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The volunteer work of newly-certified unemployed teachers in Ontario schools

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Graduate Program in Education
A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree in Master of Education
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THE VOLUNTEER WORK OF NEWLY-CERTIFIED UNEMPLOYED TEACHERS IN
ONTARIO SCHOOLS

(Spine title: The Volunteer Work of Newly-Certified Unemployed Teachers)

(Thesis format: Monograph)

by

Jennifer C. Pearce

Graduate Program in Education

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of
Education

The School of Graduate and Postdoctoral Studies
The University of Western Ontario
London, Ontario, Canada

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Certificate of Examination
THE UNIVERSITY OF WESTERN ONTARIO
School of Graduate and Postdoctoral Studies

CERTIFICATE OF EXAMINATION

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entitled:

The Volunteer Work of Newly-Certified Unemployed Teachers in Ontario Schools

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Master of Education

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Chair of the Thesis Examination Board

Abstract

This mixed-methods study explored the volunteer work of newly-certified, unemployed teachers in Ontario by asking the research question: How do newly-certified, unemployed teachers understand their volunteer work in schools? Quantitative data pertaining to unemployed volunteers and their volunteer behaviour from the National Survey of Learning and Work were analyzed using descriptive statistics in order to provide context for qualitative interviews. Six newly-certified, unemployed teachers completed a semi-structured interview that asked about volunteer tasks, learning, and access to teaching. Findings demonstrated that volunteer-teachers perform a wide range of tasks, engage in informal learning that is both volunteer-related and job-related; and perceive that volunteer work helps them gain access to teaching through growing a professional network and providing insight into the hiring process. Furthermore, how teachers understand their volunteer work is differentiated, seemingly dependent on having previously paid teaching work and pre-existing relationships in a school community. Recognition of a distinct type of volunteer work in the contemporary Canadian volunteer landscape is also presented. Policy and practice implications include disseminating this information for aspiring and unemployed teachers in Ontario, as well as recognizing the adult learning that takes place at the site of volunteer work.

Keywords: Volunteer work, volunteer-related learning, informal learning, teacher labour, mixed-methods research, unemployment, access to professions.

Dedication

To Mom & Dad. This would not be possible without you.

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List of Abbreviations

AQ	Additional Qualification
CSGVP	The Canada Survey of Giving, Volunteering, and Participation
FTPC	Full-time Permanent Contract
LTO	Long-term Occasional
NSLW	The National Survey of Learning and Work
OCT	Ontario College of Teachers, <i>also</i> Ontario Certified Teacher
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
STO	Short-term Occasional

Chapter One: Introduction

This thesis explores volunteer work in schools by newly-certified, unemployed teachers in South-western Ontario. The phenomenon of interest is how these individuals understand their volunteer work in the context of their employment status. Nearly one-half of teachers who graduated in 2010 volunteered in a school for some or all of the following school year (Ontario College of Teachers, OCT, 2012). This thesis probes the tasks, learning, and access to teaching by way of volunteering from the perspective of the newly-certified, unemployed volunteer teacher (hereafter, this term, as well as “teacher volunteer” or “volunteer-teacher” will be used interchangeably). For the purposes of this study, newly-certified refers to those who have received their professional teaching designation within the last five years, since 2007.

Volunteer-teachers are a unique group. They have completed their formal teacher education as well as the certification process, and thus hold professional status, bestowed upon them by the Ontario College of Teachers. They are professionals by name, and volunteer in school communities and classrooms, working alongside cooperating full-time teachers who supervise their volunteer work within the school and with students. Currently, there is a paucity of research regarding this phenomenon; this study will explore what occurs within these volunteer arrangements.

Motivation to study volunteer teachers came from a variety of sources that amalgamated simultaneously when searching for a thesis topic that was relevant, important, and innately interesting. I came to the study of Education with a background in Human Resources; I have always been curious about people and their work arrangements. I knew I

wanted to study some aspect of the teacher employment market in Ontario, which has been enduring a teacher surplus for some time. I had heard about the surplus from many sources, including mainstream media, friends, and family. Around the time I was searching for a thesis topic, I discovered and began reading the *Transition to Teaching* report (OCT, 2011a), a publication released each year that reports employment outcomes for early-years teachers in the province. This particular report stated in passing that an increasing number of newly-certified teachers mentioned volunteering in schools: “volunteering in schools is mentioned much more frequently than in past surveys, with most referring to it as a networking approach...” (OCT, 2011a, p.19). It was this idea that garnered my attention; my previous profession before returning to school for a graduate degree was as Volunteer Coordinator at a very large not-for-profit children’s facility. I worked with volunteers every day and witnessed a wide variety of motivations, attitudes, and outcomes of hundreds of volunteers working with children, many of them aspiring teachers. So, when I read that volunteering was perceived as a “networking approach” I speculated that there was likely much more occurring during the teacher’s volunteer experience than simply networking. This was the idea I wanted to explore in my thesis.

Since that time, while I was conducting my own study, the Ontario College of Teachers also decided that unemployed, certified teachers volunteering in schools was becoming a phenomenon worthy of study. The 2012 *Transition to Teaching* publication, released the first survey data pertaining to teachers volunteering in schools in Ontario. The survey found that 46 per cent (or about 5,500) of new teachers (class of 2010) volunteered in a classroom in their first year after graduation. It is important to note that this number only refers to the most recent class of graduates; many more unemployed teachers who

have graduated in prior years are undoubtedly volunteering as well. It became even more apparent to me while reading this report that the phenomenon of the teacher-volunteer is relevant for many in the province: not only for the teachers who are engaged in volunteering, but also to those who educate, certify, and hire them.

Statement of the Problem

Up to this point, I have been describing this investigation as a focus on volunteering; what makes this an interesting phenomenon when examined acutely is that this form of volunteering exists in a “grey area” between paid work and volunteer work. That is, unemployed teachers may sensibly relate to their volunteer work as a standard volunteer arrangement or as an informal version of the formal work arrangement they seek to secure. It is specifically the current state of the labour market for teachers in Ontario that creates this unique situation. As previously stated, the supply of candidates vastly outnumbers the demand for teachers, intensifying the competition for paid positions. This creates a pressure for newly certified teachers to take upon themselves non-traditional strategies to improve their employment prospects, including volunteering at the site of future paid work – schools. Undertaking analysis of the volunteer roles and pressures encountered in this setting exposes a gap in the existing descriptive and analytical frameworks regarding the teacher labour market, as well as volunteer work, as neither set of frameworks adequately encapsulates the unique context for these individuals. Thus, examining this phenomenon becomes problematic, as the conceptual metaphor (Schön, 1982) used by the unemployed teacher significantly informs their conduct in their volunteer behavior. That is, does the unemployed teacher understand their work as in the realm of classic models of volunteering? Or do they understand it as solely within the

context of navigating the labour market? Understanding their perspective is therefore crucial in explaining the phenomenon of newly-certified, unemployed teachers who volunteer in schools. In order to situate the phenomenon appropriately within the Ontario context, the next section explains how individuals become certified to teach in Ontario, as well as the diversity of work arrangements for teachers in the province.

Teaching in Ontario

In Canada, individual provinces govern education, with publically funded elementary and secondary education overseen by a provincial Ministry. The English-language public school system in Ontario is geographically divided into 72 school boards that are responsible for administering educational programs. The Ontario Ministry of Education is responsible for the education of just over two million students, and boards of education employ approximately 114,000 full-time equivalent teachers (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2011).

Generally, in order to teach in an Ontario public school, an individual must have completed at a minimum, a three-year undergraduate degree in addition to a one-year teacher education program. In Ontario, the one-year teacher education is an undergraduate degree, the Bachelor of Education (B.Ed). Teachers are initially certified to teach in one of three division ranges, consisting of two consecutive, age based, divisions: Primary-Junior (Kindergarten to Grade 6), Junior-Intermediate (Grade 4 to Grade 10), or Intermediate-Senior (Grade 7 to Grade 12)¹. Once certified by the Ontario College of Teachers (the province's regulatory body for teachers) an individual is granted the OCT (Ontario

¹ Technological Studies teachers do not require a postsecondary degree, but they must have five years of paid experience and proof of competence in their specialty (such as a trade certificate) in addition to a secondary school diploma. They are certified to teach Technological Education for Grade 9 to 12.

Certified Teacher) professional designation (Ontario College of Teachers, n.d.). After their initial certification, many teachers take additional courses and programs called Additional Qualifications (AQs) that update and expand professional knowledge (Ontario College of Teachers, n.d.). Teachers may take AQs to obtain an additional division in which they are certified to teach, or add subject-specific knowledge (such as music, French, or special education). When school boards are hiring, they may be looking for specific qualifications, which are represented by these AQs. AQs allow teachers to obtain further qualifications after their formal teacher education, and also represent ongoing professional development.

Once certified, teachers searching for employment in the province typically apply for positions through online employment sites such as Apply to Education, an online portal in which school boards post available positions, and applicants submit their résumés to those positions. For 55 of the 72 school boards in Ontario, this process has become standard (Apply to Education, n.d.) as most schools and administrators claim they will not accept résumés directly, due to the volume of applicants.

The structure of work arrangements for Ontario teachers is diverse. Most newly-certified teachers hope to obtain full-time, permanent contract (FTPC) teaching positions within a school board, as these positions offer secure and permanent employment. However, many new teachers in large, urban school boards first find paid employment on short-term occasional (STO) lists as “supply” or “substitute” teachers (OCT, 2011a); that is, they are hired by school boards in order to be on call to replace full-time permanent contract (FTPC) teachers who must be absent from work, on a day-to-day basis. Some teachers prefer to remain in this occasional work arrangement, and are referred to as career-occasional teachers (Pollock, 2008). However, once hired as an STO teacher, most

candidates will turn their attention to securing long-term occasional (LTO) work (in which they cover for a FTPC teacher's extended absence) and FTPC positions and will often transition between STO and LTO work before finally being hired as an FTPC teacher (Chalikakas, 2012). This process of being hired as an STO teacher before an individual can access LTO or FTPC positions is typically formalized in the collective agreements between school boards and teacher federations (see, for example, The Thames Valley District School Board and The Elementary Teachers' Federation of Ontario, 2008). Thus, for the majority of new applicants, accessing STO work is the first step to accessing paid work in teaching; however, this process is much more complex and ambiguous than this description depicts, due in large part to the oversupply of teachers in the province.

Situating Unemployed Teachers in Ontario's Teacher Labour Market

In Ontario, teachers who have recently graduated from teacher education programs find themselves entering a grim employment market resultant from declining teacher retirement rates since the early 2000s. From 1998 to 2002, there were approximately 7,200 full-time, permanent teachers retiring each year; since then, retirements have declined to less than 4,600 annually. As retirement rates fell, enrolment in teacher certification programs remained constant, and the Ontario College of Teachers reported certifying about 12,200 new teachers every year. As a result, 7,600 more teachers than there were positions for entered the teacher labour market each year from 2005-2009. Currently, new teachers entering the profession from all sources amount to 11,850, and retirements are expected to remain at their current levels over the next 10 years (OCT, 2012). The resulting number of individuals for whom there are no positions is staggering: if the numbers reported by the Ontario College of Teachers are accurate, then 59,750 individuals who have graduated

since 2005 are un- and under- employed². There has been some action taken by the provincial government that may alter labour landscape and provide some (albeit minimal) relief within the labour market, such as cutting the number of funded teacher-education spots by 855 in 2011 (MacDonald, 2011); funding additional teaching positions in order to implement full-day kindergarten (Ontario Ministry of Finance, 2012); and proposing that the time spent in teacher education increase beyond one year some time after 2014 (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2010).

Even with these changes, the employment picture remains grim. Outcomes for recent graduates show that of new graduates (2009-2010), two-thirds were involved in occasional work or could find no work in teaching of any description (McIntyre, 2011). The current unemployment rate for first year teachers stands at 30 per cent, a rate that is ten times what it was in 2006 (McIntyre, 2012). Unemployment is growing in all areas of the market, including areas that were have historically had lower unemployment, including French-language and technological education (McIntyre, 2012). For new Canadians, three-quarters are fully unemployed in their first year after certification (McIntyre, 2012). It is a challenge across urban Canada, from British Columbia (Dehaas, 2011) to Nova Scotia (Tibbets, 2008). One strategy by newly certified teachers that has emerged in light of the intense competition for positions is performing volunteer work in schools (OCT, 2011a) as they navigate the teacher employment market.

² This number was derived as follows: The period from 2005-2009 (five years) saw a surplus of 7,600 teachers (12,200 entrants minus 4,600 retirements); this amounts to 38,000 surplus teachers (7,600*5). The period from 2010-2012 (three years) has an estimated surplus of 7,250 (11,850 entrants minus 4,600 retirements) ; this amounts to an estimated surplus of 21,750 (7,250*3). Over these 8 years (2005-2012), this totals 59,750 (38,000 plus 21,750).

Research Questions

This research focuses on the experience of newly-certified, unemployed teachers who volunteer in schools. Currently, little is known about volunteering in this context, and thus the overall question this study wishes to answer is broad and exploratory:

How do newly-certified, unemployed teachers understand their volunteer work in schools?

In order to help answer this question, three subquestions were asked:

- 1. What is the nature of the volunteering in schools for newly certified, unemployed teachers?*
- 2. What do unemployed teachers learn from volunteering?*
- 3. How, if it all, does volunteering assist unemployed teachers with access to teaching?*

The primary research question and the supporting sub-questions help construct a cohesive picture of the volunteer teacher in the current teacher employment market; a picture that currently lacks a sufficient framework to describe the unique nature of their volunteer work.

Thesis Outline

This chapter outlined the research motivations, statement of the problem, process for teacher certification in Ontario, the current state of teacher labour market, and the research questions. Chapter Two is a literature review that outlines what is currently known about newly-certified, unemployed teachers volunteering in Ontario, as well as broad theories for explaining teacher recruitment and selection, and exploring with volunteerism in the Canadian landscape in order to demonstrate that current models are insufficient for describing the situation of these teachers. The chapter concludes with the conceptual framework that the study used to examine the volunteer work of unemployed teachers, using the concepts of volunteer work, learning, and access. Chapter Three

describes the mixed-methods approach that was used to investigate the research question and sub-questions. Data from the National Survey of Learning and Work (Livingstone, 2006) were used to present the context for the volunteer work of unemployed individuals, and semi-structured interviews with unemployed volunteer teachers permitted the opportunity to explore their unique situation in detail. Chapter Four outlines the context provided by the National Survey of Learning and Work for the unemployed volunteer teachers in this study. Chapter Five focuses on the research-subquestion: What is the nature of the volunteering in schools for newly certified, unemployed teachers? Chapter Six responds to the research sub-question: What do unemployed teachers learn from volunteering? Chapter Seven concentrates on the research sub-question: How, if at all, does volunteering assist unemployed teachers with access to teaching? Chapter Eight provides a discussion pertaining to the findings presented in Chapters Four through Seven, and constructs a cohesive response to the research question: How do newly-certified, unemployed teachers understand their volunteer work in schools? Finally, Chapter Nine identifies aspects of significance to theory, policy, and practice, as well as limitations of the study and areas of future research.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

The phenomenon of newly-certified, unemployed teachers volunteering in schools in Ontario first surfaced in the *Transition to Teaching* report in 2006 (R. Coulter, personal communication, September 27, 2011). Comments from un- and under- employed teachers mentioned the activity; however no methodical exploration of the phenomenon took place until six years later, reported the most recent edition of the *Transition to Teaching* report (OCT, 2012), after this thesis work began. However, this data left more questions than answers, making this investigation complementary, rather than irrelevant, to the *Transition to Teaching* report.

This chapter first outlines what is currently known about the volunteer work of newly-certified, unemployed teachers in the province. Next, the literature on teacher labour markets and volunteering are explored respectively in order to demonstrate the difficulty of placing teacher-volunteers within a pre-existing framework. The conceptual framework employed to frame the study will be presented at the end of this chapter.

Teacher Volunteerism in Ontario Schools

In the 2010 *Transition to Teaching* report, Ontario first year teachers reported volunteering in schools much more frequently than they have in the past (McIntyre, 2011). As a result, a section probing the volunteer work of new teachers in schools was added to the annual survey by the Ontario College of Teachers in 2011. According to the *Transition to Teaching* report 2011 (OCT, 2012), 82 per cent of graduates from 2010 considered volunteering after graduating but one-third of graduates who considered volunteering did not pursue it, primarily because of financial considerations. Forty-six (46) per cent of all graduates from the class of 2010 did volunteer in a school during the 2010-2011 school

year; a similar participation rate was also reported for the 2009 graduates. This amounts to over 10,000 certified teachers volunteering in classrooms from only the classes of 2009 and 2010; the survey did not collect data about volunteering from those who graduated years prior, leaving the true prevalence of teachers currently volunteering in schools unknown.

The survey also reported that teachers who volunteer make “substantial weekly commitments for many months throughout the school year” (OCT, 2012, p. 28), with 75 per cent of teachers volunteering for three or more hours each week, and 50 per cent committing four months or more of the school year. Substantial numbers of teachers from all divisions reported volunteering: 56 per cent of Primary-Junior, 37 per cent of Junior-Intermediate, 36 per cent of Intermediate-Senior, and 36 per cent of the Technological Education teachers all reported volunteering in schools. While prevalence and time-spent are important for understanding the volunteer teacher landscape, these data fail to provide details about what volunteer teachers are doing, as well as other details of the volunteer experience. The intention of this study is to fill in this gap by exploring the volunteer work of newly certified, unemployed in Ontario schools.

The *Transition to Teaching* report (OCT, 2011a) takes the perspective that volunteering is primarily a mode of access to paid teaching work, as indicated by the statement that volunteering is “a networking strategy for making connections that may lead to a teaching job” (McIntyre, 2011, p. 32). This perspective is reflected in the data collected and reported by the survey, which focused on volunteering and job outcomes. The findings in this area are of consequence: those who graduated in 2009 who volunteered report an unemployment rate of 17 per cent, a full 10 per cent lower than the

unemployment rate for those who did not volunteer (27 per cent) (OCT, 2012). While volunteering was not ranked highly amongst all factors leading to employment, the factors leading to the 10 per cent difference between the two groups are worthy of further investigation, perhaps uncovering modes of access that volunteering facilitates.

In order to appropriately investigate the phenomenon, an appropriate framework to view the volunteer work is required. I first looked to literature pertaining to teacher labour markets; however, attempting to situate the volunteer work of teacher-volunteers within a pre-existing framework of teacher labour markets is problematic as current models of teacher recruitment and selection do not adequately capture the Ontario context.

Teacher Labour Markets

The broad challenge associated with exploring the teacher surplus in Ontario is that much of the literature that pertains to teacher labour markets refers to teacher shortages primarily within the United States (Boyd, Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2005; Cannata, 2007; Ingersoll, 2001; Ladd, 2007; Liu & Johnson, 2006; Maier & Youngs, 2009; OECD, 2005; Winter, Ronau, & Munoz, 2004). Furthermore, when examining teacher career paths and career choices, a large proportion of literature focuses on how teachers find and choose full-time, contract positions based on schools, school districts, demographic information, and candidates choice of postsecondary institution (Maier & Youngs, 2009) within a labour shortage context. Job choice is further explored in a small, but growing body of research that examines how the social context of teacher preparation programs influences the career choices of teachers (Boyd et al., 2006; Maier & Youngs, 2009). This social context is typically discussed within the context of job choice theory where worker preferences are examined through three distinct decision-making perspectives: objective,

subjective, and critical contact theories (Pounder & Merrill, 2001) Objective theory posits that measurable factors, such as pay, benefits, and location shape the decision for new teachers. The subjective perspective suggests that teachers choose the job based on an environment that satisfies personal criteria, such as the goals and values of the organization. Finally, the critical contact theory states that teachers use information from those they interact with during the hiring process to make their job decision (Evans, 2011).

There is an inherent difficulty with using this, and other models, that discuss job choice when attempting to describe how teachers make career decisions in Ontario, and that is that the intensity of the competition among unemployed teacher candidates does not leave much room for job *choice*. Many of the factors discussed, such as goals, values, pay, and benefits have little bearing in Ontario as newly-certified teachers currently seek short-term occasional work as an entry point to teaching, leaving them little choice regarding their work arrangement. The ratio of teaching positions compared to the number of qualified candidates is enormous, leaving the schools and school boards with more choice of candidates than candidates have in their choice of school or school board. Perhaps then, a model that includes the schools and school boards in the teacher recruitment process is more appropriate, such as job queue theory.

Job queue theory (Reskin & Roos, 1990; Reskin, McBrier & Kmec, 1999) states that workers form “imaginary parallel lines, with the most desirable workplaces and preferred workers at the top and the least preferred workplaces and workers at the bottom” (Evans, 2011, p. 268). As a result, more desirable workplaces employ the most preferred workers and the less desirable workplaces employ the least preferred workers; and employers recruit from higher up in the queue and move down it when there are too few preferred

applicants to fill vacancies (Evans, 2011). However, this model becomes problematic for the Ontario context as there are *many* preferred candidates, creating more of a *crowd* than a queue. That is, it becomes difficult to explain the employment market in terms of a preferred queue of candidates, because the number qualified candidates *immensely* outnumber the spots available. Evidence for this idea comes from mainstream media reports that discuss the conundrum with human resources personnel. For example:

“It would not be an exaggeration to say the applications we receive are in the thousands every year,” says Mr. Sereda, executive superintendent of human resources services for the Thames Valley District School Board in London, Ontario.

For the current school year, he had 161 positions to fill, and many of those were only part-time teaching contracts. Even for teachers trying to get on the board’s supply teaching list, competition is stiff. The supply list is considered a stepping stone, after a minimum of three years, to a permanent position.

“It’s nuts,” says a frustrated Mr. Sereda. “You get these poor kids [applying] who are absolutely fabulous and I can’t offer them anything. Even suggesting hope is tough.” (MacDonald, 2011, para. 2-4)

As a result, the competition for paid work in teaching is intensified, as candidates cannot typically differentiate themselves on qualifications alone; thus job queue theory is insufficient for describing the Ontario teacher labour market. Newly-certified teachers must find alternative avenues to differentiate themselves amongst the overabundance of other candidates for any teaching work, including less desirable short-term occasional

work that is the entry point to FTPC teaching in the province (for an exploration of short-term occasional work, see Pollock, 2008 and Chalikakis, 2012). One of these alternative avenues is volunteer work in schools by these candidates.

As just described, these frameworks for teacher recruitment and selection are insufficient to explain the teacher volunteer work in schools revealed the *Transition to Teaching* report (OCT, 2012), as they are typically used to explain teacher labour markets that have numerous openings and fewer qualified candidates (Maier & Youngs, 2009) and discuss the search for full-time, permanent contract positions. Thus, a different framework is required. Since the phenomenon under study in this investigation is volunteer work, perhaps the volunteer literature may be more helpful to explain the perspective of the teacher-volunteer, which is to where I turn next.

Volunteer: Towards a Definition

The *Transition to Teaching* report does not ask specifically about the volunteer activities of newly certified teachers; it instead offers anecdotal evidence from comments provided by survey respondents, where many candidates report offering their services, both related and un-related to teaching, in schools and classrooms for no monetary compensation. The question arises whether this type of work, seemingly mostly for self-benefit should be labeled “volunteer.” In order to explore this question, and work towards a framework for studying this phenomenon for new teachers, volunteers and volunteerism is explored theoretically as well as practically in the next section. If the term “volunteer” is widely used by the teachers engaged in it and the administrators and teachers who supervise them, it is prudent to carefully explore the meaning of the term and place it in the Canadian volunteer landscape.

Volunteering has been explored extensively from a wide range of perspectives for various purposes, such as looking at the processes of social action and community impact (e.g., Omoto, 2005), organizational behaviour (e.g., Pearce, 1993), providing a historical account, (e.g., Ellis & Noyes, 1990) and improving volunteer experiences (e.g., Ilsley, 1990). Volunteering by regular, full-time teachers, and examinations of other school volunteers have also been undertaken (e.g., Epstein & Dauber, 1991; Livingstone & Antonelli, 2006; Smaller, 2005). Few authors have looked distinctly at volunteering (Ilsley, 1990; Schugurensky & Mundel, 2005) in the context of career development. Given the range of perspectives and the various domains under which volunteer work has been explored, this section of the review begins by looking broadly at the incidence of volunteering by Canadians. It then explores the definition of “volunteer” and the multiple dimensions that are associated with the term. It then demonstrates how the contemporary frameworks for describing volunteers are insufficient for the inclusion of teacher-volunteers. Next, it outlines the body of literature that connects learning and work, including unpaid volunteer work, in order to demonstrate that newly-certified volunteer teachers are uniquely positioned to speak about learning from their volunteer work.

Volunteering in Canada. Volunteer work is performed in many different sectors by individuals of all ages. In 2007, 12.5 million Canadians, or 46 per cent, of the population aged 15 and older volunteered 2.1 billion hours (Canadian Council on Learning, 2010). The mean number of hours of volunteer work completed per person annually is 166, with the median as 56 (Hall et al., 2009), indicating that there are some volunteers who contribute a large number of hours. Indeed, a report by Hall et al. (2009) states that the top 25 per cent of volunteers contributed 78 per cent of all of the volunteer hours in Canada in

2007. The most likely organizations for Canadian volunteers in 2007 were sports and recreation, social services, education and research, and religious organizations. On the opposite end of the spectrum, the least likely organizations for volunteers were law, advocacy and politics, hospitals, arts and culture, and environment (Hall et al., 2009). It is clear that across Canada, volunteers are found in all sectors: non-profit, for-profit, and public institutions such as schools. A high rate of volunteerism in the education and research sector (11 per cent of all volunteer hours and 10 per cent of all volunteers) further substantiates the legitimacy of this investigation, as it looks closely at a subset of the volunteers in this area.

Use of the term “volunteer.” The term “volunteer” is complex. It is generally used as a catchall term for nonsalaried activities (Cnaan, Handy, & Wadsworth, 1996), although the criteria *freely chosen* and *of benefit to community/society* are also part of the commonly held definition (Schugurensky & Mundel, 2005). However, Vallaincourt (1994) excludes informal volunteer work – nonsalaried work outside of formal institutions (such as helping an elderly neighbour shovel a walkway) – from the definition for economic purposes. Along the same vein, Jenner (1982) includes only volunteer activities that are formally organized by a non-profit organization. Social responsibility as the source of motivation dominates the definition for some authors (e.g. Ellis & Noyes, 1990), while remuneration is the focus for others (e.g. Shure, 1991).

Illesley (1990) recognized the complex nature of the definition, and summarized nine elements of voluntary action:

- Altruism
- Commitment to a cause or mission

- Commitment to an organization
- Free will/choice
- Learning
- Lack of remuneration
- Organization
- Psychological benefits
- Sacrifice

While these elements were helpful for understanding the multi-dimensional nature of volunteering at the time, the term still lacked a cohesive framework for describing the wide range of activities that fell under the umbrella of “volunteer work.”

Cnaan et al. (1996) moved a step closer to this framework by locating four key dimensions of volunteering after analyzing over 300 articles and reports on the subject: (1) free choice (2) remuneration (3) structure (4) intended beneficiaries. These four dimensions, and their associated categories, allow for the comparison of volunteer activities across various contexts, and succinctly incorporate many of Ilesley’s (1990) elements.

According to the framework, the dimension of *free choice* refers to the voluntary nature of the act. That is, individuals can perform a voluntary act completely of their own free will, or as part of a program, such as court ordered community service. *Remuneration* refers to the type of reward an individual receives as a result of volunteering, which can range from absolutely none, to some sort of stipend. *Structure* refers to the organizational context under which the volunteer act is performed. A formal context, for example, is a nonprofit organization, which actively recruits and maintains a volunteer staff, whereas a non-formal context could be helping an elderly neighbour on a casual basis. *Intended beneficiaries* refers to who benefits from the volunteer act. At one end of the continuum,

complete strangers may be beneficiaries, and at the other end, beneficiaries are friends, family, and oneself. The dimensions and the categories can be summarized as follows:

Dimension	Categories
Free choice	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Free will (the ability to voluntarily choose) 2. Relatively uncoerced 3. Obligation to volunteer
Remuneration	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. None at all 2. None expected 3. Expenses reimbursed 4. Stipend/low pay
Structure	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Formal 2. Informal
Intended beneficiaries	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Benefit/help others/strangers 2. Benefit/help friends or relatives 3. Benefit oneself (as well)

From Cnaan, Handy, & Wadsworth (1996, p. 371)

Cnaan et al. (1996) used these dimensions to help understand how the public perceives volunteering: in general, people tend to focus on the costs and benefits associated with these dimensions when assessing if someone is a volunteer. Costs included monetary costs, time, and inconvenience, while benefits include monetary rewards, social status, and future tangible rewards. The authors note that the relative quality and context of the costs and benefits associated with volunteering is important to the public perception of volunteering. A sample of 514 adult respondents (both volunteers and non-volunteers) surveyed by Cnaan et al. (1996) found that people ranked volunteer situations differently based on the costs and benefits incurred by the individual. That is, someone who incurs a high net cost is more of a volunteer (or “true” volunteer) than someone who incurs a low net cost.

The framework proposed by Cnaan et al. (1996) is helpful as it provides a concise way to understand any particular act of volunteerism. Even though individuals may differ on personal conceptions of what constitutes a volunteer act (as Cnaan et al. demonstrated through the analysis of costs and benefits), the framework casts a wide enough net to capture all possible ways that volunteerism might manifest, which is especially important in the current investigation regarding the volunteer activities of new teachers. According to this framework, the volunteer work of newly-certified teachers could be classified along these dimensions: they are volunteering of their own free will, they are receiving no financial benefit, they are in a formal setting, and receive some benefit from the activity (such as networking opportunities). Some may argue that the unemployed volunteer teachers are not volunteering of their own free will, as there is the perception they have to volunteer to find a paid position. A second typology proposed by Schugurensky and Mundel (2005) is helpful in understanding this idea as it incorporates elements of the different frameworks already discussed, as well as the “various degrees of passion, social pressure and self interest” (p. 6) that may be taking place in any given volunteer situation. This framework is helpful when trying to describe the contemporary volunteer landscape where many individuals report reasons for volunteering that are somewhat self-interested. The Canada Survey of Giving, Volunteering, and Participating, CSGVP, (Hall et al., 2009) reports many reasons that Canadians volunteer, such as wanting to meet new people (48 per cent of Canadian volunteers), because their friends volunteer (47 per cent), and improving job opportunities (23 per cent) which can all be perceived as self-interested motivations. The self-interested dimension does not change the unremunerated, freely-

chosen, and of benefit to society aspects of volunteering that are the hallmark of the classic definitions.

Conceptualizing the Unemployed Volunteer Teacher

As previously mentioned, Schugurensky and Mundel (2005) developed six volunteer profiles that include “various degrees of passion, social pressure and self interest” (p. 6); moreover, these six profiles may also correlate with different learning experiences (volunteerism and learning will be discussed in a subsequent section): the altruistic volunteer, the semi-altruistic volunteer, the socially-coerced volunteer, the compulsory volunteer, the overtime volunteer, and the intern volunteer. The authors note that a particular organization may have volunteers fitting a variety of profiles, and any single volunteer may change in their profile over time. Additionally, there are some issues with the framework, such as an overlap between the profiles, and there may be some activities that are not accounted for by the typology. In order to understand where new teachers’ volunteer activities fit in to this contemporary framework, all six of Schugurensky and Mundel’s profiles are described in some detail to provide background context. The final category, the intern volunteer, is most relevant to the present investigation.

The “altruistic” and “semi-altruistic” volunteer. This volunteer is motivated by a desire to help others and does not benefit materially from engaging in volunteer activity, and dedicates a great deal of time and energy to the cause. The “semi-altruistic” volunteer also has a desire to help others, but with a focus on their local community, and most likely has a vested interest in the cause. The difference between “altruistic” and “semi-altruistic” volunteers, the authors note, is that the “altruistic” volunteer may take on a cause such as

protecting the rain forest, while a “semi-altruistic” volunteer may advocate for protecting the local wetland which borders on their property.

The “socially-coerced” volunteer and the “compulsory” volunteer. “Socially-coerced” volunteers engage in volunteer activities of their own free will, however, there is a high expectation by others that they do so. The motivation comes from social pressure and informal rules of a particular group or community. In contrast, a “compulsory” volunteer completes volunteer activities as part of legislation or some other mandated program. Although the authors note that this kind of volunteer work is coerced, and thus not truly a “volunteer” activity, they include it as a profile because it is a category of volunteerism that is recognized by organizations, individuals, and the community.

The “overtime” volunteer. An “overtime” volunteer is an employee who contributes more hours to completing tasks related to organizational activities, which may not be part of their job description, or are not typically expected of them. The authors note it may be difficult to distinguish between volunteerism and unpaid work in this case, however they suggest that if penalties or reprimands are placed upon the employee for not completing these extra tasks, then it is considered unpaid work (and possibly exploitation) rather than volunteer work. The authors suggest this type of volunteer work is most likely to take place in the nonprofit sector where individuals are deeply committed to organizational goals.

The “intern” volunteer. The sixth and final profile suggested by Schugurensky and Mundel (2005) is the “intern” volunteer “who works in unpaid or poorly paid capacity in order to gain entry into a particular segment of the labour market” (p. 8). The profile has

two variations: a *junior* has little experience in a given field, and a *senior*, who has experience, but whose experience and/or credentials are not recognized by employers or professional associations. The volunteers themselves are the major beneficiaries of the experience. The authors suggest that some may categorize this volunteer work as “unpaid work for self-benefit” (p. 8); however, there is most likely still a social benefit beyond the volunteer, and the unpaid work may have a high degree of social and community impact. Further, in the case where intern is not successful in reaching career goals, the degree of self-benefit is very low (Schugurensky & Mundel, 2005).

While this category may be the closest framework for describing the volunteer work of new teachers revealed by the *Transition to Teaching* report (OCT, 2011a), it is still problematic. In this particular context, where the teacher-volunteer has little experience in a given field, it is not the lack of experience that accounts for the motivation of the volunteer work. In the teacher labour market lacking intense competition, newly-certified teachers without experience beyond their teacher education would likely find paid work in teaching regardless, as was the case throughout the 1990s and early 2000s in Ontario (OCT, 2011a). In addition, there are teachers (albeit the minority) without experience who find paid work in teaching immediately after their teacher education, meaning that “lack of experience” is not necessarily the primary reason that teachers volunteer in schools. That is, when the Ontario teacher labour market was in equilibrium, “experience” beyond teacher education was not a primary factor in accessing paid teaching work, as most teachers would access paid work immediately after graduation (OCT, 2002). Moreover, the unemployed teachers in this study have already obtained their professional designation through the Ontario College of Teachers. Thus, as their credentials have been recognized,

the “senior” volunteer profile also does not properly apply in this context. Hence, it seems apparent that within the “intern profile” proposed by Schugurensky and Mundel (2005), another sub-category is required that includes access to the labour market during a labour market surplus. The current study intends to explore the volunteer work of this particular group and examine content of the volunteer experience, learning, and access issues, the latter being centrally important to this type of volunteer.

The authors do acknowledge that the profiles at this time are not sufficient to describe all volunteer activities in the Canadian landscape. The CSGVP (Hall et al., 2009) provides some insight into how many Canadians may fit these profiles, and also demonstrates that there is overlap between the profiles and various motivations described by them. In 2007, the CSGVP reported that the vast majority of volunteers state that they wish to make a contribution to the community (93%). The other reasons reported are

- the desire to make use of personal skills and experiences (77%);
- personally affected by the cause the organization supports (59%);
- the desire to explore personal strengths (50%);
- the desire to network or meet people (48%);
- because their friends volunteer (47%);
- improving job opportunities (23%);
- fulfilling religious obligations or beliefs (22%); and
- mandatory community service requirements (7%) (Hall et al., 2009).

By comparing the profiles of volunteers to these reasons for volunteering, Schugurensky and Mundel (2005) suggest evidence begins to emerge for their proposed profiles. An ‘intern’ volunteer, for example, likely reports ‘improving job opportunities’ as a reason for volunteering; thus one might hypothesize that intern volunteers represent 23 per cent of the

volunteer population. However, the list of reasons on the CSGVP is problematic, in that it does not provide an exhaustive list of reasons, and respondents are permitted to report as many they wish. It is clear that more research is needed to verify and describe the profiles suggested by Schugurensky and Mundel. This study adds knowledge to this volunteer profile.

In addition to the descriptive value of these volunteer profiles, the authors posit that learning is implicit within each profile; that is, each profile provides different opportunities and processes for learning from volunteer work. Thus, since this framework partially informs this study, further exploration of volunteer work requires some explication of the learning component, which some authors suggest is innate to volunteering.

Volunteerism and Learning

Learning from volunteering is frequently overlooked in investigations about volunteer work (Ilsley, 1990; Schugurensky & Mundel, 2005), even though a growing body of research indicates that informal learning and volunteering are closely linked (Ilsley, 1990; Lerner & Schugurensky, 2006; Livingstone, 2001a; Mundel & Schugurensky 2005; Mundel, Duguid & Schugurensky, 2004; Schugurensky 2006; Schugurensky & Mundel 2005; Schugurensky & Myers, 2008; Schugurensky, Slade, & Luo 2005; Slade, Luo & Schugurensky 2005). Paul Ilsley's (1990) ethnographic study consisting of interviews with 180 people (associated in some way with volunteerism) included a focus on learning. Ilsley states that historically, learning in the context of volunteerism has been predominantly associated with training, and that "[t]his is a pity, because both formal and informal voluntary action offer almost infinite possibilities for learning" (p. 10).

The author, drawing on the classic adult education scholars Eduard Lindeman (1926) and Cyril Houle (1961), suggests that a sound approach is to focus on the purposes for learning: “Purposes can range from practical ones, such as gaining skills that increase one’s chances of getting a certain job, to inner-directed ones like enjoyment and personal growth” (p. 59). The participants in Ilsley’s (1990) study identified many different purposes for learning, could identify learning experiences, did not state learning as a major motivation for volunteer work, but did find learning from the volunteer work to be rewarding. The sources of learning for these participants were orientation, training, conversations with other volunteers, independent investigation, and personal experience. Ilsley found that most of the learning that actually took place within volunteer organizations was unplanned, and undervalued.

What Ilsley uncovered was that adult learning was occurring even when the volunteers were not expecting it. This phenomenon, an aspect of informal learning, is part of a field of study emergent in adult education literature. The National Research Network on New Approaches to Lifelong Learning (NALL), and its follow up project, the 2004 survey of Work and Lifelong Learning (WALL) at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (OISE) sought to thoroughly understand adult learning. The project understood learning as taking place through formal schooling, adult education programs and courses, and informal settings. The projects placed learning in the context of work, which stimulates learning activities. Three spheres of work were identified: paid employment, housework, and *volunteer work* (Livingstone, 2000). The projects confirmed that informal learning, (activities in which individuals acquire understanding, knowledge, and skill outside of prescribed curricula, undertaken either individually or collectively) is prevalent in Canada

(Tough, 1978; Livingstone, 2007). The 2004 WALL survey asked participants engaged in volunteer work (N=3745) whether they participated in informal learning related to their volunteer activity. Seventy-six (76) per cent of all volunteers reported that they engage in some sort of learning related to the volunteer work, with an average of four hours per week.

The 1998 NALL survey revealed that “the more one engages in any form of work, the more time is devoted to related learning” and that “the more discretionary the work, the more intensive is the learning” (Livingstone, 2000, p. 502). Indeed, spheres of unpaid work – housework and community volunteer work – have a strong significant association with informal learning suggesting that those more active in discretionary work may be generally more active informal learners (Livingstone, 2001a). Looking specifically at volunteers, Schugurensky (2000) undertook several projects to explore this phenomenon stating:

If informal learning tends to be more intense in voluntary work than in paid work, it is imperative to further explore whether this is a fact across the board or only in some types of voluntary work, and to determine the implications of this for training policies and programs, and for the assessment and recognition of informal learning. Although there are many studies on voluntary work in Canada, little is known yet about the extent, modes and effectiveness of volunteers’ acquisition of new skills, knowledge, attitudes and values, and the relationship between formal, nonformal and informal learning in this process. (p. 1)

The projects looked at volunteer work in three areas – as gaining experience for the labour market focused on immigrants and women, as part of the “ethos and modus operandi” of

an organization, and volunteering for the betterment of society. According to their preliminary research findings from multiple projects that used interviews, questionnaires, and focus groups, Schugurensky and Mundel (2005) suggest that the primary mode for learning in volunteer activities is incidental, and informal, and results in tacit knowledge, or knowledge that is difficult to describe explicitly (see Eraut, 2000). Given the connections between voluntary work and informal learning, the phenomenon should be observable in the experience of volunteer teachers. Investigating it not only provides a useful lens through which to view teacher volunteer work, but also contributes to the literature on adult informal learning from volunteer work.

A review of the literature has outlined the current context for newly-certified teachers in Ontario, and demonstrated that frameworks for teacher labour markets and volunteerism are insufficient for describing the type of volunteering reported by the *Transition to Teaching* report (2011a). That is, the present frameworks do not sufficiently acknowledge the unique labour market that is central to this volunteer work. As such, this investigation, using concepts of volunteer work, learning, and access will attempt to describe how unemployed teachers understand their volunteer work given this unique context.

Conceptual Framework

The framework for this study was informed by three concepts: volunteer work, learning, and access. I approach this study from the volunteer perspective, rather than teacher labour perspective because the available frameworks for teacher labour and job choice are mired in a context too disparate from that of newly-certified Ontario teachers to be useful. The volunteer literature that describes the intern volunteer, although not perfect,

more closely mirrors this context. In addition, teachers are only one example of a group of individuals who volunteer in this context; thus the theoretical implications and therefore the value of this work may be enhanced when firmly situated in the volunteer literature. Learning, as has been discussed, is more tightly coupled with volunteer work than previously conceived, and I would be remiss to exclude it from this study given the unique situation of teachers volunteering at the site of future paid work. Finally, access is essential to include within the conceptual framework because volunteering is the strategy of choice these teachers have used to gain access to paid work in teaching.

Volunteer work. The concept of volunteer work has been reviewed thoroughly in this chapter; I find the typology suggested by Schugurensky and Mundel (2005) to be most relevant to the current study. In this investigation, the activities performed by unemployed teachers are generally undertaken as an act of free will, involve no remuneration, and have had a social benefit beyond the volunteer, to others in the school community such as teachers and students (Schugurensky & Mundel, 2005). Using the term ‘volunteer’ in this case may be problematic for some readers as the degree of self-benefit in this situation may be considered high (Cnaan, et al., 1996); however, Schugurensky and Mundel provide a framework where pressures of self-interest are included, and thus the term “volunteer” is appropriate.

Furthermore, while the profiles of volunteering suggested by Schugurensky and Mundel (2005) are a progression in the attempt to sufficiently account for the variation in the Canadian volunteer landscape, their framework does not include volunteers who engage in volunteer work at the site of future paid work in a labour surplus, a scenario that has emerged from this example of a saturated labour market. While teachers in the Ontario

context are the specific example used in this investigation, a rise in unemployment for other professions, such as law (Todd, 2011) and journalism (Johansen & McGuire, 2010), warrant further study of this group.

Learning. The second concept informing my framework is learning. Livingstone (2000) reported that there is a strong association between informal learning and the three spheres of work: paid employment, housework, and community volunteer work. That is, informal learning increases as the amount of time spent at work (paid or unpaid) increases. Unemployed teachers who volunteer in schools are uniquely suited to speak about learning in this context as they are positioned between two spheres of work: paid employment and volunteer work. That is, the individuals in the study are giving their time (volunteering) at the site of *future* paid work. Furthermore, in community volunteering,

A great deal of informal learning is unconscious, as it is acquired through daily interactions in different social settings and results in tacit knowledge; or knowledge that is “we know more than we can tell” (Polanyi, 1966, p. 4). This tacit knowledge, as well as skills, and dispositions acquired through informal learning often goes unrecognized by the learner (Duguid, Mundel, & Schugurensky, 2007, p. 45).

This investigation probes the informal learning and tacit knowledge gained through volunteer work. While a great deal of the Canadian population engages in volunteering, there has been little exploration of the informal learning that results from this activity; this is partly due to the tacit nature of informal learning (Duguid, Mundel, & Schugurensky, 2007), but also that the purpose of volunteering seems to be doing rather than learning

(Cox, 2002). This study makes contribution to this body of work by looking at what and how volunteers learn at the site of future paid employment.

Specific to the newly-certified, unemployed teachers in this study, part of the concept of learning is also the notion of learning to be a teacher. While the participants in this study have already received their teaching certification and gone through practice teaching, it remains to be seen what the role of further learning from volunteering means to continued teacher development. Teachers tend to improve their practice very early in their career (Hanushek & Rivkin, 2004; Hanushek et al. 2004); however, the benefits of increased experience diminish over time, with the maximum benefit in terms of student outcomes being reached at about five years of experience (Hanushek et al. 2004). This is not to say that teachers do not continue to learn further into their careers, but beginning teachers do an enormous amount of learning that contributes to a competent professional practice, before settling in to their desired practices. Thus, given that some of these teachers will be at the beginning of their careers, learning that occurs at the site of future paid work might be highly relevant to teacher development. In addition, McNally et al. (2008) found that “there is a clear case for equating learning to teach with forming an identity as a teacher” (p. 5), and the question remains if the development of a teacher identity is also found within the context of the volunteer arrangement. Moreover, Valencia et al. (2009) found that practice teaching often becomes an act of “negotiating the terrain” (p. 310); that is, the student focuses on pleasing the supervising teacher who holds certain beliefs about how a student teacher should learn. Thus, how learning unfolds under the supervision of a cooperating teacher within a *volunteer* arrangement is also germane to this study.

Finally, workplace learning is also relevant. The volunteer teachers in the present study offer an excellent opportunity to explore the phenomenon of informal learning in a unique group of volunteers: those who are new to the field, and volunteer at the site of future paid work in order to gain access to the paid employment market. In this particular case, the lines are blurred between volunteer-related learning, and workplace learning. Workplace learning can be understood broadly as learning through work, for work, and about work (Huddleston & Oh, 2004). According to this view of workplace learning, learning *through* work is about engaging in work experience or job-shadowing, learning specific content knowledge about the work. Learning *for* work includes understanding the work organization and profession, while improving key skills that improve employability. Learning *about* work includes acquiring knowledge about how the workplace functions and understanding the employee role within it. This concept of workplace learning provides a more cohesive view of job-related learning, beyond the narrow concept of learning professional content knowledge (such as specific pedagogical theories, for example) and skills. As Pollock (2008) states in the context of occasional teaching,

present notions of professional learning do not include all the other learning...such as...understanding how schools are organized in Ontario, how to work with other teachers, how to network with other teachers, how to develop marketing skills, or how to understand the culture or social processes within schools (p. 85).

Thus, the concept of workplace learning includes all of these other facets of learning which are central for newly-certified, unemployed teachers when considering how they will access teaching since the volunteer work is at the site of future paid work. This concept of workplace learning as *through*, *about*, and *for* work, is important for this study.

Access. The final concept of the framework is access. The Oxford English Dictionary (n.d.) defines access: “to gain admission to; to enter.” The use of this concept for the purposes of this study is considerably more complex than this definition allows. While there are a small number of programs that promote bridging between employment and unemployment (see for example, Ministry of Citizenship & Immigration, 2011), the literature on access to professions generally refers to the accreditation and licensing process (Leef, 2003; Public Policy Forum, 2007; Sorenson, Young, & Mandzule, 2005), often centering on the barriers associated with this process (Walker, 2005; Walters, 2006; Wayland & Goldberg, 2009). This traditional conceptualization is not the focus of this study; the population of interest is those who have already *successfully* navigated the accreditation process and now find themselves without employment in the field of teaching. Moreover, Türegün (2008) points out that, while racial status has typically been a primary determinant of access to professions in North America, inclusion and exclusion to professions involves more complex dynamics relating to Weberian social closure. In this context, social closure (Parkin, 1979) explains that attributes (such as race, language, religion, social origin, property, status, and education) define social collectives; and access to resources, opportunities, and ultimately professions is restricted to those within particular collectives. In addition, cultural capital, defined as “a whole set of subsidiary characteristics which may function, in the form of tacit requirements, as real principles of selection or exclusion without ever being formally stated” (Bourdieu, 1984, p.102) has been discussed as integral to allowing opening access to professions as “it is not just a matter of meeting formal qualifications, but also one of possessing, and fitting into, the habitus or ‘culture’ of the profession” (Türegün, 2008, p. 5). While there are most certainly

aspects of social closure and cultural capital involved in the accreditation process, and even in finding teaching days once hired (see Pollock, 2008), these perspectives on access to professions still do not account for the barrier that involves a substantial oversupply of candidates for a limited number of available positions that transcends these social phenomena. Given current rates, where all graduates compete for a third as many jobs, a significant barrier to accessing paid work is the intense competition for relatively few positions. Given the dramatic labour disparity, those who are granted access are those who can network effectively or “out-wait” the competition, in addition to meeting the requirements of cultural capital that might exist. It is this barrier – intense labour market competition - that stands between the individual and employment, and has not been explored in the access to professions literature. That is, accessing the profession means more than the narrow view of possessing the appropriate credentials; it is this idea this study expands upon.

Furthermore, in this study, unemployed teachers seeking access to paid work in teaching have already chosen their primary method of access: volunteering at the site of future paid work. Thus, the notion of access in this study refers to how volunteer teachers perceive that volunteering assists them with accessing paid teaching work given the competitive labour market. Perception is important to this conceptualization of access, because the unemployed teachers of interest to this investigation, by definition, have not yet successfully found employment with a school board. Overall, I am interested in how unemployed teachers who volunteer in schools perceive their volunteer work as helping them to access the profession. Does volunteering only provide networking opportunities, as

the *Transition to Teaching* report suggests? Or are there other ways that volunteering assists with perceived access to finding paid teaching work?

Chapter Summary

This chapter opened with what is currently known about newly-certified teachers volunteering in schools, outlining basic information such as the number of hours and length of volunteer arrangements, demonstrating that relatively little is known about what actually occurs during the volunteer experience. Frameworks for teacher labour markets and volunteer work were then explored in order to situate the phenomenon, demonstrating substantial gaps for this unique context in the literature. An exploration of the volunteer literature also identified learning as a substantial component of volunteer work and thus demonstrated its importance for study in this investigation. This chapter concluded with the conceptual framework that includes the concepts of volunteer work, learning, and access. Next, I will turn to the methodology through which the research question will be explored.

Chapter Three: Methodology

This chapter describes the methodological approach taken to answer my primary research question: how do newly certified, unemployed teachers understand their volunteer work in schools? Given the paucity of prior knowledge on the topic, this study was designed to be exploratory as well as to give these teachers an opportunity to speak openly about their experience. At the outset of the research, my notion was that the volunteer work that these teachers engaged in had to be more than a “networking strategy for making connections that may lead to a teaching job” (McIntyre, 2011, p. 32). I knew about volunteer teachers who were devoting a great deal of time and energy to their volunteer work and who were putting in more than just “face-time.” Thus, I wanted to find out what the whole of a volunteer experience looked like for newly certified, unemployed teachers.

It became apparent early in design of the study that a mixed-method approach would be most appropriate to answer the research question. That is, in order to appropriately inform qualitative interviews that would outline the nature of volunteer work for unemployed teachers, quantitative data surrounding volunteer work and employment status would have to be analyzed.

Mixed-Method Approach

In this study, I employed a mixed-method approach. While opinions on mixed-methods research vary, (see for example Wiggins, 2011) the mixed-method approach offers the best opportunity to obtain useful answers (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) when faced with complex research questions. I chose an explanatory design (Creswell, 2005) where quantitative data are followed up by qualitative data. For this study, quantitative data (from the National Survey of Learning and Work) described how employment status and

volunteer work (defined as work that is unremunerated, freely chosen, and of some benefit to society) were related in the general population when responding to questions about work and learning. Qualitative data were collected in the form of semi-structured interviews informed in-part by the results of the quantitative study, and comparisons were drawn to help further explain the specific case of unemployed teachers who volunteer in schools.

Quantitative Component

I was given permission (see Appendix A) to extract data on employment status and volunteering from the National Survey of Learning and Work (Livingstone, 2006); the data transferred to me were already entered and coded in SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences).

Data set. The survey was conducted in 2004 and consisted of a representative sample of 9,063 members of the Canadian adult (18+) population. The intent of the survey was “to provide unprecedented quantitative detail on learning and work activities and their interrelations” (Livingstone, 2005, p.1). Further details about the general aspects of the survey are included in Appendix B, and the technical documentation is available on the WALL website (Northrup, 2004).

Analysis. The categorical variable ‘Employment Status’ was germane to the current study, and was re-coded to make it manageable. Initially, there were 11 categories for employment status; to make the data more useful for the purposes of this study, it was collapsed into 6 categories (see Table 1, Recoded Variable: Employment Status). Relevant to this study is ‘employed’ and ‘unemployed,’ so ‘self-employed’ and ‘working for pay’ were collapsed into a single ‘employed’ category. ‘Unemployed’ remained in its original form, as did ‘going to school’, ‘don’t know’, and ‘refused.’ The remaining categories were

collapsed into 'other.' 'Going to school' was not collapsed into the 'other' category as I thought that those who were in school could potentially differ in substantial ways with regard to questions about learning and employment, and could yield interesting points for comparison. Thus, I kept them as a distinct group, although they are not necessarily a group of special interest for the present investigation.

Table 1
Recoded Variable: Employment Status

Original Value	Original Category (S2_2_DVII)	New Value	New Category (S2_2_EMPLOY_STAT_RECDE)
1	Self Employed	1	Employed
2	Working for Pay	1	Employed
3	Temporary Absence	4	Other
4	Unemployed	2	Unemployed
5	Retired	4	Other
6	Other	4	Other
7	Going to School	3	Going to School
8	Caring for Family	4	Other
9	On Disability	4	Other
98	Don't Know	98	Don't Know
99	Refused	99	Refused

Frequency Tables were then generated for the variable employment status and variables associated with volunteering. The following frequency tables were generated:

- Employment Status and Importance of Volunteering
- Employment Status and Reason for Volunteering
- Employment Status and Learning from Volunteer Activities
- Employment Status and Informal Learning Helping with Volunteer Performance
- Employment Status and Volunteer Related Informal Learning Helping to Find or Change Jobs

Means and medians regarding time spent volunteering and related learning were also extracted:

- Employment Status and Time Spent Volunteering

- Employment Status and Hours of Informal Learning Related to Volunteer Activities

Hypothesis testing was not part of the quantitative analysis. The findings (see Chapter Four) were used to assist in constructing the interview guide, thus general patterns from descriptive statistics were sufficient. The intention of the interview guide was to probe not only task and access issues associated with the work of teacher-volunteers, but also to understand how teacher volunteer work compared with that of the volunteer work of those who are unemployed in the general population. Thus, asking the same questions that pertained to volunteer work and informal learning that the National Survey of Learning and Work asked would allow for comparison of answers between the two groups, as well as to probe some of the reasons why participants respond in a particular way when asked about volunteer work and learning.

Data tables were constructed from the resultant frequency tables generated from SPSS, in a format that best suited the representation of the data, including tables and bar charts. Original SPSS tables are available for reference in Appendix C.

Qualitative Component

The qualitative research methodology was used to fulfill the exploratory purpose stated at the outset; that is, it helps to describe a phenomenon about which little is known (Merriam, 1998). The unique context of the volunteer experience for newly certified, unemployed teachers can be adequately captured through qualitative research (Patton, 2002). I was interested in how teachers understand their volunteer experience; that is, in addition to reporting tasks and time-use, I was also interested in the meaning these teachers make of the whole experience. Thus, I felt the best way to gather this information was through interviewing. I chose a semi-structured interview format for data collection to

allow for emerging responses given by unemployed teachers (Merriam, 1998). Please see Appendix D for the Semi-Structured Interview Guide. Ethics approval was obtained prior to recruiting and selecting participants (See Appendix E for the approval form).

Participant recruitment and selection. The unit of analysis for this study is newly-certified, unemployed teachers who volunteer in schools. I chose participants from South-western Ontario as I am familiar with the local context and was located proximally to a large, urban school board. Locating participants initially proved difficult, as there was not an obvious way to locate unemployed teachers who volunteered. Since these teachers would be found in a range of other professions, or may not be found at all in the workforce, my best strategy to access participants was through e-mail and social media and from there, to recruit further participants using purposive, snowball sampling (Patton, 2002). I first sent an e-mail to my colleagues (see Appendix F) asking them to forward my contact information to anyone who might fit my selection criteria. I also posted a message on the Facebook Group “Unemployed Teachers in Ontario” and attached a digital ad (see Appendix G). Through these channels, I received three (3) responses from individuals interested in the study who fit the criteria. At the end of the interview, I asked each participant if they knew anyone else in a similar situation who might be interested in being a part of the study. I was able to locate four (4) more participants, although one dropped out of the study after they were interviewed. Thus, interview data from six (6) participants in total are reported in this study.

Data collection. It was a challenge to find a time that would work for an interview, as many of these unemployed teachers have part-time jobs as well as a volunteer schedule,

families, and other such commitments and constraints on their time. All interviews were scheduled on evenings and weekends.

Altogether, seven (7) semi-structured interviews were conducted, but only six (6) were transcribed for analysis, as one participant contacted me after the interview and did not wish to continue in the study. The interviews ranged from 60 to 90 minutes, and began with outlining the letter of information and signing a consent a form (see Appendix H and I respectively). The interview itself consisted of open-ended questions about the interviewees' background information, such as how they came to teaching, the content of their volunteer experience, learning, access issues, and general feelings on the experience. Interviewees often deviated from the initial question to speak generally about the broader teacher employment market. Interviews were recorded in an audio-only format using an iPad2 and a free software program, Pocket Dictate.

Participant Profiles

Of the six (6) interviewees, three were male and three were female. All six were actively pursuing teaching work in the Ontario English-speaking public system, with their next goal being to secure a position on a supply list. Five of the participants had the long-term goal of full-time teaching employment; the sixth desired to remain a career occasional. A limitation of the sampling method, and thus, a limitation of this study, is the lack of diversity (this will be explicated further in Chapter Nine). All of the participants were English-speaking and Caucasian of European descent. Two of the participants received their teacher education in other provinces, while the other four received it in Ontario. Four of six participants were under the age of 30, one was mid-thirties, and one was mid-fifties. Profiles were developed for each of the participants and are presented here.

Participant: Amanda (pseudonym). At the time of the interview (Fall 2011), Amanda was a single female in her early twenties, who had just graduated from a Bachelor of Education six months prior. Ultimately, Amanda wished to have a regular teaching position in high school math and science within a large, mostly urban school board in Southwestern Ontario. In the longer term, Amanda thought that she might apply for administration in the future, so she applied and was accepted into a Masters of Education in the area, and was in the first term of the program as of Fall 2011.

Professional work. Amanda graduated from a Bachelor of Education program from a Southwestern Ontario University in April 2011. Certified to teach intermediate-senior (high school) science and math, Amanda intended to apply for a supply list position as soon as the list opened. As of November 2011, no postings had opened at the high school level for any of the local school boards for which she desired to work.

Volunteer experience. Amanda began volunteering immediately after graduating from her Bachelor of Education in May 2011. Following the advice she received in her Bachelor of Education program that candidates should volunteer to help gain access to the profession, she returned to the high school that she attended as a student five years prior and inquired about volunteer opportunities in high needs areas. In the five months that school had been in session since Amanda graduated (May-June, and September-November 2011) Amanda volunteered three days per week in very large urban high school, splitting her time between the Resource Department and the Developmentally Challenged (DC) department. In the Resource Department, Amanda assisted students experiencing academic challenges in their courses for various reasons, and in the Developmentally Challenged department, she assisted in the delivery of special education for students with

exceptionalities. In total, she had given over 60 days and 350 hours of her time, performing a wide range of activities from teaching full lessons in Resource to working one-on-one with students in the DC department. She described a busy volunteer experience where she had developed a very positive rapport with students, other teachers, staff, and administrators.

Participant: Jack (pseudonym). As of the interview in December 2011, Jack was an unemployed male teacher in his mid-thirties who aspired to teach high school physical education in an urban school board. Recently, Jack had terminated his employment with two part-time service jobs, as he had just accepted a full-time management contract with a learning centre that would start in January 2012. Jack asserted that his long-term plan was obtain a regular teaching position, but after a year of part-time work, needed to take a more stable position.

Professional work. Jack graduated from a Bachelor of Education program at a university in Newfoundland in 2004. Certified to teach physical education and science in the intermediate-senior grades (grade 7 to grade 12), Jack started to look for overseas teaching positions immediately after graduation, as the teaching prospects in his small city were nearly nonexistent. He obtained his first position in England through a placement agency, where he was teaching all science courses and paid on a daily basis. After his first year, Jack searched for a new teaching job in England where he would be able to teach some physical education, and signed a contract with a different school in 2005 and was able to negotiate a higher rate of pay. Jack remained at this school for five years in total. At the end of his sixth year of teaching in England, Jack planned to return to Canada (specifically Ontario) to begin the process of settling into a teaching career in his native

country.

Jack arrived in Ontario with Lucy (also a participant in this study) in September 2010, and received his certification to teach in Ontario in October 2010. Jack knew that he would have to obtain a position on the supply list before finding a regular teaching position; however, at the time of the interview (December 2011) the supply list of the local school board had still not opened.

Jack searched for service work immediately upon returning to Canada, and put teaching aside so his partner, Lucy, could focus her efforts on volunteering to gain more experience in teaching, the logic being that Jack had many more years of teaching experience, so Lucy should focus on obtaining more experience first. Jack worked two service jobs as well as tutoring privately to supplement his income. In December 2011, Jack accepted a full-time position at a private learning centre in another city, however he does intend to apply to the supply list in his new city once it opens.

Volunteer experience. Jack had a very short volunteer experience from May to June 2011. His partner, Lucy, had been volunteering in the science department of a local high school, and had asked the physical education department if they would take Jack as a volunteer. As it was the end of the year, Jack described the experience as mostly participation with the students in physical education activities, and getting to know students and teachers. Jack spent mornings at the school about two days per week. In total, Jack estimated that he spent fifteen days, volunteering about 45 hours.

Participant: Lucy (pseudonym). In December 2011, Lucy was a female in her late twenties. Her long-term goal was to obtain a regular teaching position in a high school

science department. She did not state a board preference, but desired to stay in urban Ontario. At the time of the interview, Lucy had just terminated her employment with two part-time service positions, as she had just accepted a full-time management contract with a private learning centre that would start in a few weeks. Lucy's acceptance of this most recent position was an effort to provide financial stability for the next two years while remaining in the field of education, and asserted that teaching was still the eventual goal.

Professional work. Lucy graduated from a four-year Bachelor of Education program at a university in Alberta in 2007. Certified to teach science for grades 7 – 12, Lucy applied to a supply list in this Western province immediately after graduation. After no communication from the local school board regarding of her application, Lucy began to look into overseas teaching positions, and very quickly obtained a position in England teaching grades 6 to 11 science after a telephone interview with a placement agency. At the end of her first year, Lucy signed on for a second year, obtaining a contract directly with the school for a higher rate of pay. At the end of the second year, after meeting another Canadian teacher overseas, she decided to return to Canada, specifically Ontario, to begin the process of settling into a Canadian teaching career.

Lucy arrived in Ontario with Jack (also a participant in this study) in September 2010, and immediately applied to the Ontario College of Teachers to be certified to teach in the province, which she obtained in late September 2010. Lucy was aware that the first step to obtain a regular teaching position was to first gain entry onto the supply list; however, as of December 2011, over one year since her arrival in Ontario, the supply list for high school teachers had not opened in the local school board. During this wait time, Lucy worked several service jobs before she accepted the aforementioned full-time position at a private

learning centre. This position was located in another city, and Lucy stated that she would apply to the supply list in this new city when it opens, as well as monitor the openings in the city she left behind.

Volunteer experience. Lucy had a varied volunteer experience. She began volunteering after speaking with family members who were teachers in the province, and they advised her to volunteer in lower-achievement schools, as they would be most receptive to accepting volunteers. In November 2010, Lucy obtained her first volunteer position after phoning the principal of a local high school who placed her in the resource department, where she worked one-on-one with students who were behind in their course work. She volunteered two days per week for two months, contributing about 10 hours per week (for a total of about 80 hours) and then left, as she was not getting any volunteer hours in science.

Lucy found another volunteer placement in a different high school when she approached the science department for a textbook to assist her with a private tutoring client. She asked the head of the department if there were any volunteer opportunities in science, and the department welcomed her as a volunteer in a chemistry class. Two- to- three- days per week Lucy helped with students' labs and answered questions one-on-one; however, she left that position after several months because she was not getting any teaching opportunities and often sat quietly at the back of the classroom. Lucy spent about 20 days volunteering in this school, for a total of about 80 hours.

Lucy's third volunteer placement came through a family friend, who was a full-time teacher in another local high school. This family friend contacted the science

department and explained what Lucy was looking for, and they welcomed Lucy into the department. At this third volunteer placement, Lucy volunteered five days per week, and was given opportunities to plan and teach full lessons. In this volunteer work, Lucy explained that she developed excellent relationships with students and teachers and would have continued to volunteer there if her new job did not take her out of the city. In total, from February 2011 to June 2011, and then from September 2011 to mid-December 2011, Lucy volunteered about 150 days, contributing over 450 hours.

Participant: Margaret (pseudonym). At the time of the interview in December 2011, Margaret was a second-career teacher in her early fifties, married, with two adult children. Margaret continued to run her private practice in family social work; however she aspired to teach kindergarten at her local school board on a supply basis.

Professional work. Margaret graduated with a Master's of Social Work from an Ontario University in 1981, beginning her career as a social worker for non-profit and government agencies before opening her own family social work practice in the 1980s. Margaret described the decision to go into social work as a difficult one, as many of her immediate family members were teachers. In 2009, Margaret decided to go back to school for a Bachelor of Education, which she completed in April 2010, certified to teach in the primary-junior grades (kindergarten to grade 6). In Spring 2010, the local school board opened their supply list, and Margaret applied for and received an interview; however she was passed over in the final selection. Over a year later, in the fall of 2011, the supply list opened again and Margaret applied, but this time was not selected for an interview. She continues to be hopeful that the supply list will open again, and will continue to apply. Margaret hopes to finish her career on the supply list and taking long-term occasional work

in the primary grades.

Volunteer experience. Margaret began volunteering in a classroom in 2006, three years before she entered a teacher education program, as she wanted to find out if teaching and kindergarten were right for her. Margaret asked one of her clients, a teacher, from her private practice if she knew any kindergarten teachers who would be receptive to having a mature volunteer. A connection was made, and Margaret has been volunteering in the same kindergarten classroom since 2006, providing classroom support and assisting with special events. Margaret enjoyed the volunteer work and applied to a Bachelor of Education in 2008. She continued to volunteer after she received her education degree, and has taken on increased responsibilities in her volunteer work, including lesson planning and teaching. Margaret developed an excellent relationship with this teacher and referred to her as her mentor many times. Margaret continues to operate her private social work practice, but does volunteer once per week, usually for a half-day. Since completing her B.Ed Margaret estimates that she has spent nearly 60 days, volunteering over 150 hours of her time. However, if her time volunteering before she was a certified teacher is counted, these estimates triple to 180 days and 450 hours. She described an excellent volunteer experience, and states that she will continue to volunteer until she is able to find supply work.

Participant: Matthew (pseudonym). At the time of the interview (Fall 2011), Matthew was a single male in his late twenties, aspiring to teach in a full-time classroom in an elementary school within a large, mostly urban school board in Southwestern Ontario. He was working full-time as a manager of a retail location, which paid well and provided job security, as he had a good relationship with the owner of the store.

Professional work. In 2009, Matthew graduated from an accredited Ontario teacher certification program with a certification to teach in the Primary-Junior division. He applied to the occasional teacher list immediately after graduation in the spring of 2009 but was unsuccessful. During the remainder of 2009 and into 2010, Matthew completed two additional AQ courses, which certified him to teach all grades in the public education system (kindergarten to grade 12). In the fall of 2010, Matthew applied to the same occasional teacher list and was unsuccessful once again. At the time of the interview (Fall 2011), nearly one year after his last application, there had not been any additional openings for supply teachers at the school board in which he desired to teach, but he was confident that was going to change in the very near future.

Volunteer experience. Matthew began volunteering in a classroom very shortly after graduating with his Bachelor of Education in 2009. While not told explicitly that he was required to volunteer, the sense he received from other teacher candidates, as well as his instructors during his B.Ed, was that volunteering was a good idea; it would help him stay connected in some way to teaching given the growing competition for jobs. Matthew approached the teacher who had supervised him during the practice teaching requirement (or “practicum”) of his B.Ed to see if she would take him as a volunteer. Due to the good rapport they had developed, she agreed to have him volunteer as much as he wanted. Over the course of three school years (April-June 2009, September 2009-June 2010, September 2011 to the time of the interview in Fall 2011) Matthew volunteered approximately one full school day per week, averaging 6-7 hours per day, spending most of his time in a Grade 7 classroom. In total, he has spent approximately 65 days volunteering, contributing over 400 hours. He engaged in a range of activities in the school, from setting up for

assemblies to teaching full lessons in the classroom. He described a positive relationship with the classroom teacher, school staff and administration, as well as students.

Participant: Walter (pseudonym). Walter was a mid-twenties married male at the time of the interview in Fall 2011. He desired to teach full-time in an intermediate (grade 7 or grade 8) classroom; however he understood that he would likely not get his choice of assignment until years into his career. He was in the last term of a Masters degree in Library and Information Science at the time of the interview, which he undertook when his unemployment persisted after his Bachelor of Education. Along with student loans, Walter supplemented his income with private tutoring during his unemployment.

Professional work. Walter did not attend a teacher certification program immediately after his undergraduate education in kinesiology. He spent two years working at a not-for-profit children's facility where he decided that he wanted to become a teacher. Walter graduated from a Bachelor of Education program in April of 2010 with a certification to teach junior-intermediate (grade 4 to grade 10) physical education. As the supply list was not open at the time of graduation, Matthew completed an Additional Qualification course in Special Education during the summer of 2010 while he did some private tutoring. The supply list opened in the fall of 2010, and although Walter had applied, he was unsuccessful in reaching the next selection stage. Earlier in the year, Walter had applied to a Masters of Library and Information Science program in an effort to differentiate himself from other teacher candidates, and was accepted to begin the program in January 2011. During his program, Walter has focused on information literacy and instructional strategies to ensure his formal education remains relevant to teaching. At the time of interview, the supply list had not yet opened again, although Walter was confident that it would in the

near future, and he would be better positioned for success than he was the first time he applied.

Volunteer experience. During his teacher education, Walter heard informally from other students and instructors that it was a good idea to volunteer to help improve the chance of getting on the supply list; thus he began volunteering immediately after the completion of his B.Ed in May 2010. During his third practice teaching placement, Walter's associate teacher invited him back to volunteer any time, and he took her up on the offer. During the months of May-June 2010, Walter volunteered at least once per week in her grade 7 classroom, and was permitted to teach an entire math unit at the end of May after he asked if he could do so. From September to December 2010, Walter continued to volunteer two- to three- days per week, and some whole weeks, often teaching lessons and usually providing learning support for the teacher that supervised him. Once Walter started his Masters, he was not able to volunteer as much, but still attempted to get into the classroom at least once per week, and has volunteered his reading week each term to going into the classroom every day. Walter estimated that since May 2010, he has volunteered about 85 days totaling over 500 hours. He described his volunteer work as very positive, and appreciated the relationships he was able to develop with students and teachers.

Interview Analysis

The constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) was used to analyze interview data. After interviews were conducted, brief notes were made in a journal about potential themes. At this time, I also made notes regarding potential broad themes from my conceptual framework. I personally transcribed the interviews, generating 104 pages of interview data. As I was transcribing, I began a loose coding process (using the high-light

and comment functions in Microsoft Word) from the notes I had previously made as well as what I was hearing as I transcribed. At the end of the transcription process, I formed a list of over 15 categories that tentatively described the data. I re-read the interviews in search of broader constructs that might describe some of these 15 categories. I was able to form broad themes under the three research subquestions that summarize the interviews.

In addition, I was also able to generate a list of tasks that would describe the range of volunteer activities performed. Once the preliminary list was constructed, it was sent to participants to check for accuracy, and missing tasks were added. A final version was constructed and verified one last time by participants. It does not purport to be a comprehensive list for every teacher that volunteers in a school, but does reflect the range of activities performed by the teachers in this study.

Chapter Summary

This chapter outlined the mixed-methods approach employed in this study. As there is a paucity of research in this area, an exploratory design was chosen, with quantitative data from the National Survey of Learning and Work used to provide context for the qualitative interview data. Methods for data collection and analysis for both components were described, and participant profiles were described in detail.

The next four chapters outline the findings of this study. Chapter Four presents the findings from the National Survey of Learning and Work alongside the relevant data from the interviews. Chapter Five presents findings surrounding the nature of volunteering in schools; Chapter Six explores what and how unemployed teachers learn from volunteering; and Chapter Seven looks at how volunteering is perceived to help unemployed teachers with access to paid teaching work.

Chapter Four: Providing Context: Findings from the National Survey of Learning and Work

This chapter reports findings from the National Survey of Learning and Work (NSLW). This survey compared employment status and responses to various questions about volunteer work and learning. These data from a national, representative population provide context for the responses from the unemployed, volunteer teachers; that is, this chapter illustrates how the unemployed teachers in this study compare to those in the general unemployed population who volunteer along the dimensions of volunteer work and learning. The data are used to provide context for the study of newly certified, unemployed teachers by answering the following questions:

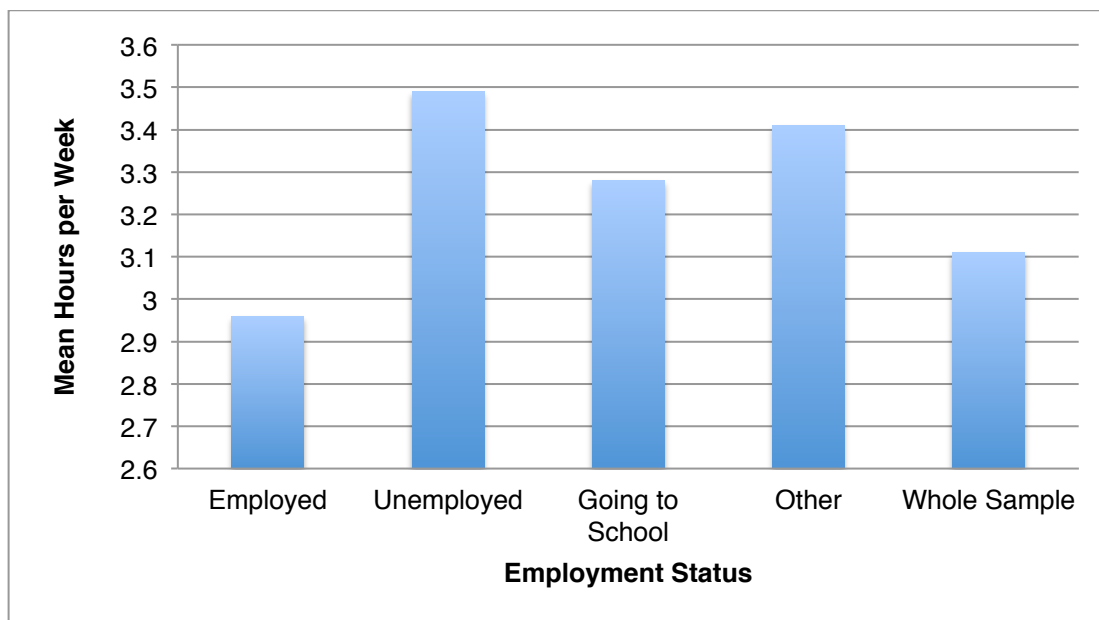
- Do unemployed volunteer teachers volunteer more or less than their non-teacher unemployed counterparts?
- How do volunteer teachers perceive the importance of their volunteer work, and how does this compare to others who are unemployed?
- How do the reasons for volunteering for volunteer teachers compare to the general unemployed population?
- What is the nature of learning and volunteering for volunteer teachers, and how does it differ from others who are unemployed?

For each of these questions, the quantitative data from the NSLW is presented, followed by the corresponding responses from study participants.

Time Spent Volunteering

Analysis of data from the National Survey of Learning and Work revealed that those who were unemployed volunteered marginally more per week on average than any other group, as well as the general population (see Table 2).

Table 2
Employment Status and Average Time Spent Volunteering Per Week



Note. The corresponding data table can be found in Appendix C

Source: National Survey of Learning and Work (Livingstone, 2006)

Teachers in this study volunteered more than the average reported by the volunteers from the National Survey of Learning and Work, as seen in Table 3.

Table 3
Teacher Volunteers and Time Spent Volunteering: Estimate of Average Hours Per Week

	Participant					
	Amanda	Jack	Lucy	Margaret	Matthew	Walter
Average Hours of Volunteering in a school per Week (self-report)	20	8	10	4	6.5	15

All of the teacher volunteers expressed that they volunteered in a classroom as much as possible every week, given their individual time, family, and financial constraints.

For example, Margaret stated, “I could go in whenever I want, I could go in twice a week but right now I commit to about two to three hours per week, every week, in the classroom.” Much like Margaret, all of the volunteer teachers in the study volunteered at least once per week, although one participant (Walter) did mention that occasionally his own school schedule would prohibit him from doing so, but reported that he would volunteer every day during his scheduled breaks (“reading week”) to make up for these times:

I’m pretty consistently doing a day a week, the full school day, some weeks I do two, but some weeks my own school schedule gets in the way. But, if I have a week off of things that I’m doing otherwise, then I’ll spend the whole week there. So, I mean, it averages about two school days a week. Between 14 and 16 hours.

From this statement, Walter demonstrates that he places priority on volunteering in his personal schedule, as evidenced by his statement that his own school schedule “gets in the way.” This priority placed on volunteering appeared to be the case for half of the participants (Amanda, Lucy, and Walter).

Importance of Volunteering

When asked how important volunteering was to their lives, employed and unemployed respondents from the NSLW did not differ considerably in their responses, with just over 88 per cent of respondents from both groups reporting that volunteering is ‘very important’ or ‘somewhat important’ to their lives. Only a small percentage rated volunteering somewhat or very unimportant (see Table 4.)

Table 4
Employment Status and Importance of Volunteering

Employment Status	Percent of each employment group responding to the question: How important in volunteering to your life?				
	Very important	Somewhat important	Neither	Somewhat Unimportant	Very Unimportant
Employed	40.3%	48.1%	7.2%	3.1%	1.3%
Unemployed	39.3%	49.2%	3.3%	4.9%	3.3%
Going to School	42%	36.6%	10.7%	9.8%	0.9%
Other	55.8%	37.5%	4%	2.4%	0.2%
Whole Sample	48.6%	41.7%	5.6%	3.3%	0.8%

Note. Universe for this question is randomly selected volunteer sub-sample [All volunteers not employed currently or within the past 12 months; a 50% random sample of volunteers currently or recently employed] (N=1545)

The responses from the teacher-volunteers in this study also reflected a majority view that volunteering in a school was important to their lives; however, two of the respondents (Lucy and Jack) made it clear that it was not of high importance. The four teachers who did not have previous experience in teaching (Amanda, Margaret, Matthew, and Walter) universally perceived volunteering in schools as important to their lives. When asked ‘why’ they gave their responses, these four teachers communicated that it was associated with the positive feelings they experienced when they went to volunteer. For example:

There is something nice about ityou do get a sense of satisfaction out of doing it, and that’s important to me too, I like to feel good about the things I’m doing with my time, especially since I’m not gainfully employed at the moment, you know, it helps. So, yes, in short, yes, it is an important part of what I do. (Walter)

I like going to volunteer – it’s the highlight of my week. I always look forward to itI enjoy doing it. I know that I’m going to make a great teacher because I really enjoy being in the classroom when I’m there. (Matthew)

These two quotations demonstrate the personal importance of volunteering in slightly different ways. For Walter, the importance comes from making productive use of his idle time; for Matthew volunteering allows him to spend time in a classroom, which he genuinely enjoys but would otherwise not have the opportunity to do.

The two teachers who had previous paid experience did not perceive volunteering in a classroom as centrally important to their lives. They referred to their previous status as paid teachers as part of the reason. Instead, they viewed volunteering as a means to an end. For example, Lucy, who had two years of prior experience overseas stated in response to this question:

I feel like it’s ameaningless step that I have to do. I think if I was fresh from teachers college I would be a lot happier doing it. I feel like it could be a place to practice and hone your skills, but I’m practiced. I’m honed. I’m ready to be in charge of a classroom. And I think that it is ridiculous and unnecessary, [that I have to volunteer]. The fact that I have these years of experience, and I was very good at my job, and to come back and have to go backwards...

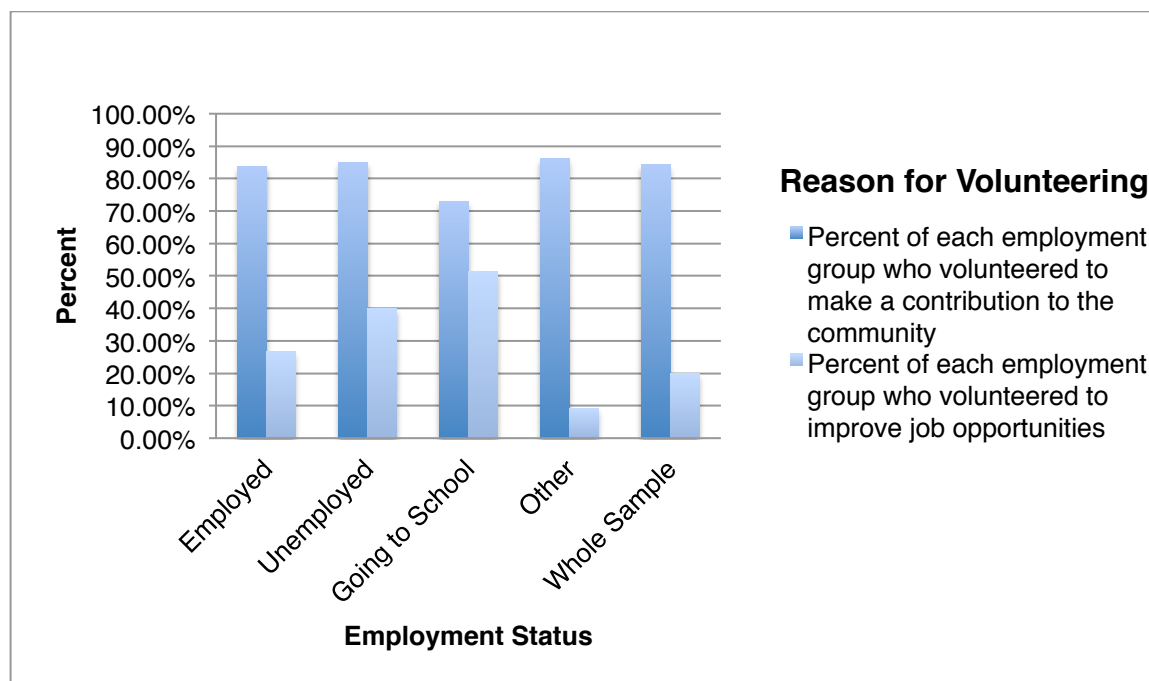
Contrary to the inexperienced teachers, Lucy does not perceive the importance of volunteering because she understands it as part of the process of accessing paid teaching employment. Jack communicated he understood volunteering in the same way. The

dichotomy in the responses between the two groups of teachers is further illustrated in the next section.

Reasons for Volunteering

When asked about the reasons for volunteering, more unemployed individuals (40 per cent) volunteered to ‘improve job opportunities’ than did employed individuals (26.6 per cent) according to data from the National Survey of Learning and Work. However, both groups reported ‘making a contribution to the community’ in roughly equal proportions (85 per cent and 83.8 per cent respectively) (see Table 5). This indicates that the majority of individuals in either group is likely to report a desire to make a contribution to the community, and those who are unemployed and going to school are more likely to report their reasons as dichotomous.

Table 5
Employment Status and Reason for Volunteering



Note. Universe for this question is randomly selected volunteer sub-sample [All volunteers not employed currently or within the past 12 months; a 50% random sample of volunteers currently or recently employed] (N=1545). The corresponding data table can be found in Appendix C.

Source: National Survey of Learning and Work (Livingstone, 2006)

When the teacher-volunteers were asked about these reasons for volunteering, all six participants responded that they were volunteering to improve job opportunities. When asked if they were volunteering to make a contribution to their community, Jack and Lucy both responded no, while the four other teachers answered yes. The four teachers who responded that their reason for volunteering was two-fold acknowledged both sides of the issue. They talked about how they were aware that volunteering was a strategy to assist them in finding paid work, but also discussed that they perceived that they were contributing more broadly. For example, Amanda stated:

The volunteering looks great on the résumé, and it helps me get a job and that kind of thing . . . but the way I see it is, if I can start helping the kids now and helping them reach out and get community involvement, community service, and get employment, in the area that they're living, and maybe they'll be graduated by the time I get a job, but at least I can help them in that way.

For Amanda, her contribution to the community was specifically about the students at school she was volunteering in, and how she was able to help that particular community. For Matthew, he acknowledged that his contribution was about benefitting students more broadly:

Well, it's two-fold, yes, one aspect of my volunteering is self-serving, but on the other side of the coin, it's an extra teacher in a classroom, and you can always use

more hands on when it comes to a classroom setting. So yes, I benefit from improving my job opportunities, and the teacher that I volunteer with benefits by having an extra set of hands around, but the students benefit the most...

Much like Matthew the four teachers without paid experience spoke emphatically about how they could see they were making a larger contribution to the school community. However, two participants (Jack and Lucy) both stated that the idea of volunteering to give back to the community was not part of the reason for volunteering. Lucy stated:

Honestly, no. I'm doing it for myself and my career. (laughs). I'm not sugar-coating it. I wouldn't have done it if I didn't think it would get me a job.

Lucy states that her only reason for volunteering at this time is to facilitate access to the paid teaching profession. This idea will be discussed further in Chapter Seven.

Volunteer-Related Informal Learning

Livingstone (1999) defines informal learning as “any activity involving the pursuit of understanding, knowledge or skill which occurs outside the curricula of institutions providing educational programs, courses or workshops” (p. 50). From the National Survey of Learning and Work, substantial numbers of those who are unemployed find opportunities for volunteer-related *informal* learning across a wide variety of areas, from computer skills to increased knowledge about social, political and environmental issues (for the full listing, see Table 6). That is, when asked about informal learning activities undertaken in the past year related to volunteer activities, those from the National Survey of Learning and Work who are unemployed consistently report informal learning in all of

the areas at a higher rate than those who are employed, as well as the general population (see Table 6).

Table 6
Per cent within Employment Status Reporting Informal Learning in Various Areas

Learning Area	Employment Status				
	Employed	Un-employed	Going to school	Other	Whole Sample
Computers	23.1%	44.6%	40.1%	28.3%	27%
Organizational or managerial skills	36.4%	41%	46.2%	29.9%	34.7%
Budgeting or financial management	25.3%	28.9%	31.9%	19.8%	23.8%
Teamwork, problem solving, or communications skills	58.6%	75.9%	79.3%	51.2%	57.7%
Interpersonal skills	56.7%	66.3%	71%	50.1%	55.5%
Health and well being	43.4%	52.4%	56.3%	50.1%	47.1%
Learning about new equipment	32.9%	43.4%	50.7%	25%	31.4%
Language skills	19.7%	26.8%	39.6%	14.5%	19.2%
Increased knowledge about social, political, or environmental issues	43.9%	48.2%	45.8%	43%	3.8%

Note. Universe is all volunteers not employed currently or within the past 12 months; a 50% random sample of volunteers currently or recently employed.

Learning about ‘teamwork, problem solving or communications skills’ and ‘interpersonal skills’ was most commonly reported by the unemployed group (75.9 per cent and 66.3 per cent respectively).

In addition, those who are unemployed report more hours of informal learning related to their volunteer work than those who are employed (note that the distribution for this question was positively skewed, as well as had several large outliers, thus the median is measure of central tendency reported here); only those who are in school reported more informal learning on average (see Table 7).

Table 7

Employment Status and Average Time on Volunteer-Related Informal Learning

Employment Status	<i>n</i>	Mdn	Min	Max	IQR
Employed	899	2	0.5	71	2
Unemployed	73	3	0.5	50	6
Going to School	128	5	0.5	40	7.29
Other	638	2	0.5	71	4
Whole Sample	1747	2	0.5	71	4

Three of the teachers (Matthew, Walter, and Amanda) in this study described extensive informal learning, Margaret described it to a lesser extent, and Lucy and Jack found minimal opportunities for learning. All four teachers who did report informal learning were able to describe learning that took place in the areas of: teamwork/problem solving/communications skills, and interpersonal skills, which is consistent with the data from the National Survey of Learning and Work, where those who were unemployed most

frequently reported these same skills. In addition, all four participants who reported informal learning also reported learning in the domains of ‘learning about new equipment,’ ‘language skills,’ and ‘increased knowledge about social/political/environmental skills’ which are among the least-reported domains of learning for those who are unemployed in the NSLW. The two experienced volunteer teachers indicated that they did not learn informally in any of these areas.

When asked how many hours they estimate they spend learning informally, the four candidates who reported informal learning wanted to include their volunteer day in the estimate. They described much of their individual volunteer days as a learning experience. This idea will be discussed in Chapter Six. To be consistent with the NSLW, I asked them to report only the hours beyond their volunteer day for Table 8.

Table 8
Teacher Volunteers and Average Time on Volunteer-Related Informal Learning

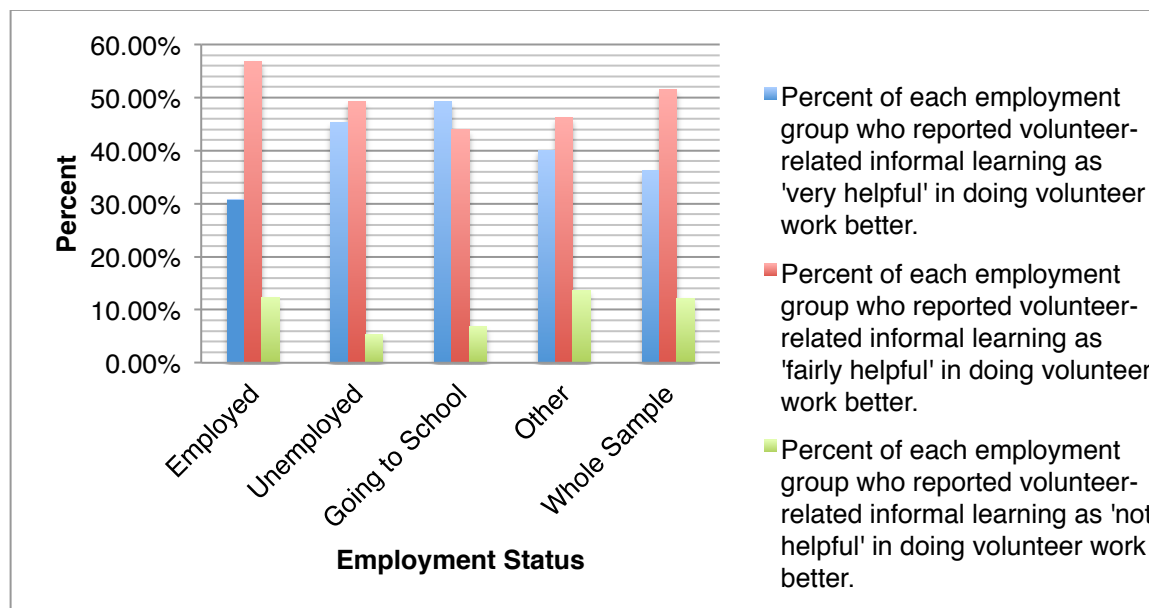
	Participant					
	Amanda	Lucy	Walter	Matthew	Jack	Margaret
Average hours per week of informal learning related to volunteer activities	6	0	8	2.5	0	1.5

As previously indicated, unemployed individuals from the National Survey of Learning and Work report a median of 2 hours of informal learning related to their volunteer work, although these data are positively skewed with a few large cases, suggesting that many individuals spend small amounts of time immersed in informal learning activities, and a few individuals spend a great deal of time engaged in these same activities. Research

participants from this study demonstrated similar variability, with some interviewees reporting spending considerably more time engaged in informal learning than others. Walter reported 8 hours of informal learning per week, representing an outlier for this group; Jack and Lucy reported no additional informal learning. The remaining three participants fell near the median and within the Interquartile Range (IQR) established from the NSLW.

The informal learning described by participants is generally described as helpful. Most respondents, regardless of employment status, report that informal learning is ‘very helpful’ or ‘fairly helpful’ with improving their volunteer performance (see Table 9).

Table 9
Employment Status and Informal Learning Helping With Volunteer Performance



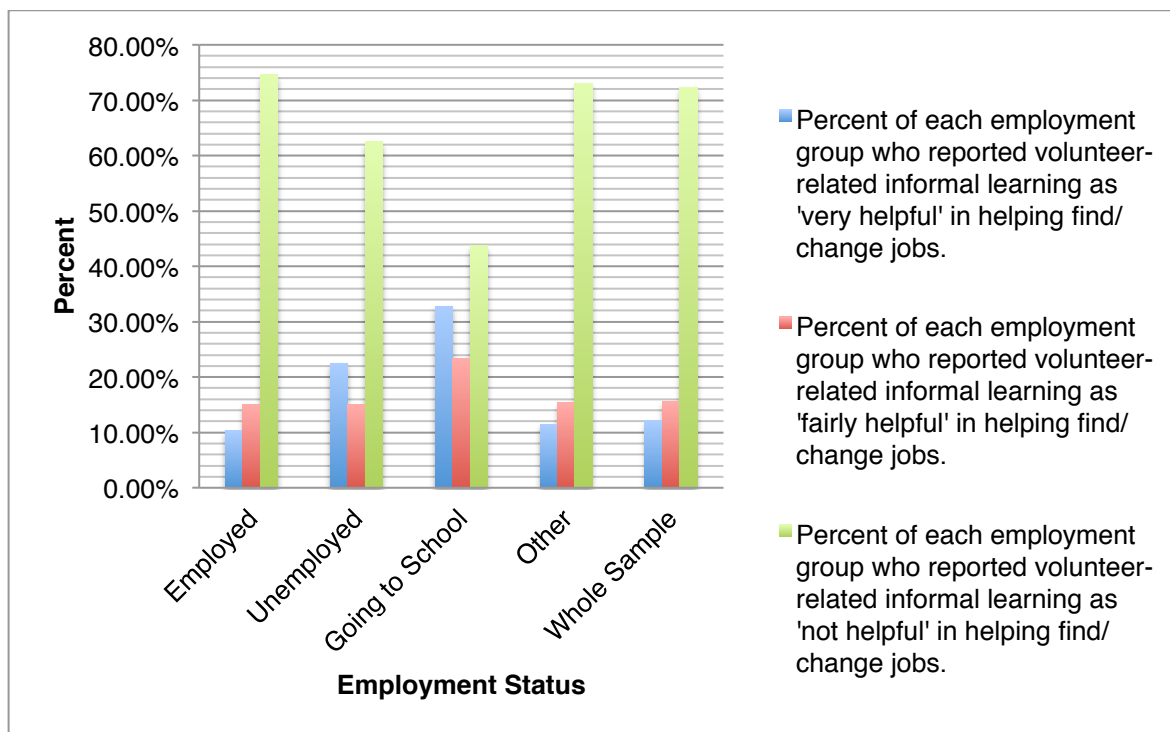
Note. Universe is all volunteers not employed currently or within the past 12 months; a 50% random sample of volunteers currently or recently employed. The corresponding data table can be found in Appendix C.

Source: National Survey of Learning and Work (Livingstone, 2006)

This is a similar pattern seen with the four teacher volunteers who reported learning from their volunteer work; all four reported informal learning as ‘very helpful’ or ‘fairly helpful’ in helping them improve in their volunteer performance. For teacher volunteers, since they are volunteering at the site of future paid work, it follows that some of this volunteer-related informal learning is also work-related informal learning. This idea will be further explored in Chapter Six. It should be noted that the other two participants did not answer the question, as they reported no informal learning earlier in the interview.

Finally, the unemployed group from the National Survey of Learning and Work did not report that the informal learning was helpful in finding or changing jobs. A small percentage of volunteers (22.5 per cent) found it very helpful, while the majority for both groups (employed and unemployed) did not find it helpful (74.6 per cent and 62.5 per cent respectively) (see Table 10).

Table 10
Employment Status and Volunteer-Related Informal Learning Helping Find/Change Jobs



Note. Universe is all volunteers not employed currently or within the past 12 months; a 50% random sample of volunteers currently or recently employed. The corresponding data table can be found in Appendix C.

Source: National Survey of Learning and Work (Livingstone, 2006)

This general pattern of informal learning not perceived as helping one find or change jobs was also seen in the interviews of volunteer teachers. When asked if the informal learning has helped them find or change jobs, the four teacher volunteers who reported learning expressed that at this time, they could not report that it had. The reason for this response is evident, as the volunteer teachers at the time of the interview were all unemployed in teaching. However, there was a sentiment expressed that once they had found paid work in teaching, the answer to that question would change. For example, Walter stated:

. . . I haven't found a job yet, so it hasn't been very helpful, but I do believe that, um, all of this stuff that I'm doing, the volunteer work and the learning that's occurring there and the learning that I'm doing on my own to support it, I'm pretty convinced that if I keep doing this, like this is the thing I need to be doing to pursue the direction that I want to pursue. So, I do think it's important, and the second I get a job offer . . . it will jump right up to very important.

Walter indicated that he felt that the learning associated with volunteering would be important to helping him find paid teaching work in the long-term. The other three inexperienced teachers also understood their learning in this way. Further discussion on the learning dimension of volunteering in this context will be further explored in Chapter Six.

Chapter Summary

Overall, viewing the responses from the qualitative interviews alongside the quantitative data from the National Survey of Learning and Work has helped place the volunteer work of the volunteer teachers in this study in context. In general, the volunteer teachers in this study volunteer more hours per week on average than the general population, as well as their unemployed counterparts. Volunteer teachers without experience perceive volunteering as important to their lives, similar to other Canadian volunteers, although it is important to point out that the teachers with experience do not follow this trend. In addition, the volunteer teachers in this study tended to view their reasons for volunteering as two-fold, seeing their volunteer work as both benefitting themselves as well as the greater school community. Similar to the previous question, the experienced teachers in this study did not have this view, and were volunteering predominantly for self-benefit. Finally, it is apparent that informal learning is a substantial

part of volunteering for inexperienced teachers, much like the experience of their unemployed counterparts from the NSLW, which will be explored more thoroughly in the Chapter Six. Once again, the experienced teachers in this study do not follow this general trend.

Having previous paid work experience in teaching seems to exert an influence on the overall volunteer work of volunteer teachers. Consistently, the experienced and inexperienced teachers differed in their responses to the various questions. This theme continues throughout the remainder of the findings, and will be discussed further in Chapter Eight.

Chapter Five: The Nature of Volunteering in Schools for Newly Certified, Unemployed Teachers

This chapter explores the nature of volunteering for newly certified, unemployed teachers. The 2011 *Transition to Teaching* report (OCT, 2012) reports that volunteer teachers' "time commitments vary widely" (p. 29) when it comes to volunteering in schools but does not provide further information about the content or personal appraisal of the experience. Thus, the 'nature' of volunteer work in this section refers to the basic composition of the volunteer experience as well as general themes, beyond tasks, that emerged as the teachers described their volunteer work.

As demonstrated in Chapter Four the teacher-volunteers in this study vary widely in the amount of time that they volunteer, from one half-day per week to three or more days per week. The first section of this chapter focuses on describing the tasks the teachers reported. Some tasks were common to all teachers in the study while others seemed to differ between the elementary and secondary teachers. This chapter then discusses the informal mentoring relationships that were described by the volunteer teachers in this study. Next, this chapter describes the internal conflict of emotions that volunteer teachers face related to their volunteering; that is, the tension between the positive and negative emotions associated with volunteering in schools is high-lighted. Finally, this chapter discusses the financial insecurity related to non-standard employment arrangements that emerged as a theme related to the teacher-volunteer experience.

Volunteer Tasks

It would be difficult to describe an “average” day for a volunteer teacher, as participants reported a wide range of experiences unique to their individual circumstances; the tasks that the volunteers reported have been organized in Table 11: Volunteer Tasks.

Table 11
Volunteer Tasks

Task	Participant						Number answering Yes
	Amanda	Jack	Lucy	Margaret	Matthew	Walter	
Lesson planning	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	4/6
Teaching	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	5/6
Creating resources for supervising teacher to use (i.e., Smartboard presentations, learning activities)	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	5/6
One-on-one or small group learning support for students	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	6/6
Supervision on field trips	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	4/6
Assisting classroom teachers with technology (i.e., new software or hardware)	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	4/6
Assisting students with developmental disabilities	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	3/6
Assisting with assemblies (i.e., planning, setup and execution)	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	4/6
Assisting with extra-curricular activities (i.e., fundraisers, coaching)	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	4/6
Participation in class activity	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	1/6
Supervision (i.e., lunch, recess, assemblies)	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	5/6
Assessment and evaluation	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	5/6
Interacting with parents	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	3/6
Participation in some kind of organized professional development	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	2/6
Classroom management	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	6/6
Miscellaneous clerical work (i.e., photocopying, attendance, prep work, etc.)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	6/6
Observation	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	6/6
Tasks performed	13/17	5/17	9/17	14/17	16/17	15/17	

Common tasks. Four (4) tasks were common to all six volunteers; one-on-one or small group learning support with students, classroom management, miscellaneous administrative tasks, and teacher/classroom observation. Typically, these tasks took place within the day-to-day context of an operating classroom; that is, the volunteer-teacher provided a supporting role that assisted the classroom teacher. For example, Matthew stated:

I would break off into small groups, so the students who were on IEPs (Individual Education Plan) for math, the ones who need more one on one help with their classes, I would take the three of them to library or to a study room and work one-on-one with the three of them to kind of try and get them on task, because sometimes they just needed to be separated from the classroom, to focus, and other times they the needed help because they weren't paying attention during the lesson, or they just didn't get it . . .

In this quotation, Matthew described how he provided learning support for small groups, which was universally described as one the most common task that teacher-volunteers performed. Classroom management was also common to all participants. Walter stated:

Because a lot of volunteer activities I engage in are whole classroom activities . . . classroom management is inherently part of what is going on around me.

Here, Walter described classroom management as an everyday part of the ongoing functions of a classroom; indeed, the other volunteer-teachers also described it as a natural part of what they were involved in as a member of the classroom. Another task described

by all of the teacher-volunteers in this study was miscellaneous administrative and clerical tasks. These tasks included photocopying and other preparatory work for lessons.

Generally, the teachers did not comment thoroughly on the details of this category of tasks, stating it was also part of the ongoing classroom context. For example, Margaret stated:

. . . [administrative and prep work are] all part of teaching! . . . there is so much, especially in kindergarten, there is so much prep work. And I think that was my biggest, even though I knew about prep work, I think that was my biggest surprise when volunteering in terms of the volume of prep work, not only the planning, but the um, all of the cutting, and the paper...it just doesn't appear on your desk . . .

Here, not only does Margaret explain the specifics of some of the administrative work, but she also stated that she found value in carrying out these tasks, as it helped her understand the everyday realities for a kindergarten teacher. The only task that was common to all of the participants in this study that seemed to elicit the most negative response was classroom observation. For example, Lucy stated that she left a volunteer placement because she was observing and not engaged in much else:

. . . I wasn't doing anything, I was sitting and I was watching, and there was one class . . . when they did labs, I would wander around and help. When they did seat work, I was able to help answer questions, but other than that, I just sat in the back of the classroom and watched. There was [sic] no teaching opportunities.

It is apparent from Lucy's comment that she wanted to be more engaged with the volunteer experience; this also was the case with all of the volunteers in this study. The more activities they were involved in, the more valued they felt to the school community. This

idea will be explored later in this chapter under the subsection “Conflict of Emotions,” as well as in Chapter Eight. Observation was not perceived universally as a negative aspect of volunteering. For example, Matthew stated:

. . . you get the opportunity to be exposed to a variety of different teaching strategies when you’re in a school . . . I would go and see how the gym teacher instructs, and see what they do that’s different from the other teacher, and when you’re going from class to class, it’s easier to compare those types of things cause you saw just how they were interacting and how the students were responding, and then you see a different approach and how the students were responding, and you can see the merits in all of the different ways that teachers approach it.

For Matthew, observation was a method by which he was able to learn more about various teaching strategies, a theme which will be explored further in the next chapter. While this section described tasks that were common to teachers, it also showed there were some differences in how these tasks were perceived. The next section describes tasks that were not experienced by the secondary school teachers, but were common to some elementary school teachers.

Differing tasks: Elementary vs. secondary. Overall, it appears as though the elementary teachers (Matthew, Walter, and Margaret) performed the widest range of tasks. The secondary teachers were more focused on individual classrooms, whereas the elementary teachers assisted more with supervision assignments within the broader school context. For example, Walter stated:

I've volunteered for a lot of different things that they've done, uh, in terms of field trips, year end trips, they do this thing called "museum school" where they go out and do site visits . . . and they need volunteers for that, and they're happy to have teacher volunteers for it, so I've gotten the opportunity to volunteer with a number of other faculty members there doing that sort of thing.

While Walter described supervising off-site trips, he and the other two elementary teachers also discussed supervision within the school, such as at assemblies.

Another task seen only with the elementary teachers was interacting with parents. It was not a significant aspect of the volunteer experience, but occurred because parents are more present in the elementary school setting. For example, Walter stated:

I mean, yes, if they [parents] are there at the end of the day I'll chit-chat with a few of them, but I don't really interface with the parents as much as I used to [during practicum]. So it's not something that has been super significant in my volunteer work.

Implicit in this statement is the ongoing relationship that Walter had with the school community; he interacted with parents more because during his practicum (which was at the same school) he was required to, and these ongoing relationships persisted. This was a common experience when the elementary teachers were asked to comment about this task.

Also unique to the elementary teachers were opportunities for professional development (PD); none of the secondary teachers were offered it. Walter and Matthew, both elementary teachers, described that they were invited to attend in-school and off-site

PD on occasion, but were not required to attend. However, they consistently participated in what was offered to them. Matthew described one opportunity in detail:

While I was volunteering, the teacher that I volunteer with and I, went to another school to see a classroom that implements a laptop in the classroom policy . . . it's an independent work session using completely collaborative online implements – which is neat, I've never seen anything like that in a classroom before . . . she asked me to come with her to check this out because she is a person who believes that technology has a very strong place in the future of education, but she's not very good with technology, so, her and I make a good team in that way.

Matthew continued to explain how after attending this session, he and the supervising teacher were able to create some new teaching strategies involving technology for the classroom. Walter described a similar opportunity, involving math. These two volunteer teachers appreciated and enjoyed these opportunities; as Walter stated “I've been very fortunate to have that [PD] . . . I have a very collegial relationship with my former associate who helps facilitate [it].” When asked about opportunities for professional development, the secondary teachers stated that no one had mentioned it to them. It is evident from examining this task (PD) that the nature of volunteer work for some involves a supportive informal mentoring relationship with the supervising teacher.

Informal Mentoring Relationships

Five of the six teachers who were interviewed described emergent mentoring relationships with teachers at their individual schools. Three of the teachers had multi-year relationships with the classroom teachers they volunteered with; Margaret for six years; Matthew for three years, and Walter for two years. Matthew and Walter described how

their supervising teachers had previously supervised them during their practice teaching session, and were the ones who facilitated their volunteer work once they had graduated. Walter stated, “she [was] my point of entry, but sort of now that I’m in, I have sort of have independent relationships with different people there” indicating that he was able to develop further relationships as a result of his supervising teacher facilitating the experience in the first place. Matthew spoke further about how the relationship with his supervising teacher worked:

. . . sometimes I would teach the lessons I had created. It kind of depends on what the day was like because if the students are kind of off, to switch a different teacher in wouldn’t really be beneficial for me because it’s hard to gauge your performance when the classroom has already kind of fallen a part throughout the day. It’s not a good indication of your ability to manage a classroom when you come into a situation that’s already kind of out of control. So, there would be some days where I wouldn’t do it, but there would be other days where I would get a chance – they would be a little bit smoother and I would get to try it.

From this quotation, Matthew described a supportive environment where the teacher he worked with tried to ensure his success in the classroom. It was described as a collegial relationship and one that worked in both directions. Margaret described a similar relationship with her supervising teacher:

We clicked right away, we could be teaching partners. So it is very, very nice. I’ve learned from her, she’s learned from me, and I bring a little bit of social work into the classroom.

In this quotation, Margaret explicitly discussed mutually beneficial relationship that developed between them, as well as the positive sentiment that it's been "very, very nice." This feeling of gratitude toward the supervising teacher also was seen in the mentoring relationships described by Walter and Matthew. As Walter stated "she's great, and I've been fortunate to have her on my side." These elementary teachers had the opportunity to develop these relationships as they were consistently volunteering in the same classrooms over many years. The secondary teachers had a more varied experience over less time, but also described mentoring that took place. Amanda described that her mentoring relationships focused more on the job search:

The relationships. I've definitely made the relationships intentionally. I go to the right people to ask the questions . . . [t]hey look over my résumé, they give me more tips as to how to be better, you know, those kinds of things.

Here, Amanda described seeking out mentoring relationships, which stands in contrast to the elementary teachers, whose relationships developed naturally over an extended period of time. Lucy also described an emergent relationship with a teacher in the secondary school context, although it took her some time to find it. She described volunteering at two previous schools that did not use her professional teaching knowledge or skills; she was often left to observe (as described earlier). For her third volunteer placement, through a family friend, she was introduced to a teacher who gave her more responsibilities:

And so, I started going there on a regular basis . . . and I actually got to plan lessons, and teach lessons, and be on my own with the kids in the school, and I made relationships with the students . . . I helped her with the Science Olympics that they

put on at the University every year . . . it was just a complete 180 from what the other schools were using me for.

The relationship that Lucy described in this quotation improved her volunteer experience. Once she was able to find a supportive supervisor, she was much more satisfied with her activities at the school. The teacher that supervised her facilitated more opportunities for Lucy to become part of school community. Prior to this third volunteer placement, Lucy described her volunteering more negatively than positively. Lucy's case demonstrates an internal conflict of emotions; a tension between feeling negatively and positively about volunteering, that was characteristic of the study participants.

Conflict of Emotions

Ilsley (1990) described psychological benefits as a defining element of voluntary action. Found in these data were examples of psychological benefits, five of six interviewees expressed deriving some sort of satisfaction or enjoyment from volunteering; however, there was also a persistent, underlying frustration expressed by all participants. Overall, the negative sentiment appeared more prevalent for interviewees with previous paid teaching experience; and being more connected to the school community seemed to buffer negative emotions related to the volunteer tasks.

Positive emotions. The positive sentiments expressed centered on an enjoyment of teaching, as volunteering helped simulate that experience. For example, Matthew stated:

[My other job] is just a job, it's what I do to pay the bills. I need to have income, and this job is as good as any . . . but it's not what I want to do for the rest of my

life. . . . it's not what I'm kind of meant to do. Teaching is what I really enjoy doing and being in the classroom is the high-light of every week.

Here Matthew explicitly refers to the enjoyment he gets out of being in the classroom. Amanda communicated a similar sentiment, also pointing out that she could not picture herself doing anything else:

. . . certainly the [volunteer] experience is more positive than it is negative I don't see myself doing anything else, this is my passion, I LOVE to do this. So for me, spending the time to learn more about it, or giving up a few days of work . . . this is what I'm meant to do. So, I have a more positive look because this is my life.

Amanda perceived teaching as central to her life, so volunteering in a school was a natural progression until she found paid work in teaching.

School connectedness as a factor in positive emotions. When listening to the participants express the positive aspects of their experience, it seemed as though performing meaningful tasks and cultivating relationships with teachers, administrators, and students were integral. That is, being a valued member of a school community positively influenced perceptions of the volunteer work. For example, Walter states:

. . . in the composite of reflecting on my experience it's been tremendous. I've been very fortunate to have found my niche at this school . . . I've been very fortunate that I'm afforded a lot of respect. I work hard at what I do, and I think I meet with success at what I do and I'm in an environment where people are not hesitant to recognize that when I'm successful.

Walter explained during his interview that the teacher that supervised him, as well as the administration and the students embraced his presence. He explained his relationships with other teachers as collegial, and that the students did not seem to perceive a significant difference between him and other teachers. Margaret had a similar relationship with her school community. After she explained some tasks that she carried out, I asked if she ever felt negatively about performing the tasks without compensation. Her response indicated that she felt valued by her school community:

I would [feel taken advantage of] if I didn't know the school and love the school so much, but no . . . I will do whatever it takes to get on the supply list, and I really like the school and I know the staff. . . . This particular principal, and this particular school [is] absolutely fantastic.

Matthew expressed similar ideas; he received support from other teachers and administration, which contributed to his overall positive experience:

. . . the thing that I've always found at my school is that I feel that they want me in the profession. Like, I get the sense that they're concerned, like, when they ask me how things are coming along in terms of getting hired, they're actually interested in seeing that I'm succeeding.

For Matthew, part of feeling connected to the school community was the relationships that he formed with colleagues. For Amanda, being connected was about giving back to the students and being involved in extra-curricular activities:

. . . I also help out with like, [specific school charity] campaign, United Way, the cancer campaign, those kinds of things. Everything that runs through the school, I'm a part of . . . [that school] has a special place for me.

Being embedded in her school community helped Amanda get more out of her volunteer experience than simply showing up because she felt she had to.

Negative emotions. Jack, who expressed a singularly negative experience, was not connected to his school community. He was able to obtain a volunteer position through a friend, but had no prior connections to the school. He stated:

I wasn't really doing much. I felt like I was wasting my time. I was doing the steps of what I was told you had to do. I was at least doing more than the person who has the exact same experience and education I have but is sitting on their couch. I was actually there and meeting people.

Jack explained that while the teachers and students were nice, he felt as though he was not getting anything out of the experience. Perhaps if he had felt more connected to the school community, it might have been different. As described earlier, Lucy explained that she had two volunteer positions that she left before she found one that she liked and thought to be worthwhile. Lucy's positive experience grew from having increased responsibility that connected her to the students, as well as other teachers, and administrators. It was not all positive for Lucy, however, as she explained that she was feeling positive about being able to teach again, but also felt she should not have to be in the situation:

. . . [volunteer teaching] reminded me, "this is why you're going through this right now, this is why you're going through so much trouble" is because I love being in

front of a classroom, and I did. When those teachers let me teach, it was this breath of fresh air. But at the same time, I was doing their job for them. They were being paid. And I was planning lessons and doing the work, and controlling the classroom, and that was sort of a slap in the face, because, I'm doing their job for them, but no one will pay me to do this.

Here, as was the case for the other participants, many of Lucy's positive sentiments are also related to her love of teaching. Part of the negative sentiment surrounding the volunteer tasks may be related to having prior paid experience.

Prior experience as a factor in negative emotions. The teachers who expressed the greatest amount of dissatisfaction related to the experience both taught previously. Lucy had two years prior teaching experience overseas before being certified to teach in Ontario. Jack had six years prior experience, and was explicit in describing where much of his negative sentiment toward his volunteering was coming from:

I have six years teaching experience...the person in the classroom I was with, they were a fresh out of school teacher. And so...I was watching them teach, and I wasn't trying to be critical and judge or anything like that...but in my head I was...but I was getting nothing from it. Because, in my opinion, she wasn't doing as good of a job as I would be able to.

While Jack was most candid about the negative aspects of the experience, there was frustration expressed from the other teachers as well.

Universal negative emotion: Frustration. Generally, the inexperienced teachers frustration seemed to originate from the broader context of the bleak teacher employment

market. Matthew, who had volunteered the longest (three years) out of all of the participants, talked about how the school he volunteered at wanted to be able to give him supply days, but were not able to because he was not on the supply list. Volunteering on those days was particularly frustrating:

. . . there is no way for them to be like, “don’t worry about it, he can do it” it’s like “no, we have to have a teacher in here,” so they have to bring somebody else in who will not be as good at it as I would be, and that person is getting paid, and I’m standing here volunteering for somebody who is being paid to do something that I know I could do. So, it’s like, it’s not...it’s not fun. I don’t enjoy that. Like, to know that that’s something that they get and that I don’t is kind of bothersome.

After three years, it seems as though Matthew’s generally positive disposition was beginning to wear away as he continued to be passed over as a candidate for the supply list. Walter, who had volunteered two years, was hesitant to speak of the challenges, but eventually expressed frustration:

So, I get a lot out of volunteering . . . up to now in the interview I’ve been framing it very positively, and that’s generally how I conceive of it, but there are days when I’m not in as good a mood, and I start getting very frustrated that I have to be doing this at all at this point, I feel like I’ve paid my dues, and I want to, even just supply work, I just want the opportunity to take a theoretical day of employment or whatever and start being compensated for what I think is good work that I’m doing.

The frustration for both Matthew and Walter, who have a significant amount of volunteer experience, seems to be associated with the amount of effort they have put in, and the lack

of success in finding a paid position on the supply list. They see themselves as competent teachers at this point, and want the opportunity to demonstrate it in a paid context. An oversupply of candidates has limited the number of times the supply list has opened, and has increased competition for spots on the list when it has.

Amanda, who has volunteered for less than one year, made a distinction between the volunteer work itself, and the broader context, when she described her frustration:

Volunteering is the thing I have to do, and that's what I can do. In this profession, this is just the reality. You have to be able to make a few sacrifices if you want to get a job on the list. I'm not frustrated with the volunteering. I'm frustrated with the situation. I very much enjoy the volunteering.

Amanda indicated here that she feels volunteering allows her some control (“...that's what I can do...”) over her unemployed status: volunteering is the action she can take that might give her an advantage over others when the supply list opens for her chosen school board. She has not yet volunteered for as long as the others, and has not been certified long enough to see the list open. She believed that when the list opened, she would have a good chance at getting on, so her frustration seemed mostly to come from the fact that the list had not yet opened.

Margaret, who approached teaching as a second career, had clearly given a lot of thought to her situation. She explained factors beyond her control, specifically the large number of certified teachers looking for work, as key to her negative sentiments related to volunteering:

I'm disappointed, but I'm not less passionate. I think I'm not as naïve, I really didn't think, when I started this journey in two-oh-six [2006] I did not think the profession was this tight. And I think it has gotten worse in the last five years. Um. And that's what's disappointing to me. The whole - why is there so many teachers? It's not fair.

Margaret was the only second-career teacher in this study, and experienced additional frustration related to her age. She had an interview in the previous year with her local school board, and was unsuccessful. She believed there was age-related bias in the selection process:

I'm hoping my extensive thirty year background of being a social worker will, uh, will be valued and come forward, but there is no doubt in my mind that my age is going against me. It's not fair, but it's the reality.

In this study, frustration related to the perception of an age bias was unique to Margaret. She explained that she feels the competition is more intense for her, because she is competing with newly-certified teachers who are much younger, and therefore have longer careers ahead of them. She expressed that she was unsure how to address these concerns, as she did not know of many others in her position.

Overall, the conflict of emotions seems most salient for inexperienced teachers, as the positive aspects of volunteering in a school are juxtaposed against the realities of the employment market. For more experienced teachers, the conflict is less pronounced, with the more negative features overshadowing the aspects that are positive for the inexperienced teachers. When describing the frustrating and negative aspects of

volunteering in schools, the financial aspect of making this lifestyle work was discussed enough that it warranted its own section, which is where this chapter will turn next.

Non-standard Employment Arrangements and Financial Insecurity

Five of the six teachers in this study mentioned that financial insecurity as a result of non-standard employment relationships was a part of the volunteer experience. Non-standard employment (that is, irregular, insecure work) were part of the experience out of necessity: classrooms operate on day-time schedules, Monday-to-Friday. In order to volunteer at least one day, work arrangements had to be flexible. Matthew described his situation:

. . . it's the difficulty of pursuing what you want to do but making sure that you don't bankrupt yourself in the process. Like, I had to go to school, I have debt, I have debt from undergrad, I have debt from a car, because I have to have a job, you have all of these other responsibilities AND you have to make all of this other stuff happen for yourself to try and get into the profession. So I mean, it is a bit of a balancing act, I mean, between work, and volunteering, it was six days a week every week, sometimes seven days a week depending on the time of year. It's, it's difficult, for sure.

Matthew balanced his volunteer work and finances by working on the weekend and volunteering one day during the week. Amanda expressed she wanted to volunteer more, but her other obligations, including financial, make that difficult:

Um, I wanted to go in there Monday to Friday, and I would, if my finances allowed me to (laughs). If money grew on trees, I would be there Monday to Friday

volunteering . . . Um, but, the way my Masters is working out, and also having another job to pay the bills, I can only do so much, so, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, has to be it.

Amanda explained that she had a flexible part-time employment in the service industry that she was able to schedule around all of her other commitments. Lucy also worked part-time jobs around her volunteer work, as she placed volunteering at the top of her priority list. She explained:

So after school and evenings, I was working at [a private supplementary educational site], I was also doing private tutoring through [a private company] . . . So I was doing that two nights per week, I was working at [the private supplementary educational site] three days per week, one of those Saturday morning, and I was working at a restaurant three nights a week. It was all after school hours.

While Lucy placed her volunteer work at the centre of her schedule, Jack put it off:

. . . my priority went from okay we just moved from [overseas] to Canada, we need to get a place to live, we need to pay for all of our expenses, and we go from there. So, I didn't even think about volunteering to be honest.

Jack found several part-time jobs (in customer service, private tutoring, and at a private learning centre) and then decided he would have to integrate volunteering into his schedule if he hoped to find his way on to the supply list. He expressed that it was not a preferable arrangement, but he felt he had to take action if he wanted to get on to the supply list, and volunteering was the action he decided to take.

Since volunteer work in schools must take place during the day, non-standard employment and financial strain seems to be a part of the experience for most of these newly-certified candidates. For Margaret, who explained that financial insecurity was not an issue, she had to take a day off from her private social work practice so she could volunteer, and sometimes, that was problematic for her clients.

Chapter Summary

Overall, analysis of the responses of this small sample of teachers suggests that the nature of volunteering in schools includes volunteering a significant amount of time per week and performing a wide range of tasks; may involve informal mentoring relationships; is marked by a conflict of emotions; and involves non-standard employment and financial insecurity. Being connected to a school community and prior paid teaching experience both seem to be factors in the perception of positive and negative aspects of the experience. In this chapter, differing perceptions of volunteering in a school were found between experienced and inexperienced teachers; that is, inexperienced teachers were more likely to express positive psychological benefits from volunteering than the experienced teachers. This same divide was also seen in Chapter Four, where the four inexperienced reported volunteering as important to their lives as well as perceiving it as making a contribution to their community. What is emerging here is a stark difference in the perceptions of volunteering in schools by unemployed teachers, based on experience. This divide will also be seen in the next chapter, which explores the learning dimension of volunteer work.

Chapter Six: Learning and Volunteering for Newly Certified, Unemployed Teachers

This chapter explains what and how unemployed volunteer teachers learn from volunteering, both formally and informally. While categorizing types of learning into formal and informal is not universally agreed upon (Watkins & Marsick, 1992; Colley, Hodgkinson, & Malcolm; 2004, Livingstone, 2005), this study conceptualized formal learning as any instance where “a teacher has the authority to determine that people designated as requiring knowledge effectively learn a curriculum taken from a pre-established body of knowledge” (Livingstone, 2001b, para 6); that is, formal learning is typically institutional learning, such as course work or workshops. Informal learning is anything that takes place outside of this narrow conceptualization.

This chapter first discusses the modes of formal learning reported by unemployed, volunteer teachers: Additional Qualification (AQ) courses, graduate education, and professional development opportunities. It then explores the informal learning that was first reported in Chapter Four in more detail; that is, it demonstrates that the process by which volunteer-related informal learning occurs can be both incidental and explicit; that professional knowledge is gained through informal learning; and that informal learning was supplemental to prior teacher education. It will conclude with the finding that teachers with previously paid experience do not have the same experience with informal learning.

Formal Learning

The formal learning (beyond their teacher certification program) reported by the teachers in this study consisted of graduate education, AQ courses, as well as professional development offered by the school or school board.

Additional Qualification (AQ) courses. The formal learning most frequently referred to by the teachers in this study was in the form of Additional Qualification (AQ) courses. Four of the six teachers reported that they have taken or will take more than one AQ course. The most common AQ discussed certifies the teacher to teach in another division (Primary-Junior, Junior-Intermediate, or Intermediate-Senior) beyond the division they are already certified to teach in. Special Education was also discussed by three of the participants.

Graduate education. Two of the participants (Amanda and Walter) were enrolled in full-time master's degrees at the time of the interview, and two more discussed that they were considering education-related master's degrees in the future. For the teachers currently enrolled, the purpose of graduate education was discussed in terms of making valuable use of time while they waited for their opportunity to teach. Amanda was taking a master's of Education as she thought she might pursue educational administration later in her career, and was advised by her practicum supervisor to begin getting the qualifications:

. . . she told me the market is so bad for teaching that why not go into your master's now and try and get on the supply list, while you're doing your master's. Quite frankly, it was the right move.

The reason Amanda was in the master's program at that time was directly related to the teacher employment market. Had there been employment opportunities directly out of her Bachelor of Education program, she would not have enrolled until much later in her career. Walter was in a similar situation, enrolled in a Masters of Library and Information Science program,

. . . I anticipate that it will take a while to gain entry into teaching . . . I want to make sure I'm using that time effectively and not just spinning my wheels going nowhere. So, you know, if it takes me a year, then during that year I will have earned a graduate degree that is at least peripherally related to education, I think it definitely supports my future practice as a teacher, and then of course, I got OSAP [Ontario Student Assistance Program] so there was some sort of source of income during that time, when I'm not making a lot of money right now, so that, that was instrumental.

In addition to making valuable use of his time, much like Amanda, Walter mentioned the financial challenges of his unemployment. Because he wanted to focus on teaching, finding an unrelated paid employment arrangement would distract him from his goal. Enrolling in graduate school satisfied multiple requirements, including financial, and would ultimately augment his professional practice.

Professional Development (PD). Two of the teachers in this study described opportunities for formal learning in the form of professional development offered by the school. As previously mentioned in Chapter Five, Matthew accompanied his supervising teacher to an off-site session about implementing technology in the classroom. In addition, Walter discussed attending in-school sessions offered by the principal,

I have had the opportunity to sit in on a couple things um, that were happening for other teachers. But they were things that were happening at the school, you know that had been where it's in no way disruptive and there were no associated costs for anyone else for me to sit there and just listen to it too. And, you know, it's beneficial

to hear about the initiatives happening within the school and school board . . . it helps keep me current.

Here, Walter speaks favourably about the opportunity, as he can see the benefit it provides, that he might not otherwise receive. This is similar to sentiment expressed by Matthew. Moreover, both teachers discussed how they were able to use the information from the sessions, and in collaboration with their supervising teacher, apply what they learned within the classroom. For example, Matthew stated:

So after the session she'll have an idea about something that she wants to do in her classroom, and I will have a way to technically do it, and then we'll work together to find a way she can actually implement it with the stuff that they have available . . . for some stuff I'm away when it actually gets implemented, but she will save some stuff to do for only when I'm there because she knows I'm excited and have, you know, good ideas about it.

Here, Matthew discussed the process of applying the information from a session and assisting with classroom implementation. Walter described a similar process that would take place, but he did not always attend the session:

I informally benefit from some of the stuff [the supervising classroom teacher] is exposed to. So she'll go off to something that is definitely formal professional development, she'll come back with, you know, anecdotes of her experience there and all of her resources, then her and I will sit down together, and figure stuff out based on it. Like, a lot of times, she comes back and goes, "I saw all this exciting

stuff at this particular workshop, let's sit down together and figure out some way we can integrate this into a lesson that maybe we'll team teach or something.”

In this example, Walter described how he learned by extension from the professional development offered to the classroom teacher with whom he worked. Working collaboratively with the classroom teacher provided an opportunity to learn the material offered at the session as well how to apply it in a classroom context. While Walter's experience here may be blurring the lines between formal and informal learning, it is an example of the unique opportunities that can be presented for learning in this context. In the next section, informal learning is discussed specifically.

Volunteer-Related Informal Learning

The teachers in this study were asked to reflect on informal learning related to their volunteer work, namely, any learning beyond formal institutions and curricula that they could describe related to their volunteer activities in schools. The four teachers without previous paid experience were able to provide an estimate of hours of informal learning activities, as well as areas of informal learning, and whether or not the learning was helpful (see Chapter Four). When describing these aspects of informal learning, it became clear that for inexperienced volunteer teachers: a) informal learning was both incidental and explicit, b) informal learning led to an increase in professional knowledge, and c) the informal learning from volunteer work supplemented prior teacher education. This section will conclude by describing the experience of two teachers who perceived informal learning as part of their volunteer experience in a different way, that is, learning about the work environment and hiring process, rather than specific professional teacher knowledge.

Volunteer-related informal learning: Incidental and explicit. Schugurensky (2006) states that “most informal learning tends to be incidental” (p. 3) which was supported by the participants in this study; they described learning as co-occurring while they were carrying out other tasks volunteering. The participants spoke of examples that were evidence of building competence over time and leading to further development of their professional practice. For example, Matthew described how he has developed over his three years of volunteer work:

[after three years] you don't have to think about as much any more, they're kind of more automated in terms of like, how you operate within the classroom and how you call on people. You don't have to THINK about it anymore, you just do it. That progression changes from year to year. You get better at things, and you take on new challenges that you wouldn't have had before, or wouldn't have been able to do before.

Describing this progression reflects an automaticity that Matthew developed in his professional practice over his three years of volunteering, and does not point to any specific learning episodes. At this point, he just “knows” when it comes to certain things, although he has difficulty when asked to account specifically for when, and under what circumstances, learning related to these aspects of his practice occurred. Margaret described a similar process of development:

. . . over the last few years, I've been able to figure out my own style, uh, which is very similar interestingly enough, to [my supervising teacher], but I figure out my own style. So I would say a lot of it is looking, watching at first . . . and then getting

one foot in front of the other, and getting a little bit more involved, and . . . trying to figure out your own style . . . [and also] the years of experience in social work, I've certainly developed my style when dealing with people all the time, I have taken that, and then with the volunteer work, you learn as you go.

What Margaret explained that differed from other participants was her additional years of alternative work experience. As a second-career teacher, Margaret has brought her previous experience with her to teaching, and that has influenced her informal learning and the development of her teaching practice. She does not describe her informal learning as emphatically as the other inexperienced teachers, although she does acknowledge its role in her volunteering, especially as an incidental process.

Schugurensky (2006) also identified *self-directed* informal learning that is more explicit; that is, learning that is conscious and intentional, but still falls outside of the realm of formal learning. The study participants demonstrate this type of informal learning in addition to the incidental. They were also able to identify hours beyond their volunteer work where they were learning informally (see Chapter Four) and explicitly about their volunteer work. These hours consisted of active reflection, research, and lesson planning. For example, Amanda described her active reflection process when working with students in the developmental disabilities class:

. . . I can tell, I know I'm going to get better, especially in the [developmental] classroom. So every time I go home, I think, next week, I cannot forget that when so and so does this, I should reply this way, not, I have to. This is the most effective

way to reply. Gotta' remember that. Gotta' remember that. It's just little baby steps, but I definitely think I'll get better.

In this quotation, Amanda described her process of reflection that related to episodes from her volunteer day. She has specifically indicated that reflecting will assist her in future interactions with the same students. Not all of Amanda's explicit informal learning was particular to certain students. She also described keeping informal notes, which she referred to as a journal, using her smartphone. She discussed recording thoughts and insights that she had while volunteering, that she would later reflect upon.

. . . most days, I'll sit down and write an idea down that I had while volunteering . . . maybe I can incorporate that into a lesson . . . or ways to teach, or things to address . . . [I'm always thinking] how am I going to be proactive as a teacher?

Amanda described her informal learning process as mostly reflective, but also discussed explicit research activities she would carry out, inspired by her volunteer day. Walter also discussed engaging in research related to his volunteer work. He reported that he was constantly making connections between knowledge he gained as part of his master's degree as well as his teaching practice, so when engaging in a task for his graduate school assignments, he would find relevant literature that might inform a future activity while volunteering:

. . . I am definitely engaging in a lot of stuff that um, maybe I'll happen on something because it's related to something that I'm doing for [my master's], but I'll read a whole article that I don't need to write the paper I'm writing for school, because it relates to something I'm going to do in a volunteer experience.

This is a specific instance where Walter described his volunteer-related informal learning in terms of research activities; however, not all research activities described by participants take this form. He and the three other participants who described informal learning activities explained that the Internet was a primary research tool.

In the hours of informal learning beyond their volunteer day, the participants also described lesson planning, which acted as an informal learning experience. For example, Walter stated:

I'll often ask if there is something I can do for the next time I come in, and [the supervising teacher] will suggest a lesson. So in the next week I'll spend a few hours creating a very well-considered lesson, trying to incorporate other things she is doing in the classroom . . . [as well as making it] pedagogically sound . . . it's been great practice [and now] I have a bunch of lessons prepared for when I start teaching . . .

For Walter, preparing a single lesson within defined parameters allowed him to apply concepts from his teacher education within the context of his volunteer classroom. He described spending a great deal of time constructing each one, and also learning about how to improve it once it had been delivered to the class. In general, for the inexperienced teachers who had minimal experience preparing lessons on a narrow range of topics, lesson preparation throughout the school year while volunteering also acted as a way of learning the curriculum across a wider variety of areas. Learning about the curriculum is one area in which the participants gained professional knowledge. The next section describes other areas of professional knowledge that are enhanced by volunteering in a school.

Informal learning: Acquisition of tacit professional knowledge. In general, it seems as though informal learning has led to the acquisition of explicit and tacit professional knowledge in many areas, including curriculum (as previously discussed), pedagogy and classroom management; non-instructional duties related to teaching; and developmental and learning disabilities. For example, Amanda spoke specifically about learning new approaches to both pedagogy and classroom management from volunteering:

I think definitely learning some pedagogical things, but more so in terms of classroom management . . . I still need to learn more [when it comes to effective pedagogy]. I think I'm OK in that field, but, I'd appreciate some more lessons in that way.

Here, Amanda identified an area where she would like to learn further, and continued to speak about how she might manipulate her time volunteering in order to learn more about it. She talked about how she was comfortable approaching others in the school where she volunteered, and eventually she would broaden her volunteer experience to spend time with teachers in her subject areas. Similarly, Walter spoke about learning general approaches to classroom management, but appreciated the opportunities to learn about how to integrate a variety of tools into his pedagogy. For example, he spoke about technology at length:

I've sort of got a chance to learn about it at two levels because the teacher I do a lot of my volunteer work with at the school was sort of interested in figuring out how to get it [a particular piece of software] working and so I figured that out for her . . . And I'm always trying to figure out more efficient or more clever ways to leverage

[technology] too . . . I'm developing and integrating Smart Board stuff . . . I've built quite a repertoire.

Walter's statement focuses specifically on gaining knowledge about how to implement technology; however, increased knowledge of differing instructional strategies, as well as cross-curricular teaching were also described.

Teachers in this study discussed extensive learning about aspects of being a teacher beyond pedagogy and classroom management. They discussed learning about organizational skills (how to physically set-up a classroom, manage a daybook, plan and implement field trips, and effectively use preparation time); teamwork/problem solving/communication skills (working and collaborating with other teachers); budgeting and financial management (planning field trips and facilitating charitable campaigns); interpersonal skills (working with differing personalities of students, teachers, and administrators); and health and well-being (their own, and students who have particular disabilities). Most of the learning described in these areas occurred incidentally while volunteering. One interesting example of knowledge acquisition in the area of health and well-being came from Matthew:

...I've always been a person who will volunteer their own time for the sake of personal well-being from time to time...but when you see the responsibility of a teacher [...I realize] that if I get sick, I'll get so far behind, and they [the students] can't accomplish any of the stuff. So it's like life considerations being made regarding your health, but for your job. It's not something I ever really thought about in my regular job. If I'm sick, I don't go...it's not like things will totally fall behind...but that can

happen in a classroom.

This response in particular demonstrates that his volunteer experience has exposed him to a reality about teaching. Volunteering in a classroom setting has led Matthew to consider his own health and well-being in a different way that may impact his choices in his day-to-day life, as well as in the future as a classroom teacher. While this is only one example, overall the inexperienced teachers in this study spoke at great length about gaining knowledge in many areas beyond the narrow confines of the classroom that are inherently part of being a teacher.

Gaining professional knowledge pertaining to developmental and learning disabilities was reported. For example, Amanda talked about how she would try and gain more information about a particular exceptionality after interacting with students:

. . . I'll usually research it [the exceptionality] when I get home. On the Internet, usually. I usually, go to like, the Canadian website for [a specific organization], like Autism Canada, so I'll jump on the website and learn about it.

In this case, Amanda described learning declarative knowledge about a particular exceptionality, but she also spoke in detail about equipment and manipulatives that can be used when working with exceptional children and youth:

. . . with the students who have developmental disabilities . . . [I am] learning about their wheelchairs, um, learning about the different manipulatives, and... we have a lot of sensory activities, so learning about those things, and how they help, and how they should be used, that kind of thing. We also have, um...I guess this does

tie in to learning about technology. We also have [programs such as] Dragon Naturally Speaking . . . I've learned a lot about those. . .

While three of the four teachers who reported learning talked generally about working with and learning about these students, Amanda was the most detailed because she spent one day of the week specifically in the developmentally challenged (DC) department of the school where she was volunteering. Walter, Matthew, and Margaret also spoke about working one-on-one with students who were identified as having a learning disability. Matthew described one instance in particular:

. . . so I got to work one on one with a student every week to develop his reading and writing skills. And, it's kind of neat to see that [the progression] . . . using the IEP and working with the [learning support teacher]. It's not something I'd ever done before.

In this case, the knowledge that Matthew has gained not only pertains to specifics related to the learning disability, but also how the IEP is used and the roles of other teachers in the process of working with students who have learning disabilities.

Overall, for the four inexperienced teachers who reported informal learning in this study, they described learning as helpful to their future volunteering (see Chapter Four), and thus by extension, helpful in building their professional teaching practice. These participants referred to their volunteering as helping them become better teachers beyond their initial teacher education.

Volunteer-related informal learning: Supplemented prior teacher education.

The four participants who reported informal learning also reported how beneficial it was as it enhanced their formal B.Ed. The two teachers who had prior paid experience did not report volunteering as valuable in this way (this will be discussed further in Chapter Eight). For the other teachers, specific references were made to some of the deficits of their teacher education. For example, Margaret stated: “you need more hands on placement. Three [short] placements is not enough. Volunteering has given me so much more time in the classroom.” In general, limited time in the classroom was discussed as the primary deficit of their teacher education. For Matthew, he also expressed that more time would lead to a more authentic experience. He stated:

[Volunteering is beneficial] because you’re in, you’re practicing in the field of play, you’re not at school practicing pretend teaching like at teachers college, so what you do succeeds or fails. It’s a lot of real world feedback because of that.

Matthew perceived his practice teaching during his Bachelor of Education as “pretend teaching” due to the punctuated nature of practicum teaching. He stated:

All of that momentum that you are developing by getting practice and doing what you’re supposed to be doing is gone. You have to just stop it and go back to class, and sit there and learn about things that you know . . . don’t work for you . . .

Matthew clearly prefers learning in context, which his volunteer work has allowed him to develop over the long term, with the same teacher. Walter further outlines how his volunteer work has differed from his practicum:

... often what I'll get the opportunity to do, really, is, it's like an extended practicum, I get to continue to do teaching, and now that that sort of evaluation piece has been removed, because it isn't practicum anymore, it's just volunteer, I get to work in a much more collegial way with the teachers at the school, and I've enjoyed that.

For Walter, the evaluation component of a practicum was problematic because he was not able to develop his own practice and he described implementing systems he knew his associate teacher wanted in order to receive a positive evaluation. Amanda indicated that what was lacking from her practice teaching placements was experience working with students with disabilities. She explained how her volunteer experience has helped her:

So I don't just have [declarative knowledge about special education], I'm volunteering every week with kids who have developmental disabilities, intellectual [disabilities], and learning disabilities . . . I've put it all into context.

Learning within the school context is crucial here for Amanda, and volunteering provides access to that context. It also became clear that a supportive environment within that context played an integral role. Walter stated:

... it's basically as if I've had this long extended practicum experience, so it's just all that much more opportunity to pick up those skills and to try things out in a pretty safe environment, because you know, as much as I'm in charge and independently teaching these things, I still do have another teacher around, um and so it's sort of uh, a no-fail environment to sort of experiment with techniques and it's been really great.

Part of the supportive environment that Walter described here is the classroom teacher.

While mentoring was discussed in Chapter Five as part of the volunteer experience, it's

important to note that these teachers felt that this mentoring relationship was important to facilitating their learning. Walter still felt inexperienced at the end of his practice teaching; the volunteer experience has helped offset that feeling, especially in the supportive environment his supervising teacher has created for him. Matthew expressed similar feelings:

I have developed an appreciation of what my skills are and what my weaknesses are, so you can target the learning you want to do when you go into the classroom a little bit better. You can make yourself work on things that you're not comfortable with, but you have the safety net of an experienced teacher who is kind of there watching over your shoulder, so you can't screw up too badly, but that opportunity is to succeed or not succeed. It keeps things refreshing, and challenging...

The learning and knowledge acquisition within this environment has built confidence for these inexperienced teachers. Walter stated that continued volunteer work has helped him in this way:

I was starting to feel relatively confident about my ability to *actually* be a full time teacher at the end of teachers college, I am much *more* so now, so having, you know, spent a year or more continuing to do those sorts of activities has made me all the more confident about them. . . . I think I'm definitely more ready than I was at the end of teachers college, even though I felt almost ready then . . . now with some perspective, I've definitely developed and come along, and that leads me to believe that that would continue to be true if I continue to volunteer.

Here, Walter has directly acknowledged his continued development beyond his initial teacher certification. Matthew re-iterates this point by stating, “I have so much more from volunteering, from having time in the classroom, and you get to see how these things develop and how they work out.” Matthew has appreciated the ability to witness a classroom function over the long-term through volunteering, rather than the punctuated instances of his practicum experience. Overall, he has felt like it has been a more authentic experience in the classroom, which contributes to his growing confidence as a teacher.

While the perception that volunteering has contributed to the learning, knowledge acquisition, and confidence is consistent for four of the participants, it is important to note that not all of the participants felt this way. Two participants were clear that informal learning was not a major part of the volunteer experience.

Volunteer-related informal learning: Beyond specific teacher knowledge. Two of the candidates, Jack and Lucy, described less informal learning from their volunteer work when compared to the others, and when they did describe it, it was related to different aspects of teaching in Ontario. They mentioned that they have learned a very small amount about the context of an Ontario classroom, as well as the Ontario curriculum:

I guess I did learn a bit. Very minute things . . . I did learn a little bit more . . . now I know what I will do when I get into [an Ontario] classroom. It was more informative than anything else, rather than learning. It gave me more of a comfort . . . I’ve seen the way that it is done at this one school, and I feel pretty confident now. (Jack)

Other than getting more familiar with the curriculum, I didn't learn anything. If anything, it made me feel good. Because it made me feel like, what I did [overseas], I really did learn. And I became a good teacher there. (Lucy)

Lucy's comment reveals that her prior experience, in which she was employed full-time as a classroom teacher, gave her a context under which to learn and develop her professional practice. Jack described a similar learning process. The difference between these groups of teachers (those who report extensive learning and those who do not) in terms of their perception of learning is likely a result of past teaching experience. The new teachers who have not yet had any work in teaching described their practicum experience as deficient in some ways, as described earlier in this section. Even if Jack and Lucy felt that way, they had already amassed years of experience in a professional setting to offset it. The learning they did report was in relation to the Ontario curriculum, school cultures, and the hiring process/career progression of newly-certified Ontario teachers. In terms of the latter, Lucy stated:

I figured out pretty quickly that the department heads and the principals were people you had to make sure knew who you were. At [the first two volunteer placements] I wasn't being used for much, so how could I make a positive impression? At [the third volunteer placement] I've been able to [develop relationships] that matter.

These more nuanced areas of learning, corresponding to the broader definition of workplace learning, were dominant for the experienced teachers, likely because they were more focused on that part of the volunteer work. However, the other teachers did describe similar aspects. For example, Amanda asked principals and other teachers to look over her

résumé and recommend strategies to help her in the employment market. These ideas, which relate specifically to how volunteering assists with accessing the profession, will be explored more thoroughly in the following chapter.

Chapter Summary

This chapter, along with the data presented in Chapter Four, demonstrates that the inexperienced teachers reported substantial informal learning while experienced teachers described fewer opportunities to do so. In addition, a strong case for informal learning has been presented here. Overall, for the inexperienced teachers, volunteering has proved to be fertile grounds for learning and gaining professional teacher knowledge. What they have learned beyond their practicum experience has built confidence in their own professional practice, and all four inexperienced teachers report that they feel as though they are better teachers now than when they completed their teacher education. Having the ability to volunteer under an experienced teacher in a safe environment has also facilitated a great deal of their informal learning.

For the other two teachers who have teaching experience, there were fewer opportunities for informal learning. It seems as though the professional experience that they had already gained when teaching overseas went beyond what experience a volunteer placement could offer them. For these two teachers, the purpose of the volunteering was more accessing the teaching profession in Ontario, rather than learning specific teacher professional knowledge, which is what will be explored next.

Chapter Seven: Volunteering as Access to Teaching for Newly Certified, Unemployed Teachers

As described in Chapter Two, access refers to how teachers perceive that volunteering assists them with securing paid teaching work given the competitive labour market. Since none of the teachers in this study have found any paid work in teaching, it is perceptions about how volunteering provides access that were probed and are reported here. It is important to note that the type of teaching these teachers were trying to access at the time of the interview was short-term occasional (STO) work, as it is the first step into the profession, as described in Chapter One. While STO work was the goal for all of these teachers at the time of the interview, five of the six desired to eventually obtain full-time permanent contract (FTPC) positions. One participant (Margaret) desired to be a career-occasional teacher.

This chapter first explores the decision to volunteer as an access point to STO teaching work. Then it explains how teachers in this study perceive that volunteering helps them gain access, including some of the ideas about workplace learning that were touched upon in the previous chapter. Next it describes the other modes of access (aside from volunteering) unemployed teachers utilize. This chapter concludes by outlining the overwhelming message communicated by study participants, that is, that they require assistance from provincial organizations with accessing the teaching profession.

The Decision to Volunteer

Chapter Four demonstrated that the reasons for volunteering for the inexperienced teachers were multi-faceted, and that one such facet common to all participants was volunteering for the reason of improving job opportunities. The question remained – how

did the participants decide that volunteering was a method of accessing the paid teaching profession? Overall, it seems that knowledgeable others had influence over this decision, but that it was ultimately a personal choice to give oneself an advantage over other unemployed teachers in the labour market.

Influenced by others. Participants in this study communicated that others informally advised them that they should volunteer if they hoped to gain entry on to a supply list. For most, the information came from friends in the teaching profession, instructors in their respective B.Ed programs, as well as school administrators. Walter stated:

. . . what I've heard anecdotally, from school administrators, from the human resources people, from other people trying to find teaching work, uh, if you're not actively involved in a school community in this school board, you are probably not going to receive any serious consideration for potential work.

Walter appeared to receive this information anecdotally from those around him during his Bachelor of Education. For Amanda, instructors in her B. Ed were more explicit; they advised everyone to volunteer, and suggested particular departments in order to help them develop their skill sets. Amanda stated her instructors said:

. . . we highly recommend that you get involved with the resource department at your school, because they have students with learning disabilities, or students that are on IEPs that need modifications, or accommodations. And it's good experience because you don't always necessarily get that in [practicum].

This advice influenced Amanda directly, as she approached staff at the school she did her final practicum placement in, and asked if she could volunteer in the resource department.

While volunteering at the school, she asked the principal there to look over her résumé, and received more advice:

And that's when she told me to go to the DC [Developmentally Challenged] room and start working with the students who have developmental disabilities because then you can put your whole qualification into context.

Hearing the information directly from the principal influenced Amanda to also volunteer in the developmentally challenged department and represents learning about how to distinguish herself as a candidate from a knowledgeable other who is involved in the job search process. The information was presented more informally for Jack and Lucy, who had graduated some time ago from out of province teacher education programs, and had just recently arrived in Ontario. Family members and friends were the primary sources of information about the labour market. Lucy stated:

I had spoken to some teachers that are family friends, and they . . . said the smart thing to do would be to [volunteer at a challenging] school. They will be more desperate for the help [and] will be more thankful or appreciative for the help, so that's what I did.

This quotation demonstrates the informal way that Lucy received the information about volunteering in schools, which was common to the participants in this study. Unemployed teachers then used this information to make a personal decision about volunteering in schools.

Volunteering: A personal choice. Although the participants were given information informally that they should volunteer, five of the six teachers stated that they

ultimately made the decision of volunteer of their own volition. For example, Walter stated:

[...] in an absolute sense do I have to be doing it? No...um, and I don't feel unduly put upon to be doing it. It's sort of my own sense of what constitutes responsible use of my time, knowing what my goals are.

Here, Walter speaks about deciding to volunteer as a path to achieving his goal of finding paid teaching work. Matthew expressed a similar sentiment; however, he also felt that volunteering would give him an advantage over others who did not volunteer.

I have to try and do something. It's also me personally, just refusing to be complacent in the whole process. You have to make your own opportunities sometimes . . . you have to do something to separate yourself from the other people that are applying It's not like I'm just going to magically get a job with a sought-after board if I'm not doing anything.

This statement demonstrates that Matthew perceived volunteering as an access point because it was an activity that would differentiate him from others. Lucy was similar in her response, but saw it somewhat differently; not only would volunteering help her find work, but it may also reduce the competition for teaching positions to those who are willing to endure the process:

. . . having to go through this, and having to volunteer, and having to stick it out, is almost a good thing. To an extent. Because, I think it will weed out a lot of people who don't necessarily want to teach. And don't REALLY have the love to do it. It will weed out a lot of people who couldn't decide what they want to do, so eh, I will

go into teaching. So those people won't stick through the volunteering and the waiting and the frustrating part of it, they will just think, oh, I will go and do something else. So, to that end, I think a bit, it's good.

Lucy was clear that the situation was not ideal, but she hoped her genuine passion for teaching would separate her from others, and volunteering was one way to demonstrate that passion to those in hiring positions. In contrast, Jack was the only candidate who felt coerced into volunteering. He understood that if he really wanted to teach, he had to undertake activities beyond waiting for job postings to appear. He chose to volunteer because he did not have additional strategies to help separate him from the numerous other eligible candidates:

. . . I have to, because if I don't, my name isn't out there. And I don't have anybody on my side vouching for me . . . I hate it. I absolutely hate it. It's ridiculous. Name me another job where you get multiple degrees, you're certified to do the job, and then you have to volunteer your time to get a position . . . There is no good job where you have to do that, it's just ridiculous. It's stupid.

In this quotation, the social coercion that Jack feels to volunteer is evident. Although he expressed distaste at this way of accessing paid work in teaching, Jack, alongside the other candidates perceive that participating in volunteer work allows them to overcome the barrier of a labour surplus because it distinguishes them from other unemployed teachers who are not volunteering. When asked about how volunteering assists in this way, the participants discussed opportunities for networking, as well as strategies for navigating the interview process, which are discussed in the next section.

Perceptions: How Volunteering Assists with Access to Teaching

The majority of teachers in this study desired to obtain FTPC positions. However, they understood that accessing these work arrangements could only be accomplished by first getting hired onto a school board's occasional teaching list. Thus, the participants predominantly viewed access to teaching at the time of the interview as obtaining STO positions; and volunteering was their primary mode of accessing these lists. Volunteering was reported as a way to develop relationships and network to (1) improve one's chances of getting hired on to the local school board's supply list, and (2) secure occasional work days once hired. In addition, all of the teachers stated that volunteering would help them during the hiring process in terms through securing references and navigating the interview stage.

Development of professional networks. Developing professional networks was important to the participants in this study because they desired to be known to school administrators. The participants believed this alone may assist them with competing against a pool of other candidates whom the administrator did not know. In addition, the unemployed teachers in this study were aware that building a network of employed teachers may also assist them with acquiring supply days once hired. For example, although he disliked the concept of volunteering, Jack stated that he always put his best attitude forward and tried to get to know the teachers and administrators. He explained that he made a positive impression in the school where he volunteered:

[What I was] told by the head of the department and the principal was that [I was] up on her priority list . . . to get . . . on the supply list, so [I was] pretty confident at that

point that if the supply list opened . . . that there was a good chance [to get on] and even teaching the odd day here and there.

Even though his volunteer hours were minimal, Jack received affirmation that they were worth his time, as he was told that if the list opened, school administration would advocate for him. In addition, he had developed some relationships with teachers who stated that they would contact him to supply should he get hired. The other participants in this study made this point as well. Amanda stated:

And... every day I volunteer it seems like there is another teacher who says “oh, the list! It’s awful! We don’t have anyone we can go to! When are you going to get on that list?” . . . If the list opened, I’m very confident that I would get on it and be able to supply pretty quickly. I don’t think I’ll be the supply teacher that struggles.

What Amanda refers to here is an awareness that there are still challenges once hired, and her volunteer work will assist her in managing these new challenges. What is clear from her response, as well as from the responses of the other study participants, is that they are all aware of these challenges, and that this is an additional factor influencing their choice to volunteer. The teachers in this study did not discuss further strategies for accessing LTO and FTPC at the time of the interview, they were focused on obtaining STO work. As Walter stated:

... in order to even apply for LTOs and contracts in [local school board], you have to be on the supply list first. That seems so far away from where I am right now, that I don’t even think about [what to do to find a FTPC position]. One step at a time. Once I’m on the list, then I’ll concentrate on what I have to do to get a contract.

What Walter is referring to is the hiring process in his local school board, where access to FTPC teaching requires that one first be an occasional teacher. While this requirement may vary between districts, it was communicated by all participants in this study that this was also the case in each of their large, urban schools boards. As a result, these teachers were focusing their efforts on the hiring process for STO positions, which they were cognizant of during their volunteer work.

Navigating the hiring process. The participants communicated two primary ways that volunteer work assists them with navigating the STO hiring process. First, it helps them obtain references, and second, it helps them feel more confident with the interview stage because they have experiences in classrooms to talk about and have received some interview practice.

References seemed to be of importance to the unemployed teachers in this study. The participants spoke about obtaining references through their volunteer work, which were important to the hiring process. Matthew stated:

. . . . So if you spend the time doing this, and you can get a reference from the principal, then when they are hiring your chances should be better because you have been showing interest and donating your time when it's not required of you. So I would have to think that they would look kindly upon me when it came to the hiring process opening up.

In this quotation, Matthew states that he will obtain a positive reference because volunteering demonstrates his internal motivation to be a teacher. This, along with the written reference, is perceived to be of assistance to accessing the teaching profession in

Ontario. In addition, participants also discussed that volunteering allowed them to demonstrate their teaching knowledge and abilities, which would help with procuring references. Walter stated:

. . . and I know definitely that if I'm involved in a school community then, uh, and I'm impressing people with the volunteer work and teaching that I'm doing, then I have access to people who might provide references for me . . .

Here, Walter is confident that demonstrating his abilities in a school environment will expose him to others who will acknowledge his capability and provide a positive recommendation. References and recommendations seemed to be important to all candidates, and they hoped to let their volunteer work speak for itself. Also mentioned frequently by participants was how volunteering would assist them in the interview process.

For Lucy, her networking with administrators put in her a position where she was able to ask for an interview for a long-term occasional (LTO) position, even though she was not yet on the supply list. She described a situation in which the school was obligated to interview for a position where the result was a foregone conclusion, but speaks very highly of the experience:

. . . there was one job that became available in their science department when I was there, but it was an LTO position that has been filled by the same teacher for the past years, and they are required to re-post it. But, they are required also to interview for it, and they let me interview [after I asked]. Which was a *great* experience . . . the principal said to me, that I'm the kind of teacher she wants teaching her kids, they

wrote letters to the school board about me, they did everything to push and push to get me on the supply list . . .

Not only was Lucy able to gain some interview experience, but she was able to build her professional network by speaking directly with those responsible for hiring in the school she volunteered at, both of which may help in assisting her compete against others in the Ontario teacher labour market.

The experience Lucy described is a direct benefit to helping her navigate the interview process because it gave her explicit practice. For others, the benefit is more subtle. Margaret explained that:

. . . the new rule . . . is that there's no favoritism, no principals can call on your behalf, so your résumé now goes, your package goes in with everyone else's . . . I got passed over, so I didn't get an interview this time. So. I sit now, still doing volunteer work and now I just wait . . .

Although Margaret was aware her volunteer work would not help her obtain an interview, she spoke at length about how volunteering would help her stay connected to teaching and also gives her experiences to talk about should an interview arise:

[volunteering] is still helping me get a job. Because you can expect not to get called even once you are on the supply list. So it helps that way. And I'm in the school environment, which helps keep me current should I get another interview. I have lots of experiences to talk about because of that.

Volunteering assists Margaret by giving her access to a school context that she would not otherwise have due to her employment status. Margaret explained that she is able to find out relevant and timely information about what kind of initiatives are taking place in the school board because she is in regular communication with other teachers, as well as administrators, and enjoys engaging in casual conversations. In addition, she spoke about getting to know students and the school, which made her feel like a member of the school staff. Margaret spoke about how this confidence would also help her in an interview in the future, an aspect that Amanda, Walter, and Matthew also stated as a benefit of their experience. Overall, networking and obtaining strategies to assist in the hiring process seem to demonstrate that what volunteer work facilitates is a way to distinguish oneself amongst a vast number of candidates. While this is the primary way volunteering provides access to teaching, other strategies these unemployed teachers used also emerged from the interviews.

Other Strategies to Access Teaching

The thrust of this study was to explore the volunteer work of teachers. However, it became apparent throughout the interviews that volunteering was only one way, amongst many, that were perceived to help gain access to paid work as a teacher. Obtaining more formal education, related employment in teaching, and gaining paid experience through relocation were additional modes of access that were discussed.

Formal education. Four of the participants (Matthew, Walter, and Amanda, and Margaret) also spoke of enrolling in more AQ courses to help them gain access on to the supply list in addition to their volunteer work (see Chapter Six). While Amanda and Walter were already in graduate education programs, Matthew and Margaret also stated that they

were considering this for their future if they thought it would help them as the years went on and they were not successful in finding paid work.

Alternative teaching employment. Margaret stated that she had applied to the Education Assistant (EA) supply list at her local school board:

I've worked with EAs at all of the placements I taught, I know EAs and work beside them when I'm volunteering, I'm quite aware of their role, so I've got that as an option . . . hopefully making the right connections and somehow I can get an interview.

An EA in Ontario works in association with teachers to support students in a variety of ways. According to Teach in Ontario (n.d.) “[t]he duties of an Education Assistant may include such things as helping special needs students with individualized programming or assisting the teacher with classroom setup.” This idea came to Margaret as she felt powerless in many other ways; volunteering for many years without getting hired was beginning to seem unproductive. The oversupply of candidates leaves her with few options to assist her with finding paid teaching work. Options that other unemployed teachers used, such as relocation, were not available to her due to her role as primary caregiver in her family and the constraints of her other work commitments.

Four candidates also spoke of tutoring arrangements, both with families in the home as well as within private learning centers. These arrangements assisted the unemployed teachers financially, provided opportunities to use professional knowledge and skills during their period of unemployment, as well as connected them to classroom teachers and curriculum.

Relocation to gain paid experience. Matthew mentioned that he would relocate overseas to teach temporarily.

If that's the thing that it takes, and that's the thing that I'm lacking, and I'm constantly being looked over because I don't have practical teaching experience, well then, I have to go and get practical teaching experience, that's just the beginning and end of it.

Matthew was clear in his statement that he would only teach elsewhere if the paid experience would eventually assist him in finding a position in the school board of his choice in Ontario. However, at this point, he does not feel as though that is the case, and that staying in one area, dedicating his efforts to one school community, seems to be the best strategy in order to compete with a large number of other applicants. This was the sentiment amongst all participants in this study.

Focusing efforts within a single community. All of the participants decided that the best strategy to access paid teaching was to find a school community and focus their efforts within it. In this sense, they feel as though they are limiting the competition for paid employment to only those involved in that school community. For example, Jack stated:

We're not 100% set on here, southern Ontario, we will happily move anywhere else, but then, it just seems like, the teaching profession, or the way it's set up, that's not an actual option. Like, in order for us to move somewhere to teach we either have to pick a place, move there, and then find a job, you can't really get a job and then move there because no one knows you . . . we'd have to leave and do the whole

thing over again. Leave, set up shop, which requires money, and then you need to survive, so you need an income of some sort, and volunteer in order to get in there.

Here, Jack perceives relocating as a set-back. Generally, the unemployed volunteer teachers in this study felt this way; overall, it seems as though volunteering is considered the best strategy under their control that they are able to use in order to access the paid teaching profession. In this way, they are able to differentiate themselves amongst a large number of faceless candidates, and make themselves known to those in a specific school community who are in the position to hire. It is important to note that all of the participants felt that they were doing all they could to help themselves by committing to volunteer work and putting other aspects of their life on hold. Universally, they called on provincial bodies (universities, teacher federations, the Ministry of Education) to help them access the teaching profession.

Volunteering as Insufficient: Who Will Help?

Although the teachers in this study point to volunteering as the way to help them access the profession, all of the participants mentioned circumstances beyond their control that they perceived needed to be addressed in order to help them find paid work. Primarily, they communicated that they required some intervention to reduce the number of teachers that they are competing with for jobs, to increase the number of available positions, or provide viable alternatives for employment. Jack called on teacher certification programs to reduce enrolment:

They have to do something to fix it. There has to be something that can be done.

What are [new teachers] going to be prepared for, if there are all these teachers

already giving up all of their time and getting all of this experience... then what will they do?

While this was a general sentiment expressed by the participants, there was also frustration that many find paid teaching work through nepotism. Lucy expressed that she felt something had to be done regarding individuals who get positions in this way.

... the people who are getting jobs are people with connections. If you know somebody, then you can get the job. And just because you know somebody, it doesn't make you the most qualified teacher, and I think that that's awful.

Something has to be done.

This idea that "something has to be done" was apparent from the interviews. For Lucy, she wanted stricter rules to prohibit nepotism. For Margaret, she wanted acknowledgement that there was a problem, and called on the Ontario College of Teachers to work in collaboration with Bachelor of Education programs to find a solution.

Obviously you want to maintain a high pool of excellent teachers but you cannot have too many like they do right now. What are they going to do with [thousands of teachers] - are they waiting for us to go away and all of a sudden they don't have a problem anymore! It's a reality! They [universities and the Ontario College of Teachers] have got to deal with it.

These were the sentiments expressed most vehemently during the interviews. The participants felt as though they were taking steps to help themselves access paid work, but in some senses, they felt it futile at times given the numerous other teachers who were competing for a small number of spots. When asked how long they would continue to

volunteer, the participants were conflicted in their answers. None of the participants wanted to give up on teaching, but they all acknowledged that if their period of unemployment went on for years, it would have to be considered. Jack stated:

If it's not working, there's going to have to be a change sooner or later... it's when it's not working for the family. I eventually want to have the family. Hopefully not too far off, cause I'm getting up there in age. I don't see myself volunteering if I have kids at home. I'm going to have to somehow bring money home to pay for diapers and formula and this and that, so... that [pursuing teaching] would have to stop.

For Jack, future family considerations were at the center of his conflicted attitude toward pursuing teaching indefinitely. This was a typical response of the younger teachers, who spoke about practical financial considerations they must weigh when deciding about their future in teaching. For the time being, choosing to volunteer is a lifestyle choice that they have made in order to commit and pursue teaching; however, all of the younger teachers acknowledged it would not be tenable in the future. Thus, while volunteering is currently perceived to help provide access to teaching in the competitive employment market, it is important to note that these teachers will not continue to pursue teaching over the long-term if this mode of access is not fruitful, or possibly if there is no effort on within the province to assist those in the saturated employment market.

Chapter Summary

This chapter demonstrated that volunteering was undertaken as a personal choice, informed by others, to access the teaching profession by standing out amongst many other unemployed teachers. Specifically, volunteering provides access to the profession by helping the unemployed teachers to build their professional networks. These networks are

valuable in two ways: first, by helping them find a school community that will advocate for their application should job opportunities present themselves, and by building relationships with teachers who will give them supply days should they get on the list. In addition, volunteering assist with acute components of the hiring process, such as obtaining references and navigating the interview phase. Although volunteering is the primary strategy the teachers in this study have chosen to access paid work, they also mentioned more formal education, other work in education, and relocation as additional tactics that they have considered. Finally, the teachers in this study also feel as though regulatory bodies, such as the Ministry of Education and the Ontario College of Teachers, as well teacher federations and universities should try help them and others in their position to gain access by taking overt action to correct the imbalance between the number of candidates and the number of teaching positions, or provide other assistance to help them access teaching work.

Understanding access from the teacher's perspective demonstrates that the narrow view of access to professions literature (that is, access as obtaining credentials) is expanded. All of the teachers in this study possess credentials, and yet have spent years of their lives attempting to access paid work in teaching, thwarted because of a labour surplus. This barrier inspired strategies such as volunteer work, to access teaching. However, the teachers in this study perceive that they are doing their part, and cannot continue to navigate this barrier without some sort of assistance from others in the province. Eventually, this barrier will push these committed, motivated teachers out of the profession.

The following chapter takes this notion of access, which emerged as a central issue for all participants, and brings it together with the other three findings chapters, in order to

comprise a cohesive discussion regarding the primary research question: how do newly-certified, unemployed teachers understand their volunteer work?

Chapter Eight: Discussion

In exploring the volunteer experiences of newly-certified, unemployed teachers, I came to realize how complex the phenomenon is. The interview data revealed that the volunteer work for this group is heterogeneous in nature and influenced by individual context. Indeed, current models of volunteer work are insufficient for capturing the unique nature of this type of work. This chapter begins by answering the primary research question (*how do newly certified, unemployed teachers understand their volunteer work in schools?*) followed by a discussion about the nature of learning that flows from having answered this question. I will demonstrate that the heterogeneity found in these teachers' understanding of their volunteer work corresponds with heterogeneity of learning processes and outcomes. I then discuss how conceptualizing teacher volunteer work helps fill in a gap in the access to professions literature. Next, I bring these two ideas together to advocate for the identification of a new volunteer profile, which is necessary for continued research.

How Do Newly-Certified, Unemployed Teachers Understand Their Volunteer Work in Schools?

The intention of asking this primary research question was to explore how teacher volunteers conceived of their volunteer work; that is, did they understand it in terms of standard models of volunteering, or in terms of access to the labour market? What emerged from the interview data is that the volunteer teachers understood their volunteer work in different ways; that is, they are a heterogeneous group. Four of the six teachers in this study invoked elements of standard models of volunteering alongside their notion of volunteering as providing access to the labour market; the other two teachers understood their volunteer work *only* as providing access. These two varying perspectives seemed to

emerge out of a difference in context, suggesting that context matters when trying to elucidate how these teachers understand their volunteer work. Two components of context appeared to be of particular significance: having previously paid teaching experience, as well as previously established relationships in a school community.

Context matters: Experience vs. inexperience. Having previous paid work in teaching affected how the participants in this study understood their volunteer work. Those who were *inexperienced* in teaching spoke at great lengths about the peripheral benefits of their volunteer work: they reported that volunteering was important to their lives; provided a sense of giving back to the community as Amanda, Walter, Matthew, and Margaret discussed in Chapter Four; was a way to stay connected to schools and students, as Margaret discussed in Chapter Seven; and was integral to their learning about teaching as was extensively demonstrated in Chapter Six. Many of these concepts are consistent with the typologies of volunteers put forward by Ilsley (1990) who discussed commitment to an organization, learning, and psychological benefits as elements of volunteer work. In addition, consistent with Cnaan et al. (1996) these participants understood that they were volunteering of their own free will, without remuneration, within a formal structure, and to benefit others (as well as themselves). Furthermore, as this study has demonstrated, they also understand their volunteer work as assisting them with accessing the teaching profession. Thus, these *inexperienced* teacher volunteers understand their volunteer work in diverse ways. This stands in opposition to the *experienced* teachers who approached their volunteer work from a fundamentally different perspective, where additional reasons for volunteering, such as giving back to the community, were not primary considerations.

These teachers perceived their volunteer work only as a means of providing access to teaching.

It would be easy to point to experience and inexperience as the sole reason why this group of teachers is heterogeneous in their understanding of their volunteer work. However, reflecting on Lucy's case, I realized there must be another factor involved. Lucy, who had previous paid experience, initially approached her volunteer work in terms of access only. She had several volunteer placements that were devoid of meaning before she settled into one that she was satisfied with. Lucy found herself increasingly connected to the school community and engaged with the experience beyond only a mode of finding paid work. The difference for Lucy in the third placement was a pre-existing relationship that assisted her in developing additional meaningful connections once she began volunteering. Pre-existing relationships were also present for those who had a more diverse understanding of their volunteer work.

Context matters: Pre-existing relationships. Having pre-existing relationships seemed to facilitate the understanding of the volunteer experience as more than as a mode of access. Those who obtained volunteer work through a previously known acquaintance (Amanda, Margaret, Matthew, Walter) consistently had more opportunities within the volunteer arrangement than those who did not, most likely as a result of these relationships facilitating informal mentoring relationships. The informal mentors acted as a support system by introducing the volunteer teachers to others (such as when Walter discussed what his cooperating teacher did in Chapter Five when speaking about how he helped with a diversity of activities in the school), advocating for them to take part in school activities (such as what Matthew and Walter described in Chapter Five when they participated in

professional development), collaborating on classroom and extra-curricular activities (as described in Chapter Five by these four participants), and advising them on job search strategies (as Amanda discussed receiving assistance with her résumé in Chapter Seven). These relationships connected the volunteer teachers to their volunteer experience in a way that was lacking for those who did not have such relationships (described in the section Informal Mentoring Relationships in Chapter Five); that is, the relationships facilitated a consistent and coherent experience that took place over weeks, months, and even years, rather than disconnected instances and short-lived arrangements that were relatively less meaningful. As a result, the volunteer teachers became known to many parties within the school, and became more integrated into the school environment. Necessarily, these relationships influenced how teacher-volunteers understand their volunteer work, as relationships seem to be the difference between an engaged and an unengaged experience. Even Lucy (who stated her primary reason for volunteering was for access) discussed understanding her work as giving back in some senses, but only when she felt connected to a particular school, which was ultimately facilitated by a pre-existing relationship.

Overall, the question of how these newly-certified, unemployed teachers understand their volunteer work is answered in part by realizing that the group is heterogeneous, and this heterogeneity is explained largely by differing contexts. Some teacher-volunteers understand their volunteer work as multi-faceted, and others see it as simply a mode of access, with the classic hallmarks of volunteer work (such as giving back) absent from their conceptualization. Having previously paid work in teaching as well as a pre-existing relationship within the school community seem to make a difference in these perceptions. This is represented in Figure 1, for illustrative purposes.

Figure 1

Context Matters: How Newly-Certified, Unemployed Teachers Understand Their Volunteer Work in Schools

Relationships	Experience	
	Experience	Inexperience
No pre-existing relationships	Volunteering perceived narrowly; as only an access point. <i>Example:</i> Jack; Lucy's first two volunteer arrangements.	-unknown-
Pre-existing relationships	Volunteering perceived mostly as an access point; other facets considered <i>Example:</i> Lucy's third volunteer arrangement.	Volunteering perceived as multi-faceted; as giving back, contributing to learning, and as an access point. <i>Example:</i> Amanda, Margaret, Matthew, Walter.

When viewing Figure 1, it is important to understand that no individual from my participant pool volunteered when they had no experience, and no pre-existing relationship within a school community. This represents a gap in my study, and warrants further exploration. It is possible that this particular context does not facilitate volunteer work easily, and might represent a small proportion, or a marginalized group, within this population of volunteers. In addition, this idea of the pre-existing relationship playing a role in the experience of volunteer work may be related to having more social capital (Lin, 1999).

The idea of social capital has emerged several times throughout the findings. Not only do pre-existing relationships indicate the importance of social networks in the context of developing school connectedness in volunteerism, but the concept also emerged in Chapter Seven when Lucy identified nepotism as a mechanism that has facilitated the entry of others into the profession. That is, those with contacts and connections already in the

school system (such as family members) may have avenues into the profession that others can only build through activities such as volunteering, indicating the value of social capital to these individuals. The concept emerged yet again in Chapter Five, when the participants in my study discussed having increased school connectedness and thus more positive experiences when they had a previously known connection within the school. These connections increased the participants likelihood of being engaged in more activities within the school, and thus have more opportunities for learning, as well as building further relationships in the school setting. Overall, although the idea of social capital was not initially included in the literature review and conceptual framework of this study, the phenomenon has emerged several times throughout the findings, indicating that it may play a more significant role than originally considered. These ideas will be re-visited in Areas of Future Research section included in the following chapter.

The importance of these divergent understandings of volunteer work is found when exploring the learning outcomes of this group of teachers. The differences between the two groups in their perceptions of the learning processes and outcomes stood in stark contrast to one another, which I posit is a direct result of the difference in how the two groups understand their volunteer work, as just described.

What Do Newly Certified, Unemployed Teachers Learn From Volunteering?

As in the previous section, the teachers in this study were also heterogeneous when it came to learning. This is to be expected as Schugurensky and Mundel (2005) predict it when they posit, “the existence of a diversity of motivating factors for doing volunteer work presupposes, at least as a hypothesis, a diversity of learning experiences” (p. 9). In this study, that hypothesis was confirmed: those who had a diverse understanding of their

volunteer work (inexperienced teachers) were different in their learning from those who only perceived it as an access strategy (experienced teachers).

Heterogeneity in learning. Inexperienced teachers discussed informal learning as a primary part of their volunteer day, and often sought out opportunities for informal learning beyond the day itself. They were able to identify many areas of learning, as well as recognize that they were building their professional practice simultaneously with their volunteer work. The experienced teachers did not discuss extensive learning akin to the other group, although some learning about the work environment was present, such as when Jack described feeling more comfortable in an Ontario classroom in Chapter Six. Here, the line is blurred when categorizing *volunteer-related* learning and *work-related* learning, which can be through work, about work, and for work (Huddleston & Oh, 2004). Although the two groups of volunteers differed in what they learned, all of them learned either for or about teaching work *through* their volunteer experience: Amanda, Matthew, Margaret and Walter spoke more about learning about how to teach (learning *for* work); whereas Jack and Lucy spoke more about learning about the Ontario Curriculum and learning about navigating the hiring process (learning *about* work). Thus, the fact that the site of volunteer work is the same as the site of future paid work is important to understanding learning in this context: work-related learning is present.

It stands to reason that understanding volunteer work in a particular way is related to what the volunteer attends to during the volunteer work itself, resulting in different kinds of learning. That is, as Schugurensky and Mundel (2005) concisely posit: “what volunteers learn is closely connected to the type of activities they undertake, and this is largely connected to why they decided to volunteer in the first place” (p. 9). Those who have a

broader understanding of their volunteer work (informed by their amount of experience and pre-existing relationships) are also attending to the proceedings within the volunteer experience more broadly. For example, attention to pedagogy, classroom management, operation of a classroom, and the behaviour of the classroom teachers was considered thoroughly for these teachers, as evidenced by Matthew and Margaret in Chapter Six when they spoke about becoming better teachers through their volunteer work. In contrast, those volunteering only for access attended to a much narrower view of the experience, concentrating specifically on activities and behaviours that would help them with their job search, such as when Lucy asked for a mock-interview (Chapter Seven). While differing understandings is one factor that explains divergent learning processes and outcomes, an additional factor, discretion within the experience, may also be involved, and could help explain the difference between the two groups.

Discretion as a factor in learning. Differences in learning may also be attributed to the amount of discretion the volunteer teachers in this study have in their volunteer arrangement. Livingstone (2000) found that “the more discretionary the work, the more intensive is the learning” (p. 502) in reference to paid and unpaid work. For all participants, engaging in volunteer work was technically discretionary, as they chose whether or not to volunteer in the first place, and had control over their own volunteer schedule. However, some participants were given more discretion than others *within* their volunteer arrangement, corresponding to those who had previously existing relationships and informal mentors. For these individuals, the volunteer work was more of a negotiation and a partnership that permitted them the autonomy to choose, in some cases, how their volunteer experience played out, allowing them to develop their weaknesses and build on

their strengths, such as when Matthew described practicing in a safe environment in Chapter Six. Having this kind of discretion corresponded to a rich informal learning experience for Amanda, Matthew, Margaret, and Walter. For those without the discretion (Jack, and Lucy's first two volunteer arrangements), opportunities for learning were limited.

Learning: Emerging professional practice? In terms of learning, inexperienced teachers emphasized learning about teaching, revealing it as a substantial and noteworthy part of this investigation. This is important to consider given the emphasis from authors such as Schugurensky (2000) and Ilsley (1990) that understanding the learning component of volunteer work should be given more attention than investigators have previously afforded it when studying volunteer work. Thus, this section will discuss how the volunteer-related learning of inexperienced teachers (which emphasized learning *for* work) may be related to the development of their professional teaching practice.

As seen in Chapter Two, McNally et al. (2008) assert that the formation of a *teacher identity* characterizes the first few years of teacher development: “there is a clear case for equating learning to teach with forming an identity as a teacher” (p. 5). This identity formation is relational and emotional, and informal learning is central to this process (McNally et al., 2008). It is possible that the unemployed, inexperienced teachers in the current study may be further developing their teacher identities through their volunteer work, thus facilitating their teacher development (recall that Amanda, Margaret, Matthew, and Walter all stated in Chapter Six that volunteering helped them feel more like teachers than they did after their initial teacher education). This is made possible because the volunteer work takes place at the site of future paid work, and the cooperating teachers

have worked in partnership with the volunteer teacher to create a meaningful volunteer arrangement that permits the use of professional knowledge and skills acquired from formal teacher education.

The development can be seen in Chapter Five and Six, where the four inexperienced teachers discussed feeling more confident and competent in their personal teaching practice as they engaged in volunteer work in schools. In addition, they also exhibit signs of the more explicit, cognitive considerations of learning to teach (such as when Matthew spoke about explicitly working on his weaknesses when volunteering in Chapter Six) which McNally et al. (2008) include as an early stage of teacher development. In addition, McNally, Blake, and Reid (2009) point out that "...[i]t is the feeling of being supported, rather than the acquisition of specified bits of professional knowledge, that seems to matter most [to beginning teachers]" (p. 326), and Eraut (2004) states that *informal support from people on the spot* is more important than formally-appointed mentors for professional development of beginning workers. The informal mentors of the inexperienced teachers in this study played a large part in supporting the volunteer teacher, and allowed them to develop their own teacher identity, away from the evaluation pressure of practice teaching (Valencia, et al., 2009), as seen in Chapter Four, when Walter described an important part of volunteering was that the "evaluation piece has been removed." This aspect of the volunteer work – some personal autonomy in how one chooses to carry out various tasks related to teaching – may facilitate the development of a personal teacher identity, as inexperienced teachers are given more freedom to experiment and work in ways complementary to the classroom teacher than was given in their practice teaching sessions.

I acknowledge the volunteer work described by the teachers in this study is not analogous to the experience that would be gained in the first year of a regular teaching position; there are many aspects of teaching practice that the teachers do not do, and do not have to consider in their volunteer work. However, there are aspects of the volunteer experience that differ from practice teaching, such as giving the volunteers a more cohesive view of the work of a teacher when strong, informal mentoring relationships are present. The volunteers spent extended time in classrooms, from the beginning of a school year to the end, and developed long-standing relationships with others (teachers, students, staff, and administrators). These are experiences not possible in the current structure of practice teaching in Ontario, which is typically composed of punctuated experiences with short-term objectives. Having this longer-term orientation and the opportunity to practice more autonomously, which results in a great deal of informal learning about teaching, seems to contribute to the development of a personal professional practice that is sometimes lost in practice teaching sessions (Valencia et al., 2009).

Overall, what volunteer teachers learn from their experience is dependent on how they understand their volunteer work, as well as the amount of discretion they have within their volunteer arrangement. For inexperienced teachers, there is a great deal of informal learning that takes place, which may be evidence of the development of a teacher identity, beyond formal teacher education. This is consistent with the growing body of literature (Lerner & Schugurensky, 2006; Livingstone, 2001a; Mundel & Schugurensky 2005; Mundel, Duguid & Schugurensky, 2004; Schugurensky 2006; Schugurensky & Mundel 2005; Schugurensky & Myers, 2008; Schugurensky, Slade, & Luo 2005; Slade, Luo & Schugurensky 2005) that finds incidental, informal learning to be closely associated with

volunteer activities. In particular, this study indicates that volunteer work that takes place at the site of future paid work presents a predominantly rich environment for learning when the volunteer does not possess previously paid experience in the field. For those with previous experience and limited discretion over their volunteer activities, the learning is much more limited, however, it is still present in the form of learning about the work environment as well as strategies for navigating the hiring process. This form of learning, while central to the experienced teachers, was present for all participants, thus indicating that learning how to access the profession is of central importance to this type of volunteer work, and is to where this discussion will now turn its focus.

Volunteering as Access to the Teaching Profession

This study describes just one example – teachers – that represents a larger group of volunteers who volunteer to compete in the labour market against other qualified individuals. These volunteers, who volunteer at the site of future paid work, are going to be found amongst the 23 per cent of all volunteers who report volunteering to improve their job opportunities (Statistics Canada, 2009). The number may be substantial, as that rate grows to 40 per cent for those who are unemployed (from the National Survey of Learning and Work, see Chapter Four). While the exact prevalence is unknown, it is the reality for, at a minimum, thousands of unemployed teachers in Ontario, who act as representatives for this group.

The critical question that is of central importance remains: is volunteering a viable strategy to access the profession? The answer is important to the thousands who find themselves in this particular situation, and it seems the answer is not definitive in either direction. According to the National Survey of Learning and Work, 25.4 per cent of those

employed and 37.5 per cent of those unemployed perceived their volunteer work as very helpful or fairly helpful (see Chapter Four) in finding or changing jobs, certainly not an overwhelmingly positive response. In addition, the teachers in this study report the belief that volunteering will prove to have been crucial once they find paid work, even though they have not yet been able to do so. However, the *Transition to Teaching* report (OCT, 2012) does report a 10 per cent difference in the unemployment rates for those who volunteered compared to those who did not. This study may provide insight in to some of the reasons for this difference: those who volunteer are able to network, obtain further experience, and navigate the hiring process effectively. For example, from the interview data, the specific mechanisms that are perceived to help with access to this labour market include: making oneself known to those involved in the hiring process within a specific school community, such as when Lucy was able to engage in a mock-interview; demonstrating during an interview that one has stayed connected and up-to-date in their teaching practice through volunteering, as Margaret discussed in Chapter Seven; and obtaining references by demonstrating motivation as well as professional knowledge and skills as Andrew and Walter discussed in the previous chapter. In addition, the learning opportunities presented through volunteer-related learning as detailed in Chapter Six may lead to a more competent teaching practice for inexperienced teachers, and this may be evident to interviewers when hiring new teachers. While volunteering is not a guarantee of future employment, it remains a perceived mode of overcoming the barriers associated with contending in an intensely competitive labour market, and does appear to have the intended outcomes for some, possibly due to the mechanisms described here.

However, there still remains the glaring fact that through no fault of their own, the newly-certified, unemployed teachers in this study have not been able to access their profession, even after as long as three years for one participant. All of the study participants (each of whom state they will volunteer into the future for at least a few more years) perceive that if they continue to volunteer they will be successful and gain access to supply work, and then work their way towards long-term occasional contracts and eventual full-time permanent work (except for Margaret, who desired to remain a short-term occasional teacher). However, there is an inherent challenge to this assumption, and that is there are simply not enough available positions for every candidate. Even if only those who volunteered in order to gain access found positions, there would still be hundreds remaining for whom there would be no work. In the class of 2010, about 5,500 individuals volunteered in schools, and only 4,600 positions became available (OCT, 2012). Of course, those who are finding paid work are not limited to only those who volunteered. In the end, while volunteering is one strategy to find teaching work that seems to make a difference for some candidates, it cannot be the answer for all. The implications of this idea will be further explored in the following chapter.

Overall, examining the case of newly-certified, unemployed teachers in Ontario has provided several insights not only into volunteer teachers themselves, but also to the broader concept of this type of volunteer work.

Contribution to the Literature: The Access Volunteer

This study has the added benefit of providing insight into another volunteer profile present in the contemporary Canadian volunteer landscape. In Chapter One, I stated that the problem with researching teacher volunteer work is that neither body of literature on

teacher labour markets, or volunteering was particularly helpful in gaining insight into the phenomenon. I stated that this form of volunteering in a saturated labour market exists in a “grey area” between paid work and volunteer work, and that exploring how unemployed teachers understand this volunteer work would be helpful in filling in this gap in the literature. As seen in Chapter Two, the framework provided by Schugurensky and Mundel (2005) is also insufficient. By examining the nature of the volunteer work, volunteer-related learning, and access issues of the newly-certified unemployed teacher, this study can suggest a preliminary profile that can be further explored and refined.

Place in the current typology. This new profile falls under the *intern* volunteer “who works in unpaid or poorly paid capacity in order to gain entry into a particular segment of the labour market” (Schugurnesky & Mundel, p. 8). The current conceptualization of the intern volunteer involves two sub-categories (*junior* and *senior*) that describe ways an individual can utilize volunteering in order to gain access to paid work either by gaining experience or obtaining Canadian credentials. However, the volunteer in this study is not volunteering explicitly to gain experience (although this may be an added benefit) as in the case of junior intern volunteer, and is not volunteering to have previously obtained credentials recognized, as in the case of the senior intern volunteer. This intern volunteer undertakes volunteer work at the site of future paid work expressly to compete in the labour market. They do so by networking, obtaining references, and staying current in their professional practice, thus requiring a third sub-category under the intern volunteer profile.

Naming the profile: Access Volunteer. A logical name for this intern volunteer seems to be the “Access Volunteer.” As described in the conceptual framework, access as a

verb means, “to approach or enter.” Thus, the Access Volunteer specifically intends their volunteer work as a means to approach or enter the paid labour market in which they are volunteering. While the other volunteers described under the category *intern* are also using volunteering as a form of access, the volunteer work has an explicit alternative purpose (gaining experience or credentials). The Access Volunteers do not; they are using their volunteer work to compete with other qualified candidates for access to paid labour. They experience some factor beyond their control, such as a labour surplus, in their search for paid work in their field.

Preliminary description of the Access Volunteer. Data from the National Survey of Learning and Work as well as general themes from the interview data are helpful in the preliminary construction of a new profile within the typology suggested by Schugurensky and Mundel (2005). The authors themselves note that the current profiles suggested under this typology need to be further refined. The intention of this section is not to provide a comprehensive and definitive description of this profile; however, this study does provide some preliminary insights.

The nature of volunteering. I posit that the volunteering for this type of volunteer is at the site of future paid work, or in a very similar setting, as the networking and relationship-building aspects are of particular importance when competing with a large number of qualified others for paid work. In addition, it was seen in the NSLW that unemployed volunteers tend to volunteer more on average than others, and the teachers in this study volunteered even more still. Thus, it is possible that this type of volunteer work has precedence within the volunteer’s personal schedule until paid work in the field is found, as was seen in Chapter Four and Five, when participants described how they

maneuvered their schedules and took on part-time work in order to facilitate volunteering. This is not to say that teachers do not continue to volunteer (indeed, quite the opposite; see Smaller, 2005 for example); rather, it indicates that Access Volunteer work is likely seen as transitory.

In addition, the reasons for volunteering may or may not be dichotomous. The data from the NSLW demonstrated that those who were unemployed and volunteering were more likely to report dual reasons for volunteering (giving back to the community as well as providing job opportunities), as did some of the teachers in this study. This depends on the individual context of the volunteer, where previous paid experience and pre-existing relationships matter. There may be other elements of context at work; however, my sample was too small to state anything further with confidence. In addition, tension of emotions also seems to be a hallmark of this type of volunteer because of the hope and peril (Kahne, 1992; Kalleberg, 2000) innately associated with the situation. That is, the volunteers are hopeful that they are doing the right thing by volunteering to gain access, and are connected to the aspects of work that they enjoy (for example, having contact with students and teaching) but to a certain extent, are powerless to affect many of the external factors that led them to volunteer in the first place. As described earlier, understanding the reasons for volunteer work helps to explain the learning that also may result. The heterogeneous nature of volunteers in this group also explains a heterogeneity that may exist in describing the learning of this type of volunteer.

Learning from volunteering. What is interesting about the volunteer-related learning associated with the Access Volunteer is that it can also be described as work-related learning. Some individuals demonstrated extensive volunteer-related informal

learning related to their profession, following the pattern seen from the NSW where unemployed individuals consistently reported informal learning across a wide range of areas (such as organizational skills, interpersonal skills, computer skills as seen in Chapter Four). Other individuals demonstrated volunteer-related learning to a lesser extent, but were more focused on the aspects of finding work. While all volunteers in this group seem to learn about work, specifically strategies regarding how to access it, there is a subset of others who can benefit by gaining professional skills and knowledge. Both of these learning outcomes are a direct result of the site of volunteering. Because the volunteer is at a location where they may one day engage in paid work, all of the information around them becomes more relevant, opportunities for learning present themselves more readily, and are often suited to the individual purposes for volunteering in the first place.

As stated numerous times, a uniting purpose for all volunteers in this newly identified profile, is that they are volunteering for access to their profession (even if other reasons are also involved). This notion of access is the key concept in this new profile, which I will explain next.

Volunteering as providing access. The notion of access is the defining aspect of this volunteer profile. The volunteer work itself is a strategy to overcome the barrier of an oversupply of labour in the market. Without this barrier acting on these volunteers, this type of volunteer work would not exist; it would either correspond to that of the junior or senior intern volunteer who face different barriers altogether. Thus, the presence of these volunteers in the contemporary volunteer landscape is symptomatic of broad demographic, educational and economic issues, which are beyond the scope of this study and might vary across professions that see a rise in this type of volunteer work by its members.

While the reasons why the barrier exists may be variable across professions, this study has provided insight into what access looks like within this type of volunteering, and thus any given Access Volunteer may engage in the development of professional networks as well as learning about navigating the hiring process as the participants described the previous chapter. Furthermore, the hope and peril described within the first part of this profile is further entrenched given the realities associated with the existence of this barrier. The access to professions literature provides a narrow definition of access which concerns the accreditation process, and the barriers associated with it (Walker, 2005; Walters, 2006;. Wayland & Goldberg, 2009); that is, the inclusion and exclusion from professional practices based on social closure and cultural capital (Türegün, 2008). This conceptualization explains the volunteer work in terms of access of the junior and senior intern volunteer (who are volunteering to gain more experience and have previously obtained credentials recognized respectively) but does not encapsulate the experience of the Access Volunteer. This investigation expands on this concept of access to professions (obtaining paid work once accredited) and the specific barrier of an oversupply of professional labour.

This study can only describe this challenge as a part of the existence of the Access Volunteer, exposing a further gap in the literature and a need for more work in the area. Implications will be discussed in the concluding chapter.

Limitations of this profile as presented. There are many obvious limitations with the current description provided here for the Access Volunteer. Firstly, while the National Survey of Learning and Work can be helpful by guiding several key assumptions, the variable of employment status is not precisely indicative of the type of volunteer work I

wish to describe; that is, while the respondents are unemployed and volunteer, the site of volunteer work is unknown. In addition, the qualitative data used to guide the description of this profile only uses a small subset of teachers. Other professions, and a larger sample, would provide additional, more credible information about this type of volunteer work. In addition, volunteers with higher levels of cultural and social capital (Bourdieu, 1986) are more likely to be placed in more intellectually demanding roles and functions; thus the question remains - do volunteers with different social attributes find themselves with these kinds of volunteer roles in schools?

Contribution of identifying this group. Identifying this profile is important in a number of ways. First, it helps complete the picture of the 23 per cent of Canadian volunteers who volunteer to improve job opportunities. Schugurensky and Mundel (2005) have already identified the junior and senior intern volunteer who have a distinct context for their volunteer work, so adding this profile captures the experience of an additional subset. Furthermore, by describing this type of volunteer, one that is likely on the rise (at least, in teaching), this type of volunteer work can be further studied and understood to identify the unique issues and challenges associated with it, both for organizations and for volunteers. Finally, high-lighting the existence of this profile in the contemporary Canadian volunteer landscape draws attention to the broader demographic, educational, and economic factors that have contributed to its growth as a phenomenon, and thus draws attention to broad policy initiatives that require consideration. These ideas will be discussed further in Chapter Nine.

Chapter Summary

This chapter intended to make meaning out of the preceding findings presented in Chapters Four through Seven. Contributions to conceptualizing how volunteer teachers specifically understand their volunteer work, their learning, as well as providing a starting place for describing a type of volunteer currently left out of the literature were described. The next chapter will provide implications for this discussion in terms of theory, policy, practice, as well as discuss the limitations of the study and areas of future research.

Chapter Nine: Conclusion

This study began as simple curiosity about what was happening during the volunteer work of newly-certified, unemployed teachers. At the time, I thought it would be a narrowly-defined summary of the tasks that were carried out, and would demonstrate that their volunteer work was more than just networking. By slowly and methodically reading about teacher labour markets and volunteer work, I began to realize that studying the volunteer work of these teachers has much more value than simply describing tasks. Investigating this phenomenon using a mixed-methods approach not only illuminates the specific phenomenon of unemployed teachers volunteering in schools, it provides further insight into adult learning associated with a specific type of volunteer work, as well as the nature of this kind of volunteer work itself in the context of access to professions. This chapter concludes this thesis by summarizing the research sub-questions, discussing the significance for theory in terms of adult education and volunteer categorizations, providing some implications for policy and practice, and finally by discussing the limitations of the study and prospects for future research.

The Research Sub-Questions

The research sub-questions probed how participants understood their volunteer work.

1. What is the nature of the volunteering in schools for newly certified, unemployed teachers?
2. What do unemployed teachers learn from volunteering?
3. How, if at all, does volunteering assist unemployed teachers with access to teaching?

What is the nature of the volunteering in schools for newly certified, unemployed teachers? Chapters Four and Five outlined some of the basic features of this type of

volunteer work for a small sample of teachers that no source, including the *Transition to Teaching* report, has yet examined. The newly-certified, unemployed teachers in this study volunteer more per week than the average Canadian volunteer. During this time, they are engaged in wide variety of tasks from supervision and observation to lesson planning and teaching, with some differences between the elementary and secondary teachers. The teachers in this study reported being well-respected in the schools they were in, and some developed informal mentoring relationships within the school setting. Having a pre-existing relationship (such as former practicum supervisor, previous mentor, or family friend) appeared to facilitate more engaging, cooperative volunteer experiences. Inherent in this type of volunteer work was an internal conflict of emotions, where positive and negative feelings about the experience emerged. Finally, these volunteers tended to have non-standard employment arrangements and financial insecurity because they worked their other commitments around volunteering.

What do unemployed teachers learn from volunteering? Chapter Six

demonstrated teachers differed in their learning based on whether or not they had prior paid experience. Newly-graduated (and thus inexperienced) teachers spoke in detail about learning professional knowledge and skills through volunteer-related informal learning. Experienced teachers spoke less about volunteer-related informal learning, but did report some in relation to learning about the work environment and the hiring process. This learning about the hiring process was present for all participants in the study.

How, if at all, does volunteering assist unemployed teachers with access to teaching? Chapter Seven exhibited how the teachers in this study perceived volunteering as helping them gain access to teaching by distinguishing themselves from other candidates.

They did so by developing their professional networks, and gaining strategies to help them through the hiring process, through making good impressions on others to gain references and learn interview strategies. The teachers in this study also used other modes of access, in conjunction with volunteering, that they perceived helped them to gain access. Finally, the participants were very clear that at this point, they were doing all they could to help themselves to gain access, and were looking to the regulatory bodies in the province to help them.

Significance for Theory

There are two primary areas where this study may inform theory: adult learning literature and the volunteer literature.

Implications for adult-learning theory. Some progress has made toward discovering the learning processes and outcomes experienced by adult volunteer workers (Mundel, Duguid, & Schugurensky, 2004; Mundel & Schugurensky, 2005; Slade, Luo, & Schugurensky, 2005), and this study may make a small contribution. For inexperienced individuals in this study, informal learning emerged as a central component of their volunteer experience. Furthermore, what is unique about this informal learning is that technically it is labeled volunteer-related; however, it could also be described as job-related. The fact that the volunteer environment mimicked the desired paid work environment facilitated learning in a range of areas from workplace politics and hiring, to the development of a professional practice. In general, there was a high level of engagement and interest in their volunteer work because it directly related to work that they hoped to obtain in the future. All of this indicates that adult job-related learning may be particularly salient in a volunteer arrangement when the volunteer environment is closely matched to

the desired paid work environment. In addition, informal learning that is related to specific hiring practices in a particular field was present, and this type of exclusive knowledge may not be easily obtained elsewhere. Overall, the processes for adult learning from this type of volunteer work are informal, and the outcomes are job-related and specific to the profession. Further examining this type of volunteer work, specifically for those who are inexperienced, corresponds to Grolnic's (2001) assertion that "there is much for schools to learn from examining how workers learn on the job" (as cited by Schugurensky & Mundel, 2005, p. 15). Perhaps these implications for adult learning may inform the re-design of teacher practicum placements, which are proposed to change in Ontario sometime after 2014 when the Bachelor of Education changes from its current one-year format to an extended period of up to two years (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2010). This will be further explored below under 'Significance for Policy.'

Implications for volunteer categorizations: Schugurensky and Mundel's 2005

Volunteer Profiles. As outlined in Chapter Eight, this study makes a contribution to developing the conceptualization of volunteers in terms of different learning outcomes. By including the Access Volunteer within the framework proposed by Schugurensky and Mundel (2005), attention can be drawn to individuals who volunteer to overcome the barrier of an oversupply of professional labour. Thus, the intern volunteer typology would now appear as follows:

The intern volunteer: works in an unpaid or poorly paid capacity in order to gain entry into a particular segment of the labour market. Three variations:

Junior: Have no experience in the field, experience needed for entry.

Senior: Current experience/credentials not recognized. Recognition needed for entry.

Access: Have minimum requirements to be hired, but an oversupply of labour creates intense competition.

Adapted from Schugurensky & Mundel, 2005.

By bringing this third group of individuals to the forefront for researchers and policy-makers, attention can be focused on the barriers that limit access to a chosen profession, and the specific needs of employment groups that see a rise in this type of volunteer work can be addressed. Just as the recognition of *senior intern volunteers* draws attention to the issues and challenges faced by those who have difficulty obtaining Canadian credentials, recognizing *access volunteers* draws attention to analogous issues and challenges faced by those affected by factors such as a professional labour surplus. These ideas will be further explored below in the context of teachers.

Significance for Policy

Policy considerations for teacher education and provincial bodies arise from the previous section.

Teacher education. There may be implications of interest to teacher educators, especially in light of the extended Bachelor of Education program slated to begin in Ontario in the next few years, where classroom and practical components will need to be re-designed. What the inexperienced teachers in this study have described is similar in some respects to an extended practicum, except that the teachers have been given more control by being able to choose the school and classroom teacher they worked with, the days they volunteered, and to some extent, the content of the experience. It is worth exploring further at the teacher education level how extended practicums, with more control and flexibility afforded to the teacher, can be constructed to build professional learning. Ideally, designing practicums that transition more directly into paid employment would eliminate the need to volunteer, as well as help to build professional learning communities. While this recommendation suggests extended practicums, some may wish

to label these “internships.” While the concept of mandatory internships for teacher candidates might be worthy consideration, this is beyond the scope of this investigation. However, it is worth mentioning that some teacher preparation programs already include an extended practicum component that is labeled an unpaid internship. For example, at the Ontario Institute of Studies in Education (OISE) a five-week, non-evaluative, self-selected and self-directed internship is required for graduation for their consecutive B.Ed and Technological Studies program. The intention is to “integrate, extend, and deepen the learning experiences of each Teacher Candidate as s/he makes the transition from a Teacher Candidate to a qualified Ontario teacher” (Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, n.d.). The current study may be impetus for more teacher education programs to consider building in this sort of experience for teacher candidates, and perhaps contribute to the discussion regarding mandatory internships across the province. Howe (2006, 2008) finds that internships for teachers in other countries such as Germany and Japan are among the “exemplary practices” for teacher induction (Howe, 2006, p. 292).

Also worthy of consideration might be a voluntary component required for certification, given the evidence from this study as seen in the implications for adult learning, as well as emerging studies that find voluntary programs have higher learning outcomes than mandatory community programs (Andersen, 1999; Foster & Meinhard, 2000). As Schugurensky and Mundel state:

These studies found that student autonomy was important to learning. If students felt they had some control over where and how they volunteered, they were likely to do so more willingly and learn more from the experience . . . what is important is making volunteer opportunities available to students . . . (2005, p. 19).

Overall, building in a volunteer requirement alongside formal practica for the extended teacher certification program may augment learning for teacher candidates. Some teacher preparation programs, including Western University's "Transition to Professional Practice" already include this type of requirement (The University of Western Ontario, n.d). This study, used in conjunction with an evaluation of the programs that already mandate volunteer work requirements for teacher candidates may contribute to the ongoing development of "best practices" for a mandatory volunteer component of teacher education in Ontario.

Ministry of Education, Universities, district school boards, and teacher federations. As previously mentioned, recognition of this type of volunteer work draws attention to the need to recognize the specific job-related learning that is taking place outside the formal education system. For example, in this study, Amanda has learned a great deal about children with exceptionalities by working in the Developmentally Challenged Department at her volunteer school. It could be argued that although her learning is informal, she has learned some of the content that might be present in the AQ course for Special Education. By implementing formal systems to recognize the learning that is taking place during volunteer work, Amanda could obtain a credential (AQ) through assessment and recognition of her volunteer work. While there are current policy instruments (such as PLAR, Prior Learning Assessment and Recognition) that do recognize learning that is relevant to paid work (see Thomas, 1998) no such mechanism exists for the additional qualifications of teachers in the province. Teachers can currently apply for "equivalent standing" for other *formal* education to be recognized as an AQ, however there is potential for the volunteer work of newly-certified teachers to be considered as

“equivalent standing” in some of these areas of professional development. This is not to say that everything one needs to know can be learned from experience, indeed, a structured approach to professional learning is certainly necessary and valid. However, there appear to be some instances where learning from experience (in this case, volunteer experience), a tenant of adult education (Lindeman, 1926; Magro, 2001), may augment professional learning and development of newly-certified teachers in Ontario, especially when many teachers will wait years before they will get the opportunity to teach and access the professional development activities made available to employed teachers.

This policy consideration would be a significant undertaking for all parties involved in teacher certification, and would likely meet with significant resistance. However, it would assist the thousands of unemployed teachers who have dedicated a great deal of time and effort to volunteering to receive recognition for their work. This is particularly important because the existing compensation system for Ontario teachers uses years of experience and credentials (including additional AQs) recognized by the Ontario College of Teachers to determine first-year compensation (Qualifications Evaluation Council of Ontario, QECO, n.d.). However, there is no mechanism for beginning teachers’ compensation to reflect the experience and informal acquisition of teacher knowledge obtained through volunteer work during their period of unemployment. This, coupled with the fact that the average age of a first year FTPC teacher is rising, means that the earnings of new teachers hired during this period will be significantly diminished over the course of their career if the age of retirement remains the same. This reality will need to be addressed in negotiations between teacher federations and the Ministry of Education in the coming

years. Providing recognition of knowledge and experience gained during the unemployment period may be an area of negotiation for these parties.

This is not to say that volunteer work should be directly linked to future compensation, as this would privilege some candidates (those who are able to volunteer) over others (those who cannot; also addressed below). This suggestion is intended to recognize the learning and potential professional development gained through volunteer work, much like how possessing additional AQ courses currently improves ones starting salary because AQs are considered PD. For example, in the current salary structure for Ontario teachers a teacher can move from one salary level (A1) to the next (A2) by obtaining three (3) additional AQ courses (QECO, 2004). If volunteer work could be equated to appropriate AQ credits as just discussed above, individuals can stay current in their professional practice during their unemployment, either through volunteer work or traditional AQ courses, depending on the route that suits the individual lifestyle of the prospective teacher.

Additionally, certain AQ courses, including specialist and “Part 2” credentials require that a teacher have one- or two- years of total teaching experience (194 days is equivalent to one year, 388 days is equivalent to two years) before they can take the course (OCT, 2011b). Experience includes FTPC, LTO, STO, and summer school arrangements, and the teacher must have a supervisory official sign a Statement of Successful Teaching Experience (OCT, n.d.). Given the acquired experience observed in this study, it may be prudent for the Ontario College of Teachers to explore the value of allowing the application of volunteer days towards the 194/388 required to take these AQ courses.

There are further policy considerations given the reality of teacher volunteer work in the context of the labour market. Volunteer arrangements of the type examined in this study have the potential to create further separation within the teacher hierarchy (Pollock, 2008). As seen in this study, teachers who volunteer increase their school connectedness, which Chalikakas (2012) describes as a factor that improves the position of a teacher within the teacher hierarchy once they are hired. While this is a positive aspect for those who are able to arrange their personal situations to accommodate volunteering, there are many individuals who cannot volunteer given their financial realities and family status. Thus, the advantages afforded to those who volunteer to access the profession – the opportunities for professional networking, gaining references, and navigating the hiring process (as described in Chapter Seven) – should be provided in other ways by universities, teacher federations, and/or school boards. Providing professional development, relationship building, and networking opportunities might provide a more balanced and fair landscape for all teachers seeking paid work and reduce the reliance on volunteer work to fill the void.

Furthermore, the stark reality of the teacher labour market in the province should be communicated clearly to those thinking about entering the teaching profession in Ontario. Currently, according to the participants in this study, the information was available from knowledgeable others *during* their Bachelor of Education program, or from family and friends. The information may have been more useful to candidates making the decision to become an Ontario-certified teacher if it was presented *before* undertaking the process of becoming a teacher in the province. Thus, the pertinent labour market information, already collected and summarized by the Ontario College of Teachers, needs to be mobilized more effectively. In its current form, as an 80+ page document available on the OCT website, it

is not particularly well positioned to inform the decision of those considering teaching in Ontario. The OCT needs to invest further energy disseminating the information in appropriate forms and alternative networks, so those who do decide to enter teaching are fully informed before investing their time and money. This is in the best interests of the OCT, as it will also benefit current members of the college.

Significance for Practice

It should not be necessary for certified teachers to volunteer their services in order to access teaching; however, there are some lessons from this investigation that might be valuable given that the phenomenon already exists.

Human resource and school administrators. For hiring practices at school boards, careful inspection of résumés for references to volunteer work in schools may assist in finding more experienced individuals amongst a large group of newly-certified candidates. Inquiring about the details of these volunteer activities in employment interviews may reveal significant proficiency in a number of unexpected areas, akin to what the participants in this study have described due to the informal learning opportunities afforded to them. This is especially important when considering individuals who graduated years in the past, as volunteer work may be evidence of continuing personal professional development, which may be keeping them current, alongside more recent graduates. While this practice may occur informally for some human resource administrators, it becomes increasingly difficult when online application systems do not include a specific place to list volunteer work. Apply to Education (the online system where many teachers search for jobs, complete individual profiles, and upload their résumé and supporting documentation to be viewed by potential employers) does not currently include an explicit place to enter

volunteer work. There is a catchall section dubbed ‘Other’ where one can enter additional information of any type, however not all candidates may think to include their volunteer work in this section. Downloading and viewing the candidate’s personally constructed résumé may circumvent this current limitation in the recruitment software.

Volunteer teachers and teacher candidates. With the most recent *Transition to Teaching* report (OCT, 2012) which explored some aspects of volunteering, as well as this investigation, more is known about the phenomenon of teacher volunteer work which can inform new teachers about volunteering in schools. Given that thousands of new teachers (see Chapter Two) choose to volunteer in schools after their Bachelor of Education, having additional information is beneficial. While this investigation is intended to be descriptive, rather than prescriptive, these descriptions can still be informative. The teachers in this study understand their volunteer work from a range of individual situations and perspectives as already discussed. I think one of most valuable contributions this study can make to new students is to provide new graduates with a source of information about how others navigate their period of unemployment, given the paucity of current research in the area. While this is certainly not an exhaustive study (see the limitations section below) there are some points that seem apparent from hearing these teachers discuss their volunteer arrangements. First, new graduates need to consider what volunteering will mean for interim employment and financial arrangements. Since volunteering in classrooms necessarily means volunteering during the day, the teachers in this study had to sacrifice some part of a regular employment arrangement in order to accommodate volunteer work. This study did not speak with teachers who were not able to volunteer, but the *Transition to Teaching* report (2012) outlines other factors leading to job search success such as

references, portfolio, and persistent follow up (p. 28), which may also act as access points to teaching. In addition, the volunteer experience seemed to be positively influenced by having an informal mentor who helped the volunteer teacher become a part of the school community. Working consistently in the same school, over a longer period of time, also seemed to be part of the more positive, richer learning experiences, and was mutually beneficial to the classroom teacher and students. In addition, one participant, Lucy, demonstrated that changing volunteer placements was a tenable solution to a more negative volunteer experience. Lucy left two placements before she found one where she felt useful and was making a contribution, as well as making more meaningful connections that would help her access STO work.

Although not ideal, volunteering does appear to be a viable strategy for some. Deciding to undertake it as an individual teacher should be carefully considered, as there are both benefits and challenges for each individual. It does appear that a mutually beneficial volunteer experience can be co-constructed with the classroom teacher that keeps newly-certified teachers connected to classrooms and schools, and facilitates personal professional development. However, others struggle with fitting volunteer work around other paid work in order to stay financially stable, are involved in menial tasks, and are alienated from school communities (see the comments in the *Transition to Teaching* report 2006-2012; Pollock, 2010). It is these, and other issues, that deserve further attention.

Limitations of Study

There are obvious limitations to these findings. For the qualitative interviews, the sample is very small, which makes generalizing the findings to the greater teacher population difficult. In addition, using purposive, snowball sampling yielded a somewhat

homogenous group of participants. The individuals who did not have previous experience had very similar responses, generally reporting a positive volunteer experience. Certainly there must be volunteer teachers without previous paid experience who had a divergent experience from that reported here. For the two teachers in this study who had prior experience in teaching, the stories were also very similar, likely because the two participants knew each other. In addition, in Chapter Eight I described that having previous paid experiences and prior relationships made a difference in the perception of volunteer work. Recall that I did not have any participants in my study who were lacking both of these factors in their context. What does volunteer work look like for these individuals? Furthermore, as an outcome of the snowball sampling method employed, the participants in my study were homogenous; that is, I did not have any internationally educated teachers (IETs) in my study, who have unique challenges (see for example Pollock, 2008) who may have a different experience altogether.

Regardless of these specific limitations, this study has value as it begins to probe some activities that could be a part of a larger, systematic study of volunteer teachers. For an accurate depiction of the unpaid volunteer work of teachers who volunteer in schools, a more balanced and systematic study is required, and could include some of the themes (such as tasks, learning, and modes of access) from the interview data described here. In this study, I was able to identify the tasks that volunteer teachers were performing; however, the amount of time they spent on each task was not interrogated, yet would be useful information to collect to further understand the nature of this type of volunteer work

In addition to limitations regarding sample size, there are also limits regarding the data collection method of interviewing. The interviews took place at one point in time, and

asked participants to reflect on their volunteer experience. For some participants this means reflecting on three or more years of volunteer work, which for a 60 minute interview, may not have facilitated a completely accurate representation of their volunteer experience as they had to be summative and general in their responses. In addition, this made it difficult to ascertain how volunteers felt at different stages of their volunteer arrangement (which may have been more salient to participants at the time), as they were reflecting over many years at the time of the interview. Furthermore, I did not undertake follow-up interviews, which may have been useful if their employment status had changed.

Finally, this study did not explore issues associated with power. However, Pollock (2008, 2009) and Chalikakas (2012) demonstrate that power is inherently part of the teacher workforce in the form of an internal workforce hierarchy. While outside of the present framework, there is room for further study regarding the power issues associated with being a newly-certified, unemployed teacher, both in terms of their volunteer work in schools as well as their status as teachers.

Areas for Future Research

To address the limitations section, there is potential to complete a more systematic study of unemployed, volunteer teachers in Ontario to clarify what has been explored in this thesis. Ensuring a representative sample, including internationally educated teachers, would be most beneficial to better serve the needs of unemployed teachers as a group. Furthermore, a systematic study is needed to uncover menial, exploitive volunteer practices (that were not represented in this study) in order to draw attention to these practices and protect teachers entering these arrangements in the future.

It would be useful to include a follow up interview with volunteer teachers to further explore the connections between volunteering, access to the profession, and learning. In terms of access to the profession, only perceptions of access were summarized in this study; a follow up interview once the volunteer-teacher has been hired would assist in uncovering the specific mechanisms of access that the volunteer work facilitated. For example, was the professional networking as helpful as participants proposed? Concomitantly to this, human resource administrators are a further source of this information; asking them what knowledge, skills, and abilities they are looking for when assessing candidates, and how they consider volunteer work when evaluating these attributes would provide definitive answers regarding how volunteer work provides access to the profession. In addition, following up with teachers once they have started teaching would be interesting to validate the learning component that this study suggests; that is, is the informal learning from volunteer work useful in paid teaching work? In what ways?

This study also high-lights the need to explore this phenomenon beyond the case of Ontario teachers. As mentioned, the law profession (Todd, 2011) is starting to experience a labour surplus and thus a similar volunteer phenomenon may be present. Seeing the similarities and differences between the two professions may provide further insight into volunteer-related and job-related adult learning as well as provide more information regarding the contemporary Canadian volunteer landscape. Furthermore, what is the connection to social capital for these volunteers? Social capital was not part of the conceptual framework and thus was not explored systematically in this study, however it appears to be an avenue worthy of further study for Access Volunteers. As noted briefly in Chapter Eight, there may be evidence of the role of social capital (Lin, 1999) as having a

previous connection to the school community facilitated a more positive and meaningful volunteer experience as well as other the emergence of other benefits of building social networks. Directing further study toward the concept of social capital might reveal insights into how volunteer work in particular works to build these networks and the specific mechanisms that facilitate entry into the profession. Furthermore, one participant (Margaret) indicated in Chapter Seven that social connections would not help her as favoritism rules had been put in place in her school board. In this case, social capital has limited utility in the provision of access. Exploring the concept of social capital in these school boards may provide a point of comparison when attempting to explore its role for Access Volunteers.

Looking more broadly, it would also be useful to systematically research the 23 per cent of Canadians (Hall et al., 2009) who report volunteering to improve job opportunities. The intern volunteer profile suggested by Schugurensky and Mundel (2005), if explored more thoroughly, should be able to describe this 23 per cent of the Canadian adult volunteer population. Teachers offer an excellent example of one employment group; however, the opportunity exists to look at the greater population, where 7.3% of Canadians are unemployed (Statistics Canada, 2011). In Ontario, the youth unemployment rate has reached one-sixth (15.7%) of workers aged 16-25; the rate for immigrants (in Canada five years or less) is even higher at 16.7% (Gomez, 2011). These numbers demonstrate that new teachers exiting Bachelor of Education programs are not the only ones affected by high rates of unemployment. The current state of the unemployment issue is vast and multi-faceted, and investigating the population of individuals who choose volunteer work as a strategy to manage unemployment, as well as the organizations (public, private, and non-

profit) who work with these volunteers, may provide further insights into adult learning and access to professions.

Chapter Summary

This chapter summarized the research sub-questions. It then discussed significance for theory in terms of contributions to adult learning theory as well as expanding the proposed profiles presented by Schugurensky and Mundel (2005). By doing so, this study contributes to literature beyond the narrow case of newly-certified, unemployed teachers who volunteer in schools. However, this was the primary motivation of this study, and thus the policy implications were presented for teacher education programs, and the provincial bodies associated with educating, certifying, hiring, and protecting teachers in Ontario. Furthermore, implications for human resource administrators as well as volunteer-teachers themselves were also outlined, as they may have more immediate impact than the broader policy suggestions. Finally, limitations and prospects for future research were discussed, demonstrating that this initial foray into the volunteer work of teachers has opened the door for further exploration of the volunteer work performed in the context of unemployment to improve job opportunities.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Permission to use Data from the National Survey of Learning and Work

The screenshot shows a Gmail interface. At the top left is the 'Gmail' logo. Below it is a navigation bar with buttons: 'COMPOSE', 'Back', 'Archive', 'Spam', 'Delete', 'Move to inbox', 'Labels', and 'More'. The email header shows the date '10/4/11' and a 'Reply' button. The email content is as follows:

From: D.W. Livingstone [mailto:...]
Sent: Monday, October 03, 2011
To: Katina Pollock
Subject: Re: WALL Data

Katina--I have reviewed the Masters' thesis proposal from Jenn Pearce. I hereby give approval for her to use the relevant WALL survey data in conducting here research.

Sincerely,
Dr. D. W. Livingstone
Canada Research Chair in Lifelong Learning and Work
Professor Emeritus, Department of Sociology and Equity Studies

At the bottom right, there is a link: 'Click here to Reply or Forward'.

Appendix B: General Information Pertaining to the National Survey of Learning and Work

Adapted From Livingstone, 2006

General Information

The National Survey of Learning and Work is a Canada-wide survey of work and lifelong learning provides profiles of the current work and learning activities of a large-scale sample of Canadian adults. Work profiles include paid employment and also household work and community volunteer work. The array of adult learning profiles includes formal schooling, further adult education courses, informal training and non-taught informal learning.

The survey permits various analyses of relations between work and learning activities. The survey also offers profiles of workers' perceptions of changes in key dimensions of work in recent years and permits comparisons with a prior survey of adults' learning activities conducted in 1998 (the New Approaches to Lifelong Learning [NALL] survey).

The primary survey data reported here were gathered as part of the research network on The Changing Nature of Work and Lifelong Learning (WALL). The WALL network is based in the Centre for the Study of Education and Work (CSEW) at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto (OISE/UT) (see www.workandlearning.ca). This network is composed of the WALL survey project and 12 related case study projects. The case studies examine learning and work relations in greater depth within the following work environments: biotechnology; steel/light manufacturing/nursing homes; public sector work; the teaching profession; disabled bank workers; women information technology workers; immigrant workers; housework; volunteer community work; school-work youth transition; critical transitions through the life course; and labour education programs. An extensive annotated listing of a much wider array of recent studies on work and learning, titled the Work and Lifelong Learning Resource Base (WALLRB), has been produced with the aid of the Canadian Foundation for Innovation. For further information on the case studies, the WALLRB and other WALL and NALL papers, please see the network website at <http://www.wallnetwork.ca/>.

Sample

The main WALL Survey is a random cross-sectional national sample of persons 18 years or older who live in Canada. The survey includes two components: a Canada-wide sample including 9,063 respondents (unweighted) and an additional subsample that includes 600 respondents who participated in the 1998 National Survey of Life Long Learning (NALL). The sample universe is the general Canadian, non-institutionalized population. Complete information on the sample design is available in *Survey Technical Documentation* (Northrup, 2004) on the WALL Network Website at www.wallnetwork.ca.

With the intention to reduce overall time for WALL interview administration, some sections (e.g., volunteer activities and access to information and communication

technology) were administered with randomly selected sub-samples, as indicated in the universe specification for each question. In order to customize the survey to different respondents' characteristics, the WALL questionnaire contains a number of seemingly duplicate questions. Questions are customized according to employment status or other relevant socio-demographic characteristics (e.g., IF RESPONDENT IS SELF-EMPLOYED: For how many years have you been self employed in the kind of work you do now? or IF RESPONDENT IS EMPLOYED: For how many years have you been doing the kind of work you do now?).

Appendix C: Original Data Tables

The original SPSS data tables take up 65 pages. Instead of including them here, they can be found by following this link:

https://dl.dropbox.com/u/8374704/PDF_SPSS_Tables.pdf

For the tables presented that are bar charts, the raw data that was used to create these charts is included below:

Data for Table 2: *Employment Status and Average Time Spent Volunteering Per Week*

Employment Status	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Mdn
Employed	2,035	2.96	1.11	3
Unemployed	122	3.49	1.09	3
Going to School	192	3.28	1.14	3
Other	793	3.41	1.17	3
Whole Sample	3,151	3.11	1.14	3

Data for Table 5: *Employment Status and Reason for Volunteering*

Employment Status	<i>Percent of each employment group who volunteered to make a contribution to the community</i>	<i>Percent of each employment group who volunteered to improve job opportunities</i>
Employed	83.8%	26.6%
Unemployed	85%	40%
Going to School	72.9%	51.4%
Other	86.1%	9.2%
Whole Sample	84.3%	19.8%

Data for Table 9: *Employment Status and Informal Learning Helping With Volunteer Performance*

	Percent of each employment group responding to the question: How helpful has you're your informal learning been in helping you do your volunteer work better?		
Employment Status	<i>Very helpful</i>	<i>Fairly helpful</i>	<i>Not helpful</i>
Employed	30.8%	56.8%	12.4%
Unemployed	45.3%	49.3%	5.3%
Going to School	49.2%	43.9%	6.8%
Other	40.1%	46.2%	13.7%
Whole Sample	36.2%	51.6%	12.2%

Data for Table 10: *Employment Status and Volunteer-Related Informal Learning Helping Find/Change Jobs*

	Percent of each employment group responding to the question: How helpful has your volunteer-related informal learning been in helping you find or change jobs?		
Employment Status	<i>Very helpful</i>	<i>Fairly helpful</i>	<i>Not helpful</i>
Employed	10.3%	15.1%	74.6%
Unemployed	22.5%	15%	62.5%
Going to School	32.8%	23.4%	43.8%
Other	11.5%	15.4%	73.1%
Whole Sample	12.1%	15.6%	72.3%

Appendix D: Semi-Structured Interview Guide

Introduction

1. Where did you get your teaching certification?
 - a. Probe for year, and how long they have been out of school.
2. Can you tell me a little about where you are now in terms of your teaching career?

Structured Portion

1. In an typical week, how much time would you spend volunteering at a school?
 - a. Why?
2. Would you say that you are volunteering to improve your job opportunities?
 - a. Why?
3. Would you say that you are volunteering to make a contribution to your community?
 - a. Why?
4. Do you consider volunteering an important part of your life?
 - a. Why?

Unstructured Portion

(1) I'd like to hear about the details of your volunteer experience. Thinking about and reflecting about the volunteer position that you hold, can you describe your volunteer experience at the school?

Probe for:

- How the volunteer position was obtained (who, what, when, where)
- Where and how long the volunteering has taken place
- Motivation to start volunteering
- Who assisted them with obtaining the position
- What tasks, activities, teaching are performed, and how often
- Benefits and challenges associated with the volunteer work
- Nature of relationships with other teachers, students, administrators, staff, parents
[Are you Mr. or Ms. ____?]

- Difference in feelings towards the experience at the beginning versus now

(2) I'd like to hear a little about the learning that happens surrounding your volunteer experience. I'm going to start by asking some structured questions, but feel free to expand or go in other directions about learning if it is appropriate.

Please think about INFORMAL learning activities outside of formal classes, paid work, or schooling, that you have done in the last year that are directly related to volunteering activities.

5. Did you learn anything about any of the following related to your volunteer experience in the last year? Please answer yes or no.
 - Computers **(If yes, can you elaborate?)**
 - Organizational skills **(If yes, can you elaborate?)**
 - Budgeting/Financial management **(If yes, can you elaborate?)**
 - Teamwork, problem solving, or communication skills? **(If yes, can you elaborate?)**
 - Interpersonal skills? **(If yes, can you elaborate?)**
 - Health and well-being? **(If yes, can you elaborate?)**
 - Learning about new equipment? **(If yes, can you elaborate?)**
 - Language skills? **(If yes, can you elaborate?)**
 - Increased knowledge about social, political, or environmental issues? **(If yes, can you elaborate?)**
 - Outside of this list, is there anything else you can name?
6. Do you do any learning outside of your volunteer experience to help you with your volunteer work? Thinking about this learning, how many hours would you spend in a typical week? Just give your best guess.**Why?**
7. How helpful has the learning been in helping you do your volunteer work better? Very helpful, fairly helpful, or not helpful?**Why?**
8. How helpful as your learning been in helping you find or change jobs? Very helpful, fairly helpful, or not helpful?**Why?**

Probes:

- Specific skills or knowledge related to teaching, pedagogy, classroom management.
- Learning about the workplace
- How the learning is taking place
- Opportunities for formal learning
- If not learning, why?
- Do you feel that your volunteer work helps you become a better teacher? [Explain]

(3) I'd like to hear a little bit about your perceptions of paid work. How do you think volunteering helps you access paid work in teaching?

Probes:

- When you first decided to get your teaching degree, did you think you would be involved in unpaid work as a teacher? **Why?**
- Do you think volunteering will be helpful in helping you find paid work? **Why?**
- How does volunteering help you find work in the teaching profession? **Why?**
- Do you feel that you have to volunteer in order to find paid work? **Why?**

May I contact you after this interview if I need to clarify anything?

Appendix E: Ethics Approval Form



THE UNIVERSITY OF WESTERN ONTARIO FACULTY OF EDUCATION

USE OF HUMAN SUBJECTS - ETHICS APPROVAL NOTICE

Review Number: 1110-2
 Principal Investigator: Katina Pollock
 Student Name: Jennifer Pearce
 Title: *Volunteering in Schools by Newly Certified, Unemployed Teachers: Sites of Work and Learning*
 Expiry Date: April 30, 2012
 Type: M.Ed. Thesis
 Ethics Approval Date: October 28, 2011
 Revision #:
 Documents Reviewed &
 Approved: UWO Protocol, Letter of Information & Consent

This is to notify you that the Faculty of Education Sub-Research Ethics Board (REB), which operates under the authority of The University of Western Ontario Research Ethics Board for Non-Medical Research Involving Human Subjects, according to the Tri-Council Policy Statement and the applicable laws and regulations of Ontario has granted approval to the above named research study on the date noted above. The approval shall remain valid until the expiry date noted above assuming timely and acceptable responses to the REB's periodic requests for surveillance and monitoring information.

During the course of the research, no deviations from, or changes to, the study or information/consent documents may be initiated without prior written approval from the REB, except for minor administrative aspects. Participants must receive a copy of the signed information/consent documentation. Investigators must promptly report to the Chair of the Faculty Sub-REB any adverse or unexpected experiences or events that are both serious and unexpected, and any new information which may adversely affect the safety of the subjects or the conduct of the study. In the event that any changes require a change in the information/consent documentation and/or recruitment advertisement, newly revised documents must be submitted to the Sub-REB for approval.

 Dr. Alan Edmunds (Chair)

2011-2012 Faculty of Education Sub-Research Ethics Board

Dr. Alan Edmunds	Faculty of Education (Chair)
Dr. John Barnett	Faculty of Education
Dr. Farahnaz Faez	Faculty of Education
Dr. Wayne Martino	Faculty of Education
Dr. George Gadanidis	Faculty of Education
Dr. Elizabeth Nowicki	Faculty of Education
Dr. Immaculate Namukasa	Faculty of Education
Dr. Karl Veblen	Faculty of Music
Dr. Ruth Wright	Faculty of Music
Dr. Kevin Watson	Faculty of Music
Dr. Jason Brown	Faculty of Education, Associate Dean, Research (<i>ex officio</i>)
Dr. Goli Rezai-Rashti	Faculty of Education, Associate Dean, Graduate Programs (<i>ex officio</i>)
Dr. Susan Rodger	Faculty of Education, UWO Non-Medical Research Ethics Board (<i>ex officio</i>)

The Faculty of Education 1137 Western Rd. London, ON N6G 1G7	Karen Kueneman, Research Officer Faculty of Education Building kueneman@uwo.ca 519-661-2111, ext.88561 FAX 519-661-3029
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Appendix F: Recruitment E-mail to Colleagues

Good morning all!

I am writing in regards to participant recruitment for my study – I finally got ethics approval!

I have turned my attention to finding *newly-certified, unemployed* teachers who volunteer in schools as participants. Basically, I am interested in interviewing any individual who is recently-certified as an OCT (within the last 5 years), has *no work in teaching at all* – not even on a supply list – and is or has volunteered in a school while certified.

I know this might apply to you yourself, or someone you might know. I have attached a digital poster for you to look over, or if you could forward this to people you think might be interested, that would be great.

My general research question is – how do newly-certified, unemployed teachers understand their volunteer work in schools? I will be asking questions about: what teachers do during their volunteer work, learning, as well as how volunteering helps one access teaching. In addition, I will ask life- and teaching- history to create a profile for participant. The interviews should take about an hour.

Once data analysis is complete, I will be more than happy to send a summary of the findings.

If you are interested, or know someone who might be – please e-mail me (XXXXXX@uwo.ca) or give me a call at 519-XXX-XXXX. I will answer any questions and forward an information sheet.

Thanks! Looking forward to hearing from you – and helping you recruit participants if needed down the line!

Thanks,

-Jenn

Appendix G: Digital Recruitment Ad

Are you a new OCT?

Seeking full-time work as a teacher, but haven't found it?

Do you volunteer in a school?



I am seeking participants for my research

New teachers are volunteering more than ever in schools, and I would like to find out more about it. If you are a newly certified (OCT) teacher, who has not yet found work in teaching, and you volunteer in a school, I am interested in speaking with you. This research is part of my Masters Thesis at UWO. If you

would like more information about possibly participating, please get in touch with me.

What: Research about newly certified OCTs who volunteer in schools

When: Contact me any time for more information.

How: Contact me by email (jpearce6@uwo.ca) or private message on Facebook.

Appendix H: Letter of Information

Volunteering in Schools by Newly Certified, Unemployed Teachers: Sites of Work and Learning

Letter of Information

Dear Sir or Madam:

Introduction

My name is Jennifer Pearce and I am a Masters student at the Faculty of Education at The University of Western Ontario. I am currently conducting research into the volunteer activities of newly certified teachers who are seeking, but have not yet found, employment in teaching, and would like to invite you to participate in this study.

Purpose of the study

The aims of this study are to find out about what new teachers are doing in their volunteer placements, and how the volunteer activities relate to learning and paid work.

If you agree to participate

If you agree to participate in this study you will be asked to participate in a person-to-person interview with myself where you will be asked to reflect on your volunteer activities, your learning in this setting, and your aspirations for paid work. The interview will take place at the Faculty of Education building, or another mutually-decided upon location. The interview will take 45 - 60 minutes, and it will be recorded in an audio-only format. You may also be contacted for clarification after the interview if you give permission that I may do so.

Confidentiality

The information collected will be used for research purposes only, and neither your name nor information which could identify you will be used in any publication or presentation of the study results. All information collected for the study will be kept confidential. The audio file and the transcripts generated from it will not be associated with your identity. Once the study is complete, the audio files will be deleted, but the transcripts will be kept for two years in a secure space at the Faculty of Education. After two years, the transcripts will be destroyed.

Risks & Benefits

It is possible that you might have feelings of discomfort or frustration when you consider your employment situation. If this happens to you, resources for counseling will be provided upon request.

Voluntary Participation

Participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate, refuse to answer any questions or withdraw from the study at any time.

Questions

If you have any questions about the conduct of this study or your rights as a research participant you may contact the Office of Research Ethics, The University of Western Ontario at 519-661-3036 or ethics@uwo.ca. If you have any questions about this study, please contact myself at 519-XXX-XXXX or XXXXXX@uwo.ca. You may also contact my faculty advisor, Dr. K. Pollock at 519 XXX-XXXX or XXXXXX @uwo.ca.

This letter is yours to keep for future reference.

Sincerely,

Jennifer Pearce
519-XXX-XXXX
XXXXXXXXX@uwo.ca

Appendix E: Consent Form**VOLUNTEERING IN SCHOOLS BY NEWLY CERTIFIED, UNEMPLOYED
TEACHERS: SITES OF WORK AND LEARNING**

Jennifer Pearce, Masters Student, University of Western Ontario
Katina Pollock, Assistant Professor & Thesis Supervisor, University of Western Ontario

CONSENT FORM

I have read the Letter of Information, have had the nature of the study explained to me and I agree to participate. All questions have been answered to my satisfaction.

Name (please print):

Signature:

Date:

Name of Person Obtaining Informed Consent:

Signature of Person Obtaining Informed Consent:

Date:

Curriculum Vitae

NAME

Jennifer Pearce

ACADEMIC INFORMATION

Degree	Institution	Program	Date
Doctor of Philosophy	Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto (OISE/UT)	Adult Education Collaborative Program: Workplace Learning & Social Change	Conditionally Accepted for: September 2012
Master of Education	The University of Western Ontario (UWO)	Educational Psychology/Special Education	Completion Date: August 2012
Bachelor of Arts, Honours	King's University College	Management and Organizational Studies, Specialization in Human Resources	Completion Date: April 2008

RESEARCH/TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Research Assistant

P.I. Dr. K. Pollock

July 2011 – Aug 2012

The University of Western Ontario, London ON

Projects: *The Nature of Administrative Work, Equity and Engagement in Education, & The Knowledge Network for Applied Education Research*

Research Assistant

P.I. Dr. R. Sandieson

December 2011-June 2012

The University of Western Ontario, London ON

Projects: *Pearl Harvesting Retrieval for Terms Related to Gifted Education*

Teaching Assistant

Sept 2009 – April 2011

Dr. S. Janczak, King's University College, London ON

Provided teaching support for *Business 1220*

SCHOLARSHIPS AND AWARDS

CGS-Masters Award , valued at \$17500 Social Science & Humanities Research Council (SSHRC)	2011
Ontario Graduate Scholarship (OGS) , valued at \$15000 Ontario Graduate Scholarship Program	2011
Western Graduate Research Scholarship valued at \$8310 University of Western Ontario	2010
Continuing Scholarship valued at \$5000 over 3 years King's University College <i>Awarded to students at King's who maintain high academic standing, 80%+</i>	2005 - 2007
Entrance Scholarship valued at \$3000 King's University College	2004
Local Excellence Award valued at \$4000 Canada Millennium Scholarship Foundation	2004
Aiming for the Top Scholarship valued at \$4500 over 4 years King's University College on behalf of Queen Elizabeth II	2004-2007

PUBLICATIONS

- Pearce, J. & Pollock, K., (2012). Informal learning and volunteering: The case of an unemployed certified teacher in Ontario. *Learning Landscapes*, 5(2), 237-249.
- Pollock, K. & Pearce, J. (2012, accepted). Good intentions, but ... how do we increase access and engagement of members of marginalized communities? *Teaching and Learning*, special issue on "Equity, Engagement, Teaching and Learning" (Fall 2012).

CONFERENCES

- Mindzak, M., Pollock, K., Swapp, D. & Pearce, J. (2012, May). *The nature of administrative work: The case of one school leader*. Paper presented at the Canadian Society for the Study of Education (CSSE), Waterloo, Ontario.
- Pearce, J. (2012, May). *Volunteering in schools by newly certified, unemployed teachers: Sites of work and learning*. Paper presented at the Canadian Society for the Study of Education (CSSE), Waterloo, Ontario.

Sandieson, R., Mclsaac, S., & Pearce, J. (2011, July). *An information map and search pathway for the topic of giftedness: The pearl harvesting information retrieval method*. Paper presented at the International Centre for Innovation in Education (ICIE) Excellence in Education Conference, Istanbul, Turkey.

MEMBERSHIPS

The Canadian Association for the Study of Educational Administration (CASEA)
The Canadian Society for the Study of Education (CSSE)

ACADEMIC HONOURS/AWARDS

Dean's Honour List 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008
King's University College

Community Life Award 2008
King's University College Student's Council
Awarded to a graduating King's student who has demonstrated exceptional service to the community while maintaining high academic standing

WORK EXPERIENCE

Volunteer, Fundraising & Education Assistant June 2009 – present
Child and Parent Resource Institute (CPRI), London, ON
Ontario Ministry of Children & Youth Services (MCYS)

Volunteer Coordinator May 2008 - August 2009
Boys' & Girls' Club of London, London, ON