies, due to the fact that university staff

typically hold the status of scholars, which sometimes makes them authoritative voices regarding educational issues in national debates. Taking this influence into account is particularly important in current times as policy makers at the national level usually claim that their decisions are based on and supported by evidence from research produced by scholars (Stone, 2012).

My study also shows that the influence of international and national policies on different teacher preparation programs is not uniform, even when and if programs belong to the same institution. Similar to what some previous scholars have asserted, my study contends that although national policies influenced practitioners' conceptions and practices on a daily basis, they did not determine practitioners' conceptions and practices (Ball, 1993; Davies, 2002; Entman, 1993, Oliver & Johnston, 2000; Rein & Schön, 1996). Conceptions of teaching, teacher education, and justice held by university faculty at the Central and Branch campuses were the complex result of interactions among international, national, and local discourses. In Chapter 5, I identified the major dimensions that shaped faculty members' conceptions of teaching, teacher education, and justice in teacher preparation programs. These dimensions include the university's faculty: image of themselves and their institutions; participation in national policies and university changes as well as in international discussions; the alignment and articulation inside the teacher preparation programs and within national policies; and faculty's conceptions of teaching knowledge. These dimensions could be useful for other researchers to explore negotiations among local, national, and international discourses.

Although this study reveals that university faculty were not simply responders to national policies, some of the dimensions identified in this study are consistent with

previous research exploring teacher educators' responses to state policies. Previous studies have shown that university faculty members' responses to policy were mediated by the alignment between teacher educators' beliefs and practices about teaching and the requirements of state policy (Bell & Youngs, 2011; Fuchs et al., 2014). Also different from previous research, my study shows that the identified dimensions were relevant not only to explaining how university faculty responded to national policies, but also to explaining how university faculty constructed policy at the local level. At both institutions I studied, university faculty included some aspects of national policy into local policy while also making their own decisions about which university changes were appropriate. In this way, the dimensions identified in this study are consistent with the idea of the policy web and can complement this idea.

Based on this study, I developed a framework for understanding and exploring teacher preparation policies. This framework builds on the idea of the policy web (Joshee & Johnson, 2005), but includes the connections among international and local actors and adds to the idea of a policy web the dimensions identified in this study, which influence the discourses of local actors and shape their conceptions of teaching, teacher education, and justice. As Figure 11 illustrates, this framework acknowledges the role that international organizations and international scholars play in the construction of problems and solutions proposed at the national and local levels. This is particularly relevant for teacher preparation programs, which, in contrast to K-12 schools, are more likely to be in communication with international literature and scholars. As Figure 11 exemplifies, educational policies are constructed by diverse organizations in different locations. Also, the discourses of university faculty are influenced (or "framed") by their views of

themselves and their institution, the alignment and articulation within and outside the program, the faculty's participation in policies, and their conceptions of teaching knowledge.

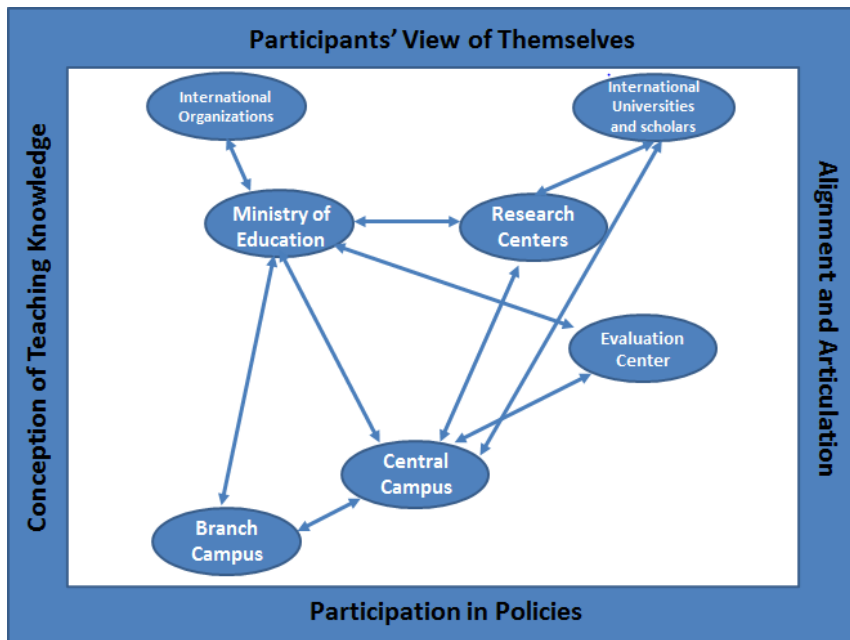


Figure 11. Framework to study and explore policies in teacher education programs

This framework could be used as a generative framework in the exploration of local and national teacher education policies in other contexts, which share some commonalities with the context of Chile. This framework provides entry points or categories to explore policy without prescribing a particular or desirable relationship among organizations and actors, or a particular characteristic across these dimensions. This figure would be modified for the particular context of future researchers and especially according to the organizations relevant to teacher education in their countries. For example, this framework could be modified for use in the context of teacher education in the U.S. by including the State level of policymaking as well as other relevant organizations that are related to and have an influence on teacher education discourses, as the below Figure 12 illustrates. This framework could also include multiple

campuses, if appropriate, depending on the characteristics of each teacher preparation program included in the research.

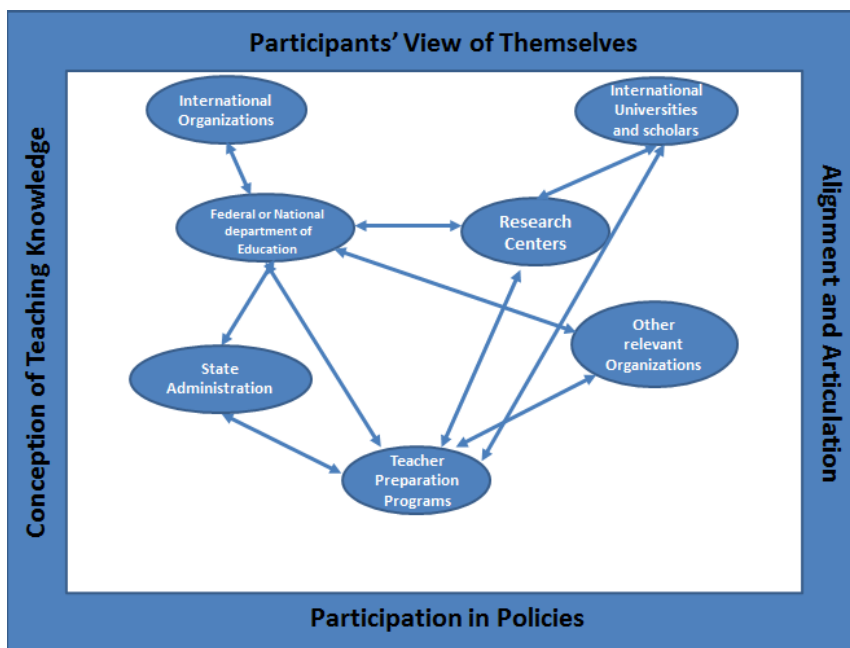


Figure 12. General framework to study and explore policies in teacher education programs

Implications for National Policy

The framework developed for the analysis of teacher education policies could also be important for policy makers at the national level when it comes to understanding how policies work in practice. This study shows that university faculty members' conceptions of teacher education, teaching, and justice interacted with the conceptions of these issues that were predominant in Ministry of Education documents as well as with the conceptions that foreign teacher preparation programs have. Consequently national policies did not prescribe the conceptions and curricular emphases of teacher preparation program because university faculty constructed local policies based on their relationships with national and international organizations and discourses based on the four dimensions

identified in this study. As Joshee and Johnson (2005) argue, when they refer to their concept of policy web,

A significant aspect of the web is that it draws our attention to the open spaces between the threads. It is in these spaces that individuals have some freedom to act in ways that support, extend, or undermine stated policy objectives and to introduce new ideas that may influence the policy discourse (p. 55).

As this study shows, while national policies focused on a disciplinary-based teacher preparation approach, the two teacher education campus programs I analyzed embraced a practice-based teacher preparation approach. The discrepancy between national policies and local emphases on the knowledge valued for teaching and teacher education should not be interpreted by policy makers as a problem of execution or understanding of national policies, as traditional policy studies might interpret it. Rather this needs to be understood as a characteristic of how policy works at the local level.

The framework proposed in Figure 12 could be used by policy makers at the national level to understand the discrepancies between the emphases and meanings of teaching and teacher education in national and local policies. That framework could help national policy makers to understand the teacher preparation characteristics that shape university faculty's conceptions of teaching, teacher education, and justice, which at the same time explain discrepancies between local and national policies. The main aspects of the framework, the policy web and the four dimensions, could also be used for policy makers to explore the landscape of teacher education discourses during the process of constructing the proposals for change. For example, this information could be used by

policy makers to incorporate or consider university faculty's conceptions of teaching, teacher education, and justice in their policy proposals; and/or to better anticipate how national policies would interact with local policies in different teacher preparation programs. An exploration of these dimensions prior to the implementation of national policies in Chile would have been useful in pointing out that the national standards and exit tests for student teachers, which emphasize disciplinary knowledge, would collide with the teaching knowledge valued by faculties at the Branch Campus. Acknowledging the role of university faculty members' conceptions of knowledge in the implementation of national policies is relevant to avoid (or at least explain) the difficulties in implementation and even the failure of national policies.

This study also contributes to our understanding of national teacher education policies and the characteristics of the Central Campus program as a result of the process of "policy borrowing" at the national and local levels. In comparative policies studies, the concept of "policy borrowing" refers to the "conscious adoption in one context of policy observed in another... [B]orrowing is, strictly speaking, a deliberate, purposive phenomenon" (Phillips and Ochs, 2004, p.774). This process has been reported across institutions, states, countries or fields and it has been applied to general educational approach, objectives, strategies, methods, or organizational aspects (Phillips & Ochs 2004; Winstanley, 2012). The concept of policy borrowing helps explain what happens when international models or strategies are imported and incorporated into national or local policies and their consequences. The incorporation of international strategies into national policies and the importation of the model of teacher education from University of Michigan by the Central Campus are examples of policy borrowing. The process of

policy borrowing is not exclusive to Chile or to developing countries. In fact, it is a common phenomenon across countries currently, as Lingard and Rawolle (2011), suggest: “Neo-liberal globalization has changed the face of policy making and ‘challenged the assumed reality of sovereign policy formation as territorially bound within nation-states’ (in Winstanley, 2012, p. 517). This suggests that “policy borrowing” is a common feature of current policy making in education. My study shows that this has happened not just in general ways but in terms of very specific approaches to teacher education curriculum, instruction, and assessment.

At the national level of teacher education policies in Chile, the way that the problem of teacher education was framed and the actual solutions that were proposed were similar to those in other countries. This represents an example of policy borrowing at the national level. The diagnostic frames used in national policies reflected the idea that teachers were central to improving the achievement of students. Additionally, the prognostic frames used in national policy documents suggested that teacher quality required strong professional preparation and certification before teachers are ready to teach. This construction of the problem and the proposed solutions were very similar to the discourses about *teacher quality and teacher education* identified in the context of the U.S. (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2011b). Strategies proposed in Chilean national policies, similar to proposed policies in the context of the U.S., were designed to strengthen teacher preparation programs by defining and measuring progress toward common standards. Even though standard-based reforms to strengthen the teaching profession have been implemented in many other countries, critics have questioned these strategies. Usually standards and tests for student teachers are framed as representing agreement

among experts about the knowledge and skills needed for effective teaching and to ensure a just education for all children. Fendler (2009), on the other hand, criticizes standard-based reforms arguing that standards are associated with a static definition of knowledge and law-like principles of teaching. Along similar lines, Bottery (2009) suggests that the idea of universal knowledge for teaching fails to prepare teachers for diverse contexts and non-standardized situations. Additionally, Sleeter (2008) mentions that using testing as the primary measure of teacher quality emphasizes the testable aspects of teacher preparation while reducing the importance of aspects that are difficult to test such as teachers' skills connecting the curriculum to the culture of diverse students and their development of the dispositions needed to work with them. These aspects are important in the development of culturally responsive teaching.

Similarities between the Chilean and the U.S. construction of problems and solutions are partly explained by global trends in education, in particular in countries that have adopted neoliberal education reform approaches. Neoliberal ideas have become the predominant discourse in economic and education policies around the world (Apple, 2006), and they have been implemented in many countries in keeping with recommendations by the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (Stern, 2013; Torres, 2002), which highlights the importance of international organizations in the process of "policy borrowing." Neoliberal, managerial, and neo-conservative ideas (Apple, 2006) have converged in some countries using the discourses of equity and justice to introduce accountability, choice, and competition policies (Lahann, 2010; Zeichner, 2010). In Chile, teacher education policies combine regulation—through standards and a national exit test for student teachers—with market solutions, such as

providing information about program and institutional quality to prospective teacher candidates and assuring their access to services. The assumption is that more information based on collected and publicized data will lead to consumers (student teachers) voting with their feet and will thus prompt changes in institutions. The assumption is that low-performing teacher preparation programs that do not adjust to consumer demand will disappear in the long term (Inzunza et.al, 2011).

The combination of market approaches that champion both deregulation with regulation through more accountability seems incompatible at first glance. But Apple (2009) and others (e.g., Bottery, 2009) caution that this combination actually allows neoliberal reforms to determine the value of each institution in the market and at the same time provides choices to consumers: “Accountability and efficiency measures function as the means through which the market model is assessed and enforced” (Pastrana, 2010, p. 23). Neoliberal-inspired market proposals coupled with managerial-inspired regulatory proposals reinforce each other (Apple, 2006; 2009). However, it is important for policy makers to know that despite broadly used neoliberal and neoconservative strategies, they might not actually foster systematic and coordinated improvements in teacher preparation in Chile. Sergiovanni (2005) argues that this kind of reform usually leads to superficial and short-term changes in organizations. Under these policies, organizations change enough to avoid sanctions or enough to win in the market; however, the change discontinues when the sanctions are removed.

At the local level, the idea of “policy borrowing” is exemplified by the Central Campus program, which imported a model of teacher education from University of Michigan based on the idea of training teachers to engage in high leverage practices (Ball

& Forzani, 2011). This model of teacher education is practice-based, which has become one of the predominant discourses in teacher education in the last decade. In fact, some authors (McDonald, Kazemi & Kavanagh, 2013) argue that teacher education has moved away from an emphasis on providing knowledge to student teachers and moved toward a more practical emphasis wherein the goal is to prepare student teachers to use their knowledge in their classrooms. This practical turn has been expressed in the identification of core teaching practices and the development of models of teacher education to develop these teaching practices, such as the model developed by researchers at the University of Michigan. As McDonald and their collaborators (2013) argue: “We argue that the identification of K-12 core practices should be accompanied with the identification, development, and implementation of teacher education pedagogies aimed at preparing teachers with those practices” (p. 379). Similarly, the Central Campus program not only imported the idea of high leverage practices from the University of Michigan but also the methods used in teacher education to teach them, such as modeling, rehearsals, and videos (Forzani, 2014).

In both cases, national and local policies, international trends which are imported are presented as evidence-based and used in successful educational countries. Auld and Morris (2014) argue that the process of “policy borrowing” usually is coupled with the rhetoric of “what works” which is used to validate the policy proposals. However, this rhetoric obscures the politics of “policy borrowing.” As Winstanley (2012) argues: “Being inspired by a positive experience is not problematic in itself, but it appears that when policies are borrowed, data are frequently selected and rhetoric harnessed to support the introduction of ideas seemingly already planned” (p. 518). Along with these

lines, Chilean teacher education policies should be carefully and critically examined. Policy makers should not assume that these policies are ideology-free and neutral, but rather that they were purposefully decided by them or their predecessors.

It is also important for policy makers to acknowledge that both national and local policies predominantly conceptualize justice from a distributive perspective (Fraser & Honneth, 2003; Young, 1990). This conception of justice is clear in the way that problems related to injustice are framed in policies and in the ways recommended solutions to those problems are shaped. At the national level in Chile, the problem of injustice is defined as the achievement gap between low and high-income students as well as the achievement gap between Chilean students and students from other countries. Scholarships, standards, and an exit test for teacher candidates are the means being established in Chile to guarantee that each student has access to a high quality education and to high quality teachers. However, scholars such as Sleeter (2008) and Cochran-Smith & Fries (2011a), suggest that the top-down definition and dissemination of technical knowledge in teacher education has reduced many discussions about equity to the diminution of students' gap in standardized test meanwhile omitting discussions of other aspects such as the structural inequalities that have created the achievement gap in the first place. Along similar lines and in the context of the debates about common core standards for K-12 education in the U.S., Saltman (2012) argues that:

As teachers and teacher education programs are held 'accountable' to this singular body of knowledge, critical pedagogical questions are eradicated from the educational process. Such questions include: who claims this to be true and why? What are the positions of the makers of the curriculum and the tests, and how do

these relate to broader social struggles? What do these claims to truth have to do with what students experience, and what forces and structures produce such experiences? (p. 678).

Saltman's (2012) concern should also apply to standards and exit tests in teacher education. In Chile, student segregation based on the type of high school student teachers attend has been shown to be very closely correlated with the teacher education programs they experience and with the schools where student teachers work after graduation (Ruffinelli, 2009; Ruffinelli & Guerrero, 2009). However this cycle of segregation and inequity is absent from discussions about equity in teacher education policies. Furthermore, the standards and tests for student teachers promote a single definition of what it means to be a good teacher, which does not account for aspects of multiculturalism or for the particularities of teaching in diverse local contexts.

Also, the definition of high leverage practices, which are assumed can be readily learned by teacher candidates anywhere and applied to any type of school, country, and language, does not recognize the particularities of different contexts. The idea of justice in a program that embraces the idea of high leverage practices, such as the program at the Central Campus, is that justice can be obtained if all students have the right to a high quality teacher. This means they need to have access to a teacher who knows and uses high leverage practices, which have been defined by international scholars through research. In contrast, Fraser and Honneth (2003) define justice as parity of participation, arguing that not only objective but also intersubjective conditions are necessary to achieve justice. This intersubjective dimension is related to the cultural patterns that affect opportunities to achieve social esteem, status, and learning, which is referred to as

the justice of recognition (Fraser & Honneth, 2003; Young, 1990). In teacher preparation policies at the local and national level in Chile, there were no proposals or strategies that sought to question the dominant culture and the existing relationships of power that marginalized some groups. These aspects could be especially important in enriching the explanations and solutions proposed for overcoming educational inequities based on class in Chile. The justice of recognition could be an important idea for helping teacher preparation programs account for the fact that they serve communities and students from diverse cultural and class backgrounds, as was true in both in the Central and Branch Campuses.

Implications for Practitioners (local level policy makers)

The findings of this study could also be useful for university faculty who are planning to implement changes in their teacher preparation programs. University faculty should acknowledge that multiple teacher preparation programs and branches located in the same university cannot be conceptualized as a single entity. Therefore, if a new curriculum is being implemented across different teacher preparation programs, the conceptions of teaching, teacher education, and justice of the university faculty of each program and/or campus should be considered. Imposing a new curriculum on a university program without considering faculty members' conceptions could generate tension between the central administration and the programs, as occurred in this study between the Central and Branch Campuses. Lack of attention to faculty's perspectives could also result in their lack of commitment to the implementation of the new curriculum, a disarticulation among faculty and across courses, and a feeling of helplessness as a result of their lack of control and participation in curricular decisions. Therefore, university

faculty who make decisions related to curricular changes should acknowledge that the conceptions of teaching, teacher education, and justice of university faculty who did not participate in curricular decisions can meaningfully influence the process of change.

The framework illustrated in Figure 12, could be useful for university faculty who hold administrative positions to explore the characteristics of different teacher preparation programs before they try to implement a curricular change. In this way, the views that university faculty have about themselves and their programs, their previous participation in national and university policies, their conceptions of teaching knowledge, as well as the alignment and articulation among faculties and with national policies could be used as categories for examining teacher preparation programs' characteristics. Then, that information could be used in planning a curricular change respecting the characteristics at the local level. As Diem et al. (2014) argue: "Traditional research on planned change assumes strategies are unequivocal and can be broadly implemented, paying little attention to how policy arenas are multidimensional and interconnected" (p. 1071). As my study shows, it cannot be assumed that curricular changes have similar effects in different contexts; policy makers at the local level should explore the dimensions that characterize each program and the connections with international and national organizations before designing curricular changes.

Additionally, this study makes it clear that in teacher education, the same terms may be used to shape very different teacher education programs. As my analysis shows, despite the fact that the Central and Branch campuses' university faculties argued for practice-based teaching and teacher education, they understood this approach in very different ways. At the Central Campus, practice-based teacher education was understood

as the development of high-leverage practices, whereas at the Branch Campus it was understood as the development of practical and contextual skills in the local site of work. To acknowledge that these two teacher preparation programs within the same university understood practice-based education in such different ways is especially important for teacher education curriculum and practices. As Forzani (2014) argues, practice-based teacher education has gained popularity in the field; however, the concept has different meanings for teacher educators and can take various shapes in practice. Therefore, it would be important for university faculty to acknowledge that when people refer to practice-based teacher preparation, they could mean different things, which could have an impact in their work.

Furthermore, this study revealed two concerns related to the social justice strategies used in the two teacher preparation programs studied. First, there was an emphasis on introducing aspects of social justice within teacher education program practices more so than in student teachers' practices. That is, social justice was emphasized primarily as a way to support student teachers who were struggling in their courses rather than as a broad purpose and goal in the preparation of all student teachers to teach for social justice. Teacher preparation programs focused on providing better access for student teachers to the curriculum, instead of helping them to develop skills to provide better access to the curriculum to K-12 students.

Also, the few places in the curriculum where the focus was helping student teachers understand and learn to teach for social justice were found in courses that were disconnected from core teaching courses. This is consistent with long-time trends internationally to introduce aspects of social justice as add-ons to the curriculum. The

disarticulation between social justice aspects and the rest of the curriculum has been reported in studies in the U.S., England, and Australia which analyze teacher preparation programs as a whole (Ensign, 2009; Gazeley & Dunne, 2013; Mills, 2013; Sobel et al., 2011). These authors mention that a fragmented incorporation of aspects of social justice in the curriculum has been shown to be ineffective in changing student teachers' beliefs, attitudes, and practices. For example, Ensign (2009) argues that student teachers whose preparation included social justice as an add-on to the curriculum tend to blame K-12 students and their families for problems, while student teachers who attend programs where social justice is incorporated into the whole curriculum tend to critically analyze their own teaching practice when K-12 students face problems in the classroom. Based on my study of two different programs, I suggest that teacher preparation programs need to rethink their approaches to social justice while trying to incorporate these aspects across the curriculum and especially in the core teaching courses (method and pedagogical courses).

Implications for Activism

The findings of this study could also be useful for teachers and student teachers who are part of ongoing social movements or advocacy organizations in Chile. This study analyzed the frames underlying national policies related to teacher preparation in Chile. As Davies (2002) states, "frames are the vehicle by which activist and reformers shape meanings and convey their claims, grievances, and proposals" (p.270). Based on this idea, this study shows how the problem of teacher education was constructed at the national level, how solutions were framed within these policies, and what sources were used to support statements and persuade others. This study also shows how the problems

of teacher education and their solutions were framed at the local level—at one of the leading universities of the country, which has influenced national policies debates. The analysis presented in this study could be useful for advocacy groups in terms of identifying the predominant frames used at the national level to enter the debate about teaching and teacher education while acknowledging the limits set by these frames in order to work toward expansion. As Kumashiro (2010) argues: “Reframing teacher education requires seeing the bigger picture... Reframing teacher education requires redefining what we often take to be ‘common sense’ in education reform” (p. 63). Familiarity with the predominant national frames related to teacher education is the first step for advocacy groups to deliberate about them and possibly consider alternative ways to frame teacher education problems and solutions. Also, the findings of this study are relevant to advocacy groups focused on class, race, gender, and immigration issues in Chile. To have a systematic analysis that reveals that justice is framed in national and local teacher education policies as an issue of access, is relevant for advocacy groups in order to demand actions in teacher education, which promote the recognition of groups’ culture, demands, and rights.

This analysis could also be useful for advocacy groups to acknowledge the connection between national policy discourses and international discourses. As this study reveals, the discourse in Chile’s national policies is influenced by how the problem of teacher education is diagnosed and what solutions are proposed by international organizations. In addition, as my study shows, at the Central Campus, conceptions of teaching and teacher education have been influenced by the University of Michigan, especially in terms of its emphasis on high-leverage practices (Ball & Forzani, 2011).

This knowledge could be useful for activist groups to understand how international and local policies are shaped by international trends, which of course have both supporters and detractors in other countries. This knowledge could further help activist groups to examine the results of these policies in other countries, to better support their arguments, and to make connections with other groups sharing a similar vision about the trends in teacher education and teaching around the world. Advocacy groups are increasingly looking for transnational coalitions as a way to multiply their power and strategies of resistance (De Sousa Santos, 2005). Having a clear picture about how the national and local frames related to teaching and teacher education are specifically connected to international trends and influences could be the first step to recognize allies in other countries.

Limitations and Future Research

Despite the important contributions of this study, there are two important limitations and both are related to its participants. The first limitation is related to the difficulties of interviewing student teachers from the two teacher preparation programs. After several months of intense but ultimately failed efforts to recruit student teachers to be interviewed, I was only able to conduct a focus group with student teachers from the Branch Campus, but I was unable to conduct a group interview with student teachers from the Central Campus. Therefore, this study focused primarily on the perspectives of university faculty of the two programs, whereas the perspectives of student teachers at the Branch Campus were only used to inform the analysis. Thus, despite the intention of this study to acknowledge and concentrate on the voices of student teachers as well as the voices of university faculty, the problems of collecting interview data with student

teachers reduced the role of student teachers' voices in the analysis. Another limitation of this study was that I analyzed national policy documents without interviewing policy makers at the national level. Including interviews with policy makers at the national level would deepen the analysis of national policy frames and capture different positions among these actors. However, adding these interviews to this study would have made the study less unfeasible in the regular time frame of a dissertation.

Future studies could include interviews with student teachers and policy makers at the national level in order to expand the knowledge generated by this study. Also, forthcoming studies in Chile could build on the work of this dissertation analyzing the new policy for teachers the "Teaching Career Law" (Ley de Carrera Docente) approved on March 8th 2016 (MINEDUC, 2016c). This new policy will have important effects on the preparation of teachers as well as on their work, their salaries, and workplace conditions. The new policy changes the point at which the exit test is taken, moving the test from the end of the teacher preparation to the middle of the process. This policy also sets a minimum required score on the national admission test for all students who want to enter teacher preparation. Also, the gradual implementation of the Free Higher Education Policy (MINEDUC, 2016b) since March of 2016 will change the importance of scholarships for student teachers intended to be an incentive to attract "talented" students. This law states that all public universities and private universities that agree to participate in this law will not charge tuition to their students. This law will be gradually implemented. This benefit is only available for students who belong to the 50% of the poorest population of the country this year. In the future tuition scholarship for student teachers, provided by the Ministry of Education, will lose relevance because students will

not need to pay tuition to study for any higher education degree. This change in higher education suggests the need for new studies related to teacher education policies in the context of free higher education. In addition, future studies should include the analysis of additional teacher preparation programs, which can contribute to increasing the validity of the framework developed in the present study.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Interview protocols

Protocolo de Entrevista #1

El decano de la escuela de educación, los jefes de carrera, los formadores de profesores y los supervisores de práctica serán consultados sobre la teoría de práctica, teoría de justicia y teoría de formación de profesores de sus programas, así como las actuales políticas de formación de profesores. Ejemplos de las preguntas incluidas en la entrevista son listadas abajo.

*Esta entrevista se centrará en las características de su programa de formación de profesores y su visión acerca de las políticas nacionales de formación docente. Toda la información recogida será confidencial. Recuerde que si alguna pregunta lo hace sentir incómodo, usted puede reusarse a contestarla y puede terminar la entrevista en cualquier momento. Esta entrevista tomará 90 minutos aproximadamente **y su audio será grabado**. ¿Tiene alguna pregunta sobre del proceso de la entrevista?*

I. Teoría de justicia (25)

1. ¿Hace cuánto tiempo trabaja en esta universidad y en específico en el programa de formación de profesores de educación básica?
2. ¿Cómo decidió trabajar en esta universidad y en este programa?
Indague en: ¿Qué aspectos de esta universidad y de este programa fueron importantes para que usted tomara la decisión de trabajar aquí?
3. ¿Si usted tuviera que describir el programa de educación básica usando tres palabras claves cuáles serían?
4. ¿Cuál es la visión y misión del programa de educación básica?
Indague en: ¿Cuáles cree usted que son las metas de la educación que se desprenden de esta misión y visión?
Indague en: ¿Cómo el programa prepara a los estudiantes de educación para lograr estas metas?
Indague en: ¿Existen diferencias entre las metas de educación que serán promovidas en los docentes que tomarán la nueva especialización (Enseñanza en Contextos Sociales Desventajados) y los que toman el programa regular? (Sólo para el decano de educación y los jefes de carrera)
5. Teniendo en cuenta lo que usted dijo acerca de los objetivos de la educación, ¿Cuáles son las responsabilidades y roles de los docentes en esa visión?
Indague en: ¿Cuál cree que es/son el/los role(s) de un docente que enseña a estudiantes de grupos marginalizados/minoritarios?

Indague en: ¿Considera que el rol de los docentes que trabajan con estudiantes de grupos marginalizados/minoritarios es diferente al rol de otros docentes? ¿Por qué si o por qué no?

6. (Si el entrevistado mencionan la palabra equidad) ¿Qué significa equidad para usted?

Indague en: ¿Cómo se manifiesta en la enseñanza?

Indague en: ¿Cómo se manifiesta en el aprendizaje de la lectura y matemáticas?

Indague en: ¿Cómo se promueve la equidad en el programa?

7. (Si el entrevistado mencionan la palabra equidad) ¿Qué significa diversidad para usted?

Indague en: ¿Cómo se manifiesta en la enseñanza?

Indague en: ¿Cómo se manifiesta en el aprendizaje de la lectura y matemáticas?

Indague en: ¿Cómo se promueve la diversidad en el programa?

II. Teoría de Formación de Profesores (20)

1. ¿Cuáles es el perfil de egreso de los estudiantes de educación básica?

Indague en: ¿Cómo son estos resultados evaluados por el programa? (Buscar herramientas concretas)

Indague en: ¿Qué tipos de evaluaciones son utilizadas en su curso? (para los formadores)

2. ¿Cómo caracterizaría el tipo o perfil de estudiante que ingresa al programa de educación básica?

3. ¿Cuáles son las estrategias de selección y reclutamiento usadas por el programa?

Indague en: ¿Qué criterios son importantes para seleccionar a los estudiantes de educación?

Indague en: ¿Cuál es el público objetivo de estudiantes que el programa desea reclutar?

Indague en: ¿En que lugares o redes ustedes reclutan estudiantes de educación?

4. ¿Con qué instituciones u organizaciones el programa tiene alianzas?

Indague en: ¿Qué tipo de relación tiene el programa con estas organizaciones o instituciones?

Profundizar en las relaciones con las escuelas y departamentos de educación o corporaciones SI estos son mencionados por el entrevistado.

5. Recuerda usted alguna decisión importante que el cuerpo docente hayan tenido que tomar respecto del curriculum o las estrategias de enseñanza usadas en el programa de formación de profesores de pedagogía básica? ¿Puede describir esta experiencia?

Indague en: ¿Cómo fue le proceso de toma de decisiones?

Indague en: ¿Qué principios guiaron estas decisiones?

Indague en: Estos principios han sido relevantes en otras ocasiones para el

programa?

III. Teoría de Práctica (25)

1a. ¿Qué cursos usted enseña actualmente? (para formadores de profesores y supervisores de práctica). Qué aspectos/elementos son importantes para usted cuando usted prepara el programa del curso _____?

1b. ¿Qué participación tuvo usted en el diseño del programa de ed. Básica? Que aspectos fueron importantes para usted al momento de diseñar el programa? (para decano y jefe de carrera)

2. En su opinión, ¿Cuáles son los conocimientos más importante que los estudiantes de pedagogía básica deben aprender en su programa/curso?

Indague en: ¿Cómo es promovido este conocimiento en los estudiantes de educación?

Indague en: ¿Qué cursos o actividades son diseñadas para promover este conocimiento? (para el decano de educación y los jefes de carrera)

Indague en: ¿Qué actividades, herramientas, lecturas y tareas son diseñadas para promover este conocimiento en los estudiantes de educación en los cursos que usted enseña (Para los formadores de profesores) o en las prácticas (Para los supervisores de práctica)?. Buscar ejemplos concretos.

3. ¿En su opinión, cuales son las estrategias de enseñanza más importante que los estudiantes de pedagogía básica deben aprender en su programa/curso?

Indague en: ¿Cómo estos métodos y estrategias son promovidos en los estudiantes de educación?

Indague en: ¿Qué cursos y actividades son diseñados para promover estos métodos y estrategias? (para el decano de educación y los jefes de carrera)

Indague en: ¿Qué actividades, herramientas, lecturas y tareas son diseñadas para promover estos métodos y estrategias en los estudiantes de educación en los cursos que usted enseña (Para los formadores de profesores) o en las prácticas? (Para los supervisores de práctica). Buscar ejemplos concretos.

4. ¿ En su opinión, cuales son las habilidades más importante que los estudiantes de pedagogía básica deben desarrollar en su programa/curso

Indague en: ¿Cómo estas habilidades son promovidas en los estudiantes de educación?

Indague en: ¿Qué cursos/actividades son diseñados para promover estas habilidades? (para el decano de educación y los jefes de carrera)

Indague en: ¿Qué actividades, herramientas, lecturas y tareas son diseñadas para promover estas habilidades en los estudiantes de educación en los cursos que usted enseña (Para los formadores de profesores) o en las prácticas (Para los supervisores de práctica)?— Buscar ejemplos concretos.

5. ¿Qué aspectos teóricos son importantes para que los estudiantes de educación interpreten lo que viven en la sala de clases y en las escuelas?

Indague en: ¿Cómo estos aspectos conceptuales son promovidos en los estudiantes de educación?

Indague en: ¿En qué cursos o actividades los estudiantes de educación aprenden sobre estos aspectos conceptuales? (para el decano de educación y los jefes de carrera)?

Indague en: ¿A través de que actividades, herramientas, lecturas y tareas los estudiantes de educación aprenden sobre estos aspectos conceptuales en los cursos que usted enseña (Para los formadores de profesores) o en las prácticas (Para los supervisores de práctica)?.

IV. Políticas Actuales de Formación Docente (20)

Cambiando de tema y centrándonos en lo que pasa a nivel nacional en formación docente:

1. ¿Cuál es tu visión de las actuales políticas educativas asociadas con formación docente: la prueba INICIA, los estándares, los convenios de desempeño para formación de profesores y la beca vocación de profesor para estudiantes de educación?

Indague en: ¿Cuáles piensa usted que son las metas de estas políticas? ¿Está de acuerdo con las metas y estrategias usadas?

Indague en: ¿Cuáles son los beneficios de estas políticas? (Beneficios para los programas de formación de profesores, estudiantes de educación, estudiantes o la educación en general)

Indague en: ¿Cuáles son las desventajas de estas políticas? (Desventajas para los programas de formación de profesores, estudiantes de educación, estudiantes o la educación en general)

Indague en: ¿Están estas políticas conectadas con temas de diversidad y equidad? ¿Cómo?

2. ¿Cómo piensa usted que estas políticas han afectado su programa?

Indague en: ¿Puede dar un ejemplo de este impacto?

Note: Profundizar en el impacto en el curriculum, prácticas, metas de los programas y perfil de egreso de los estudiantes de educación SI esto es mencionado por el entrevistado.

3. ¿Cuáles son los cambios que el programa ha iniciado como resultado de estas políticas?

Indague en: ¿Cómo han sido decididos estos cambios?

Indague en: ¿Quién ha estado a cargo de estos cambios?

Indague en: ¿Cómo estos cambios han sido implementados? (Proceso de cambio)

Indague en: ¿Ha habido resistencias para implementar estos cambios?

Note: Profundizar en cambios en el curriculum, prácticas, metas del programa y perfil de egreso de los estudiantes de educación SI estos son mencionados por el entrevistado.

4. ¿Considera que estas estrategias están alineadas con las prácticas y metas de su programa?

Indague en: ¿Puede mencionar un ejemplo de cómo son diferentes o similares?

Protocolo de Entrevista #2

Los Miembros del Equipo para la Enseñanza en Contextos Sociales Desventajados serán consultados sobre la teoría de práctica, teoría de justicia y teoría de formación de profesores de sus programas, así como las actuales políticas de formación de profesores. Ejemplos de las preguntas incluidas en la entrevista son listadas abajo.

*Esta entrevista se centrará en las características de su programa de formación de profesores y su visión acerca de las políticas nacionales de formación docente. Toda la información recogida será confidencial. Recuerde que si alguna pregunta lo hace sentir incómodo, usted puede reusarse a contestarla y puede terminar la entrevista en cualquier momento. Esta entrevista tomará 90 minutos aproximadamente **y su audio será grabado**. ¿Tiene alguna pregunta sobre el proceso de la entrevista?*

I. Teoría de Justicia (25)

1. ¿Hace cuánto tiempo trabaja en esta universidad y en específico en la especialización/certificación **Enseñanza en Contextos Sociales Desventajados**?
2. ¿Cómo decidió trabajar en esta universidad y esta especialización/certificación?
Indague en: ¿Qué aspectos de esta universidad y de esta especialización/certificación fueron importantes para que usted tomara la decisión de trabajar aquí?
3. Si usted tuviera que describir la especialización/certificación usando tres palabras claves ¿Cuáles serían?
Indague en: ¿Cuál es la visión y misión de la certificación?
Indague en: ¿Cuál es la visión y misión del programa de educación básica?
4. ¿Cuáles cree usted que son las metas de la educación?
Indague en: ¿Cómo el programa prepara a los estudiantes de educación para lograr estas metas?
Indague en: ¿Existen diferencias entre las metas de educación que serán promovidas en los docentes que tomarán la nueva especialización (Enseñanza en Contextos Sociales Desventajados) y los que toman el programa regular?
Indague en: ¿Cómo la especialización/certificación prepara a los estudiantes de educación para lograr estas metas?
5. Teniendo en cuenta lo que usted dijo acerca de los objetivos de la educación, ¿Cuáles son las responsabilidades y roles de los docentes en esa visión?

Indague en: ¿Cuál cree que es/son el/los rol(s) de un docente que enseña a estudiantes de grupos marginalizados/minoritarios?

Indague en: ¿Considera que el rol de los docentes que trabajan con estudiantes de grupos marginalizados/minoritarios es diferente al rol de otros docentes? ¿Por qué si o por qué no?

6. (Si el entrevistado menciona la palabra equidad) ¿Qué significa equidad para usted?

Indague en: ¿Cómo se manifiesta en la enseñanza?

Indague en: ¿Cómo se manifiesta en el aprendizaje de la lectura y matemáticas?

Indague en: ¿Cómo se promueve la equidad en el programa?

Indague en: ¿Qué significado tiene equidad en la nueva especialización:
Enseñanza en Contextos Sociales Desventajados?

7. (Si el entrevistado menciona la palabra diversidad) ¿Qué significa diversidad para usted?

Indague en: ¿Cómo se manifiesta en la enseñanza?

Indague en: ¿Cómo se manifiesta en el aprendizaje de la lectura y matemáticas?

Indague en: ¿Cómo se promueve la diversidad en el programa?

Indague en: ¿Qué significado tiene diversidad en la nueva especialización:
Enseñanza en Contextos Sociales Desventajados?

II . Teoría de Formación de Profesores (20)

1. ¿Cuáles es el perfil de egreso de los estudiantes de educación?

Indague en: ¿Cómo son estos resultados evaluados por el programa? (Buscar herramientas concretas)

Indague en: ¿ Cuáles es el perfil de egreso de los estudiantes de educación que tomen la especialización?

Indague en: ¿Cómo son estos resultados evaluados en la especialización? (Buscar herramientas concretas)

3. ¿Cómo caracterizaría el tipo o perfil de estudiante que ingresa al programa de educación básica?

4. ¿Cuáles son las estrategias de selección y reclutamiento usadas por el programa?

Indague en: ¿Qué criterios son importantes para seleccionar a los estudiantes de educación?

Indague en: ¿Cuál es el público objetivo de estudiantes que el programa desea reclutar?

Indague en: ¿En que lugares o redes ustedes reclutan estudiantes de educación?

Indague en: ¿Qué criterios son importantes para seleccionar a los estudiantes de educación que tomen la especialización?

Indague en: ¿Cuál es el público objetivo de la especialización?

Indague en: ¿En que lugares o redes esperan reclutar estudiantes de educación para la especialización?

5. ¿Con qué instituciones u organizaciones el programa tiene alianzas?

Indague en: ¿Qué tipo de relación tiene el programa con estas organizaciones o instituciones?

Indague en: ¿Hay organizaciones o instituciones que tienen alianzas exclusivamente con la especialización?, ¿Qué tipo de alianza?

Profundizar en las relaciones con las escuelas y departamentos de educación o corporaciones SI estos son mencionados por el entrevistado.

6. Recuerda usted alguna decisión importante que el cuerpo docente haya tenido que tomar respecto del curriculum o las estrategias de enseñanza usadas en el programa de educación básica y/o en la especialización ¿Puede describir esa experiencia?

Indague en: ¿Cómo fue el proceso de toma de decisiones?

Indague en: ¿Qué principios guiaron esas decisiones?

Indague en: ¿Estos principios han sido relevantes en otras ocasiones para el programa?

III. Teoría de Práctica (25)

* ¿Qué participación tuvo usted en el diseño de la especialización/certificación? ¿Qué aspectos fueron importantes para usted al momento de diseñar el programa?

1. ¿Qué conocimiento es importante para ser profesor de educación básica?

Indague en: ¿Cómo es promovido este conocimiento en los estudiantes de educación?

Indague en: ¿Qué cursos o actividades son diseñadas para promover este conocimiento?

Indague en: ¿Existe un conocimiento específico que es importante para enseñar en contextos sociales desventajados?

2. ¿Qué métodos y estrategias usted considera que son importantes para ser profesor de educación básica?

Indague en: ¿Cómo estos métodos y estrategias son promovidos en los estudiantes de educación?

Indague en: ¿Qué cursos y actividades son diseñados para promover estos métodos y estrategias?

Indague en: ¿Existen métodos y estrategias específicas que son importantes para enseñar en contextos sociales desventajados?

3. ¿Qué habilidades son importantes para ser profesor de educación básica?

Indague en: ¿Cómo estas habilidades son promovidas en los estudiantes de educación?

Indague en: ¿Qué cursos y actividades son diseñados para promover estas habilidades?

Indague en: ¿Existen habilidades específicas que son importantes para enseñar en contextos sociales desventajados?

4. ¿Qué aspectos teóricos son importantes para que los estudiantes de educación interpreten lo que viven en la sala de clases y en las escuelas?

Indague en: ¿Cómo estos aspectos conceptuales son promovidos en los estudiantes de educación?

Indague en: ¿En qué cursos o actividades los estudiantes de educación aprenden sobre estos aspectos conceptuales?

Indague en: ¿Existen aspectos conceptuales específicos que son importantes para enseñar en contextos sociales desventajados?

IV. Políticas Actuales de Formación Docente (20)

1. ¿Cuál es tu visión de las actuales políticas educativas asociadas con formación docente: la prueba INICIA, los estándares, los convenios de desempeño para formación de profesores y la beca vocación de profesor para estudiantes de educación?

Indague en: ¿Cuáles piensa usted que son las metas de estas políticas? ¿Está de acuerdo con las metas y estrategias usadas?

Indague en: ¿Cuáles son los beneficios de estas políticas? (Para los programas de formación de profesores, estudiantes de educación, estudiantes o la educación en general)

Indague en: ¿Cuáles son las desventajas de estas políticas? (Para los programas de formación de profesores, estudiantes de educación, estudiantes o la educación en general)

Indague en: ¿Están estas políticas conectadas con temas de diversidad y equidad? ¿Cómo?

2. ¿Cómo piensa usted que estas políticas han afectado su programa?

Indague en: ¿Puede dar un ejemplo de este impacto?

Note: Profundizar en el impacto en el curriculum, prácticas, metas de los programas y perfil de egreso de los estudiantes de educación SI esto es mencionado por el entrevistado.

3. ¿Cuáles son los cambios que el programa ha iniciado como resultado de estas políticas?

Indague en: ¿Cómo han sido decididos estos cambios?

Indague en: ¿Quién ha estado a cargo de estos cambios?

Indague en: ¿Cómo estos cambios han sido implementados? (Proceso de cambio)

Indague en: ¿Ha habido resistencias para implementar estos cambios?

Note: Profundizar en cambios en el curriculum, prácticas, metas del programa y perfil de egreso de los estudiantes de educación SI estos son mencionados por el entrevistado.

4. ¿Considera que estas estrategias están alineadas con las prácticas y metas de su programa?

Indague en: ¿Puede mencionar un ejemplo de cómo son diferentes o similares?

Protocolo de Entrevista Grupal #3

Los estudiantes de educación serán consultados sobre la teoría de práctica, teoría de justicia y teoría de formación de profesores de sus programas, así como las actuales políticas de formación de profesores. Ejemplos de las preguntas incluidas en la entrevista grupal son listadas abajo.

Esta entrevista grupal se centrará en las características de su programa de formación de profesores y su visión acerca de las políticas nacionales de formación docente. Toda la información recogida será confidencial. Les pediré que por favor no comenten fuera de este grupo nada de lo que se discuta hoy para asegurar la confidencialidad de la información que discutamos. Recuerda que si alguna pregunta te hace sentir incómodo, tu puedes reusarte a contestarla y puedes terminar la entrevista en cualquier momento. Esta entrevista tomará 90 minutos aproximadamente y su audio será grabado. ¿Tienes alguna pregunta sobre el proceso de la entrevista?

I. Teoría de Justicia (25 minutos)

0. ¿En qué etapa de su formación están? ¿Qué significa eso en términos concretos?

1. ¿Qué aspectos de esta universidad fueron importantes para que decidieran estudiar aquí (en esta universidad)?

2. ¿Cuál es el sello del programa de pedagogía básica?

Indague en: ¿Cuál es el énfasis o foco de la formación?

(resumir y luego preguntar si hay otra característica relevante)

3. ¿Cuál es la visión y misión del programa de educación básica?

Indague en: ¿Cuáles son los objetivos del programa de pedagogía básica?

4. Teniendo en cuenta lo que dijeron acerca de los objetivos del programa ¿Cuál es el rol para que los preparen el programa?

Indague en: ¿creen que hay un consenso entre sus profesores respecto a que se entiende por un buen profesor? ¿Cómo se aprende ese rol en el programa, a través de qué actividades, recursos, lecturas, cursos?

Indague en: ¿Cómo el programa evalúa que ustedes logren ese rol o esa idea de buen profesor?

Indague en: ¿Creen ustedes que este rol es el mismo enseñando en distintos contextos?

Indague en: ¿Cuál crees que es/son el/los role(s) de un docente que enseña a estudiantes de grupos marginalizados/minoritarios?

5. (Si los entrevistados mencionan la palabra equidad) ¿Qué significa equidad para ustedes?

Indague en: ¿Cómo se manifiesta en la enseñanza?

Indague en: ¿Cómo se manifiesta en el aprendizaje de la lectura y matemáticas?

Indague en: ¿Cómo se promueve la equidad en el programa?

6. (Si los entrevistados mencionan la palabra diversidad) ¿Qué significa diversidad para ustedes?

Indague en: ¿Cómo se manifiesta en la enseñanza?

Indague en: ¿Cómo se manifiesta en el aprendizaje de la lectura y matemáticas?

Indague en: ¿Cómo se promueve la diversidad en el programa?

III. Teoría de Práctica (25 minutos)

1. En su opinión, ¿Cuáles son los conocimientos más importantes que los estudiantes de pedagogía básica aprenden en el programa?

Indague en: ¿En qué cursos aprenden esos conocimientos? ¿Cómo se promueve ese conocimiento en los cursos que han tomado?

Indague en: ¿A través de que actividades, herramientas, lecturas y tareas este conocimiento es promovido en los cursos que han tomado?— Buscar ejemplos concretos

Indague en: ¿A través de que actividades, herramientas, lecturas y tareas este conocimiento es promovido en las practicas?— Buscar ejemplos concretos

2. En su opinión, ¿Cuáles son las estrategias de enseñanza más importantes que los estudiantes de pedagogía básica aprenden en el programa o en las que se pone más énfasis desde el programa?

Indague en: ¿En qué cursos aprenden esas estrategias? ¿Cómo estos métodos y estrategias son promovidos en los cursos?

Indague en: ¿A través de qué actividades, herramientas, lecturas y tareas estas estrategias de enseñanza han sido promovidas en los cursos que has tomado?— Buscar ejemplos concretos

Indague en: ¿A través de qué actividades, herramientas, lecturas y tareas estas estrategias de enseñanza son promovidas en las prácticas?— Buscar ejemplos concretos

3. En su opinión: ¿Cuáles son las habilidades más importantes que los estudiantes de pedagogía básica aprenden en el programa?

Indague en: ¿En qué cursos aprenden esas habilidades? ¿A través de qué actividades, herramientas, lecturas y tareas estas habilidades han sido promovidas en los cursos que has tomado?— Buscar ejemplos concretos

Indague en: ¿A través de qué actividades, herramientas, lecturas y tareas estas habilidades han sido promovidas en las prácticas?— Buscar ejemplos concretos

II. Teoría de Formación de Profesores (20 minutos)

5. ¿Cómo está estructurado u organizada la malla del programa?

Indague en: ¿Consideras que hay valores fundamentales o principios que guían la organización de la malla?

Indague en: ¿Cómo estos valores fundamentales o principios son evidentes en el tipo de cursos que tomaste y las actividades que completaste en el programa?

3. ¿Con qué instituciones u organizaciones el programa tiene alianzas?

Indague en: ¿Qué tipo de relación tiene el programa con estas organizaciones o instituciones (o escuelas)?

Indague en: ¿En que instituciones u organizaciones realizaron sus prácticas?

Profundizar en las relaciones con las escuelas y departamentos de educación o corporaciones SI estos son mencionados por los entrevistados.

4. Recuerdan alguna decisión o cambio importante en el curriculum o las estrategias de enseñanza usadas en el programa de formación de profesores de pedagogía básica?

¿Pueden describir estos cambios?

Indague en: ¿Cómo fue el proceso de toma de decisiones?

Indague en: ¿Qué principios guiaron estas decisiones?

Indague en: Estos principios han sido relevantes en otras ocasiones para el programa?

¿Hay alguna otra característica o aspecto del programa que desean señalar y que yo no he cubierto con mis preguntas?

IV. Políticas Actuales de Formación Docente (20 minutos)

Nos centraremos ahora en las actuales políticas educativas asociadas con formación docente: la prueba INICIA, los estándares, los convenios de desempeño para formación de profesores y la beca vocación de profesor para estudiantes de educación.

0. ¿Cuáles de estas políticas han escuchado o les son más familiares? (centrar la conversación en esas políticas)

1. ¿Cuál es su visión de las actuales políticas educativas asociadas con formación docente: la prueba INICIA, los estándares, los convenios de desempeño para formación de profesores y la beca vocación de profesor para estudiantes de educación?

* Indague en: ¿Cuáles piensas que son las metas de estas políticas? ¿Estás de acuerdo con las metas y estrategias usadas?

Indague en: ¿Cuáles son los beneficios de estas políticas? (Para los programas de formación de profesores, estudiantes de educación, estudiantes o la educación en general)

Indague en: ¿Cuáles son las desventajas de estas políticas? (Para los programas de formación de profesores, estudiantes de educación, estudiantes o la educación en general)

Indague en: ¿Están estas políticas conectadas con temas de diversidad y equidad? ¿Cómo?

2. ¿Cómo piensas que estas políticas han afectado tu programa?

Indague en: ¿Puedes dar un ejemplo de este impacto?

Note: Profundizar en el impacto en el curriculum, prácticas, metas de los programas y perfil de egreso de los estudiantes de educación SI esto es mencionado por los entrevistados.

3. ¿Cuáles son los cambios que el programa ha iniciado como resultado de estas

políticas?

Indague en: ¿Cómo estos cambios han sido implementados? (Proceso de cambio)

Indague en: ¿Han habido resistencias de los estudiantes para implementar estos cambios?

Note: Profundizar en cambios en el curriculum, prácticas, metas del programa y perfil de egreso de los estudiantes de educación SI estos son mencionados por el entrevistado.

4. ¿Consideras que estas estrategias están alineadas con las prácticas y metas de su programa?

Indague en: ¿Pueden mencionar un ejemplo de cómo son diferentes o similares?

5. ¿Hay algún otro comentario o aspecto que desean señalar sobre las políticas de formación docente que se están implementando actualmente y que yo no haya cubierto con mis preguntas anteriores?

Appendix B

Interviews Categories, Code families and Codes

Theory of teacher education

1. Collaboration
 - with schools
 - among faculty
 - with other universities/int scholars
 - with community/organizations
 - with Santiago
2. Influences
 - International (univ, organizations, scholars, or countries)
 - By/To Ministry of Education
 - Local community or schools
 - National organization or actor (outside the university)
 - By other universities' schools
 - From Santiago
3. Knowledge valued & characteristic valued
 - Content knowledge
 - PCK
 - Pedagogical knowledge
 - Practical knowledge (& HLP)
 - Theoretical references/frames
 - Knowledge of the context/students
 - Methods (didactica)
 - Social commitment (e.g. vocation)
 - Professional attitudes (e.g. leadership, team work, reflection)
 - Basic skills and metacognition
 - Research & reflection
 - Knowledge of national guideliness
4. View of themselves
 - View of student teachers
 - View of university or faculties
5. Program/courses characteristics
 - Activities
 - Evaluations
 - Resources (no books)
 - Outcomes
 - TPP organization
 - Omissions
 - Sello South/autonomy
 - Admission
6. Alignment
 - Faculty alignment/misalignment (about of theory of Ted)
 - Intercampus alignment
 - misalignment (about of theory of Ted)

Theory of practice

1. View of K-12 students/context/schools
2. Goal of education
3. Definition of good/effective teacher
4. Definition of good/effective teaching strategies

Theory of justice

1. Teacher role teaching in disadvantage contexts
2. Diversity
 - Definition of diversity
 - How to respond to diversity
3. Equity
 - Definition of equity
 - How to respond to inequality

Policies

1. View/perception of policy
 - Standards
 - MOE grants
 - Scholarships
 - "inicia" test
 - Its perceived relationship with equity & diversity
 - About other national policies
 - View of university decisions/changes
2. Participation in policies
 - National policies(part of the study)
 - University policies
 - In other policies or projects
3. Changes
 - as result of national policies
 - as result of Santiago decisions

Diagnostic frames

1. Teachers

- Low teachers capacity
- Low commitment

2. Curriculum

- Underconceptualized /theoretical
- Informal process/subjective
- Weak content knowledge

Separation theory and practice
Weak academic preparation
No preparation for equity/diversity
Weak teacher education in general
Weak teaching methods
No connected with reality

3. Organization

Disarticulation
Differences between student teachers and K-12 students

4. Context

Inequity problem
Unregulated TPP/Heterogeneity
No priority/no consensus
Complexity of Ted.
Underdeveloped country/Chile behind other countries
Low status of the profession

Motivation frames and symbolic devices

1. Based on

Live experience (based on)
Following best program/scholars
Literature/research (based on)

2. Why this is important

Strategic for country or university
Importance of teachers
Importance/consequences of TPP

3. Why in this direction

Learning from previous policies
Respond to national demands
Respond to religious mission
Respond to context/students
Align with Santiago
Connect theory with practice
Align with school practices

4. What good things we get/benefits

Articulation (inside programs)
Objectivity/clarity (give)

Appendix C

Institutional Documents and Course materials Categories, Code families and Codes

Theory of Teacher Education

Code Family: Collaboration

amongst faculty
with community/organizations
with MOE
with other universities/international
scholars
with schools
with South
with Santiago

Code Family: Influences

By/To MOE
International
National scholars or organizations

Code Family: Knowledge valued/characteristic valued

basic skills
Content knowledge
Knowledge of the context/students
Methods
PCK
Pedagogical knowledge
Practical knowledge (HPL)
Professional attitudes
TIC
Research & reflection
Knowledge of national guidelines

Code Family: View of themselves

View of students
View of university or faculties

Code Family: Program/courses characteristics

Activities
Admission
Evaluations
Outcomes
Resources (no books)
TPP organization

Code Family: Alignment

Faculty alignment/misalignment
Intercampus alignment/misalignment

Theory of practice

Goal of education
View of K-12 students/context/schools

Theory of Justice

Code Family: Diversity

How to respond to diversity
Definition of diversity

Code Family: Equity

Definition of equity
How to respond to inequality

Policies

Code Family: View/perception of policy

Inicia test
MOE grants
scholarships
Standards
view of university decisions/changes

Code Family: Participation in policies

National policies
student teacher participation *in the program
University policies

Code Family: Changes

Changes as result of national policies
Changes as result of university policies
Challenges in the process

Diagnostic Frames

1. Context
Challenges of changes in context (ext or in)
Internationalization/globalization (DF)
No priority/no consensus
2. Teachers or professors capacities
low teachers capacity

- Low teacher ed capacities
3. Student teachers
 - attrition
 - low achievements in inicia test
 - low basic skills
 - Low enrollment
 - low selectiveness
 4. Organizational aspects
 - Burocracy/managment problems
 - Challeges of change (problem)
 - climate communication (problems)
 - Differences between Stgo and south
 - Low impact of research
 - Disarticulation
 - No information/monitoreo systems
 5. Curriculum
 - Informal process/subjective
 - Insatisfaction with curriculum
 - No preparation for TIC
 - weak content knowledge
 - weak pedagogical y/o profesional preparation
 - Low support to student teachers
 - gap preparation and standards
 - Low connection with disadvantage communities

Prognostic Frame

1. Need changes in organization
 - evaluation and monitoreo PROG
 - Improve work climate & communication
 - Human resources (organization)
 - Create capacity (as prognostic)
 - Institutionalization (as prognostic)
 - Promote collaboration (prog)
 - improve interdisciplinary work (prog)
 - Improve research (prog)
 - marketing (as prognostic)
 - International connections (prognostic)
2. Need changes in outcomes
 - Improve results in stand tests
 - Improve student teachers capacities
 - Acreditation
 - Leadership as university (prog)

Change curriculum (as prognostic)
change practice (as prognostic)

3. Need changes in inputs
 - attract better students *prog
 - New funding sources
 - Increase selectiveness
4. Need changes in curriculum
 - Plan de induccion PROG
 - Integrate areas (prog)
 - Integration of knowledge
 - Support retention
 - Define a sello
 - Religious identity (Prog)
 - Connect theory with practice

Symbolic devices

1. Base on:
 - conviccion (symb)
 - Following the best programs/scholars
 - Live experience (based on)
 - Literature/research
2. Why this is important
 - Importance of teachers
 - Importance of this university *symbolic
 - Importance/consequences of TPP
 - Strategic for country or university
3. Why in this direction
 - Respond to context/students
 - Respond to international demands
 - Respond to national demands
 - Respond to religious mission
 - Articulation (inside programs)/simbolic
 - Respond to university demands/challenges
4. What good things we will get/benefits
 - Institucionalization of change (symbolic)
 - Institutional climate (symbolic)
 - Promover eficacia *symb
 - Achieve excelence (symbolic device)
 - Quality (symb)
 - achieve justice (symbolic)
 - Innovation
 - Mejoramiento continuo

Appendix D

National Policy Documents Categories, Code families and Codes

Theory of Practice

1. Teachers Knowledge & Characteristics valued

Basic Skills

Disciplinary knowledge

Pedagogical knowledge

Skills for using TICs

Commitment with students

Commitment with professional

learning/reflection/research

Knowledge of teaching and/or evaluation strategies

Theories of learning

Knowledge of the students & community

Professional attitudes (team work, leadership, flexibility, ethical behavior)

Knowledge about community/school culture

Respond to diversity & promote integration

Work with community

Classroom management

Strategies to promote students' social & personal development

Articulate program with national priorities

Timely graduate new teachers

“Nivelar” student teachers

Prepare teachers for evaluation & curriculum

Prepare teachers for “habilidades transversales”

Prepare teachers for research

Implement new evaluation and methodology strategies

Focalize on students' learning achievement & their means

Provide a comprehensive education to student teachers

Modify specializations

Implement practices for quality insurance

Promote professional development for teacher educators

Promote high achievement in student teachers

Promote research and its use among its staff

Improve practicum

Renew staff

Support/develop institutional change

Review national and international good practices

Guarantee teaching competences in graduates

Respond to diversity in Ted

Develop capacity of management

Theory of Teacher Education

1. Aspects evaluated in grants program

Main indicator: exit test achiev. & value added by new teachers

Increase level of achievement of K-12 students

Increase of levels of performance in admission test

Increase number & quality of collaboration with external institutions

Implement systems of retention, “nivelacion” & support

Increase student teachers' employability

Increase research

2. What all programs should have/do

Adapt programs to standards

Adapt programs to exit Test

Analyze staff needs & define institutional objectives

Articulate disciplinary and pedagogical knowledge

Articulate program with k-12

Articulate program with international demands

Diagnostic Frames

1. Policy level

Nonexistence of exit test

Absence of guidelines for teacher education

Nonexistence cut-off in exit test

Nonexistence of standards

Insufficient/inefficient strategies

No systemic approach for policy

2. Student teachers & teachers

Lack of basic skills

Lack of disciplinary knowledge

Lack preparation for practice

Lack preparation for research in classroom

First generation in university/no from private schools

Low motivation to study education

Teachers/teachers candidates' low quality

Low performance in national admission university test

Low specialization of teachers

3. Teacher Preparation programs

Increase of student enrollment
Increase of teacher education programs
Bad infrastructure
Heterogeneity in programs quality
Lack of incentives for improvement
Lack of innovation in teacher education programs
Teacher preparation irresponsibility
Lack of quality of programs
Low status of teacher preparation institutions
Lack regulation/supervision/evaluation of teacher education programs
Low selectiveness
Low preparation/specialization of teacher educators
Management problems in universities or programs
Scant production and use of research
Low number of programs accredited
Low impact of teacher preparation programs in student teachers
Lack articulation with k-12

4. Curriculum of teacher preparation programs

Lack articulation disciplinary and pedagogical knowledge in Ted preparation
Lack attention to diversity in TED
Lack of articulation with reform
Low articulation curriculum & student outcomes
Low articulation curriculum TED and K-12
Lack of pedagogical knowledge

5. Context

Teaching is a no attractive career
Distrust in teachers and t. educ.
Low status of profession
Low teachers' salaries
Increase of new teachers

6. Educational system results

Low student achievement
Low Quality & Inequity
Gap between Chile vs other countries

Prognostic Frame

1. Influence/impact process of teacher preparation

Control quality Ted programs
Create/give guidelines to teacher preparation programs
Design and implement Standards
Provide information about/to teacher preparation programs
Grants/funding for teacher preparation programs
Establish sanctions/consequence for Ted programs
Create a new regulatory institution
Regulation with autonomy/Accountability
Improve accreditation
Articulate standards with professional standards
Articulate exit test with standards
Make exit test mandatory

2. Inputs/outputs

Create requirements to access to the profession
Define criteria for hiring teacher educators
Define cut-off levels of performance in exit test
Request minimum criteria for teaching/for st teachers outcomes in exit test
Evaluate entry competences of student teachers
Establish Sanctions/consequences for st teachers/teachers

3. Influence offer & demand

Increase requirements for Ted programs
Disincentive short programs or technical training
Provide economic incentives for student teachers/teachers
Generate information about student teachers impact
Provide information for prospective students
Provide public information
Improve salaries

4. Changes in Ministry of Education

Create articulated strategies
Generate agreements/commitment

5. Changes in outcomes

Attract good teachers/candidates
Increase retention and selectiveness of student teachers
Increase student teachers performance in exit test
Improve student achievement
Increase autoregulation and improvement of programs

Increase quality student teachers/teachers
Improve status of the profession
Improve university-community relationship
Improve university-school relationships
Improve quality of teacher preparation
Improve teacher education policies
Improve disciplinary knowledge in teacher education

Symbolic devices & motivational frames

1. What good things we will get/benefits

Improve recruitment of teacher ed. programs
Strengthen teacher education quality
Improve effectivity of education
Improve teacher quality
Increase student achievement
Prepare teachers that Chile needs
Quality and equitable educational system
Ted programs' high performance, overcoming challenges, & strategic positioning

2. Why this is important

Catch up other countries

Desire of equity/justice
Teacher effectiveness
Efficiency
Teaching excellence
Material incentives
Moral inducements
Status as incentive
Reward merit
Transparency

3. Why in this direction

Priority topic
Teachers as key factor for change & learning
They want/need/like to have information

4. Based on

Consensus/Common Knowledge
International evidence
Objectivity
National evidence
The best ed. system have/do it
Gradual changes
Previous strategies used for equity
Previous strategies used in Ted
Confidence

ⁱ lo que más reclamaban los estudiantes era el como manejar procesos de sala de clases con sus

ⁱⁱ creo que en algunos momentos del curriculum se fue el péndulo hacia el otro lado es decir mucha teoría de la educación, mucha sociología, mucha filosofía, pero nadie sabía cómo enseñar a leer a un niño con problemas en una sala de clases, ¿me explico?, y Chile tuvo yo creo mucho tiempo el defecto de tener un pedagogía muy discursiva y poco pragmática en el sentido de adquirir elementos o herramientas específicas para que los niños desarrollen aprendizajes (Interview 16, new dean, Central Campus)

ⁱⁱⁱ Pasaba que en Chile mucha de la formación inicial era mucho más teórica aunque si bien se abordaban temas prácticos, era de una perspectiva mucho más teórica declarativa, es decir, no sé, pienso en el caso concreto de la didáctica de la lectura, para enseñar a leer estas son las estrategias y uno da un montón de estrategias pero le damos muy pocas oportunidades a los estudiantes de bajar una estrategia, practicarlo por ejemplo concretamente, cómo voy a hacer una discusión en torno a un texto, entonces, cómo elijo un texto, eeeh después cómo segmento ese texto, cómo qué tengo preguntarle a un niño y practicar eso, hacer ensayo, descomponer esas prácticas... (Interview 11, language methods teacher educator, Central Campus)

^{iv} Yo creo que se buscó impulsar un mayor alineamiento entre los cursos y las prácticas, y que de alguna manera existiera un eje articulador de las prácticas porque antes pasaba mucho que la práctica era más casi que al criterio del supervisor, habían pautas y cosas comunes, pero estaba harto más diría yo la subjetividad, como que ahora el proceso es mucho más objetivo, es más descriptivo lo que uno tiene que mirar, entonces también te permite orientar mucho mejor esos procesos (Interview 13, Clinical faculty 1, Central Campus).

^v vamos todos como a la misma, en la misma línea, o logrando las mismas metas, haciendo las mismas actividades, eso también antes era, un supervisor tenía un bloque de clases y hacía las actividades que estimaba pertinentes según las necesidades de ese grupo, y según las necesidades de ese contexto, y no habían, había una reunión quincenal para hablar temas generales, pero ahora no po, hay reuniones todas las semanas, tenemos una calendarización y un programa común, yo creo que ese es un cambio grande (Interview 15, Clinical faculty 2, Central Campus)

^{vi} la integración de estas dos dimensiones constitutivas de la mirada y el quehacer profesional de la docencia se deja en manos de los alumnos, cuando de a poco y si sobreviven la harán de alguna manera en su vida profesional... Nosotros no teníamos esa situación extrema, pero aproximada (Interview 5, former dean, Central Campus).

^{vii} el diagnóstico más fuerte que teníamos es que no estábamos hablando en un lenguaje común como carrera..., estoy haciendo una metáfora, pero en el fondo es hablando de educación y de formar profesores de una manera, otros grupos hablando de otra, y entonces nos propusimos digamos el manejo de un lenguaje común respecto de la necesidades y de la formación inicial docente y yo creo que este convenio de desempeño nos ha ayudado... nos permitió esta mirada más integral y de instalar un lenguaje común (Interview 16, new dean, Central Campus)

^{viii} lo de la malla fue una cuestión súper práctica y es que la facultad de educación en un momento dijo que no podía ser que tuviéramos curriculum distinto, que teníamos que tener el mismo y que tenía que ser el de ellos... igual la facultad de educación tiene otro además enfoque que el nuestro,... ese es el gran problema, o sea problema para algunos, para otros no lo es (Interview, 7, language methods teacher educator, Branch Campus).

^{ix} Algo que pareciera que no lo estamos formando a cabalidad, tiene que ver con la conducción y el manejo de grupos humanos. Nuestros estudiantes valoran adecuadamente el conocimiento que tienen, el conocimiento disciplinar, el conocimiento teórico, pero permanentemente nos están comentando que no se sienten competentes para trabajar con grupos de niños que hoy día conforman cursos en la escuela... yo creo que eso es uno de los aspectos críticos, sobre todo considerando desde mi punto de vista personal por lo menos de que la cuestión del conocimiento es muy relevante, pero el acceso al conocimiento es hoy día muy fácil, lo que hace falta es que uno tenga la capacidad de conducir a los grupos humanos hacia ese aprendizaje, hacia ese conocimiento y hacia esa habilidad (Interview 6, academic chair, Branch Campus).

^x Bueno el programa nos cambiaron bastante en el último programa, y yo noto que está muy abocado mas bien a la parte de del dominio de contenidos... pero han descuidado una cosa que a mi me parece sumamente importante, en los nuevos planes y programas, no traen por ejemplo, trabajos manuales, no traen música, no traen educación física, y esto yo sin querer lo comparo con los curriculum pasados que si lo traían, y que nosotros acá nos preocupábamos los primeros años de formar íntegramente la persona, ... esas personas van a ir a trabajar a colegios donde hay muchísimas necesidades, y ellos tienen que estar preparados para muchas otras cosas. Por ejemplo, una clase en enseñanza básica requiere sobre todo el dominio de un profesor que sepa música, que sepa arte, que sepa sacar a los chicos que están aburridos sentados todo el día a desarrollarse físicamente, y no ser personas que están apoltronadas ahí en un asiento durante todo el día. (Interview 4, clinical faculty 2, Branch Campus).

^{xi} [las actividades] va depender como con las cátedras pero por ejemplo en didáctica estamos trabajando mucho con la grabación de clase, estudio de clase, resolución de problemas, estudio de casos, reflexión de la práctica, diario de campo, portafolio, trabajo con Plaint... son cosas que antes no se hacían, eran como más teórico y amén, y ahora estamos haciendo de más interacción entre los alumnos, cosas pequeñas no hemos hecho cosas más constantes, porque en este abrir, ver las posibilidades que te están dando también como curso así que más o menos esas son como las estrategias que hemos tratado de ir desarrollando y los, el tema de tratar de buscar esta vinculación de los cursos, entender que somos concurrentes [con las practicas] y que ya tienen de un lugar donde sacar información de la realidad y trabajarlas poder trabajarla de mejor forma (Interview 3, department Chair, Branch Campus)

^{xii} Es un curriculum que no tiene lógica, que no responde a un modelo, te digo a un conocimiento de base, desde mi punto de vista. Que ha sacrificado aspectos de la formación que a mi me parecen clave en la formación, por ejemplo, el curriculum antiguo yo hacía filosofía de la educación, eso se acabó, se tecnifico más, no sé pa donde va, no sé lo que busca esta malla, no sé qué pretende, me entendí. No responde a la realidad, a las necesidades de realidad educacional, del sistema, no responde ni al que tenemos, ni al que nos gustaría tener o a los que nos gustaría tener... Estamos formando un profesional para trabajar en un lugar o en un ámbito para el cual no necesitamos esos profesionales, no tenemos esas escuelas, te fijas (Interview 1, diversity and equity teacher educator, Branch Campus)

^{xiii} de donde sale como eso de prácticas generativas, bueno de una investigación de la universidad de Michigan que dice como que los profesores que logran buenos resultados de aprendizaje tienen como estas prácticas en el aula, entonces desde ahí, son dieciocho (interview 15, clinical faculty 2, Central Campus)

^{xiv} Trabajamos con la division de Debora Ball y sus high leverage practices, esas 19 practicas cruzan esto es clave, no solo están allá, en los contextos escolares ordenando completamente el trabajo de supervisión y profesores colaboradores, sino que estan acá, en los cursos de didáctica, en la visión de los profesores que estan haciendo un curso de las matemáticas o ciencias. Cada una de las 19 HLP y tenemos esto como en términos de modelo y graficación del asunto una matrices donde está identificado la intersección de esa práctica generativa, ... esa práctica generativa tiene ocasión de ser trabajada, desplegada, enseñada, absorbida en ese curso, en esta unidad de este curso, en este contexto de práctica, en este punto de la secuencia de la práctica 3, etc. Un salto cuántico respecto a conceptualización e implementación del sistema de práctica en la formación de profesores (Interview 5, former dean, Central Campus).

^{xv} Por otro lado el otro click que hace el convenio de desempeño es profundizar en el conocimiento pedagógico del contenido, Shulman y compañía, como marco general,...fundamentalmente entrar a ¿cómo el conocimiento disciplinar profundo permite lograr mejor aprendizaje y cuáles son las metodologías para lograrlo? (Interview 9, math methods teacher educator, Central Campus)

^{xvi} entonces que hacemos nosotros, ayudamos a los estudiantes a, o modelamos situaciones donde se observa un buen desempeño de esa práctica generativa, trabajamos con video de EE.UU donde ellos pueden ver también pequeños clips de video donde se imparten estas prácticas generativa,... y se enseñan estrategias metodológicas para que los estudiantes puedan, los profesores en formación puedan replicar con sus estudiantes (Interview 13, clinical faculty 1, Central Campus).

^{xvii} Un estudiante que es reflexivo ¿cómo lo veo?, por ejemplo, que siempre está como cuestionándose un poco... qué está pasando en su escuela, o cómo puede mejorar, que está analizando su enseñanza; que hice, a ver hice esto y no resultó, o hice esto y me resultó, cómo podría mejorar, para mí eso es un estudiante que está pensando sobre lo que hace... que piensen sobre lo que están haciendo y de los resultados que eso tiene en el aprendizaje de los niños.... hay un componente crítico, pero crítico de su propio quehacer docente, ... en torno a mi labor docente en aula, más que ser crítico entorno al sistema como educativo que yo creo que es súper importante (Interview 15, clinical faculty 2, Central Campus).

^{xviii} Nosotros lo que buscamos es que efectivamente, y por eso es el foco centrado en la práctica, es que nuestros estudiantes más que personas muy conocedoras de la teoría, de lo conceptual o de la disciplina a nivel conceptual, sean capaces de poder generar procesos efectivos en el aula con los niños (Interview 12, department chair, Central Campus).

^{xix} este [es el] conjunto de habilidades profesionales que todo profesor debe poder desarrollar y debe tener oportunidades de aprender durante su formación inicial y a eso nos referimos a cosas muy concretas pero también complejas, es decir, cómo aprendo hacer una explicación usando distintos modelos o cómo aprender a facilitar una discusión productiva en una sala de clases o cómo planificar una secuencia de enseñanza, cómo interactuar con otros profesionales en una escuela, cómo aprender a comunicarse con los padres, ese es un conjunto de habilidades profesionales que pensamos que son claves (Interview 11, language methods, Central Campus)

^{xx} Ir a una escuela vulnerable y con los recursos que tienen y los espacios que tienen sean capaces de contextualizarse, de leer las pistas del contexto, tomar decisiones pedagógicas contextualizadas, y que esas decisiones se basen en evidencias que nosotros les hemos enseñado a levantar. A eso me refiero también con un currículo centrado en la práctica, es decir, estamos trabajando con lo que se llama en educación pedagogías de la práctica, ... prácticas generativas,

es decir habilidades de carácter transversal que permiten promover oportunidades de aprendizaje de calidad, y que la calidad de esas oportunidades no dependan de la situación socioeconómica de los niños ni de la escuela, si no que de las capacidades que nosotros hemos sido capaces de promover en nuestros profesores o nuestros futuros profesores, para que puedan ser capaces de ofrecer esas oportunidades de calidad en los contextos donde les toque trabajar (Interview 16, new dean, Central Campus).

^{xxi} Lo que varía es el contexto y claramente hace que los desafíos sean distintos, por lo tanto el profesor tiene que ser capaz de analizar ese contexto y saber entonces que herramientas tiene que aplicar para cada uno. Cuando hay más capital cultural y capital social puedo desarrollar ciertas estrategias, puedo abordar a los niños de una determinada manera, ... si estoy en contextos de vulnerabilidad, tengo que asegurarme igual que los niños aprendan, y tengo que tener mi mejor disposición para poder hacer eso, y tengo que a lo mejor hasta ser más creativo todavía, porque a lo mejor voy a tener menos recursos personales, menos capital social, menos capital cultural ... Pero a la base sigue siendo un profesional de alta calidad, donde, que tiene que desarrollar procesos efectivos de enseñanza y evaluación para asegurarse que los niños aprendan, e ir monitoreando que los niños aprendan (interview 12, department chair, Central Campus)

^{xxii} “Si tu ignoras que el habla de las casas de la niñez de pobreza tiene 15.000.000 de palabras menos a los cuatro años que de lo de contextos profesionales y no sabes eso, y tu estrategias de lectoescritura no toman en cuenta eso no vas a ser efectivo” (Interview 5, Central Campus).

^{xxiii} Dar respuesta a necesidades que surgen en la comunidad, focalizada en el territorio, como un aporte al desarrollo sustentable de la región (Institutional document, Branch Campus, What is our essence?, p. 2)

^{xxiv} El curriculum actual...carece de los énfasis que den cuenta de nuestra tradición, nuestra trayectoria y los temas que nos preocupan, entonces estamos dando muchas discusiones para saber que podemos hacer para, por ejemplo en la formación de nuestros estudiantes haya una identificación clara y nítida con la interculturalidad, el trabajo con la diversidad, con el mundo local, con la naturaleza, con el desarrollo, ... lo queremos hacer desde la excelencia, no lo queremos hacer desde la intuición, no lo queremos hacer desde la tradición solamente, sino que queremos que sea desde investigaciones,... no nos queremos alejar de ese sello, de hecho queremos recuperarlo y volver a relevarlo (Interview 6, academic chair, Branch Campus).

^{xxv} Generar competencias de construcción de conocimiento y fortalecer capacidades investigativas y comunicativas en los académicos de la Sede por medio del desarrollo de líneas de investigación, formación de equipos interdisciplinarios de trabajo y vínculos con otros investigadores de instituciones y centros académicos nacionales e internacionales, públicos y privados (Institutional Documents, Branch Campus, Minutes of agreements based on the development plan 2009-2013, p. 9)

^{xxvi} yo creo que el tema de la formación de profesores tiene que ser un constante, una constante reflexión... y un pie muy muy puesto en la realidad, muy puesto en la realidad, yo creo que la formación de profesores no puede ser una formación teórica porque al llegar los alumnos a la realidad y sentirse sin herramientas para poder atender esa realidad o sin la posibilidad de observar de mejor forma la potencialidad de esa realidad al final vas a tener un alumno frustrado (Interview 3, department chair, Branch Campus)

^{xxvii} yo soy partidaria de que no todo debe enseñarse, cada uno de nosotros tiene que aprender con su experiencia y tiene que pasar por las cosas para ir aprendiendo porque así partimos todos, la universidad no puede, no puede abarcar todos los conocimientos, ni todas las áreas, ni todos los detallitos... si no soluciona su problema en el aula se te tiene que ocurrir que hacer, tu tienes las herramientas para partir... Es un tema de motivación, ... uno tiene que inculcarle lo que más pueda la motivación por hacer las cosas bien y donde sea el alumno tiene que salir bien, así sea en una isla o en un colegio particular pagado o en un liceo, en una escuela grande, chica o donde sea (Interview 2, clinical faculty 1, Branch Campus).

^{xxviii} se necesitan más conocimientos que la cresta, lo que pasa es que en un curso de un semestre eso no lo vas a desarrollar, cachay. Lo que yo quiero desarrollar es que ellos se den cuenta de eso, de despertar la sensibilidad del tema, que ellos cachén que para poder atender la diversidad van a tener que estudiar 15 años de su vida. Que no les va a bastar esta carrera, que van a tener que seguir estudiando y que por lo tanto tienen que cultivar la habilidades de estudio y las capacidades de estudiar y autodesarrollarse, y de autogestionarse (Interview 1, diversity and equity teacher educator, Branch Campus)

^{xxix} ser espejo de lo que ellos deben hacer más adelante, tal vez no es el conocimiento lo importante, porque cualquier persona puede enseñar un contenido, pero los detalles chicos son los que marcan la diferencia. O sea, si yo llego a la hora como docente, si no faltó a trabajar, si cumplo con el programa que yo misma elaboré, si yo soy coherente con lo que yo pido, y con lo que yo hago, si yo soy justa con las cosas que ellos necesitan, yo creo que eso es lo más importante... Y yo creo que lo más importante en el aula es hacerles ver que si el no aprende de una manera, un alumno, yo como profesora tengo las herramientas y le hago saber que de otra manera también le puede enseñar para lograr abarcar los 35 alumnos que tengo en la sala... trato siempre de buscar todas las estrategias posibles para que todos aprendan, pero yo se lo hago saber al alumno. Le digo “en el aula, siempre hay alumnos que no entienden todos iguales, entonces usted tiene que tratar de que todos aprendan de alguna manera un contenido” (Interview 2, clinical faculty 1, Branch Campus)

^{xxx} ser profesor, es una cosa muy compleja y está sujeta a muchas situaciones de la vida diaria, el profesor nunca está hecho completamente y la actividad docente tampoco está prácticamente definida por ningún teórico, porque las circunstancias del momento, la mejor teoría se te puede ir abajo si la situaciones son adversas. Entonces, ser profesor es estar abierto, en primer lugar, al momento cambiante del día que te toca vivir. En segundo lugar los alumnos no son uniformes, cada persona es diferente, cada día es diferente para esa persona el profesor tiene que tener esa inmensa capacidad para ajustarse a las situaciones (Interview 4, clinical faculty 2, Branch Campus)

^{xxxi} un profesional reflexivo, abierto al cambio, que se adapte a las distintas situaciones que le podría tocar desempeñar” (Interview 17, Branch Campus).

^{xxxii} yo creo que cuando hablamos o cuando hablo de cambio es un poco tener las antenas paradas para poder reconocer lo que hay y donde pueden aportar, ... no solamente como dentro de la sala de clase sino que también pueden hacer cambios a nivel de establecimiento educacional, ...[que] ellos tengan la capacidad de observar su realidad y ver en que pueden aportar, va depender de lo que están haciendo, trabajo con apoderados, quizás hay cosas que no se están llevando bien acabo de parte de gestión, entonces ellos siempre ser como un aporte de eso y no como restarse. Eso hablo de agentes de cambios. (Interview 3, department chair, Branch Campus).

^{xxxiii} La universidad tiene el desafío de aquí entran los estudiantes que tienen mejores puntajes en la PSU y que sabemos que Chile es una sociedad muy segmentada, y por lo tanto los que tienen mejor puntaje en la PSU vienen de colegios de nivel socioeconómico alto y tienden a volver a los colegios de nivel socioeconómico alto (Interview 11, language methods teacher educator, Central Campus).

^{xxxiv} Se observa que la composición del alumnado ha cambiado en los últimos dos procesos de admisión observándose una reducción de aproximadamente 50% de los alumnos de establecimientos municipales matriculados en Párvulos y Pedagogía Básica, en parte como consecuencia del alza en los puntajes de admisión” (Institutional document, Central Campus, Institutional improvement plan, p. 122).

^{xxxv} cuando uno entra a las aulas nuestras y trabaja con las estudiantes uno se da cuenta de una, y lo voy a decir así bien fuerte, pero una tremenda segregación. Dado que somos la universidad que tiene los mayores puntajes en la prueba de selección universitaria... todas nuestras estudiantes entran con beca vocación de profesor, eso... ha permitido que entren todo tipo de estudiantes de distintos niveles socioeconómicos,... uno lo ve en aula digamos... Una sala la mitad pelo rubio y la mitad pelo negro,... hay segregación dentro de nuestras propias aulas... Entonces tenemos alta calidad académica..., pero también tenemos gente de distinto origen social, ... pero nosotros tenemos el desafío de hacer integración social (Interview 9, math methods teacher educator, Central Campus).

^{xxxvi} “los grupos hasta se sientan en determinados lugares, porque vienen desde lugares de esta ciudad muy distintos” (Interview 11, language methods teacher educator, Central Campus).

^{xxxvii} Ahora cada vez nos hemos abierto a otros espacios, ... es decir estudiantes que no viniendo de quizás colegios de elite, son los mejores alumnos de sus colegios y entonces ellos postulan por otra vía... yo creo que en ese sentido la excelencia es súper importante, da lo mismo de que sector socioeconómico que vengas, pero si tienes que tener un compromiso con tu formación,... tienes que haber demostrado que eres capaz de disciplinar y organizar tu formación y cumplir con tus responsabilidades para poder entonces que nosotros podamos intervenir con proceso académicos exigentes y de alta calidad (Interview 12, department chair, Central Campus)

^{xxxviii} “Mejoramiento de la retención y titulación oportuna a través de detección de rezagos y desarrollar reforzamiento de la nivelación de competencias básicas (Inglés, Escritura académica y Razonamiento cuantitativo), y apoyo oportuno en cursos disciplinarios y didácticos de las cuatro áreas principales (lenguaje, matemática, ciencias, ciencias sociales)” (Institutional document, Central Campus, School of Education development plan 2013-2017, p. 22).

^{xxxix} hay... había un indicador en el convenio de desempeño que tenía que ver con cómo poder apoyar a los estudiantes como tratar de bajar la tasa de reprobación de los cursos, entonces yo cuando pienso en eso, pienso que quienes reprueban cursos, bueno estudiantes que puedan tener dificultades, bueno muchas veces como sociales que no les permiten venir a clases, o cognitivas también como de aprendizaje, y ahí había como una acción para mejorar eso que era como el trabajo con los ayudantes... Ahí puede verse ...como equidad, como pa que todos tengan, no sé po que ningún estudiante se me quede atrás, que avance, si uno tiene dificultades que tenga más apoyo (Interview 15, clinical faculty 2, Central Campus)

^{xi} “el instrumento convenio de desempeño empuja pro equidad y integración, y reconocimiento de la diversidad, involucramiento de la formación de profesores con contextos externos, variados y nosotros tomamos eso para hacer este certificado, le respondimos al convenio en la forma en que te describí sobre ese certificado” (Interview 5, former dean, Central Campus).

^{xli} los que estamos trabajando en el núcleo formativo pensamos que los mismos cursos que ya toman deberían habilitarlos para enseñar en la diversidad de contextos, entiendes, o sea lo que yo te estoy describiendo el curso de lectura, ese curso le ofrece a los estudiantes posibilidades de enseñar en distintos colegios, o sea, sin hacer distinciones como específico para enseñar en sectores más vulnerables (Interview 11, language teacher educator, Central Campus).

^{xlii} tampoco le vamos a dar herramientas porque son cursos o sea no es un programa que fuera de cuatro años, ... estamos abriendo un espacio de conversación, un espacio de discusión, de profundización de algunos aspectos, en la primera etapa es un aspecto mucho mas teórico, más que práctico, el último curso apunta a que ellos puedan, apoyándolos nosotros, puedan levantar un, como un paper, un documento inicial sobre una posible forma de poder trabajar en estos contextos, pero yo creo que más que eso es imposible (Interview 14, professor of certificate in “Teaching on Socially Disadvantaged Contexts”, Central Campus).

^{xliii} Nosotros estamos en el segundo año, en segundo año de la carrera, y vamos antes que empiezan con las didácticas, y nosotras con el equipo de gente que trabajamos siempre hemos pensado que este curso debiera estar muy alineado con las didácticas porque ahí es cuando las estudiantes empiezan a, que la planificación, que la actividad, que la cuestión, entonces eso es un muy buen recurso, pa el curso de diversidad e inclusión para poder ir mirando que es lo que estan haciendo ... ver los problemas que tienen cuando no piensan, cachai, cuando agarran el contenido de las bases curriculares, y le ponen, empiezan estas son las actividades, estas son las metodologías de evaluación, y no le dan una vuelta a que es lo que estan enseñando ahí. Entonces, en ese sentido va desfasado (Interview 10, diversity and equity teacher educator, Central Campus).

^{xliv} Yo creo que en general, los programas o este programa está muy orientado a psicologizar ... nuestras estudiantes salen con muy pocas capacidades, por ejemplo, para hacer diagnósticos de la sala de clases quizás un poco más crítico o un poco más complejo. Entonces, toda la forma de mirar lo social y lo cultural queda muy centrado en estereotipos... Entonces, yo creo que el programa está demasiado centrado aquí, ¿cachai? (apunta a la cabeza)... todo lo que aprendo como estudiante es a identificar como los estudiantes deberían aprender mejor, desde una mirada muy cognitiva o del, evolutiva, eso te resta, te resta un espacio para trabajar otras cosas que para mi gusto como profesor son esenciales (Interview 10, diversity and equity teacher educator, Central Campus).

^{xlv} Bueno esos son los trabajos que hacemos... hacer planificaciones, ir corrigiendo el uso del lenguaje, el como se imaginan espacialmente el ordenamiento de las salas de clases... Por ejemplo, el tema de mirar las bases curriculares... [que] vean cuáles son los problemas de eso, que es lo que se está reproduciendo en un contenido x... tiene que tener la capacidad de poder ver que es lo que va, o lo que esta medio desubicado, o que tú tienes que problematizar para trabajar con la persona que estás trabajando... Son pequeñas cosas que cachai que le van dando complejidad a algo que ni siquiera estaba en sus cabezas que tiene que ser complejo, entonces yo diría que esa es la máxima, el máximo objetivo a cumplir en este curso (Interview 10, diversity and equity teacher educator, Central Campus).

^{xlvi} a la carrera pueden entrar [por] tres vías de admisión... vía PSU ordinaria se le llama; vía admisión ranking, talento ranking son los alumnos que están dentro de su 10% de su curso el mejor ranking,... y los alumnos complementarios..., de colegios técnicos profesionales ... y/o descendencia mapuche... los alumnos técnicos sabemos que dejaron de ver las ciencias básicas en segundo medio, entonces, por eso te digo yo que claro nosotros tenemos que ocuparnos también de eso, si estamos dando la posibilidad de entrar... por lo tanto tenemos que dar los andamiajes para que este alumno pueda avanzar y no se nos quede en el camino o genere frustración (Interview 3, department chair, Branch Campus).

^{xlvi} E: ¿qué significa inclusión en este contexto?

P: significa que ingresan alumnos que por vía normal de PSU, no ingresarían, entran por otras vías, entran por vía, tenemos beca indígena, de ascendencia indígena y tenemos beca de inclusión para aquellos alumnos que logran un promedio mínimo entre lenguaje y matemática para postular, pero si es por vía PSU no ingresarían. O sea en el fondo tienen puntaje más bajo.... es un sello de la universidad, porque partió así, partió como una fundación a partir de un padre, ... el fundó esto como una universidad para la gente que no tiene acceso, porque también estudian con beca, casi todos tienen beca, tiene hogares estudiantiles, pagan poco. (Interview 2, clinical faculty 1, Branch Campus)

^{xlvi} para efectos del convenio de desempeño es un poquito cuestionable, es que los indicadores de logro que se pusieron para subir PSU y para subir el ingreso y para subir el ranking no los dimos nosotros, entonces por supuesto, tiraron unos números totalmente inapropiados que no se han cumplido, porque nunca nos preguntaron a nosotros como era la realidad (Interview 6, academic chair, Branch Campus).

^{xlvi} “recibimos estudiantes de muy escasos recursos, de contextos muy vulnerables, del punto de vista cultural, del punto de vista económico y por tanto nosotros tenemos que hacer un proceso bastante agudo e intenso de nivelación de capacidades, nivelación de conocimientos” (Interview 6, academic chair, Branch Campus).

^l nosotros no tenemos alumnos de colegios particulares, entonces también no podemos desconocer la realidad país po, la brecha está y por lo tanto nuestra brecha no está de aquí pa arriba sino que nuestros alumnos están de la brecha hacia abajo. Entonces desde ahí se ha generado esta red para poder apoyarlos porque tampoco podemos bajar el estándar [name of the university]. Es como esa dicotomía que tiene y que tienes que llegar al estándar, cumplir con tu perfil pero también tienes un nivel de entrada que es bajo, por lo tanto te tienes que preocupar. Entonces nuestro discurso hoy en día es que, bueno si nosotros dejamos entrar a este nivel, a estos alumnos, tenemos que ocuparnos no les podemos colocar la vara y tu te las arreglas sino que nos hacemos cargo (Interview 3, department chair, Branch Campus)

^{li} contempla seis habilidades básicas que se debieron desarrollar durante el colegio, que todo alumno tendría que tenerlas finalizado el cuarto medio, pero dado el puntaje de ingreso de nuestros alumnos y del contexto del cual provienen, ellos no traen esas habilidades. Se les aplican test a principio del semestre en marzo y la verdad es que casi ninguno aprueba el test, ... entonces ellos tenían que hacer un curso que era de carácter obligatorio, que ese curso potenciaba el desarrollo de estas seis habilidades matemáticas, y luego se les apoyaba y todo, y ellos rendían el test y los que pasaban este test cumplían con este requisito, ... era un requisito de egreso el test... Entonces se ofrece apoyo, están estos cursos (Interview 17, math methods teacher educator, Branch Campus).

^{lii} mi gran objetivo con ese curso es generar en los estudiantes o lograr que los estudiantes entiendan, comprendan, la mirada inclusiva en educación, la importancia de esa mirada y los problemas éticos que se generan si uno no la tiene.... Cambiar esa mirada a la mirada de que la educación es para todos los tipos de personas... que todos los tipos de personas tienen derecho a recibir educación y participar en la sociedad, y por otro, que es inmoral pedirle a alguien que cambie para poder hacer eso (Interview 1, diversity and equity teacher educator, Branch Campus).

^{liii} lo primero que tu puedes generar es un ambiente inclusivo y ese es como el gran objetivo del curso, es finalmente que se les pide en los exámenes que ellos diseñen un ambiente inclusivo de aprendizaje en el cual en el fondo las acciones pedagógicas que tu estás haciendo sean ... sensible a la diversidad y al ejecutar esa acción pedagógica tu no estas excluyendo a nadie de la participación y el aprendizaje,... en el fondo es como decir lo que no debes hacer, cierto, es como tener claro lo que no hay que hacer, que es excluir gente, y tener conciencia de las cosas que excluyen... ¿cuál serían estrategias que incluyen, ... eso significa un estudio que trasciende las posibilidades de un ramo (Interview 1, diversity and equity teacher educator, Branch Campus).

^{liv} Creemos que la PSU segrega, entonces si nosotros nos ponemos a aumentar los requisitos de ingreso por PSU para tener mejores estudiantes, por ejemplo como lo hacen en la facultad en Santiago... eso ya es muy complicado acá en la zona, porque los puntajes son más bajos, porque es una zona más pobre, cierto. Está correlacionado con la situación socioeconómica el puntaje y sería una manera de discriminar (Interview 1, diversity and equity teacher educator, Branch Campus).

^{lv} Se mejorará la calidad de los estudiantes que ingresan a las carreras de educación en la Sede [name of the program located in the South], desarrollando un plan de acción que incluye el ofrecer cursos pre-universitarios a estudiantes seleccionados entre el 10% mejor (NEM) de sus colegios, en las regiones [name of the regions]. Las metas comprometidas en este plano suponen más que duplicar la presencia de estos estudiantes de alto potencial académico, en la matrícula de las carreras de básica y educación de párvulos del Branch Campus (Institutional document, Central Campus, Institutional improvement plan, p. 91)

^{lvi} Nuestra universidad ha pasado de una actividad preeminentemente docente a una mucho más compleja... Este desarrollo ha ido acompañado de una destacada actividad de investigación y la creación de programas de doctorado en casi todas las áreas del conocimiento, situando a nuestra Universidad entre las pioneras en Chile y Latinoamérica. Simultáneamente, ... a nivel nacional ha alcanzado el liderazgo en la captación de los mejores alumnos de pregrado y posgrado del país, y un porcentaje muy significativo de fondos concursables de investigación. Nuestra universidad es considerada una de las mejores universidades católicas en el mundo y también ocupa un lugar importante dentro de las universidades en América Latina... Dentro del país, National University sigue ocupando un lugar preeminente en todos los ámbitos propios del quehacer universitario (Institutional document, Central Campus, University development plan 2010-2015, p. 4-5).

^{lvii} efectivamente nuestros profesores están participando de esas decisiones de política pública y de los instrumentos de política pública y de hecho yo misma participé en la creación por eso voy a hablar muy desde cerca porque estuve dentro de los estándares de formación de profesores de básica (Interview 16, new dean, Central Campus).

^{lviii} Los estándares... son ordenadores de lo que una sociedad espera respecto de la formación de profesor a nivel disciplinar y a nivel pedagógico, ¿no?. Yo siempre he considerado que es un mínimo no es un máximo... uno esperaría que esto es como el piso mínimo, partamos conversando desde aquí, y nosotros nos hemos alineado a los estándares en esa lógica, en que es un piso que nos permite de alguna manera también dialogar y que nuestros estudiantes puedan también compararse o tener una base que permita decirle a la sociedad, “si mira cumplen con y están alineados con lo que Chile necesita en términos curriculares”. Pero queremos más y entonces no es solo los estándares lo que consideramos, sino que también otros referentes (Interview 12, department chair, Central Campus).

^{lix} El constante perfeccionamiento de profesores, por ejemplo, ha generado estrechos vínculos con universidades extranjeras, lo que ha incorporado a esta Universidad al ámbito de las universidades líderes de América Latina, por su calidad académica y su contribución al conocimiento (Institutional document, Central Campus, International connections, p. 1).

^{lx} Nosotros desde que empezamos a pensar el cómo mejorar la formación inicial sobre todo [nombre] que trabaja en el sistema de prácticas empezó a mirar experiencia internacionales que fueran efectivas en la formación de profesores, y entonces ella llegó al tema de las prácticas generativas sobre todo en la propuesta que desarrolla la escuela de educación de Michigan, de la universidad de Michigan, y ahí hay bueno, hay un grupo sobretodo de Deborah Ball y Forzani que han trabajado sobre estas prácticas generativas o practicas nucleares (Interview 11, language methods teacher educator, Central Campus).

^{lxi} Entonces hay un componente que es básico y es común de diálogo en aula, de forma de trabajar en el aula, las 18 prácticas generativas con las que trabajamos están numeradas y ya nuestros estudiantes dicen “ahh la PG cuatro” es como práctica generativa cuatro y todos saben de que estamos hablando, hay un lenguaje común... este convenio de desempeño nos ha ayudado a este trabajar juntos rediseñando todo en esta línea que te digo, nos permitió esta mirada más integral y de instalar un lenguaje común (Interview 16, new dean, Central Program).

^{lxii} Yo creo que uno de los cambios es principalmente nuestra interacción como académicos... yo me acuerdo, me entregaban un programa del curso, yo hacía mis clases y al final entregaba una nota a los estudiantes y nunca tenía una interacción con otros académicos que formaban profesores, ni del área del lenguaje y menos con otros de otras áreas, tampoco con el jefe de programa te fijas, y hoy día nuestras conversaciones son complejas porque formar profesores es difícil pero son muy apasionantes... entonces que uno escuche que el profesor de tal curso quiere saber lo que pasan otro y ahora las demandas de los profesores son y quieren saber lo que necesitan cuando va a la práctica, lo encuentro muy potente y que el jefe del programa esté velando porque se cumpla el perfil de egreso y que no se sobrecarguen los estudiantes me parecen que son problemas que hablan de que estamos cambiando... estamos mucho más conectados con lo que tienen que hacer los futuros profesores (Interview 11, language methods teacher educator, Central Campus).

^{lxiii} no es un sello que esté transversalmente [en el programa] pero si hay cursos que apoyan, creo que no son suficientes por supuesto porque creo que este tipo de cosas tienen que ser trabajadas transversalmente, pero si hay como te dije un curso de inclusión, interculturalidad y diversidad, [los estudiantes de pedagogía] tienen un curso de mapudungún, no salen hablantes [de mapudungun] por supuesto, pero tienen al menos conocimientos básicos de mapudungún (Interview 7, language methods teacher educator, Branch Campus)

^{lxiv} creo que ayudamos a formar, porque tenemos una cercanía muy grande con los alumnos, entonces además de enseñarles los contenidos que ellos tienen que saber,... tratamos de enseñarle como enfrentar un colegio,... como comportarse, desde que tienen que entrar saludando cuando ingresa, hasta que tiene que vestirse adecuadamente y que tiene ser responsable por lo que hace... yo creo, que nuestro sello está en esa formación de persona a persona porque se da por lo pequeño del lugar. Tenemos como, en promedio al año como 150 alumnos que van ingresando, y que se van rotando, rotando y al final [tenemos] más o menos una población flotante de unos 200 alumnos, entonces somos como un colegio (Interview 2, clinical faculty 1, Branch Campus)

^{lxv} Yo estudié en una universidad grande,...yo era un número..., el profesor me conocía mientras hacia el ramo y después no tenía idea quien era, en cambio eso aquí no ocurre (Interview 2, clinical faculty 1, Branch Campus)

^{lxvi} yo noto que los profesores acá, quizás no sea tanto por el programa, sino por las condiciones que vivimos acá, los profesores estamos muy cerca de los alumnos, los alumnos están cerca de nosotros, entonces casi no es necesario que este en el programa.... Las condiciones es que estamos cerca todos los días y nos vemos, imagínese llueve, casi algunos años llueve mucho, el frío, los chicos donde pasan la mayor parte, o están en los hogares o están acá. No hay más, entonces, cuando están acá con quien conversan: entre ellos y con los profesores, entonces, uno empieza a conocer no solo la persona, sino conoce al alumno, su familia, [de] donde vienen, la polola que tienen,... conoce el nombre de los chicos, incluso conoce sus papás muchas veces... Entonces ese sentido es único aquí (Interview 4, clinical faculty 2, Branch Campus)

^{lxvii} yo creo que los estándares, el estándar está muy híper alto, ... Entonces esa es como la discusión que nosotros hemos tenido, bueno aquí hay que tomar decisión tenemos de 16 semanas y multiplícalo por 3 módulos sácale las vacaciones de esto, las vacaciones de esto, que feriado esto entonces te están quedando menos semanas y el alumno tiene que salir con las habilidades o con los conocimientos básicos para lo que va a enseñar ..., Pero no vamos a lograr esto [los estándares] y eso lo tenemos como super claro (Interview 3, department chair, Branch Campus)

^{lxviii} tenemos la impresión algunos académicos del campus, que la formación de la escuela en Chile está muy centrada,... muy orientada al logro de los indicadores que sugieren las pruebas estandarizadas, como el SIMCE, como la PSU, como INICIA que se yo, y lo que ha hecho es que ha generado una suerte de obsesión por alcanzar logros importantes ahí, ... y la calidad de la educación se ha ido entendiendo fundamentalmente como alcanzar buenos puntajes en esas pruebas. Nosotros creemos que eso es nefasto... un cambio que hay que generar es volcar la idea de que la formación de los estudiantes en los niños no puede ni debe estar sujeta a esos ámbitos, o sea no podemos dejar de lado la formación valórica, no podemos dejar de lado la preocupación por los otros, el aprendizaje sobre uno mismo, el desarrollo de la posibilidad de disfrutar de la vida, de la relación con los otros, de la naturaleza, del disfrute, del goce, de reconocer los valores culturales que hay donde habita (Interview 6, academic chair, Branch Campus).

^{lxix} la prueba inicia la desarrolló, la apoyó mucho la National University como tal, entonces igual que los estándares, parte de los estándares, pero como campus también siempre hemos tenido una mirada como “sí es importante la prueba inicia, pero no puede ser nuestro Simce” ..., “sí, no la podemos desconocer, está pero no podemos preparar a nuestros alumnos para pasar un Simce”... no nos podemos olvidar las cosas que también son importante que no se miden en esta prueba... sí, está la prueba inicia pero también hay otras cosas que son importantes (Interview 3, department chair, Branch Campus)

^{lxx} los estándares... están vinculado mucho con nuestra nueva malla curricular de la cual te conté el proceso, que fue en respuesta, fundamentalmente proviene de dar una mejor respuesta a estándares. Entonces claro nos afectó directamente porque generó una nueva malla curricular, pero en la práctica concreta, propia de nosotros, de nuestras modificaciones, nuestros ajustes, en la manera que miramos la educación, no ha tenido efectos tan significativos (Interview 6, academic chair, Branch campus)

^{lxxi} tenemos una manera de educar profesores que como muchas otras universidades de Chile y el mundo no tiene pies ni cabeza, es un frankenstein, resultado de la selección natural que no tiene detrás un conocimiento de base, que no responde a un perfil claro, que tiene, que es una especie de negociación entre la expectativa de cada uno de los profesores, del subdirector académico, de las demandas de las políticas públicas, la aparición de la prueba inicia, la etc, etc., los valores de la institución, la iglesia, ... lo que va sobreviviendo a esa cuestión queda este frankenstein que en estos momentos está muy feo (Interview 1, diversity and equity teacher educator, Branch Campus)

^{lxxii} Nuestro país ha hecho loables esfuerzos para asegurar una educación de calidad a sus niñas, niños y jóvenes. Sin embargo, a pesar de los innegables avances, no podemos estar satisfechos. La brecha con los países desarrollados es considerable y el peso de la proveniencia económica, social y cultural de los estudiantes en los resultados de un liceo o colegio chileno es determinante (National policy document, committees' report, document 1, p. 5)

^{lxxiii} “La calidad de un sistema educativo no puede exceder la calidad de sus profesores” (National policy document, dissemination document, document 8, p. 42)

^{lxxiv} Las políticas educativas en la mayor parte de los países del mundo están otorgando un creciente rol a los docentes. La existencia de importantes informes, como el de la OECD (2004) ‘Teachers Matter’, así como el Informe McKinsey (Barber y Mourshed, 2008), han estimulado un renovado interés en la función de los docentes en el mejoramiento de los logros de los sistemas educativos (National policy document, dissemination document, document 4, p. 285).

^{lxxv} Un factor clave en el logro de una mejor educación es la efectividad de los docentes en el proceso de enseñanza. Tanto la evidencia internacional como nacional indican que esta característica ayuda a explicar en una medida importante las diferencias en los aprendizajes de los niños y jóvenes. Así, se ha comprobado que un docente inefectivo puede retrasar los aprendizajes de un niño cada año hasta en seis meses respecto de estudiantes que enfrentaron profesores apropiados. Al mismo tiempo los docentes más efectivos pueden hacer avanzar a sus estudiantes en igual período hasta en el equivalente a 1,5 años escolares (National policy document, congressional meeting reports, document 18, p. 67)

^{lxxvi} Sabemos que los mejores docentes son fundamentales para el desarrollo de escuelas efectivas y para los avances de los aprendizajes de los estudiantes. Sin embargo, estamos conscientes de que las políticas tradicionales no aseguran que los mejores profesores sean atraídos, acogidos y retenidos en la profesión docente. Para modificar esta situación, estimamos que deben adecuarse las compensaciones y las condiciones laborales de los docentes, de modo de hacer más atractiva la carrera. Pero también, crear condiciones para que jóvenes que actualmente están pensando en ingresar a otras carreras se inclinen por la pedagogía (National policy document, committees' report, document 1, p.7).

^{lxxvii} “Aumento explosivo de la matrícula. La matrícula se multiplica por 5.4 en 12 años” (National policy document, dissemination document, document 5, p.15).

^{lxxviii} El 73 por ciento de los egresados de pedagogía en 2011 o no dio la prueba de selección universitaria u obtuvo en ella menos de 500 puntos. En nuestro sistema de educación superior se ha cuadruplicado el número de estudiantes de pedagogía en los últimos diez años. Las exigencias para adquirir dicha condición prácticamente son inexistentes (National policy document, congressional meetings report, document 23, p. 157).

^{lxxix} La realidad en Chile difiere de la que se observa en los países de mejor desempeño...[en] los resultados de la prueba internacional TEDS-M (Teacher Study in Mathematics), que evaluó los conocimientos de matemáticas de los egresados de pedagogía de educación básica entre 2006 y 2009, ... el 60 por ciento de quienes larindieron no alcanzó el nivel mínimo de conocimientos de matemática requerido para enseñar a sus alumnos...Sin cambios importantes en esos desempeños la posibilidad de lograr un sistema escolar más efectivo se reduce significativamente (National policy document, congressional meetings report, document 22, p. 5-6).

^{lxxx} Fruto de ese trabajo conjunto, dijo que se acordó una reforma al proyecto inicial de modo que se establecieran las bases para atraer y retener a los mejores talentos en la Educación. Así, destacó que en otros países para obtener estos resultados, se elige el 30% de los mejores egresados para seguir la carrera docente. Dentro de este contexto, señaló que la realidad del país dista mucho de lo expuesto, por cuanto del análisis de los egresados de las carreras de educación del año 2011, el 73% o no habían rendido la PSU o habían tenido menos de 500 puntos en ella. En este sentido, señaló que en algunas instituciones de educación superior basta con proporcionar el RUT para quedar seleccionado en forma automática para estudiar pedagogía (National policy document, congressional meetings report, document 22, p. 8)

^{lxxxi} El compromiso del país con una educación de calidad también se tiene que verificar en medidas concretas que sean un estímulo inmediato para el ingreso a esta profesión... Una forma de hacerlo es haciendo “más barato” el costo de estudiar o haciendo la inversión inicial en los estudiantes de más habilidades... Esto debe ser complementado con otras medidas que muestren con claridad que se valora socialmente que estos jóvenes hayan tomado la decisión de dedicarse a la docencia (National policy document, committees report, document 1, p. 61)

^{lxxxii} En un esfuerzo por revertir esta situación se creó en 2010 la Beca Vocación de Profesor, cuyo principal objetivo es incentivar a los jóvenes que obtienen altos puntajes en la Prueba de Selección Universitaria a seguir carreras de pedagogía, mediante el financiamiento de sus estudios y con algunas exigencias a las instituciones que imparten dichas carreras, como por ejemplo, un puntaje de corte de la carrera de 500 puntos (National policy document, congressional meetings report, document 18, p. 69).

^{lxxxiii} El objetivo de estos estándares es esclarecer, por un lado, lo que todo profesor debe saber y saber hacer en el aula, y por otro, las actitudes profesionales que debe desarrollar desde su formación como profesor de Educación Básica. En este sentido, los estándares son una referencia útil y necesaria para las instituciones formadoras de docentes, puesto que transparentan los conocimientos, habilidades y competencias que ellas deben ser capaces de enseñar a sus estudiantes durante el transcurso de la carrera (National policy document, normative document, document 13, presentation section, para. 5)

^{lxxxiv} “Conocimiento científico y su aprendizaje” (National policy document, dissemination document, document 10, p. 26).

^{lxxxv} Estas pruebas tienen importantes efectos aunque solo se usen de manera informativa y sin altas consecuencias. En particular, porque son una importante información para las entidades formadoras, pero sobre todo para los estudiantes y futuros estudiantes, en cuanto les permite tomar decisiones informadas. En ese sentido, es clave que los resultados sean transparentados al público, sobre todo a nivel de carrera e institución de educación superior (National policy document, committees’ report, document 1, p. 46).

^{lxxxvi} Para evaluar el objetivo general, se usará el concepto de calidad del titulado al que se asociarán los siguientes indicadores de resultado: Prueba Inicia (u otra prueba oficial que este vigente al momento de egreso de los respectivos cohorts) (National policy document, normative document, document 14, p. 24)

^{lxxxvii} • 69% de los egresados de básica tiene conocimientos insuficientes (disciplinario)
• 42% de los egresados de básica tiene nivel insuficiente en área pedagógica
• 21 de 25 instituciones tienen más del 50% de sus egresados de básica en nivel insuficiente (disciplinario) (National policy document, dissemination document, document 11, p. 32).

^{lxxxviii} los estándares tienen la finalidad de comunicar a la sociedad, y en especial al campo de las profesiones, una visión de cuáles son las competencias que el profesional de la docencia debe poseer al ingresar a la enseñanza en la Educación Básica (National policy document, normative document, document 13, p. 8)

^{lxxxix} El Consejo ha llegado a amplios acuerdos... Ellos se apoyan en una constatación compartida: la educación en nuestro país ha avanzado, pero dista mucho de poseer la calidad requerida y exigible en el mundo de hoy y tampoco logra aminorar las marcadas desigualdades de origen con que los niños inician su experiencia educativa (National policy document, committees’ report, document 2, p.14)

^{xc} A este Panel le fue encomendado aportar ideas para fortalecer las capacidades docentes en el país ... En esta tarea [el panel] ha tenido como horizonte el interés general del país. [El panel] Está convencido que son reformas indispensables para lograr una educación más equitativa y de calidad (National policy document, committees’ report, document 1, p. 73).

^{xci} Entre los mayores desafíos que enfrenta hoy nuestro país se encuentra el avanzar de manera sustantiva en materia de calidad y equidad de la educación que hoy reciben nuestros niños y jóvenes... La Ley de Calidad y Equidad de la Educación... centra su interés precisamente en avanzar hacia un mejor y más justo sistema educativo, surgiendo a partir de ella numerosas iniciativas que hoy marcan la pauta de la agenda educativa. Entre ellas destacan las que dicen relación con la formación inicial de los profesores, ... En este sentido, la Beca Vocación de Profesor, los Convenios de Desempeño para las instituciones de Educación Superior y la Evaluación INICIA son algunas de las iniciativas destinadas a impulsar el mejoramiento del profesor desde sus primeros años de formación como profesional (National policy document, normative document, document 13, presentation, par 1-2).

^{xcii} incremento en aprendizaje de los estudiantes en las escuelas como consecuencia de la intervención de los profesores y de los medios educacionales, como por ejemplo: incremento SIMCE, incremento en resultados de otras pruebas que se aplique los estudiantes de las escuelas

y otros mecanismos, o el que la institución postulante defina para medirlo (National policy document, normative document, document 14, p. 24).

^{xciii} Detrás de estas demandas hay una convicción que comparto y que constituye un consenso nacional: una educación de calidad distribuida con justicia es el único camino para seguir desarrollándonos.... El Consejo Asesor Presidencial (...) deberá esmerarse por mostrar caminos para llegar a la educación justa y de calidad que Chile necesita (National policy document, committees' report, document 2, p. 5).

^{xciv} Existe consenso respecto de la importancia que tiene la educación para mejorar la calidad de vida de las personas, no sólo porque permite acceder a mejores oportunidades sino porque permite un desarrollo más integral y una mayor realización personal. A su vez, ello redundará en un mayor progreso del país y en el avance hacia una sociedad más libre y equitativa. A pesar de los progresos registrados en Chile reflejados, por ejemplo, en pruebas internacionales como PISA..., el país está aún lejos de asegurar calidad, efectividad y equidad del sistema escolar (National policy document, congressional meetings report, document 18, p. 67)

^{xcv} Precisamente, porque el país ha resuelto las carencias históricas y ha alcanzado un estándar razonable de desempeños, el Panel estima que la situación de la educación chilena está lejos de ser caracterizada como de crisis.... Sin embargo, el Panel reconoce con la misma fuerza, que nuestra educación tiene grandes desafíos por delante. Hay, entonces, una oportunidad histórica para avanzar en reformas que permitan que en las próximas décadas el país pueda lograr desempeños educativos similares a los de países más desarrollados, tanto en términos del nivel promedio de aprendizaje como de brechas entre estudiantes de distinto origen socioeconómico (National policy document, committees' report, document 1, p. 16).

^{xcvi} • Promovió renovación y ampliación de las prácticas profesionales
• Mejoramiento de las condiciones materiales asociadas a la formación docente (infraestructura, bibliotecas, recursos didácticos y equipamiento computacional)
• Apoyó el mejoramiento de los equipos académicos (National policy document, dissemination document, document 3, p. 17)

^{xcvii} En conclusión, tenemos que hacernos cargo de un gran Desafío País: Renovar la oferta educativa y capacidades institucionales para formar profesionales de la educación, que lideren procesos de mejora significativa en los logros de aprendizajes de los niños de Chile, particularmente en los ambientes más vulnerables. Para ello contamos con una Oportunidad Histórica: El alineamiento de Políticas Públicas, Instituciones Educación Superior y Comunidad Nacional tras este gran objetivo (National policy document, dissemination document, document 5, p. 26).

^{xcviii} La atracción de los mejores a la Carrera docente... El informe McKinsey releva este aspecto como uno de los temas claves de los mejores sistemas educativos en el mundo. En dichos casos, se constata que la formación pedagógica se concentra en los mejores egresados de la enseñanza media, observándose que en algunos sistemas dicha formación recibe al 15% de los mejores egresados. Esto nos revela, por una parte, que no en todos los países esta profesión posee el bajo prestigio que tiene en nuestro medio. Los países que han avanzado en esta materia lo han hecho estableciendo poderosos incentivos monetarios (asociados a la formación docente o a la posterior Carrera profesional), así como modificando las actitudes sociales negativas (National policy document, dissemination document, document 4, p. 286).

^{xcix} [E]n varios países se requiere que los candidatos a profesores pasen un examen, que puede incluir pruebas de conocimiento de la materia, observación del candidato mientras enseña, entrevistas en profundidad o presentación de portafolios OCDE (2009). Estos requerimientos suponen criterios unificados de acceso a la profesión docente, estableciendo estándares profesionales independientes de las instituciones de formación de profesores (National policy document, committees' report, document 1, p. 45).

^c En la nueva fase de desarrollo de la educación del país, se requiere de instrumentos con mayor capacidad de transformar instituciones, programas y conductas en la formación inicial, y mayor probabilidad de producir los resultados formativos que se ambicionan (National policy document, committees' report, document 2, p. 40)