Creating Space For New Teacher Voices: Examining Mentoring From the Perspective of New Teacher Residents

Cassandra Matthews

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The Dissertation Advisory Committee and the student’s Department Chairperson, as representatives of the faculty, certify that this dissertation has met all standards of excellence and scholarship as determined by the faculty.

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CREATING SPACE FOR NEW TEACHER VOICES: EXAMINING MENTORING FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF TEACHER RESIDENTS

by

CASSANDRA C. MATTHEWS

Under the Direction of Caitlin McMunn Dooley, Ph.D.

ABSTRACT

Educators and policy makers recognize the need to provide a continuum of support for beginning teachers to facilitate the transition from preservice preparation to independent practice. As a result, both have responded with the recommendation of increasing and expanding induction programs. Teacher Residency programs have recently emerged as an innovative model for new teacher induction. This qualitative study was situated within a charter school context and investigated how five beginning teachers participating in a New Teacher Residency Program perceived and experienced mentoring. Drawing on sociocultural theory, situated learning, and communities of practice as theoretical frames, the research question was: How do new teachers participating in a residency program experience mentoring? This study specifically sought to explore the expectations of mentoring held by Resident Teachers as well as the ways mentoring support aligned with their personal and professional needs. Multiple data sources were analyzed,
including in-depth interviews, written reflections, surveys, and pupil work samples. Data analysis was iterative and axial coding revealed six key categories including (a) expectations; (b) support; (c) gaps in support; (d) teacher development; (e) social identities; and (f) Critical Friends Groups. Findings revealed that Resident Teachers found mentoring to be a source of emotional support as well as a resource for professional learning, particularly with reflection, lesson planning, and instruction. Recommendations for residency program improvements include (a) release time for mentors; (b) defined roles and responsibilities for Resident Teachers; and (c) an increase in Resident Teachers’ stipend amount. As educators and policy makers continue to view mentoring as a way to improve teaching and learning, insights gained from Resident Teachers being mentored can inform the way mentored induction translates from policy to practice. In addition, the mentoring experiences of Resident Teachers can be used to guide the development of new induction programs or help strengthen existing programs.

INDEX WORDS: New teacher mentoring, Teacher induction, Urban teacher residency programs
CREATING SPACE FOR NEW TEACHER VOICES: EXAMINING MENTORING FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF NEW TEACHER RESIDENTS

by

CASSANDRA C. MATTHEWS

A Dissertation

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of Requirements for the

Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

Early Childhood Education

in

Early Childhood Education

in

the College of Education

Georgia State University

Atlanta, GA

2015
I dedicate my dissertation work to my beloved family and many supportive friends. I especially dedicate this work to my mother, Brenda Cornish, whose unconditional love and words of encouragement strengthened me and helped me get to the point of completion. I would also like to dedicate this to my grandmother, Pearl Cartwright, whose spirit I carried with me throughout my entire doctoral journey. I love and miss you Grandmother. To my brother Adrian, who has been my biggest cheerleader and my beloved niece Adrianna, I also dedicate this work to you. To all of the young women of Fertile Ground Mentoring Program, I dedicate this work to you as well. It has been my pleasure to witness your growth from shy 5th grade students to confident young women. Last, I dedicate this dissertation to my village of family members and friends who have prayed for and supported me throughout the process. I appreciate all they have done, especially Robin, Pamela, Leilani, Marilyn, Wan, and Meghan for their many hours of listening, proofreading, speaking words of encouragement, and believing in me. I also give special thanks to my best friends Angela, Kwana, Maisha, and Jeannette for being there for me throughout the entire doctorate program. I love you to LIFE.
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For I know the plans I have for you,” declares the LORD, “plans to prosper you and not to harm you, plans to give you hope and a future.

Jeremiah 29:11

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<td>ARRA</td>
<td>American Recovery and Reinvestment Act</td>
</tr>
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<td>AUSL</td>
<td>Academy for Urban School Leadership</td>
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<td>BPS</td>
<td>Boston Public Schools</td>
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<td>BTR</td>
<td>Boston Teacher Residency</td>
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<td>CFG</td>
<td>Critical Friends Group</td>
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<tr>
<td>CAQDAS</td>
<td>Computer-assisted qualitative data analysis system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESEA</td>
<td>Elementary and Secondary Education Act</td>
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<tr>
<td>HiQ</td>
<td>Highly-qualified</td>
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<td>InTASC</td>
<td>Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium</td>
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<tr>
<td>MRC</td>
<td>Mentor Residency Coach</td>
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<tr>
<td>NASBE</td>
<td>National Association of State Boards of Education</td>
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<td>NCLB</td>
<td>No Child Left Behind</td>
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<td>PD</td>
<td>Primary Document</td>
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<tr>
<td>RT3</td>
<td>Race to the Top Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SASS</td>
<td>Schools and Staffing Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAT/9</td>
<td>Stanford Achievement Test, Version 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRP</td>
<td>Teacher Resident Program</td>
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<td>UTR</td>
<td>Urban Teacher Residency</td>
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<td>ZDP</td>
<td>Zone of Proximal Development</td>
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Educators and policy makers recognize the need to provide a continuum of support for beginning teachers to facilitate the transition from pre-service preparation to independent practice. As a result, both have responded with the recommendation of increasing and expanding induction programs. Intensive, comprehensive induction programs (including mentoring) have emerged as a promising strategy to support new teacher development (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006). Common objectives of teacher induction include teacher development, socialization into the profession, assessment of teaching effectiveness, and support in refining practice. During induction, new teachers establish professional routines, deepen their understanding of pedagogy, and develop an understanding of their school and local community (Feiman-Nemser, 2001).

Urban Teacher Residency (UTR) programs have recently emerged as an innovative model for teacher induction. UTRs provide “residents” with effective learning theory and year-long apprenticeships under the guidance of effective, veteran teachers who serve as mentors. Akin to the medical field, residents engage in authentic practice with the support of mentors to gain the requisite skills needed to become effective lead teachers. This study examined the construct of mentoring from the perspective of new teachers participating in a New Teacher Residency Program. I aimed to give voice to new teachers currently being mentored in order to examine and interpret their mentoring experiences. Most new teachers enter the mentor-mentee relationship with some level of expectation or at least an idea of what they believe should be the role of an effective mentor. If the mentoring supports offered do not align with new teachers’ needs, the goals for induction, including improved teacher quality and student learning, may not be realized. Studies examining the mentoring component of existing residency programs are
limited in the current literature, therefore this research is both timely and relevant. Insights gained from Resident Teachers being mentored can be used to guide the development of new induction programs or help strengthen existing programs. In addition, the mentoring experiences of Resident Teachers can inform the way mentored induction translates from policy to practice.

The context of the study was unique as these new teachers, hereafter called “Resident Teachers” were participating in an innovative, grant-funded teacher residency project. The Resident Teachers’ participation in the project afforded them the opportunity to complete their undergraduate studies, then continue their “residency” by participating in a team-teaching partnership with an experienced cooperating teacher during their first year as a certified teacher, unlike other graduates who transition into their own classrooms. Each Resident Teacher was assigned to a cooperating teacher’s (mentor teacher’s) classroom but was not considered the “teacher of record.” They were further supported by a trained mentor within the school and were a part of a professional learning community called a “Critical Friends Group.”

Most existing teacher residency programs are situated in urban contexts. In his editorial article, “But What is Urban Education?” Milner (2012) acknowledges there is no clear, uniformed, common definition among researchers, theoreticians, policymakers, and practitioners in higher education as to the meaning of the term urban. Research in urban contexts however, often characterize schools and districts as having high levels of racial, linguistic, ethnic, and economic diversity with a disproportionate number of students who are low-income and qualify for free or reduced-priced lunch (Achinstein & Ogawa, 2011; Berry et al., 2009; Gardiner, 2012; Gardiner & Kamm, 2010; Singer et al., 2010; Solomon, 2009; Papay et al., 2012). Residency programs emerged in response to several crises faced by many urban school districts, including high attrition rates among beginning teachers, difficulty attracting teachers in high-needs subject
areas (e.g., math, science, special education, English Language instruction for second language learners), and lack of diversity among the teaching force (Papay et al., 2012). To this end, residency programs are often referred to as “urban teacher residency programs” in the literature. The context of my study however, does not fully align with the construct of urban as there was a shift in student demographics during the study with fewer students being identified as low-income and receiving free or reduced lunch. While the context of the study was situated in a large, metropolitan area, this particular school context was sheltered from many of the familiar crises often faced by urban schools including high rates of teacher attrition, student poverty, and second-language learners.

**Political Nature of Mentoring and Induction**

Research has shown that intensive induction support can increase teacher effectiveness, satisfaction, and retention (Darling-Hammond, 1999; Fletcher, Strong & Villar, 2008; Glazerman et al., 2010; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). In their critical review of research on new teacher induction and mentoring, Ingersoll and Strong (2011) argue that teaching is complex work, and pre-service preparation is rarely sufficient to provide all of the knowledge and skill necessary to be successful. They, along with other researchers, insist that a large portion of knowledge and skill acquisition can only come with on the job experience (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Ganser, 2002; Gold, 1999; Hegsted, 1999). The goal of induction and mentoring programs is to improve the performance and retention of beginning teachers with the ultimate aim of improving the growth and learning of students (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). The aim of these programs lies at the crux of education reform, therefore induction and mentoring programs can serve as mechanisms for increasing teacher effectiveness and impacting student growth. To this end, federal, state, and district policies are increasingly requiring induction programs where beginning teachers can further develop and become successful at teaching.
Federal Level Induction Policies

Over the past few decades, educators have seen an expansion of federal policies and resources dedicated to improving and evaluating teacher quality. Beginning in 1965, with the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), federal involvement in public education sought to “provide compensatory educational services for economically disadvantaged school districts” to ensure academic progress and academic equality for all students (Sunderman, Kim, & Orfield, 2005, p. 9). The ESEA reauthorization in 2002, known as No Child Left Behind (NCLB), brought even more political attention to teacher quality and induction. Similar to the original ESEA, NCLB set in place specific requirements aimed at improving the education of all students; particularly those who are economically disadvantaged. The statement of purpose declares that “[NCLB] is to ensure that all children have a fair, equal, and significant opportunity to obtain a high-quality education” (NCLB, 2002, 20 § 6301). At the core of NCLB are a number of measures designed to drive gains in student achievement and to hold states and schools accountable for student progress, including teacher quality (US Department of Education, 2001). One of several criticisms of the NCLB legislation is the assumption that standardizing the curriculum and establishing “high stakes” measurable goals will improve individual student outcomes for all students. The assumption however, fails to take into consideration the link between test scores and the broader issue that not all students begin schooling on the same playing field due to classism, sexism, racism, and other forms of oppression (Ahlquist, 2011). Rather than addressing social and structural inequities faced by high-poverty schools, policy makers have determined that holding teachers and schools accountable for reaching predetermined goals and sanctioning schools for not meeting those goals are more effective solutions for closing the achievement gap amongst student. Milner (2011) argues that focusing on an achievement gap forces us to compare culturally diverse students with White students.
without understanding the reasons why these disparities and differences exist. The disparities and differences in opportunity for low-income students and students of color are considerable and include educational components such as lack of school resources as well as societal factors, including poor healthcare and living conditions (Goldenberg, 2014). Policy makers fail to consider the educational and societal components when implementing high-stakes testing and using the results to hold schools accountable for student achievement. Another criticism of NCLB is that the emphasis on test scores has caused a narrowing of the curriculum. High stakes testing often restricts what is taught. Subjects that are not tested will likely be taught less or not at all because the emphasis will on preparing students to take tests (Levine, 2012).

In addition to NCLB’s attempt to close the achievement gap, it also aimed for every student to have a “highly qualified teacher” (sometimes abbreviated as “HiQ”). The federal definition of a HiQ teacher is one who is fully certified and/or licensed by the state, holds at least a bachelor degree from a four-year institution, and demonstrates competence in each core academic subject area in which the teacher teaches (US Department of Education, 2004). NCLB further required that schools inform parents and guardians that they have the right to inquire about the number of HiQ teachers at their child’s school. In a more recent reform effort to address teacher quality, states are being rewarded for developing and implementing plans in several core education reform areas, including recruiting, developing, and retaining effective teachers. In 2009, President Obama signed into law the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA) which laid the foundation for education reform by supporting investments in innovative strategies leading to improved academic results for students. This act provided $4.35 billion for the Race to the Top Fund (RT3), a competitive grant program designed to encourage and reward states that are creating conditions for gains in student achievement, closing
achievement gaps, increasing high school graduation rates, and ensuring students’ preparation for success in college and careers. Nested in RT3 funding are recommendations for states to provide new teachers with some form of induction or mentoring. RT3 requires states to “adopt more vigorous teacher education accountability mechanisms and to establish or expand programs that are successful at producing effective teachers” (US Department of Education, 2009, p. 10). The winners of the competitive grants are required to (a) link student-achievement and student-growth data to the teachers of these students, (b) tie this information to in-state programs that prepare teachers, (c) publicly report the data on program effectiveness for each preparation program in the state, and (d) expand teacher-education programs and teacher-credentialing options that are successful at producing graduates who are effective teachers (Crowe, 2010).

While the focus has been to ensure students are being taught by an “effective” teacher who has proven a certain level of effectiveness by completing a teacher education program and demonstrating competence in core academic subject areas taught, there remains the question of whether being certified is enough for new teachers to significantly impact student achievement. Beyond being certified, new teachers need intentional, targeted support in order to develop a deep knowledge base about learners and learning, the curriculum, and the social context of teaching. New teachers also need to develop a repertoire of pedagogical skills in order to positively influence student achievement (Achinstein & Athananses, 2006).

**State-Level Induction Policies**

Some states have recognized and responded to the need for new teacher support and development by implementing induction and mentoring programs. These programs are “proposed to meet the needs of new teachers, to improve teaching and student learning, and to increase retention rates” (Dangel, 2006, p. vxii). While the terms induction and mentoring are often used interchangeably, induction programs typically involve all of the support activities
provided for new teachers such as district orientation sessions or other professional development sessions specific to new teachers that may not necessarily require the involvement of a mentor. **Mentoring** is a component of induction where a new teacher is paired with an experienced teacher who supports them in developing their professional practice. Most professionals who work in the field of teacher induction believe the mentoring component of induction is the most important aspect of the teacher induction program (Huling, 2006).

While many states have adopted policies on teacher induction, the quality, comprehensiveness, and funding of these policies vary widely (Johnson, Goldrick, & Lasagna, 2010). For example, some existing induction programs are basic “buddy systems” that provide limited emotional and logistical support. Other programs are more comprehensive, require trained mentors, and provide structured time for mentor-mentee interaction focused on improving new teachers’ content knowledge, classroom management, and instructional skills (Goldrick et al., 2012). Even in the most well-funded mentoring and induction programs, researchers are still discovering which supports are needed in order for new teachers to become more effective practitioners. State policies mandating new teachers’ participation in mentoring and induction may prove to positively influence teacher quality, but who determines what the supports in these programs look like?

State induction policies have a strong impact on local school induction programs. Most importantly, state policies can provide local school districts with guidance and support in their attempts to implement high-quality induction programs. In Table 1, Goldrick et al. (2012) conducted a review of state policies on teacher induction and developed 10 criteria for policies that work in concert to guide local districts in designing and implementing high-quality induction programs. Some of the policy recommendations include (a) length of time for new teacher
support; (b) mentor selection, training, and assignment; (c) program funding; and (d) accountability. It is their contention that states that come closest to meeting all 10 criteria will likely provide new teachers with sufficient mentoring support resulting in enhanced teacher effectiveness.

Table 1

*Recommended Criteria for High-Quality Induction Programs*

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<th><strong>Teachers Served</strong></th>
<th>State policy should require that all teachers receive induction support during their first two years in the profession</th>
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<td><strong>Administrators Served</strong></td>
<td>State policy should require that all school administrators receive induction support during their first two years in the profession</td>
</tr>
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<td><strong>Program Standards</strong></td>
<td>The state should have formal program standards that govern the design and operation of local teacher induction programs</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Mentor Selection</strong></td>
<td>State policy should require a rigorous mentor selection process</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Mentor Training</strong></td>
<td>State policy should require foundational training and ongoing professional development for mentors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mentor Assignment and Caseload</strong></td>
<td>State policy should address how mentors are assigned to beginning teachers, allow for manageable mentor caseloads, and encourage programs to provide release time for mentors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Program Delivery</strong></td>
<td>State policy should identify key induction program elements, including a minimum amount of mentor-new teacher contact time, formative assessment of teaching practice, and classroom observation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Funding</strong></td>
<td>The state should provide dedicated funding to support local educator induction programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Educator Accountability</strong></td>
<td>The state should require participation in and/or completion of an induction program to advance from an initial to professional teaching license</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Program Accountability</strong></td>
<td>The state should assess or monitor program quality through accreditation, program evaluation, surveys, site visits, self-reports, and other relevant tools and strategies</td>
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(Goldrick et al., 2012)
Although research has shown a positive impact of induction on new teacher attrition and student achievement, the concept of induction has been met with criticism. Literature on new teacher induction indicates a lack of standardization and continuity across state teacher induction programs (Goldrick, Osta, Barlin, & Burn, 2012; Sun, 2012). While the Race to the Top fund for innovative initiatives recommends teacher mentoring and induction programs as potential methods for ensuring highly-qualified teachers, extensive variety exists across states, ranging from an absence of mentoring or induction programs to fully developed multi-year programs. Twenty-seven states incorporate new teacher mentoring or induction opportunities, 22 have incorporated the programs into their state’s licensure policy, and only 3 states (Connecticut, Delaware, and Iowa) have the essential criteria recommendation of induction lasting at least two to three years, state funding, and a link to state teacher licensure (Goldrick, Osta, Barlin, & Burn, 2012). In addition, issues regarding program and policy implementation have been raised. While the number of new teachers who report induction program participation has consistently risen from 50% in 1990 to 91% in 2008, Ingersoll (2012) reports that it remains unclear as to what activities, supports, and components the induction experience usually includes and whether the support has any positive effect on teachers and students. What some may consider induction in one state can translate into nothing more than orientation in another. Goldrick, Osta, Barlin, and Burn (2012) state, “Simply requiring that new teachers be assigned a mentor without regard to mentor or program quality will not accelerate new teacher development, reduce teacher attrition or significantly impact student learning” (p. 6). In actuality, the problem is not the lack of new teacher induction programs; the issue is the quality of the programs and the degree to which states enact mentoring or extensive induction procedures that continues to be problematic. Quality, in this context, is more than establishing “buddy systems” that provide new teachers
with emotional and logistical support. Quality mentoring programs require trained mentors and provide structured time for mentor-mentee interaction focused on improving new teachers’ content knowledge, classroom management, and instructional skills (Goldrick et al., 2012).

**Urban Teacher Residency Programs**

The reauthorization of Title II of the Teacher Quality Partnership Grant earmarked $900 million for teacher preparation programs such as urban teacher residencies (UTRs) that prepare teachers for high-need, high-poverty schools and provide mentoring and induction support once residents become teachers of record (AACTE, 2009). Urban teacher residency programs are considered an innovative induction strategy designed to prepare and support new teachers by providing them opportunities to work cooperatively with an experienced cooperating teacher beyond their student teaching experience. Akin to the medical residency model which pairs professional coursework and embedded clinical experience, New Teacher Residents work with an experienced lead teacher and mentor who provide ongoing instruction, feedback, and guidance.

The Boston Teacher Residency (BTR) in Boston, Massachusetts, the Academy for Urban School Leadership (AUSL) in Chicago, Illinois, and the Boettcher Teachers Program in Denver, Colorado are three nationally recognized urban teacher residency programs (UTRs). UTRs emerged in response to the crises faced by many urban school districts, including attrition rates among beginning teachers, trouble attracting teachers in certain subject areas (e.g., math, science, special education, English Language instruction for second language learners), and lack of diversity among the teaching force (Papay et al., 2012). Aligned with the medical model of training, UTRs aim to embed teacher preparation within schools by interweaving educational theory, pedagogical training, and practice in the context of a classroom in a high-needs school through a year-long residency. Supervised clinical experience forms the foundation of UTRs as
Resident Teachers work alongside cooperating teachers, gradually taking on more increasing levels of teaching responsibility to apply curriculum theory and practice and to reflect on their classroom experience in a learning community that extends from the university campus for coursework to the inner-city classroom (Gatlin, 2012). To accomplish this, partnering school districts and institutions of higher education employ a reform curriculum that includes courses reflecting culturally relevant theories and practices to better prepare new teachers to work with diverse, high-need student populations (Gay, 2000; Ladson-Billings, 1994). Culturally relevant pedagogy (CRP) has been described as "a pedagogy that empowers students intellectually, socially, emotionally, and politically by using cultural referents to impart knowledge, skills, and attitudes" (Ladson-Billings, 1994, p. 382). In essence, CRP is a pedagogy that respects and uses students’ reality, history, and perspectives as the foundation for teaching practice (Ladson-Billings, 1994). Residents participating in residency programs are also engaged in professional development tailored to the needs of beginning teachers which may include master’s level coursework and seminars. Lastly, Residents are further supported in the form of induction and mentoring during their first few years of teaching (Papay et al., 2012).

One of the criticisms of UTRs is the fact that these programs are primarily situated in urban communities. Berry et al. (2008) argue that higher education and alternate teacher certification routes are “not supplying teachers in sufficient quality or quantity for where they are needed most” (p. 3). They further argue that new teachers are ill-prepared to meet the needs of students in high-needs urban schools, and the schools are not retaining sufficient numbers of teachers they do recruit. Supporters of the UTR movement would agree that this alternative pathway into teaching directly addresses the high teacher turnover rates that cost districts millions of dollars annually leaving students with inexperienced teachers and also meets the
needs of traditionally underserved urban students as UTRs attempt to elevate teacher quality by recruiting high-academic achieving candidates and preparing them to teach for specific school districts (Barnes, 2007; Berry et al., 2008; Owens, 2015). In addition to acquiring deep subject-matter knowledge, an understanding of how students learn and how to assess their learning, some of the “specialized” training for the teacher candidates also includes developing their skills to work with special needs and second language learners, their ability to engage and motivate diverse students, as well as strategies to reach out to families (Berry et al., 2008; Solomon, 2009). I would argue that the “specialized” training touted by UTRs would benefit all teachers, regardless of whether they taught in an urban, suburban, or rural community. In my review of the literature on residency programs, California and Denver were the only two states found to have teacher residency programs in rural areas which leaves the question, why are most of teacher residency programs located in urban districts with high percentage rates of traditionally marginalized students? One could argue that because urban districts are often faced with a myriad of issues including higher teacher attrition rates, more inexperienced teachers, and more teachers teaching outside of their field (Ingersoll, 2012; Ladson-Billings, 2006; Lankford, Loeb & Wykoff, 2002), district leaders, school administrators, and parents would welcome an alternative to help ensure quality teachers are placed in their schools. Conversely, these same stakeholders should pay close attention to the research results assessing the effectiveness of UTRs on new teacher development and student learning which is limited in the current literature.

There are also significant limitations to the existing empirical research on the mentoring aspect of teacher residency programs. The majority of current studies are limited to program components and evaluations (Papay et al., 2012; Solomon, 2009). There is especially limited empirical research examining the mentoring component of new teacher residencies from the
perspective of new teachers. Examining their mentoring experiences can benefit multiple stakeholders. First, new teachers can articulate the types of support they need in order to improve their professional practice. Rather than embracing a top-down model of mentoring where mentors enter the relationship with what supports district leaders or local school administrators believe new teachers need, the voices of new teachers can and should be taken into account. Second, mentors will have a working knowledge of the practical guidance and support that would best help new teachers stay afloat. Mandel (2006) who for 15 years mentored new teachers and trained mentors argues, “What first-year teachers say they need to survive is often markedly different from what schools provide” (p. 67). Equipped with the knowledge of what new teachers really need, mentors can better adapt their level of support to meet new teachers’ needs. Last, research findings can be used to inform curriculum for mentoring development. Curriculum specialists responsible for planning and delivering mentor training can use research findings to design curriculum to assist mentors with developing competencies to address the specific needs of the new teachers they serve.

**Purpose of Study**

The question guiding this study was: *How do new teachers participating in a residency program experience mentoring?* More specifically, I examined the expectations Resident Teachers hold for mentor support and the perceived realities of the types of support provided. As there are limited studies that specifically examine the mentoring support provided within teacher residencies, the purpose of this study was to explore the phenomenon of mentoring from the perspective of beginning teachers who participated in this innovative teacher development approach. By illuminating the expectations held by new teachers for their mentors and the alignment or misalignment of the support provided, policy makers, district leaders, and schools
will be better informed regarding ways in which mentoring effectively meets their needs as well as ways to improve existing practices to better support their professional development.

**Theoretical Framework**

In order to examine how Resident Teachers experience mentoring, I highlight the social and cultural contexts of new teacher development. Mentoring new teachers is a social practice and because the nature of my study is to examine the mentoring experiences of Teacher Residents, I will begin with Vygotsky’s (1978) sociocultural theory. Additionally, I will discuss Lave and Wenger’s (1991) Situated Learning Theory as a way to examine the contextual influence on Resident Teachers’ learning. Last, I discuss Lave and Wegner’s (1991) Communities of Practice which emphasizes social engagement in learning.

**Sociocultural Theory**

Vygotsky’s (1986) sociocultural theory presents the development of the human mind as occurring through participation in activities that lead to individual change. It emphasizes that learning occurs through individuals’ interaction with their social environment. According to Vygotsky (1986), social experience shapes the ways of thinking and interpreting the world, and individual cognition cannot be separated from the social situation in which it occurs. His theory further proposes that individuals will acquire the ways of thinking and behaving by interacting with a more knowledgeable person. A key construct in sociocultural theory is the *zone of proximal development* (ZPD). According to Vygotsky, ZPD is the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (Vygotsky, 1978). The ZDP involves all of the knowledge and skills that a person cannot currently understand or perform independently, but is capable of learning with guidance. Vygotsky’s zone of proximal development enhances the constructivist
perspective by including the social context of learning and is applicable to new teacher
development as mentors help new teachers achieve a level of learning beyond what they would
be able to achieve by themselves. Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory is based on the notion that
learning and knowledge are situated within the context they occur, therefore, situated learning
theory will be examined in the following section as an additional theoretical lens used for
examining mentoring within residency programs.

**Situated Learning Theory**

As a sociocultural theory that emphasizes that learning occurs through individuals’
interaction with their social environment, situated learning theory is a helpful lens for this study.
New Teacher Residency programs situate teacher development through their interactions with
more experienced teachers, particularly cooperating teachers and mentors. New learning and
understanding for beginning teachers will be socially situated within these relationships and the
school community, therefore it is fitting to examine situated learning theory as a framework for
examining the construct of mentoring within residency programs.

Situated learning emphasizes that much of what is learned is specific to the situation in
which it is learned. It suggests that learning takes place through the relationships between people
and connecting prior knowledge with authentic, contextual learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991).
Learners are believed to be enculturated into their learning community and to appropriate
knowledge, based on their existing understanding, through their interaction with the immediate
learning environment. Through active participation, learners engage in constructive and
meaningful learning. Learning is thus considered to be a largely situation-specific and context-
bound activity (Woolfolk, 2001).

New learning for Resident Teachers is contextual and embedded into their daily activities
through the social interaction and collaboration with cooperating teachers, mentors, colleagues,
and school community. Resident Teachers enter schools with prior knowledge, beliefs, and experiences they then use to construct their own understanding of instructional practices. As a result, what they learn and how they learn are influenced by both the experiences they bring with them and the environment in which they learn. Resident Teachers adjust to the local school culture and develop professional identities as they engage with mentors to plan collaboratively, reflect on teaching, and discuss new ways of approaching teaching and learning. Mentors are not the “transmitters” of new knowledge, they are the “facilitators” of learning by encouraging reflection, providing feedback on teaching practices, and collaborating on ways to improve.

Communities of Practice

In further applying sociocultural theory and situated learning theory to the context of mentoring, I present new teacher learning as situated within a “community of practice” through their interaction with more knowledgeable others, such as university supervisors, cooperating teachers, mentors, colleagues, and local school administrators. Support provided by other colleagues is important in generating a sense of belonging and identity as well as providing opportunities for learning through sharing and collaboration of knowledge, skills, and expertise. Lave and Wenger (1991) describe “community of practice” as a context where learning and meaning-making occur as individuals engage in activities, interact with one another, share common goals, assume varying roles, and develop relationships over time. Becoming a member of a community of practice is associated with participating in social practice, which in turn facilitates learning. Communities of practice is relevant to residency programs and new teacher development because it underscores the point that facts about teaching and learning are not merely transferred to new teachers, it is created through the sharing and collaboration of knowledge.
Figure 1 Theoretical Framework

The confluence of sociocultural theory, situated learning, and communities of practice serve as a framework for me to examine and interpret Resident Teachers’ experiences with mentoring. Mentoring new teachers is a social practice and collectively these theories emphasize both the social and cultural aspects of learning. Each theory assists with describing how Residents Teachers engage with mentors to learn and further develop their teaching practice.

**Significance of the Study**

This qualitative study examined and interpreted the mentoring experiences of Resident Teachers which are limited in the current literature, likely because residency programs are relatively new. While new teacher residency programs are lauded as an innovative approach to teacher development, much of the existing literature outline program components or provide individual program reports (Papay et al., 2012; Solomon, 2009). In addition, there is some evidence that exists about what happens during beginning teacher induction and mentoring but
there is less evidence about how beginning teachers perceive their mentoring and induction program. The voices of beginning teachers, for whom residency programs are designed, are limited. Examining their mentoring experiences can benefit multiple stakeholders. First, new teachers can articulate for themselves the types of support they need in order to improve their professional practice. Rather than embracing a top-down model of mentoring where mentors enter the relationship with what supports district leaders or local school administrators believe new teachers need, the voices of new teachers can and should be taken into account. Second, mentors will have a working knowledge of the practical guidance and support that would best help new teachers stay afloat. Equipped with the knowledge of the types of support new teachers feel they need, mentors can better adapt their level of support to meet their needs. Third, research findings can be used to inform curriculum for mentoring development.

Curriculum specialists responsible for planning and delivering mentor training can use research findings to design curriculum to assist mentors with developing competencies to address the specific needs of the new teachers they serve. In addition, findings can show possibility for how residency programs (a relatively new phenomenon) can be implemented in ways that are consistent with the needs of new teachers. Lastly, this research is timely as the challenges associated with ensuring that new teachers are fully prepared for success in the classroom has taken on an increased urgency in recent years. As educators and policy makers continue to look to mentored induction to improve teaching and learning, insights from the study can inform the way mentored induction translates from policy to practice.
CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter provides an overview of the relevant literature that informed my research. I selected literature selected in several steps. First, I conducted EBSCO host database searches using the keywords teacher induction, new teacher mentoring, teacher residency programs, and urban teacher residency programs. Next, I selected relevant articles and book chapters referenced in the literature from my initial search. I also included articles and book chapters related to new teacher mentoring and induction from my personal collection. As I read the literature on existing urban residency programs, I sought additional literature and empirical studies on teacher induction and mentoring, specifically in urban contexts. The literature review is divided into several sections. In the first section, I discuss literature highlighting the need for induction, key elements of a comprehensive induction program, as well as state level induction policies influencing induction implementation. In the second section, I examine mentoring in an urban context and highlight the models of two nationally recognized urban residency programs. Last, I discuss the needs of beginning teachers and the influence of mentoring on new teacher efficacy and student achievement.

The Need for Induction

Regardless of how well-prepared a beginning teacher may be, he or she will encounter a myriad of distinct challenges their first year in the classroom (Veenman, 1984). Many struggle with classroom management, curriculum and pacing, feelings of isolation, and lack of support from school leadership (Sun, 2012). Without support, too many new teachers are left alone to navigate the rocky terrain of those early years. Unfortunately, one consequence of the lack of
support is high teacher attrition. Fourteen percent of new teachers leave in the first year, 33% leave within the first three years and almost 50% of new teachers leave within the first five years of service (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004). With a growing population of teachers drawing closer to retirement age and the large portion of teachers exiting the profession within the first five years, sustaining a quality teaching workforce will become increasingly difficult (Ingersoll & Merrill, 2010).

Research shows that teacher quality is the single most critical factor in student achievement (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Ferguson, 1991; Sanders & Rubin, 1996). Efforts to improve teacher quality however, are often negatively impacted by the high rates of turnover, with 40-50% of public school teachers leaving within the first five years (Ingersoll, 2003) and even higher rates in schools serving less advantaged students (Carroll, 2007). High levels of attrition have significant consequences for our nation’s schools. One such consequence is the continuance of inequity. New teachers are disproportionately assigned to the most challenging schools and classrooms populated by low-income and minority students (Darling-Hammond, 1997; Peske & Haycock, 2006). Despite their commitment and enthusiasm for teaching, new teachers possess limited knowledge and skills and are often less effective than their experienced colleagues in helping students learn (Rivkin et al., 2005). Therefore, the students most in need of experienced and highly effective teachers are more likely to be taught by those who are less prepared. Another consequence of high teacher turnover is reduced school capacity. With teachers leaving and others entering, schools lack the ability to maintain stability which inhibits their ability to create strong instructional programs where students can succeed. Supporting new teachers through mentoring and induction can assist with reducing the rate of new teacher
attrition as well as accelerating the professional growth of new teachers (New Teacher Center, 2007).

New teacher induction goes beyond providing emotional support and orienting beginning teachers to a new school. Comprehensive, high-quality teacher induction can accelerate professional growth and teacher effectiveness as well as improve student learning (Moir et al., 2009). New teacher support should be looked at as a continuum, starting with personal and emotional support, but then expanding to include specific task or problem-related support and later expanding even further to help new teachers develop a capacity for critical self-reflection on their teaching practice. Creating space for Resident Teacher voices is crucial as it will help district leaders, local school administrators, and mentors better understand the ways in which mentoring practices can support new teachers in becoming more effective practitioners who can positively influence student achievement.

**Comprehensive Induction Programs**

For districts to receive a positive return on their induction program investment, several vital elements should be included. In a policy brief on teacher induction by the National Association of State Boards of Education (NASBE), Sun (2012) argues that state boards should articulate these elements into state policy in order to ensure that all new teachers receive the necessary support they need. First, the induction program should last a minimum of two years. There should also be a rigorous mentor selection process. Chosen mentors should have at least three years of teaching experience, receive appropriate mentor training, as well as on-going professional development and support. In addition, schools should provide new teachers the opportunity to collaborate with others, which helps to build collegiality and reduce feelings of isolation. Sun (2012) further suggests that professional development for new teachers needs to move beyond lecture-based workshops. Teachers learn about exemplary teaching by seeing what
it looks like, talking about it, and experimenting in their own classrooms, therefore new teachers need to be able to observe instruction in veteran teacher’s classrooms. Further, quality programs must permit time for teachers to be observed and reflect on their own teaching, as well as on their students’ learning (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009). Finally, school leaders should conduct multiple new teacher evaluations throughout the induction phase of a new teacher’s career. These evaluations provide new teachers with key information they need to identify areas of strength as well as those areas that need improvement. When implemented well, induction programs can accelerate teacher development, decrease feelings of isolation, and increase the likelihood that a teacher will choose to remain in the profession (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011).

Goldrick et al. (2012) conducted a review of state policies on teacher induction and developed 10 criteria for policies that collectively work to guide local districts in designing and implementing high-quality induction programs. The researchers argue that states that come closest to meeting all 10 criteria will likely provide new teachers with sufficient mentoring support resulting in enhanced teacher effectiveness. As shown in Table 2, some of the policy recommendations include (a) length of time for new teacher support; (b) mentor selection, training, and assignment; (c) program funding; and (d) accountability. In comparing the recommended criteria with components of several existing residency programs, all of the programs meet the recommendations of providing new teachers with at least two years of induction support, setting a minimum standard for mentor selection, and addressing how mentors are assigned to beginning teachers. What is not specified by any of the residency programs is the mandated amount of mentor-new teacher contact time and release time for mentors. Ensuring that mentors have adequate time to collaborate, observe, and conference with new teachers is crucial to their professional development as mentor feedback enables new teachers to reflect
critically on their teaching practices in order to identify how to best promote students’ learning and engagement.

Table 2

*Comparison of Recommended Criteria for High-Quality Induction Programs with Existing Teacher Residency Programs*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Boston Teacher Residency Program</th>
<th>Chicago Academy for Urban School Leadership</th>
<th>New Teacher Residency Program</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers Served</td>
<td>State policy should require that all teachers receive induction support during their first two years in the profession</td>
<td>3 years of induction support</td>
<td>2 years of induction support</td>
<td>3 years of induction support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrators Served</td>
<td>State policy should require that all school administrators receive induction support during their first two years in the profession</td>
<td>Data unknown</td>
<td>Data unknown</td>
<td>Data unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Program Standards</td>
<td>The state should have formal program standards that govern the design and operation of local teacher induction programs</td>
<td>Teacher induction guidance provided by the state</td>
<td>Teacher induction guidance provided by the state</td>
<td>Teacher induction guidance provided by the state</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentor Selection</td>
<td>State policy should require a rigorous mentor selection process</td>
<td>Minimum of 3 years teaching experience</td>
<td>National Board Certified Teachers preferred</td>
<td>Minimum of 3 years teaching experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentor Training</td>
<td>State policy should require foundational training and ongoing professional development for mentors</td>
<td>3-day mentor training during summer months/monthly training during school year</td>
<td>Data unknown</td>
<td>6 hours of graduate level coursework, Teacher Support Specialist endorsement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentor Assignment and Caseload</td>
<td>State policy should address how mentors are assigned to beginning teachers, allow for manageable mentor</td>
<td>Weekly structured meetings with Resident Teachers</td>
<td>Mentors are assigned one or two Resident Teachers</td>
<td>Mentors assigned one Resident Teacher, may also serve as a</td>
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<tr>
<td>Program Delivery</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>State policy should identify key induction program elements, including a minimum amount of mentor-new teacher contact time, formative assessment of teaching practice, and classroom observation.</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Mentor-Resident Teacher pair are further supported by Mentor Resident Coach.</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Mentor to another Resident Teacher in program.</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Program Delivery</strong></td>
<td><strong>Mentors provide observations and regular feedback.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Mentors provide observations and regular feedback.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Mentors provide observations and regular feedback.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Amount of mentor-new teacher contact time not specified.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Amount of mentor-new teacher contact time not specified.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Mentors complete at least two formal evaluations using state’s Teacher Effectiveness measure.</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Mentors are advised to meet with new teacher at least once a month.</strong></td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Funding</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The state should provide dedicated funding to support local educator induction programs that would include a living-wage stipend to New Teacher Residency Program participants.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>$12,000 stipend.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>$40,000/stipend for math teachers.</strong></td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Educator Accountability</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The state should require participation in and/or completion of an induction program to advance from an initial to professional teaching license.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Massachusetts Initial Teacher License</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dual Certification in Special Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>Master’s degree in education earned</td>
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</tbody>
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<tr>
<th>Program Accountability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The state should assess or monitor program quality through accreditation, program evaluation, surveys, site visits, self-reports, and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>State assessment unknown.</strong></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Mentoring Component of Induction

Mentoring is a key component of induction and is defined as the professional practice that provides support, assistance, and guidance to beginning teachers to promote their professional growth and success (Jonson, 2002). Mentors are viewed as “teachers of teachers.” Their role involves more than providing new teachers with emotional and technical support, they are charged with supporting new teachers in becoming reflective practitioners who understand how to assess the needs of students, differentiate instruction based on students’ needs, and use data to inform their instructional practice (Achinstein & Athanasas, 2006). Technical support includes offering advice, recommending strategies, explaining policies and how to complete administrative tasks, and helping a new teacher fit it. Emotional support includes providing encouragement, moral support, and an empathetic ear. While both types of support help new teachers negotiate the “reality shock” of becoming teachers of record, neither influences teaching nor learning in meaningful ways (Wang & Odell, 2002).

Some existing mentoring programs are basic “buddy systems” that provide limited emotional and logistical support while others are more comprehensive, requiring trained mentors and structured time for mentor-mentee interaction focused on improving new teachers’ content knowledge, classroom management, and instructional skills (Goldrick et al., 2012). Mentoring practices in comprehensive programs often include modeling effective teaching practices, conducting formative assessment observations, collecting and discussing evidence of student learning, and developing a plan to strengthen new teachers’ instruction and classroom environment (Wood & Stanulis, 2010). By promoting observation and conversation about
teaching, mentoring can help new teachers assess their own professional competence and identify teaching strengths as well as areas for further development.

Two key principles of high-quality mentoring emphasized by Moir et al. (2009) and most relevant to my study are mentor training and release time. The researchers contend that mentors must be effectively trained in their ability to collect and review data concerning new teacher’s practice as well as skills in sharing data in ways that build trust and encourage reflection. Through conversations based on observations, mentors can challenge new teachers to develop reasons for their teaching decisions and consider alternative ways to improve their instruction. The researchers also stress the importance of time for mentor-mentee interactions. In some programs, new teachers and mentors are often so busy with individual responsibilities that meetings between them occur occasionally or whenever the two are available. In order to be effective, mentors need protected time to observe, reflect on, and discuss new teacher’s practice. Lastly, mentors need opportunities for on-going mentor training as well as time to collaborate with one another to reflect on their mentoring experiences and refine their mentoring practices (Moir et al., 2009).

In a review of literature on the components of teacher induction programs from 1997-2008, Wood and Stanulis (2010) acknowledge that current research does not systematically study the effectiveness of individual induction components or sets of components. The researchers state, “More rigorous, small-scale induction studies are needed to analyze empirical data and demonstrate intricacies of program effects” (p. 145). This underscores the need for more studies in the area of mentoring. In a critical review of the literature on teacher mentoring, Feiman-Nemser (1996) posits, “To inform mentoring policy and practice, we need more direct studies of mentoring and its effects on teaching and teacher retention, especially in urban settings where
turnover is high” (p.3). More recently, Huling (2010) conducted a study examining the achievement effects of mentoring. She emphasizes that attempts to measure the impact of induction programs on new teachers typically do not consider the fact that new teachers within a program often have different mentoring experiences from one another depending on how their individual mentors carried out their duties. She further suggests, “What is needed are ways to identify the mentoring experiences of each individual new teacher in substantial detail” (p. 241). My study attempted to fill this gap by focusing on just the mentoring aspect of new teacher induction as I explored the individual mentoring experiences of several new teachers in order to understand and describe their experiences.

**Critical Friends Groups**

Comprehensive induction programs may include participating in a professional learning community such as a Critical Friends Group (CFG). CFGs are professional learning communities that consist of no more than 10 cross-career educators from various grade levels and departments, who come together to meet regularly in an effort to improve their practice through collaborative learning. The CFG process acknowledges the complexity of teaching and provides opportunities for teachers to improve their teaching by giving and receiving feedback. CFGs are distinguished by the use of protocols that help teachers try on different ideas, examine assumptions, ask unsettling questions, and embrace discomfort in a way that is safe and manageable (Bambino, 2002; Fahey & Ippolito, 2014). During CFG meetings, teachers can examine student or teacher work, discuss literature, or design meetings to meet their professional needs. The intention of the meetings is to encourage teachers to work collaboratively and to reflect upon themselves as professionals in order to enhance their teaching and student learning (Bambino, 2002). The work is considered *critical* because it challenges educators to bring about change they view as necessary for their professional practice or school environment.
One study examining the effectiveness of CFGs was conducted by Franzak (2002) who focused on one student teacher’s experience with participation in a CFG. The findings concluded that CFGs help improve teacher quality by improving teacher identity as they provide a safe space for teachers to share their teaching practices and values. Franzak suggested that participation helped teachers gain confidence in their sense of self that allowed them to “…explore, change, and reveal their identities” (Franzak, 2002, p. 261). Additionally, Dunne, Nave, and Lewis (2002) designed a study to determine the effectiveness of CFG in helping teachers improve their teaching practice. Researchers utilized a team of evaluators who observed CFG meetings in 12 schools, conducted interviews with teachers, administered surveys. The study found that CFG groups with strong facilitators, who were defined as those who encouraged reflective practices and whose group critically examined student work, had the most positive change in regards to teaching practices. Facilitators who focused more on team building and postponed analysis of student work and reflective practices for later in the year were deemed less successful because it took longer for participants to develop a level of trust to share student work since it was not encouraged until later in the school year. In a more recent study, Czaplicki (2012) investigated the use of video during CFGs on the practices of an in-service teacher. Specifically, she examined how the use of video-taped lessons and participation in a CFG impacted the in-service teacher’s professional practices. Using oral and written reflections, video of classroom practice, audiotapes of CFG meetings, and interviews, Czaplicki found that using the video-taped lesson during CFG meetings created a sense of community, improved collaboration within the group, provided opportunities for members to learn from each other, and prompted pedagogy-driven conversations. The results of the study also indicated that the use of
video and feedback from CFG members lead to improved teaching practices for the focal teacher, including more modeling, better use of technology, and deeper reflection.

Structured professional learning activities such as Critical Friends Groups (CFGs) are also provided for new teachers participating in residency programs. Resident Teachers’ participation in CFGs provide an additional layer of support for developing their teaching practice and will allow Resident Teachers to engage in dialogue surrounding issues of teaching and learning alongside other beginning and veteran colleagues.

**Urban Teacher Residency Programs**

Many urban districts have sought programs to recruit, prepare, develop, and retain teachers who will be effective in this setting. At both the federal and state level, policy makers are struggling to address the low academic achievement of many K-12 students as well as the gap in achievement among income and racial-ethnic groups of students (Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2002). Data from the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) indicated that 16% of first year teachers in high poverty schools in 1999-2000 left teaching at the end of the year while 13% migrated to other schools or districts (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). In addition, research has also found that urban districts often have lesser qualified teachers (Lankford, Loeb & Wyckoff, 2002). With the quickly shifting demographics of students in schools, the exodus of teachers from high-poverty schools, and the continued segregation of the teaching force, questioning whether new teachers are adequately prepared for working with racially and linguistically diverse groups of students becomes increasingly important.

In addition to traditional and alternative teacher preparation programs, Urban Teacher Residencies (UTRs) represent a “third way” of preparation by combining elements of traditional, university-based and alternative teacher preparation programs (Papay et al., 2012). In UTRs, aspiring teachers, known as Residents, are selected according to certain criteria aligned with
individual district needs. They integrate master’s level coursework with a full-year classroom residency alongside a veteran teacher. Building on the medical residency model, and drawing from the strengths of traditional as well as alternative approaches to teacher preparation, teacher residencies provide prospective teachers with the underlying theory of effective teaching and a year-long apprenticeship alongside a trained mentor in an urban classroom. The guiding belief of the UTR is that combining coursework that has an urban focus with a year of interning in the classroom under the guidance of a teacher of record will yield well-prepared urban educators (Gardiner, 2011).

Urban Teacher Residencies take a four-pronged approach to developing and maintaining teacher quality including: targeted recruitment and rigorous selection, intensive pre-service preparation focused on the specific needs of teachers in diverse urban schools, coordinated induction support and strategic placement of graduates (Gardiner, 2011). By focusing on these four areas, residency programs hope to support new teachers in developing the knowledge, skills, and dispositions to be successful in urban school settings. They also aim to supply urban school districts with effective teachers who have been recruited and trained to meet their specific needs.

One of the strengths of residency programs is the extended period of supervised clinical practice Residents are afforded before becoming teachers of record. According to Darling-Hammond (2006), teachers who have had relevant course work coupled with extensive guided practical preparation in an urban classroom prior to taking on independent classroom responsibilities are more likely to teach in flexible, learner-centered ways and to support student learning. They are also more likely to stay in the profession than those who enter teaching through a route that features only a few weeks of training before independent teaching (Berry, 2001; Darling-Hammond, 2003, 2006). An additional strength of residencies is that Resident
Teachers learn alongside an experienced mentor teacher. Grounded in sociocultural principles of learning, mentors scaffold Resident learning through modeling, observing, offering feedback, and collaborating on ways to improve practice. As Residents move through the zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978) and develop their knowledge and skills, they gradually take on more responsibility within the classroom.

Residents learn to teach in the same urban district in which they work and coursework is tailored to meet district needs. Residents learn the instructional initiatives and curriculum and are simultaneously familiarized with the history and context of the community where they will teach therefore, they enter with prior knowledge of the expectations, supports, and challenges of the district. Feiman-Nemser (2001) asserts that a lot of time and energy are spent by new teachers “gaining local knowledge of students, curriculum, and school context” because “most aspects of the teaching environment are unfamiliar—students, curriculum, administrative policies and procedures, testing requirements, professional norms, the larger community” (p. 1028). Residents however, enter classrooms with the advantage of having spent a full year in the district community. The final strength, which was important for my success as a new teacher and relevant to my study, is the support provided to Residents following the completion of the program. Residencies work in partnership with school districts to continue to provide professional development to support Residents through an induction phase, which is the first three years of teaching.

Teachers are not “finished products” when they complete their residencies. Many scholars have documented the importance of ongoing and comprehensive induction for new teachers as supporting them during their first few years alone in the classroom is a critical strategy for increasing teacher effectiveness as well as improving retention rates (Bolam, 1995;
Goldrick, 2009; Huling-Austin, 1990; Ingersoll & Smith, 2004; Moir et al., 2009). During the induction phase, new teachers are provided more than personal and emotional support. They are encouraged to critically reflect upon and refine their teaching practice. Feiman-Nemser (2001) views induction as a critical phase in a teacher’s continuum of development where new teachers develop a professional identity and deepening understanding of how to learn in and from practice.

As Resident Teachers incorporate course content into their daily teaching practices, the role of the mentor is to act as a guide. Within the mentoring relationship, space is created for new teachers to reflect on their instructional practices and develop positive professional identities. It is also an area where little research has been conducted. In my study, I examined the expectations Resident Teachers have for mentor support and the realities of the types of support provided. As Feiman-Nemser (1996) points out, “The education community understands that mentors have a positive effect on teacher retention, but that leaves open the question of what mentors should do, what they actually do, and what novices learn as a result” (p. 1). By illuminating the expectations held by new teachers for their mentors and the alignment or misalignment of the support provided, policy makers, districts, and schools will be better informed regarding ways in which mentoring currently meets the needs of new teachers as well as ways to improve existing practices to better support their professional development.

Although there is limited research on the effectiveness of UTRs, policymakers and district leaders are paying close attention to these types of alternate teacher preparation programs. The re-authorization of the Higher Education Opportunity Act passed by Congress authorizes millions of dollars and provides a pathway for the development and support of UTRs (Berry et al., 2008). In the following section, I will highlight two nationally recognized UTR
models by discussing extant literature on program components and their influence on teacher retention and student achievement.

The Boston Teacher Residency

One of the longest running Urban Teacher Residencies is The Boston Teacher Residency (BTR). The program began in 2003 as an effort by the Boston School District to address issues of teacher shortages in high need areas (mathematics, science, special education, English language learners) and lack of diversity within its teaching force. Its mission is to recruit, prepare, and sustain teachers for Boston Public Schools (BPS), which hires 30% of its new teachers through BTR. BTR conducts teacher preparation in K-12 classrooms where aspiring teachers, called Teacher Residents, who earn $12,000 per year, spend a full school year working with an experienced Mentor teacher in a BPS classroom four days each week and then participate in coursework on Fridays, after school, and in summer sessions. Coursework begins with a 2-month intensive session in July before the school year begins and continues all day on Friday throughout the year and once afternoon per week. Residents also have a full month of courses the following July after their preparation year. During the Residents’ preparation year, they earn a Massachusetts Initial Teacher License in their primary academic content area, partial credit toward dual licensure in either special education or English as a Second Language, which is completed the following year, as well as a master’s degree in education from the University of Massachusetts/Boston. One feature of the residency program, which I deem key in Resident learning and in their longevity in the profession, is that it provides graduates with three years of induction support including one-one-one mentoring and graduate course offerings.

Similar to the Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC) standards which outline common principles and foundations of teaching practice that are necessary to improve student achievement, the BTR curriculum focuses on eight core
competencies: equity and high expectations, professionalism, culturally sensitive and responsive learning communities, partnerships with family and community, instructional planning and implementation, content knowledge, monitoring and assessment of progress, reflection, collaboration, and personal growth. During each course, the Residents address one of the competencies; hence, all assignments, readings, and classroom experiences are designed to support them with achieving competence in one of the core teaching areas. One of the primary jobs of a mentor is to help Residents close the “knowing-doing” gap by learning how to apply new knowledge to their daily classroom routines. Modeling instruction, planning collaboratively, observing lessons, engaging new teachers in reflection and analysis of practice, and providing feedback are ways in which mentors can further support Residents with developing teaching competence.

Effective mentoring requires a skill base that is distinct from teaching and being an effective teacher does not automatically translate into being an effective mentor (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Schwille, 2008). Consequently, mentors need to be prepared to support new teachers’ learning. Recognizing the importance of pairing new teachers with a knowledgeable mentor, BTR mentors, who receive a $3,000 stipend, participate in a 3-day training over the summer, as well as monthly trainings during the school year. They also commit to conducting structured meetings each week with their assigned Resident and opening their classrooms and practice to the entire cohort of Residents placed within their schools. While the mentor serves as the primary guide for Residents, BTR’s approach to mentoring moves away from the one-on-one model of mentoring and treats the entire school community as the mentoring body. Drawing on social learning theories in which learning is situated in context, Residents participate in collective learning experiences by “making rounds” to participate in observations and
conversations with other educators in their schools (Solomon, 2009). Collaboration is a vital tool for improving the practice of new teachers. Support from colleagues cannot be underestimated as an important aspect of new teacher learning experiences. Research shows that schools may benefit from their efforts in developing school-wide structures that promote the communities of exchange among new and veteran teachers than focusing simply on mentoring (Johnson & Birkeland, 2003; Wong, 2004).

Boston Teacher Residency’s key outcomes include (a) graduate retention, (b) effectiveness of graduates measured by supervisors, and (c) student progress. In their examination of how well the BTR program achieved their goals, Papay et al. (2012) found retention rates among BTR graduates through Year 5 exceeds that of other new hires in the district by approximately 20 percentage points. They also found, however, that BTR graduates are no “more effective at raising student test scores than other teachers with the same level of experience in ELA and substantially less effective in math” (p. 414). Upon closer inspection, the researchers found a pattern in which BTR graduates improve their performance more rapidly during their first 5 years in the classroom. Students assigned to BTR graduates in their 1st year gain as much as 9% of the standard deviation lower on math tests over the course of the academic year than do other students assigned to the district’s other beginning teachers. By their 4th and 5th years, however, BTR graduates outperform other teachers with the same level of experience, as well as veteran teachers in the district by as much as 7% of standard deviation (Papay et al., 2012). The initial finding of students scoring significantly lower in math is surprising since Residents spend an entire year in classrooms before becoming teachers of record but the fact that in time, their students outperform those of veteran teachers suggests that teacher retention may influence student achievement as it creates stability and coherent instruction in
Missing from the literature is research exploring the mentoring component of BTR’s program. While BTR states that mentors conduct structured meetings each week with their assigned Resident and open their classrooms and practice to the entire cohort of Residents placed within their schools, there is no empirical data on the influence of the mentoring component of their program on Residents’ conceptions about teaching and learning or their teaching practice.

**Chicago’s Academy for Urban School Leadership/Chicago Teacher Residency**

Chicago’s Academy for Urban School Leadership was designed with similar principles as Boston’s program such as weaving theory and classroom practice, focusing on Resident learning alongside an experienced mentor, preparing candidates in cohorts and what can be considered as a critical component of the residency program, supporting Residents for multiple years once they are hired as teachers of record as this can increase teacher knowledge, student achievement, teacher satisfaction, and retention (Darling-Hammond, 1999; Fletcher, Strong, & Villar, 2008; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). Chicago’s Academy for Urban School Leadership provides its Residents with year-long training under the guidance of a trained mentor teacher, while completing courses towards a master’s degree. Residents take courses and simultaneously engage in experiential learning through a guided teaching apprenticeship in a classroom with students and the real day-to-day dilemmas of teaching (Berry & Norton, 2006). The apprenticeship affords Residents opportunities to practice what is taught in courses and continuously test, reflect on, and improve their skills. Unlike Boston, Chicago’s Residents receive a $30,000 stipend and their mentor teachers provide coaching for one or two Residents assigned to their classrooms. Mentor teachers receive a 20% salary supplement for their work. Residents are also supported by Mentor Resident coaches (MRCs) who are full-time veteran
teachers assigned to support both Residents and their mentor teachers. Another key difference between Boston and Chicago’s residency programs is MRCs do not teach students, but focus entirely on conducting observations, providing feedback, and facilitating professional development. This program feature is crucial because it eliminates the issue of mentors having to balance a classroom schedule with consistent attentiveness to the needs of Residents.

Upon program completion, graduates are placed in Chicago’s “turnaround schools” as a cohort. Turnaround schools are neighborhood schools that have been identified as failing. Chicago Public Schools uses what they call a “turn around” approach by replacing the school’s leadership and teachers in an attempt to deliver more effective instruction and increase student achievement. One key benefit of placing Residents in a school as a cohort is they will arrive with a built-in support system of colleagues with similar preparation experiences for work in urban schools.

While Chicago’s Teacher Residency Program began in 2001, there is no existing research on the influence of the Residents on student achievement nor is there research on the mentoring component of their program. This is a challenge for many Resident programs as most of the current literature focuses on program components, the numbers of graduates, retention rates, and principal satisfaction. Missing from the literature are the voices of Resident Teachers.

**Challenges of Existing Urban Teacher Residency Programs**

While urban teacher residency programs have been lauded as an innovative response to the challenges experienced by urban districts with recruiting, preparing, and retaining effective teachers for high needs schools, they are not without their challenges. Some cash-strapped districts consider the cost of paying a living wage to Residents and specialized professional development for mentor teachers as a barrier to program implementation. In addition, due to the current economic climate, Resident Teachers are not always guaranteed employment upon
completion of their residencies in the districts for which they have been prepared. One critical challenge is that residency programs lack sufficient long-term data to provide strong evidence on their impact on student achievement. Despite the growth of urban teacher residency programs, most have not yet been formally evaluated. There are limited studies comparing graduates of residency programs to other newly hired teachers in terms of their effectiveness in raising student achievement (Papay et al., 2012). Most of the existing data focuses on the number of program graduates and retention rates.

Residents from Boston and Chicago, however, signal the beginning of larger cohorts of teachers prepared through residency programs for which data can be gathered and analyzed. The US Department of Education has commissioned Mathematica, a company that conducts social policy research, to conduct an implementation study of the residency model. In the study, which is expected to be completed by 2015, Mathematica will assess how Teacher Resident Program (TRP) teachers’ classroom performance compares to other beginning and experienced teachers by estimating their impact on student achievement. They will also compare the retention rates of TRP and non-TRP beginning teachers. Last, they will examine the characteristics of the TRP programs, their applicants, and participants by measuring elements such as program length, required coursework and activities, characteristics of mentor teachers, and selection criteria for participants (US Department of Education, 2010).

**Extant Research on Mentoring**

*Mentoring and the Needs of Beginning Teachers*

In order to understand how Resident Teachers experience mentoring, it helps to have an understanding of the challenges and needs of new teachers. Veenman (1984) analyzed 83
international empirical studies to identify the most serious problems of beginning teachers. Veenman introduced the concept of “reality shock” that referred to the changing perceptions of the pre-service teacher candidate from idealism to a more realistic image of teaching as a result of their first teaching assignment. He also identified several commonly perceived challenges including classroom discipline, motivating students, dealing with individual differences, assessment, and relations with parents. Veenman’s work was updated by Johnson et al. (2004) who examined the experiences of teachers during their first year and found that the challenges new teachers faced were similar to what was found by Veenman 20 years earlier including difficulty engaging students and difficulty maintaining authority in their classrooms. Some of the new challenges Johnson found were (a) teaching underprepared students, (b) teaching English language learners, (c) teaching across cultural differences, (d) planning lessons to meet the standards, and (e) dealing with standards and accountability.

**Teaching and Mentoring in Urban Contexts**

New teachers entering urban schools with little or no experience working with culturally and linguistically diverse students and who are unaware or unwilling to acknowledge the existing structural inequities may attribute students’ lack of academic success on the students themselves rather than the social and economic conditions faced by students and their families. Education is considered as an equalizer in US society. Many Americans believe that if you work hard, you will ultimately achieve success. What many people who have adopted the ideology of meritocracy fail to consider however, are the prevalent inequalities that exist in society and directly influence urban schools. Oakes and Lipton (2007) assert the US is “plagued by inequities such as disparities in safe neighborhoods, decent housing, adequate healthcare, and sufficient school resources” (p. 52). These inequalities have a direct influence on students’ success in school.
One of the common features of urban teacher residencies is extensive clinical field experience with a carefully selected, trained mentor. This mentoring model is intended to better prepare pre-service teachers to effectively meet the needs of culturally diverse learners, to provide more rigorous and relevant instruction, to effectively connect theory and practice, and to become more efficacious (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Shulman & Shulman, 2004). Many of the challenges faced by new teachers highlighted by Johnson et al. (2004) can be mitigated during Resident Teachers’ year-long apprenticeship, prior to becoming teachers of record. Context counts and more time spent with a mentor provides ample opportunities for new teachers to engage in professional collaboration, observe effective instruction, and develop a more nuanced and complex understanding of the process of teaching and learning in urban schools (Gardiner, 2012).

Mentoring in urban contexts is a unique experience; therefore, I examined the characteristics and practices of mentors who are charged with helping new teachers shape or reshape their understanding and practice of teaching. Student populations in many urban school districts are characterized by high levels of diversity with regard to race/ethnicity, language, family income and composition, as well as religion (Steinberg & Kincheloe, 2004). In these settings, many new teachers have to be prepared to teach students with backgrounds much different from their own. They may encounter what Zumwalt and Craig (2008) describe as a “diversity gap” as they struggle to understand and build a context for the vast cultural differences between the lives of their students and their own. Most teacher candidates are White, middle-class women from suburban or rural backgrounds and enter residency and other preparation programs with little experience working with culturally, economically, and linguistically diverse students causing negative or deficit attitudes and beliefs about students with backgrounds that are
different from their own (Gay, 2000; Ladson-Billings, 2003). The cultural disparity between teachers and students may end up with teachers lowering their expectations for student achievement and affirming their existing biases and beliefs (Ukpokodu, 2004). If new teachers are expected to increase the learning opportunities for all students, mentors must support them in uncovering and identifying their personal attitudes and biases that influence their instructional decisions. In addition, mentors must help new teachers with developing what Murrell (2006) refers to as cultural competence. Cultural competence is “the ability to work successfully and to build academic capability among all students in cultural, social, and linguistic settings unlike their own” (p.81). To this end, new teachers must be knowledgeable about their students’ cultural background. They must also be able to create inclusive and productive learning environments, plan relevant instruction, translate subject matter knowledge into appropriate curriculum, and effectively assess student learning (Wideen, Mayer-Smith, & Moon, 1998).

New teachers working in urban contexts are faced with meeting the range of student needs, learning styles and behaviors as well as issues related to poverty, unemployment, and mobility (Fideler & Haskelkorn, 1999). According to Youngs et al. (2010), “the working conditions in urban districts lead many beginning teachers to develop coping strategies that can negatively impact their instruction, their commitment to teaching in urban contexts, and student learning” (p.57). These conditions can also lead to high turnover rates among new teachers. Data from the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), a nationally representative survey of teachers in the U.S., indicated that 16 percent of first-year teachers in high-poverty schools in 1999-2000 left teaching at the end of the of the year while 13 percent transferred to other schools or districts (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). Research further found that urban school districts often have less-qualified teachers than other districts (Lankford, Loeb, & Wykoff, 2002). Urban Teacher
Residency programs attempt to fill the gap of teacher supply and quality in urban districts by selectively recruiting, preparing, and supporting new teachers through induction.

In one study, similar to my study of New Teacher Residents, Gardiner (2012) explored how six first-year Urban Teacher Residents in the Midwest and two induction coaches (mentors) experienced mentoring and coaching. Gardiner sought to understand the characteristics of mentoring that facilitates or impedes professional learning for teachers working in high-poverty, high-needs schools. Unlike my study however, the mentors assigned to support the new teachers were employed and trained by the urban teacher residency program. They were also assigned to more than one new teacher and traveled between two schools. While the mentors had taught similar grade levels as the new teachers whom they mentored and previously worked in high-poverty urban schools, they had no prior teaching experience in either of the two schools where they served. Using data from interviews, observations, and field notes, Gardiner found that mentoring did contribute to the new teachers’ professional learning and that (a) trusting relationships set the foundation for the mentoring process but developed over time, (b) mentoring was an individualized process of using new teachers’ practice to help them address their immediate needs as well as identify and work toward long-term instructional goals, and (c) mentoring was a scaffolded process that enhanced new teachers’ ability to respond to their immediate needs and work toward long-term instructional goals. Gardiner’s (2012) study is the only study I found that specifically examines the mentoring component of induction in an urban teacher residency program, signaling a critical need for my study to further explore the types of mentoring New Teachers Residents need to improve their professional practice.

Urban Teacher Mentors. The characteristics of teachers who serve as mentors in Urban Teacher Residency Programs can influence the nature of their interactions with beginning
teachers as well as the effectiveness of their support (Young et al., 2010). Relevant characteristics include: years of experience, content areas or grade levels taught, areas of certification, knowledge of curriculum, pedagogy, and assessment, and expertise, including successful teaching experience in diverse, urban contexts (Achinstein & Barrett, 2004; Ladson-Billings, 2001). Scholars have further argued that effective urban teachers tend to be focused on student learning, have a strong sense of identity, include diverse cultural perspectives in their curriculum, and have strong interpersonal skills (Guyton & Hidalgo, 1995). Providing Resident Teachers with mentors with such characteristics holds promise for their ability to assist them with instruction, assessment, and student learning.

Mentors affect how new teachers perceive their teaching circumstances; something particularly important in urban contexts which experience such a high teacher-turnover rate. In another study, Achinstein and Barrett (2004) examined the patterns of and differences in frames (managerial, human resource, and political) used by mentors and new teachers to view linguistically and culturally diverse elementary students and challenges of their practice. The researchers concluded that mentors introduced new teachers to new ways of seeing challenges of practice through the use of multiple frames. The mentors promoted “reframing” as a way for new teachers to interpret experiences, address problems, and to uncover the underlying values held by teachers. Achinstein and Barrett (2004) further found that mentors helped new teachers understand that reframing their problems could help them adjust their approach to instruction. Using observations, student work analyses, and teacher-student transcripts, mentors helped new teachers focus on the needs of culturally diverse students and reframe their views.

Mentors can also assist new teachers in designing meaningful instruction for urban learners. In a third study, Athanasas and Achinstein (2003) examined two beginning elementary
teacher-mentor pairs. The study highlighted the complex challenges that mentors face when focusing new teachers on student learning, including low-performing students. The researchers concluded that the mentors in the study used two main strategies to focus beginning teachers on the learning of individual and underperforming students. First, the mentors activated knowledge of student and teacher learning and numerous domains of assessment, including knowledge of student assessment, content standards, curricular alignments, and formative assessment of new teachers. Next, mentors helped beginning teachers enact and refine pedagogical strategies based on their accumulated knowledge of students’ learning styles and needs. When mentors addressed this knowledge and strategies in their interactions with the new teachers, the new teachers, in turn, were better able to use scaffolding and grouping strategies to meet their students’ learning needs (Athanases & Achinstein, 2003).

_Urban Resident Teachers_. New teachers working in communities different from their own background need strong induction programs that promote beliefs and effective practices for working with diverse students (Luft & Roehrig, 2005). In one study, Luft and Roehrig (2005) explored the beliefs, instructional practices, and experiences of three white, first-year secondary science teachers who worked primarily with urban and rural Hispanic students. The researchers found that “beginning teachers’ intentions did not always translate into reality and that they used familiar, less effective practices to make their environment less uncertain” (p. 61). They further found the new teachers’ enthusiasm of working with diverse communities did not result in the implementation of reform-based teaching practices. The new teachers often moved through their lesson with little to no attention paid to the cultural relevance of the curriculum or their instruction.
These studies provided some insight into effective mentoring practices in diverse, urban contexts. They emphasized the influence mentors have in promoting student-centered instruction and attending to the needs of diverse learners. More specifically, the studies highlighted the ways mentors can help new teachers reframe the challenges they face, modify their instruction and assessment practices, and analyze and promote student learning.

**Mentoring and New Teacher Efficacy**

Teachers’ sense of efficacy has been related to student outcomes such as achievement, motivation, and students’ own efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001). To this end, it is important to examine the relationship between mentoring and efficacy. According to Yost (2002), a teacher with high-self efficacy tends to provide the most beneficial learning environment for his or her students, which influences achievement. Teacher efficacy, defined as intellectual activity by which one forges one’s beliefs about his or her ability to achieve a certain level of accomplishment (Bandura, 1977), has a direct link to the way students perform in the classroom (Woolfolk-Hoy, 1990). Researchers have found that teachers with a higher sense of efficacy tend to exert more effort in organizing, planning, and delivering their lessons. These teachers also set goals that reveal higher instructional aspirations and enthusiasm than teachers with a lower sense of efficacy. Teachers with high levels of teach of efficacy also tend to be more open to new ideas and are willing to experiment with innovative instructional methods to better meet the needs of their students (Wolters & Daugherty, 2007).

One of the primary factors influencing novice teachers' efficacy is the level of support and feedback they receive from having a mentor (Knobloch & Whittington, 2003).

“Collegial relationships, fostered via formal and informal mentoring, can initiate a deeper reflection about practice, offer encouragement that supports ongoing growth, and increase the job satisfaction needed for teachers to move through more mature career stages” (Danielson, 2002, p. 185).
Pairing new teachers with a knowledgeable mentor trained in the areas of adult learning and cognitive coaching can enhance their instructional methods and help new teachers bring about positive changes in student achievement. Ross (1992) examined the relationships between student achievement, teacher efficacy, and interactions with assigned coaches. Using a small sample of 18 history teachers in 36 classes and 6 coaches, he found that student achievement was higher in classrooms where teachers reported high levels of efficacy and had more contact with their assigned coaches. In an additional study documenting how first year urban teachers who worked with mentors describe the impact of mentoring on their development and how it influenced their decision to remain in teaching, Saffold (2002) found that 84% of the fellows participating in the Compton Fellowship Program reported that their self-confidence increased as a result of having a mentor. Study participants consistently mentioned that confidence was built through the emotional and professional support provided by mentors. Research data further revealed that 95% of the fellows believed that their teaching competence was improved because they had an opportunity to work with a mentor. In the focus groups, some fellows described how mentor feedback helped them to develop their skills while others emphasized how their mentor was helpful in establishing classroom routines and helping them to create and implement better lesson plans. Mentors are crucial to helping new teachers achieve a level of competency and confidence that translates their knowledge into meaningful instruction. As a result, improving the quality of their teaching performance can positively influence the academic achievement of students. In the following section, research on the influence of mentoring on student achievement will be examined.

**Mentoring and Student Achievement**

At the crux of education reform is the desire for improved academic growth and achievement for students therefore, it is important to examine the influence of mentoring on
student achievement. The largest and most ambitious study investigating the impact of induction was funded by the US Department of Education and conducted by a research team from Mathematica Policy Research of Princeton, NJ (Ingersoll, R. & Strong, M., 2011). This study collected data from 1,009 beginning teachers in 418 schools in 17 large, urban, low-income, public school districts. The sampled teachers were followed for three years, beginning in the 2005-2006 school year and student achievement test scores in both math and reading were collected from district administrative records for the 2005-06, 2006-07, and 2007-08 school years. The study showed that student achievement gains in math and reading were significantly greater when new teachers received 2 years of comprehensive induction support. In addition, participants of induction were more likely to incorporate instructional methods that promoted student growth leading to increased achievement.

Fletcher, Strong, and Villar (2008) also established a mentoring-achievement link, noting that new teacher mentoring yielded higher student achievement gains compared to other teachers who spent no time with a mentor. Using student data (achievement, demographics) and teacher information (years of experience) from three districts in California, their study examined the relationship between new teacher support and changes in student achievement. From 1998 to 2002, students in grades two through eleven were required to take the Stanford Achievement Test, version 9, (SAT/9) as part of California’s assessment program. The analysis for the study focused on students’ Total Reading score on the SAT/9 with results indicating that “mentor-based support has a positive impact on student achievement directly, and interacts with a student’s prior achievement” (p. 8).

In another study Glazerman et al., (2008) examined whether comprehensive teacher induction programs lead to higher teacher retention rates and other positive teacher and student
outcomes (including classroom practice and student achievement) as compared to more prominent, less comprehensive approaches to supporting new teachers. Using standardized achievement test data conducted by the district, the researchers concluded that comprehensive induction had no positive effect on student achievement during teachers’ first year. The results of this study suggests that the mentoring-student achievement link is mixed, therefore more research still needs to be done. While this study does not focus specifically on the impact of mentoring on student achievement, the literature is relevant as the goal of mentoring is to increase the effectiveness level of new teachers so they can positively influence student achievement.

Politicians have called for education reform efforts targeting improved student outcomes, and district level decision makers are trying to figure out how to support new teachers in ways that manifest academic achievement for students. Pairing new teachers with a trained, knowledgeable mentor can enhance their instructional methods and help new teachers bring about positive changes in student achievement. My study examined mentoring from the perspective of new teachers. It aimed to give voice to Resident Teachers in order to understand and describe their mentoring experiences. By illuminating the expectations and experiences of Residents Teachers, I hoped to contribute to the scholarship on mentoring by informing policy makers, district leaders, local school administrators, and mentors on ways in which mentoring effectively meets the needs of new teachers as well as ways to improve existing practices to better support their professional development.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODS

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to examine the mentoring experiences of Resident Teachers participating in a New Teacher Residency Project. In this study, Resident Teachers are teachers who completed their undergraduate studies and team-teach alongside a cooperating mentor teacher, unlike traditional teacher education program graduates who transition into their own classrooms after graduation. This chapter presents an overview of the research question, design, and methodology used to frame this study. The remainder of the chapter describes methods for the data collection and analysis procedures, as well as a discussion of specific strategies taken to ensure trustworthiness.

This research describes the mentoring experiences of Resident Teachers. In addition to team-teaching with a veteran cooperating teacher, Resident Teachers were also assigned a trained mentor to further support their professional development. The mentoring component of a residency program is designed to “help new teachers learn from and in their practice and to develop habits of mind that lead to continuous professional development” (Gardiner, 2012, p. 198). To this end, Resident Teachers’ perspectives of the mentoring process are important in order to determine if the intentions of mentoring are realized. This qualitative study makes their perspectives “meaningful, knowable, and explicit” (Patton, 1980, p. 196). Becker and Geer (1960) argue that an individual’s viewpoint and actions in specific situations are comprised of coordinated patterns of feelings, thoughts, and behaviors and are known as his or her perspective. My research will highlight the perspectives of Teacher Residents on their mentoring experiences.

Guiding Research Question

The research question guiding this study was: How do new teachers participating in a residency program experience mentoring?
My investigation used a qualitative case study design (Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2009). A case study is an in-depth description and analysis of a bounded system. In a more detailed description of case study, Cresswell (2007) describes it as a “qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information, and reports a case description and case-based themes” (p. 73). According to Yin (2003), a case study is appropriate for examining a “contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context” (p. 13), therefore making it an effective means of examining the context-specific practice of mentoring in a teacher residency program. For my study, the case was bounded by space and time. All of the participants graduated from their initial certification program and were continuing to work as Resident Teachers alongside a cooperating mentor teacher in a charter school. I utilized a variety of data sources including interviews, surveys, written reflections, and pupil work documents to gain an understanding of how Resident Teachers experienced mentoring. By triangulating data sources, I ensured that their mentoring experiences were not explored through a singular lens, but through a variety of lenses to allow multiple facets of the mentoring phenomenon to be revealed and understood (Baxter & Jack, 2008).

During the study, I anticipated varying interpretations of reality among study participants as each one brought their unique understanding of the mentoring process and created their own meanings about their interactions and experiences with mentors. Qualitative researchers reject the idea of an external reality that exists outside and independent of an individual’s interpretation (Searle, 1995). Researchers employing a qualitative approach argue for the value of participants’ interpretations of reality and further recognize that interpretations are influenced by the social context within which an activity takes place. As the researcher, I became the interpreter of what
participants said and what I have read in order to analyze Resident Teachers’ mentoring experiences.

**Methodology**

I used the constant comparative methodological approach for my study. Originally developed for use in grounded theory methodology (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), the constant comparative method is now applied more widely as a method of analysis in qualitative research. The constant comparative method was an appropriate method for my study as it allowed concepts to naturally emerge. Rather than asking Resident Teachers to describe their experiences with mentoring by using predetermined categories and ideas in a survey, the design of my study allowed for the organic evolution of themes and categories based upon the words and actions of participants (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). The guiding research question, *How do new teachers participating in a residency program experience mentoring?* was broad, thus allowing for the emergence of concepts that were important to Resident Teachers and allowed them to identify and explore meanings that their interactions with mentors held for them in the residency program.

**Context**

This study was part of a larger new teacher residency project at a charter school in the Southeastern region of the US. This K-8 charter school was formed by the merger of two successful charter schools that had been operating separately for a decade in an inner-city neighborhood. In 2012, the school was awarded an *Innovation Fund* grant from the state to collaborate with a local university to establish a model residency program and explore an innovative mentoring system to support the induction of beginning teachers.

At the beginning of the larger study in the fall of 2012, the school served a racially and economically diverse student population with 58% of students being White, 30% Black, 9%
Multi-Racial, 2% Hispanic, and 1% Asian. Due to the number of students eligible for free or reduced price meals (approximately 30% of students at the elementary level and approximately 43% at the middle school level), the school also qualified for Title I status. By the fall of 2013 however, the school demographics had shifted. The percentage of White students increased to 64%, Multi-Racial students increased to 6%, African American and Hispanic students decreased to 25% and 4% respectively while the Asian population remained the same with 1%. With fewer students qualifying for free and reduced lunch, only the middle school campus qualified for Title I status. According to Milner (2012), whose research focuses on opportunity gaps in urban schools, there is no clear, uniformed definition among researchers, theoreticians, policymakers, and practitioners in higher education as to the meaning of the term urban. Educational research in urban contexts however, often characterize schools and districts as being located in densely populated areas and having high levels of racial, linguistic, ethnic, and economic diversity with a disproportionate number of students who are low-income and qualify for free or reduced-priced lunch (Achinstein & Ogawa, 2011; Berry et al., 2009; Gardiner, 2012; Gardiner & Kamm, 2010; Singer et al., 2010; Solomon, 2009; Papay et al., 2012). While the context of my study was within a densely populated metropolitan area, it did not fully meet the traditional benchmark of an urban school as the shift in student demographics impacted the number of low-income students receiving free or reduced lunch.

**Participants**

Participant selection included purposeful sampling of eight Resident Teachers who participated in the residency program. I invited all eight Teacher Residents who had most recently completed their undergraduate studies as I was interested in examining their mentoring experiences from the beginning of their participation in the residency program as interns (fall 2012) and student teachers (spring 2013) through year-two of the residency program when they
were placed in classrooms as Associate Teachers and five consented to be a part of this research (fall 2013 through spring 2014). Patton (2002) argues that “the logic and power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting information-rich cases for study in depth” (p. 77). Resident Teachers who had experienced mentoring during their internships, student teaching placements, and throughout their first year as Associate Teachers can be considered information-rich cases. To add to the richness of my study, I invited participants from both the elementary and middle school campuses. Since participants came from different grade levels and were assigned different mentors, they had varied mentoring needs and experiences. The variance in life experiences, agency, grade levels, and assigned mentors provided an information-rich study with multiple perspectives.

Table 3
Research Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Grade Level Taught (Student Teacher)</th>
<th>Grade Level Taught (Resident Teacher)</th>
<th>Placement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cherie</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>African-American</td>
<td>3rd/1st</td>
<td>1st</td>
<td>Same Cooperating Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Renee</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>African-American</td>
<td>5th</td>
<td>5th</td>
<td>Same Cooperating Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Susan</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>6th</td>
<td>6th</td>
<td>Different Cooperating Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stevie</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td>White</td>
<td>8th</td>
<td>7th</td>
<td>Different Cooperating Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trina</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>4th</td>
<td>4th</td>
<td>Same Cooperating Teacher</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While participants initially began the residency program as undergraduate, pre-service teachers, my study was conducted post-graduation during their 2nd year in which they each served as an “associate” in partnership with a cooperating teacher. An Associate Teacher in this
context is a teacher who has successfully completed undergraduate studies and earned state certification yet chooses to remain in residence for a second year. While not teachers of record, Associate Teachers partnered with cooperating teachers to share responsibilities for planning and teaching, from working with small groups of students, to assessing student work, to leading whole class activities. The gradual release of responsibilities is intended to allow new teachers an opportunity to gain additional classroom experience while simultaneously receiving support and guidance from their cooperating teacher (Cross et al., 2011).

To get a complete understanding of participants’ mentoring experiences in the residency program from the time they entered as interns through their second year as associate teachers, I examined extant interview, reflection, and survey data from the larger study. Originally, I planned to conduct a multiple case study with each participant’s data represented as a case, but after reviewing the extant data from the larger study, I found that some Teacher Residents had been previously interviewed as many as three times while others had been interviewed only once. In addition, I was not able to interview one of the participants who had consented to be a part of the study due to scheduling conflicts, limiting me to only previously collected interview and reflection data. Lastly, Resident Teachers often referenced the residency program as a whole, rather than segmented experiences each semester. To this end, I made the decision to use the New Teacher Residency Program as the case for my study looking at participants’ mentoring experiences across the entire program.

In addition to the guidance of their cooperating teacher, participants were also supported by a trained mentor teacher who conducted classroom observations and provided feedback. Mentor teachers were required to take a six-hour teacher development course. The two-part course was specifically designed to help mentor teachers better understand the characteristics,
perceptions, tasks, and training needs of beginning teachers. In addition, mentors were trained in Glickman’s (1985) model of clinical supervision. This model consists of a systematic coaching cycle that includes a preconference, observation, and post observation conference to encourage Resident Teachers to reflect on their teaching and develop problem-solving skills. During the pre-observation conference, the Resident Teacher determined an area of practice they wanted to be the focus for an observation. Mentors then chose from a variety of effective observation instruments to record samples of behavior related to the targeted area discussed in the pre-observation conference (Pitton, 2000). After analyzing the data, the mentor conducted a post-observation conference which began by allowing time for the Resident Teacher to reflect and assess their teaching performance followed by feedback from the mentor. Resident Teachers and mentors then worked collaboratively to develop a course of action to correct or modify teaching behaviors and to develop a plan for the next coaching cycle (Podsen & Denmark, 2000).

Structured professional learning activities in the form of Critical Friends Groups (CFGs) were provided for Resident Teachers as well. Critical Friends Groups are professional learning communities consisting of no more than 10 cross-career educators from various grade levels and departments, who come together to meet regularly in an effort to improve their practice through collaborative learning (National School Reform Faculty, 2012). The Critical Friends Group process acknowledges the complexity of teaching and provides structures for teachers to improve their teaching by giving and receiving feedback (Bambino, 2002). The structure and format of the group created opportunities for colleagues to question and challenge their own practice as well as the practice of their peers in a positive, nonthreatening environment. The work is considered critical because it challenges educators to bring about change they view as necessary for their professional practice and/or school environment. Resident Teachers’ participation in
Critical Friends Groups provided an additional layer of support for developing their teaching practice and allowed Resident Teachers to engage in dialogue surrounding issues of teaching and learning alongside other beginning and veteran colleagues.

Last, Resident Teachers were afforded the opportunity for post-baccalaureate coursework in a specific content area (e.g., reading, science, math) at the partnering university. The university covers tuition and fees allowing Resident Teachers the opportunity to concentrate on an area of specialization within their teaching. Residents can select and complete a program that will result in a teaching endorsement in either reading or math.

**Position of the Researcher**

Bogdan and Biklen (2007) state, “Qualitative researchers attempt to seek out their own subjective states and their effects on data” (p.38). While it is not possible to be completely free of bias, the researcher should make every attempt to reveal those biases and employ means to transcend them (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). By identifying my biases and employing rigorous research methods, I sought to reduce the subjectivity of my study (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007).

I entered my research process having 17 years of teaching experience. During that time, I spent 5 years in the role of New Teacher Mentor. Part of my responsibilities included matching teachers with a grade level mentor. In addition, I observed instruction, provided constructive feedback, and conducted monthly new teacher workshops. Last, I served as co-instructor for the required teacher development course taken by the cooperating teachers and mentors of study participants. As a doctoral student, one of the program requirements is to engage in a university teaching internship with a professor in the department. I chose to teach a teacher development course (ECE 8400/Curriculum and Teacher Development) as the course description aligned with my interest in mentoring new teachers. While I knew I wanted to study the construct of new
teacher mentoring, I did not plan in advance to conduct my study at the same school with cooperating teachers and mentors who had taken the course. None of the cooperating teachers and mentors were interviewed or participated in my research study however; there was a sense of rapport and collegiality between them and myself. In my study, I explored the participants’ mentoring experiences in their roles as interns, student teachers, and finally as Resident Teachers. I recognized that my past experience as a new teacher mentor influenced how I made meaning of their perceptions. I further realized that I brought certain ideas of what I think mentoring should look like. Conversely, I think the experience I brought to the study provided me with knowledge that enriched the study’s methodological decisions. For example, my experience of working with both beginning teachers as well as mentor teachers informed the various types interview questions and probes.

My goal is to reveal my biases through self-reflection and make the study credible and trustworthy by making explicit how my biases influenced the study. Entering my study, I was fully aware that I needed to be cautious about projecting my views onto research participants (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). Although it is not possible for researchers to completely put aside their biases when conducting research, these biases can also provide the impetus for their study. To this end, I chose to research this particular topic because I am a strong advocate for new teacher mentoring and induction. To mitigate biases, I utilized several strategies. First, I employed triangulation by using multiple methods of data collection including interviews, surveys, written reflections, and student work documents (Merriam, 2009). This strategy allowed me to compare and cross-check the data collected during interviews with what I read in the written reflections and noticed in the survey data and student work. Second, I conducted member checks with participants following the interview and after writing my initial findings. I used member checks
as a way to solicit feedback from my participants to minimize the possibility of misinterpreting the meaning of what they said and did. Member checks further enabled me to identify my own biases and misunderstandings of what I heard or and/or read. To further protect against biases, I conducted peer debriefs with my colleague, who is also a doctoral student, to assess whether my findings were plausible based on the data. Last, I maintained researcher memos to document each step of the research process and to record reflections, questions, problems and decisions as a way to further support the trustworthiness of my study.

**Data Sources and Management**

Yin (2009) stresses the importance of using multiple sources and that data must be triangulated. The data sources for my study included (a) surveys, (b) semi-structured interviews, and (c) documents (see Table 2). These data sources answered the research question, *How do new teachers participating in a residency program experience mentoring?* through four sub-questions. Each data source is described in the following section.
Table 4

Data Sources and Research Sub-questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Sub-questions</th>
<th>Interviews</th>
<th>Written Reflections</th>
<th>Surveys</th>
<th>Pupil Work Documents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What supports do Resident Teachers expect to receive from mentors?</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How does the support provided by mentors align with the personal and professional needs of Resident Teachers?</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How does mentoring influence Resident Teachers’ conceptions about teaching and learning?</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do Resident Teachers perceive the influence of mentoring on their professional practice?</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interviews

There were a minimum of three in-depth, semi-structured interviews conducted with each participant for the study. One participant was interviewed four times during the study. Extant interview data collected during participants’ first year of residency as interns and student teachers as well as interview data collected in the first semester of their second year as Associate Teachers were analyzed. Based on my initial analysis of the extant data, I conducted two
additional in-depth, semi-structured interviews, lasting between 45 minutes to 1 hour. My first interview with participants took place in April and my final interview took place at the end of May. All interviews were audio-taped and transcribed verbatim.

Interviews are essential as well as ideal to a case study because they highlight human issues. Yin (2009) lauds the interview as one of the most important sources of case study research as they allow access to features of a phenomenon that are not observable. Merriam (2009) explains that “interviewing is necessary when we cannot observe behaviors, feelings, or how people interpret the world around them” (p. 88). Interviewing Resident Teachers who participated in this residency program helped me gain insight into participants’ expectations, professional needs, self-perceptions, and perceptions of change as a result of mentoring within the residency program.

During the interviews, my questions were directed towards the participants’ experiences, feelings, and beliefs about mentoring. I employed a form of “bracketing” which, according to Miller and Crabtree (1992, as cited by Groenewald, 2004) requires researchers to “brace” their own preconceptions and allow themselves to become an interpreter. I recognized that I would be conducting an exchange of views between myself and my participants, and in doing so I must bracket my preconceptions and attempt to understand the phenomenon of mentoring from their perspective. During the interviews, I inquired about Resident Teachers’ expectations of and relationships with mentors. I specifically asked about supports they felt they needed in order to improve their professional practice and whether the support they received aligned with those needs. Additionally, I included questions regarding new understandings about teaching and learning as well as mentoring influences on teaching practices. Some of the questions included were, “What do you believe are the purposes of new teacher mentoring?” “What types of support
do you expect a mentor to provide?” “Tell me about your experiences with your mentor.” In subsequent interviews, I probed to get more in-depth perspectives by asking questions such as: “Tell me about a time when you felt supported and/or not supported” and “How has the mentoring experience influenced your teaching practices?” (See Appendix A)

My interviews were iterative as I adjusted the questions based upon initial analysis of participants’ previously collected interview data. The final set of interview questions were again based on my analysis of participants’ interview responses as I attempted to uncover the essence of their mentoring experience. I conducted initial analysis following each set of interviews, looking for existing and any new, emerging themes. During the analysis process, I used my researcher memos to capture thoughts, comparisons, and connections (Charmaz, 2006). Doing so helped me make sense of the data and generate new questions for my follow-up interview. As I returned to conduct the final interview, I inquired about themes that had emerged as a way to member check to decrease the chance of any misrepresentation.

Written Reflections

I used Teacher Residents’ written reflections as an additional data source to help answer my research questions. During their intern and student teaching experiences, Resident Teachers were invited by the Residency Program Director to complete weekly reflections describing any teaching related learning experiences, a high point, or any other meaningful situation they wished to share. I used this information to determine (a) what Resident Teachers reflected on regarding their work with cooperating teachers and mentors, (b) any stated needs for additional support, (c) if any action was planned (or taken) as a result of their collaboration with cooperating teachers and mentors.
Resident Teachers also completed Critical Friends Group (CFG) meeting reflections. CFG was a targeted intervention built into the design of the residency program to provide an additional layer of collegial support for developing Resident Teachers’ professional practice. The CFG allowed space for them to engage in dialogue about issues of teaching and learning alongside other beginning and veteran colleagues. In the reflections, Resident Teachers were asked (a) Please reflect on your CFG experience today and (b) What difference does it make that we meet? The reflections were used to help gauge the alignment of the CFG support with Resident Teachers’ needs.

**Surveys**

I used de-identified, aggregated survey data to provide information about the context of my study. Resident Teachers completed satisfaction surveys during year-one as well as year-two inquiring about their overall experiences in the residency program. During year-one, surveys were given at the end of the year in June 2013. Surveys were given again in January of 2014 during year-two of their residency. Survey questions specifically examined the professional development initiatives provided within the residency program, including mentoring. Some of the survey questions asked were (a) How well has the ongoing professional development of the New Teacher Residency Project prepared you for your teaching responsibilities?, (b) What do you consider to be the strengths of the professional development initiatives?, (c) What do you consider to be the weaknesses of the professional development initiatives? The surveys were de-identified, therefore I was not able to link responses to specific research participants. The survey data did, however, provide me with a better understanding of Resident Teachers’ overall perceptions of the residency program and their feelings towards the professional development supports provided.
Pupil Work Documents

I used pupil work documents as a tertiary data source to help provide context for the types of support Resident Teachers sought from cooperating teachers and mentors. While my study focused on the mentoring experiences of Teacher Residents, I was also interested in examining how mentoring influenced their conceptions about teaching and learning as well as their teaching practice. I used pupil work documents to shape my interview questions as examining the documents and questioning student work helped me better understand Resident Teachers’ pedagogical decisions and practices. As Resident Teachers shared pupil work and discussed the context of assignments, I asked specific questions related to lesson planning and instructional strategies utilized during the lesson. In doing so, I sought evidence of new understandings and shifts in their teaching practice that may have been influenced by their cooperating teacher or assigned mentor.

Research Journal

During and immediately following the interviews, I used a researcher journal to record comments and behaviors relative to my research participants. These were written accounts of what I heard, saw, experienced, and thought during the course of collecting and reflecting on the data. It allowed me to record facial expressions, body language, and gestures that would be missed on a tape recording, but perhaps relative to the data collection process. The second purpose was for reflection. My researcher journal created space for my comments and included things such as my feelings, hunches, interpretations, preconceptions, and biases (Bogdan & Taylor, 1998). The researcher journal further served as a way for me to record my wonderings and follow-up questions as I read and analyzed the initial data. Last, I used my journal to document my decision-making process throughout my analysis process. My journal was not used
as a data source however, I feel it is worthy of mentioning as it aided me in maintaining notes on new questions added to my interview protocol (following my initial interviews) and detailed records of my decision making during the data analysis process.

I began reading extant interview transcripts for each participant, highlighting segments that would help answer my research questions. I paid specific attention to interview protocol questions related to cooperating teacher, mentor (official and unofficial), university supervisor, administrations, and CFG support. In addition, I noted responses where Teacher Residents expressed gaps in their expectations for support versus what they actually received. I used the noted responses to develop questions for my first round of interviews.

I interviewed Cherie (pseudonym) two times in addition to the three extant interviews from September 2012, March 2013, and October 2013. I interviewed Renee (pseudonym) once in addition to two previous interviews conducted in March 2013 and October 2013. My interviews with Trina (pseudonym) took place in April and May of 2014 and she had only one previous interview in October 2013. I also interviewed Susan (pseudonym) in April of 2014 as she had previous interviews from March 2013, May 2013, and October 2013. Lastly, I did not have the opportunity to interview Stevie (pseudonym) due to scheduling issues. I did however, have access to extant interview data taken in September 2012, March 2013, and October 2013. All of my interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. Reflections were written following the interviews which allowed me to monitor the process of data collection as well as begin to analyze my data (Merriam, 2009).
Table 5

Research Timeline

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>March 2014</td>
<td>Defended Prospectus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Retrieved extant interview data from Dropbox to load to ATLAS.ti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coded 3 of Cherie’s / 2 of Renee’s / 1 of Stevie’s interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Created initial coding manual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Peer reviewed codes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Met with Committee Chair to review codes-revised coding manual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coded remaining extant interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Revisited interview protocol-added clarifying questions for individual participants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April 2014</td>
<td>Interviewed Cherie, Trina, and Susan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transcribed and coded interview data-updated coding manual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May-July 2014</td>
<td>Member checked-shared initial findings during final interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conducted final interviews with Cherie, Renee, and Trina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transcribed and coded interview data-added codes as needed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Met with Committee Chair to review codes-revised coding manual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Used ATLAS.ti query tools to continue data analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug-Jan 2015</td>
<td>Retrieved written reflection and survey data from Dropbox</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coded written reflections in Atlas.ti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Analyzed survey data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Met with Committee Chair and Peer Reviewer weekly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reviewed categories and themes with Committee Chair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wrote Findings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Member checked-sent findings to participants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb-Mar 2015</td>
<td>Finalized dissertation draft and emailed to committee for feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dissertation defense</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data Analysis

My investigation used a qualitative case study design (Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2009).

Originally, I planned to conduct a multiple case study with each participant’s data represented as a case, but after reviewing the extant data from the larger study, I found that some Teacher Residents had been previously interviewed as many as three times while others had been interviewed only once. In addition, I was not able to interview one of the participants who had consented to be a part of the study, limiting me to only previously collected interview and reflection data. To this end, I made the decision to use the New Teacher Residency Program as the case for my study looking at participants’ mentoring experiences across the entire program.
Analysis within and across participants’ data collected at different points during the residency program was necessary for capturing individual and collective meaning as well as identifying similarities and differences. Using constant comparative methods (Charmaz, 2006; Strauss & Corbin, 1998), I looked within each piece of interview, reflection, and student work data to compare participants’ experiences, actions, and interpretations to present their collective mentoring perspectives. In the following section, I will describe this process.

**Process for Data Analysis**

Data analysis for my study was ongoing and inductive using constant comparative analysis (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Some of the data for my study was previously collected therefore, extant interview data were analyzed first. I began by reading the interview transcripts and conducting line-by-line open coding to begin identifying recurring themes. Strauss and Corbin (1990) describe open coding as “the part of analysis that pertains specifically to the naming and categorizing of phenomena through close examination of data” (p. 62). Though open coding, I began determining what was happening and what the statements of my participants meant. The initial open-coding process also helped me gain insight into what questions I should ask in my follow-up interviews.

Following open coding, I conducted axial coding. Axial, or analytical coding is an additional type of coding that comes from interpreting and reflecting on meaning and involves synthesizing and grouping open codes into more abstract categories (Merriam, 2009). Strauss and Corbin (1990) state, “axial coding answers questions such as when, where, why, how and with what consequences” (p. 125). These questions helped me refine my categories and describe Resident Teachers’ mentoring experiences on a more conceptual rather than a descriptive level. The final step of my analysis process was selective coding where I refined my major categories
into the selection of what Strauss and Corbin (2008) refer to as a core category. The core categories were the central themes around which my final analysis was based. I followed the same procedures for analyzing the written reflections. Pupil work was not coded but the context and content were analyzed. During the final interview, some Resident Teachers shared pupil work and were questioned about the context of the lesson. I specifically asked about how Resident Teachers determined the appropriateness of the lesson, teaching strategies, and assessment. My intention was to learn about the support Resident Teachers may have sought or received from cooperating teachers, mentors, unofficial mentors, or colleagues as they planned and implemented instruction. Examining their pupils’ work and listening to Resident Teachers’ explanations provided me with insight into their lesson planning and teaching practices. I was specifically seeking evidence of any shifts in their practice that may (or may not) have been influenced by others.

I followed a recursive pattern of making constant comparisons, within and across individual participants’ data sets in order to identify and see clarifying patterns and to determine any contrasting experiences. In the second phase of my analysis, I analyzed across all five participants’ data sets to look for similarities and differences. Throughout this iterative process, ongoing comparisons served as a way for me to check the authenticity of my developing themes.
Table 6

*Case Study Design*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Cherie</th>
<th>Renee</th>
<th>Trina</th>
<th>Stevie</th>
<th>Susan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Data types</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Satisfaction surveys (year 1 &amp; 2)</td>
<td>Satisfaction surveys (year 1 &amp; 2)</td>
<td>Satisfaction surveys (year 1 &amp; 2)</td>
<td>Satisfaction surveys (year 1 &amp; 2)</td>
<td>Satisfaction surveys (year 1 &amp; 2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>interviews (year 1 &amp; 2)</td>
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<td>interviews (year 1 &amp; 2)</td>
<td>interviews (year 1 &amp; 2)</td>
<td>interviews (year 1 &amp; 2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Written reflections (year 1)</td>
<td>Written reflections (year 1)</td>
<td>Written reflections (year 1)</td>
<td>Written reflections (year 1)</td>
<td>Written reflections (year 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pupil work (year 2)</td>
<td>*No pupil work available</td>
<td>Pupil work (year 2)</td>
<td>*No pupil work available</td>
<td>*No pupil work available</td>
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<tr>
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<td>member checked with final interview</td>
<td>member checked with final interview</td>
<td>member checked with final interview</td>
<td>*unable to interview and member check in person</td>
<td>*unable to conduct final interview and member check in person</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Cross-participant analysis**

The iterative nature of qualitative data analysis is key to gaining insight and developing meaning. Berkowitz (1997) characterizes qualitative analysis as a loop-like pattern of multiple rounds of revisiting the data as new questions emerge and new connections are made along with a deepening understanding of the material. Initial analysis of my data helped me determine “what was going on” in order to build up a picture of the data emerging and also guided me in the next set of data collection (Gribch, 2007). Additionally, I conducted member checks with participants during my final interviews. Prior to beginning the interview, I shared my initial findings to ensure my interpretations of the extant interview data were accurate. Sharing my initial findings was particularly important because the interview protocol used for the larger study examined Resident Teachers’ *overall* experiences with the New Teacher Residency Project. I however, focused specifically on their mentoring experiences. Some of the questions asked in the extant interviews did not relate directly to my research questions, yet all of the extant data was coded and analyzed. Conducting member checks during my final interviews gave my participants an opportunity to correct any wrong interpretations of the data and confirm the accuracy of my
preliminary findings. As shown in Table 6, I did not conduct member checks with Stevie and Susan. I was not able to interview Stevie at all due to scheduling conflicts and Susan cancelled our final interview which was when I had planned to share my initial findings. After analyzing all of the data, I emailed my findings and solicited feedback from three of the five participants with whom I was able to make contact. Member checking served as a way for me to establish credibility by lessening the possibility of misinterpreting the meaning of what my participants said.

**Electronic Assistance for Data Management and Analysis**

To assist with data management and analysis, I utilized the computer assistant qualitative data analysis system (CAQDAS) ATLAS.ti (Friese, 2012) and the approach of noticing, collecting, and thinking (NCT) (Seidel, 1998). Each data source, referred to as a primary document (PD), was uploaded and formed a hermeneutic unit (HU).

**Phase One**

I began by converting all of the extant interview data to rich text, uploading them to ATLAS.ti and conducting line-by-line open coding to begin identifying recurring themes. Strauss and Corbin (1990) describe open coding as “the part of analysis that pertains specifically to the naming and categorizing of phenomena through close examination of data” (p. 62). Though open coding, I began determining what the statements of my participants meant, beginning with Cherie, Renee, and Susan’s most recent interviews from October, 2013 as they entered year-two of the residency program. Following the October, 2013 interviews, I worked backwards, analyzing interviews from the spring semester of 2013, then fall of 2012 when participants initially entered the residency program. Using open-coding, I began noticing examples of support and relationship patterns among Teacher Residents and their cooperating
(lead) teachers and assigned mentors. For example, when asked in her interview about the supports that stand out in her mind, Cherie stated, “I had my cooperating teacher as well as my mentor...you knew that you and those two people had that relationship already where you felt you could go to them for anything” (2:6-Interview, March, 2013). I also began identifying gaps in support as Susan indicated that her cooperating teacher did not always read her lesson plans in advance. She shared,

...in the middle of my lessons, because there was not [a lot of] communication of what I was doing, she would just interrupt and ask questions. If she were to have read my lesson plan, she would’ve known the answer to that question” (13:41-Interview, May 2013).

Initial analysis of my data helped me determine “what was going on” in order to build up an emerging picture of the data and also to guide my preparation for my first round of interviews in April (Gribch, 2007).

After coding my first seven interviews, I met with my Committee Chair and a fellow doctoral student to share my data and vet my codes as peer debriefers. During our sessions, I shared sections of my interview transcripts to see if my emerging themes were grounded in the data. The peer debriefs served as a way to enhance the trustworthiness and credibility of my study but it also helped build my confidence with analyzing the data as my peer debriefers and I both noticed similar themes in the data. During the next step of my analysis, I then applied the coding manual to the remaining data adding new codes and revisiting previously coded documents as I redefined or added new codes to my manual. Once I began applying existing codes to the remaining data without having to create new ones, I knew I had reached my “first point of saturation” (Friese 2012, p 6). I followed the same open-coding analysis process for my interviews conducted in April and again at the end of May. After my initial coding of all interview data, I then coded participants’ written reflections about the residency program and
their CFG meeting experience. Student work was not coded but the context and content were analyzed. During their final interview, several Resident Teachers shared student work and answered questions about the context of the lesson. Examining their students’ work and listening to Resident Teachers’ explanations provided me with additional insight into their planning and teaching practices. I was specifically seeking evidence of any shifts in their practice that may (or may not) have been influenced by their cooperating teacher and/or mentor.

In ATLAS.ti, researchers code each primary document and the codes are located in the margin area. As I coded each primary document, the software tallied the frequency of each code. The first number next to the code shows the frequency at that point in my analysis process. This number is also referred to as *groundedness* or how relevant it is to the data.
At the end of the initial round of coding, I had a total of 61 preliminary codes. I printed a list of all of the codes and quotes associated with each code to examine them more closely. After examining the coded quotes and sharing my thinking with my Committee Chair and fellow doctoral student, I concluded that some of my codes were too broad and I needed to be more specific about what I was noticing while other codes could be grouped together, creating more conceptual categories (Merriam, 2009). At this point I began the process of axial coding, leading me into phase two of my analysis.
Phase Two

During phase two of my analysis, I followed a recursive pattern of making constant comparisons, within and across participants’ data sets in order to identify and see clarifying patterns and to determine any contrasting experiences. Throughout this iterative process, ongoing comparisons served as a way for me to check the authenticity of my developing categories. Berkowitz (1997) characterizes qualitative analysis as a loop-like pattern of multiple rounds of revisiting the data as new questions emerge and new connections are made along with a deepening understanding of the material. These questions helped me refine my categories and describe Resident Teachers’ mentoring experiences on a more conceptual rather than a descriptive level.

In this phase of the analysis, my categories began to crystallize and I began creating subcategories. For example, I created the category TEACHER DEVELOPMENT and various subcategories (see Figure 3). TEACHER DEVELOPMENT became the main heading, followed by the subcategories below. Initially, TEACHER DEVELOPMENT had 140 total quotes. As I reexamined each quote within the category, I moved it to the appropriate subcategory. It was at this point that I began to refine my major categories into core categories upon which my final analysis will be based (Strauss and Corbin, 2008).

![Figure 3 Building Subcategories]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TEACHER DEVELOPMENT</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEACHER DEVELOPMENT_areas of growth</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEACHER DEVELOPMENT_feelings of preparedness to teach</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEACHER DEVELOPMENT_management strategy</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEACHER DEVELOPMENT_new learning in AT role</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEACHER DEVELOPMENT_new learning through ASU program</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEACHER DEVELOPMENT_roles and responsibilities</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEACHER DEVELOPMENT_sense of efficacy</td>
<td>15</td>
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<td>TEACHER DEVELOPMENT_sense of identity</td>
<td>23</td>
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<tr>
<td>TEACHER DEVELOPMENT_supervisor feedback</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Phase Three

In the final phase of my analysis, my core categories included: *Influence, Expectations, Support, Gaps in Support, Tensions, Teacher Development, and Critical Friends Groups* and will be discussed in Chapter Four. Each core category included various subcategories (See Table 6). I vacillated between incorporating the CFG data into my existing categories or analyzing it separately. I made the decision to analyze the data separately because CFG was a targeted intervention built into the residency program as an additional layer of support for Resident Teachers. As part of the larger NTRP study, Resident Teachers completed written reflections about CFG support and the extant interview protocol included several questions surrounding Resident Teachers’ CFG experiences yielding a large amount of data.
### Table 7

**Core Categories and Subcategories**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core Categories</th>
<th>Subcategories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Expectations</strong></td>
<td>Role as Associate Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cooperating Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mentor Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residency Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Support</strong></td>
<td>School Community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cooperating Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mentor Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University Staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unofficial Mentor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Program Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teaching in an Urban Context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gaps in Support</strong></td>
<td>Cooperating Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mentor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residency Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Role as Associate Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teacher Development</strong></td>
<td>New Learning in Role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>New Learning through Coursework</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sense of Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Influence</strong></td>
<td>Identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sense of Efficacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sense of Influence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tensions</strong></td>
<td>Coursework</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Program Participation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Remaining Areas of Growth</td>
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<td><strong>Critical Friends Group</strong></td>
<td>Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CFG Tensions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Topics</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition to CFG interview and written reflection data, I also examined de-identified satisfaction survey data in the final phase of my analysis. Survey questions specifically examined the professional development initiatives provided within the residency program, including mentoring. The surveys were de-identified, therefore I was not able to link responses to specific research participants. The survey data did, however, provide me with a better understanding of Resident Teachers’ overall perceptions of the residency program and their feelings surrounding the mentoring supports provided. I used the data as a way to confirm my findings. For example, one of the survey questions asked, “How well has the ongoing professional development of the
NTRP (CFG, mentoring, observations, school visits) prepared you for your teaching responsibilities?” Of the eight year-one Teacher Residents surveyed, two felt they had derived a sound understanding of teaching, three felt they had learned a lot and have used ideas and skills in their work, and three felt it was extremely helpful and has equipped me well for my work. This confirmed my finding related to Resident Teachers’ sense of satisfaction with the mentoring support provided within the residency program. Another survey question asked, “What topics, if any would you have liked to have more information on?” Consistent with my findings and extant literature on the concerns of beginning teachers, 50% of Resident Teachers identified classroom management.

After I finalized my categories and subcategories, I again debriefed with my Committee Chair and fellow doctoral student to discuss my categories and to get feedback. My Committee Chair and I reviewed a research table I created that included all of my categories and subcategories along with their descriptions and the number of units in each. As we reviewed the data table, I noticed there were subcategories that were related and could be merged. For example, under the core category, “teacher development,” the subcategories included alignment, describing the ways intended supports align with Resident Teachers’ needs, sense of satisfaction, describing Resident Teachers’ feelings of satisfaction in their role, and expectation confirmed, describing an expectation held by Resident Teachers that was met. After reviewing the descriptions, I made the decision to collapse the alignment and expectation confirmed subcategories and merge them with sense of satisfaction. As a novice researcher, I often worried about “getting it right” and wondered if my categories “made sense” to others. Having the support of my Committee Chair and colleague who is at a similar point in her analysis process was helpful because they often forced me to defend my reasoning for naming and collapsing
codes. Using the peer debriefing sessions with my Committee Chair and colleague was an essential step in supporting the trustworthiness of this study.

Next, I utilized the query tool in ATLAS.ti to produce a report of all codes with all of the quotes and memos attached to the codes. From the report, I was able to select exemplar quotes and their location for each concept. I then created a spreadsheet outlining core categories, subcategories, explanation of categories, total number of units, exemplar quotes, transcript location in ATLAS.TI, participant name, and date. Lastly, I used the data from the spreadsheet to write my findings section.

**Trustworthiness**

Trustworthiness is used to describe the quality of a study and results from qualitative research. Studies are considered as trustworthy when the researcher was rigorous and ethical in carrying out the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Qualitative researchers contend that because the nature and purpose of the quantitative and qualitative traditions are different, it is incorrect to apply the same criteria of worthiness or merit (Krefting, 1991). The criteria I used to establish trustworthiness were credibility, transferability, and dependability which will be discussed in detail in the following section.

**Credibility**

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), credibility means there are multiple ways in which individuals come to understand a particular phenomenon or process. In my study of examining the ways in which Resident Teachers experience mentoring, each participant brought their individual perceptions and experiences meaning there were multiple realities. To establish credibility, I employed strategies such as (a) data triangulation, (b) peer debriefing, and (c) member checks. Triangulation occurs when more than one data source provides supporting evidence of emerging themes and perspectives (Creswell, 2007). To achieve data triangulation, I
used multiple data sources including interview transcriptions, written reflections, surveys, student work samples, and researcher memos to establish trustworthiness. All of my data sources were compared and cross-checked to look for patterns and themes as well as any disconfirming evidence or anomalies that were present. Peer debriefing was a way to provide outside checks of the research process. It involved me engaging with members of my committee as well as a peer reviewer to provide me with feedback. Through the debriefing process, their feedback facilitated my research in the areas of transcription analysis, coding methods, and analysis methods (Creswell, 2007). Last, member checking was conducted as a way to ensure the accuracy of my findings. Participants were provided with my initial findings to review to provide feedback on whether I accurately shared their views (Creswell, 2007; Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Transferability

Transferability is the degree to which findings may be applicable to other situations. In order to enhance the possibility of transferability, Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest several strategies such as thick description and keeping an audit trail. They further note that transferability is more the responsibility of the person wanting to transfer the findings to another situation or population than the researcher of the original study. They argue that as long as the original researcher presents sufficient descriptive data to allow comparison, he or she has addressed the issue of applicability. With this in mind, I utilized thick descriptions of the data and context, including quotes from interviews and reflections as well as a table, outlining the survey data. In addition, I maintained an audit trail which is a detailed record of how my data was collected, coded, and analyzed throughout the study. I also included reflections, questions, and decisions made with regard to issues, problems or ideas I encountered during the data
collection process. Each datum collected was noted in specific detail in order to establish a chain of evidence (Yin, 2009). All data can be made available to outside auditors.

**Dependability**

To establish dependability, Lincoln and Guba (1985) posit that researchers must visibly define their research process and be prepared for an examination of the research design from others. They further assert that research findings must be “consistent with the data collected” (Merriam, 2009). In my attempt to establish dependability, I utilized strategies previously mentioned, such as stating my researcher positions, triangulation, peer debriefing, and an audit trail which is discussed in more detail in the following section.

In qualitative research, one way to enhance dependability is through an audit trail (Merriam, 2009). An audit trail is a detailed record of how data was collected, coded, and analyzed throughout the study. I maintained a researcher journal documenting each step of the research process as well as my reflections, wonderings, problems, and decisions as a way to ensure dependability and trustworthiness of my study.

To further ensure trustworthiness, I assigned pseudonyms to protect participants’ confidentiality (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). Using the pseudonym, I created an electronic file for each participant. Interview transcriptions, reflections, survey data, student work, and my field notes, were stored in an electronic file according to the date data was collected. All data was stored on my computer which is password protected. Last, any hard copy materials were kept in a locked file cabinet.

**Limitations**

Like any qualitative study, this one is not meant to be generalized. It is however, intended to be transferable as it provides in-depth descriptions of Resident Teachers’ perspectives and
experiences with mentoring (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). These cases provide contextualized, nuanced descriptions that do not necessarily apply to other Resident Teachers’ experiences. One limitation is I was not able to interview one of the participants myself due to scheduling conflicts so I had to rely on extant data and was not able to conduct a member check. Another limitation of my study is participants reported on past experiences rather than me personally observing their teaching practices and interactions with mentors. Along a similar vein, all of the data was self-reported which has the potential to be in favor of the Resident Teachers. Lastly, there is the limitation of my subjectivities. Like any researcher, I bring biases that will inherently shape my interpretations. I realize that my past experience as a teacher mentor will influence how I make meaning of the Resident Teachers’ perceptions. I further realize that I may bring certain biases of what I think mentoring should look like. Conversely, I think the experience I bring to the study provides me with knowledge that will enrich the study’s methodological decisions. For example, my experience of working with both beginning teachers as well as mentor teachers will help inform the various types interview questions asked of participants in order to effectively answer my research questions. While it is not possible to be completely free of bias, Bogdan and Biklen, (2007) insist the researcher should make every attempt to reveal those biases and employ means to transcend them. By identifying my biases and employing rigorous research methods, I have sought to reduce the subjectivity of my study (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007).
CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS

In this qualitative case study I examined the mentoring experiences of Resident Teachers participating in a New Teacher Residency Project. All research participants were in year-two of their residency, teaching in an urban K-8 charter school. I investigated the following overarching research question of: How do new teachers participating in a residency program experience mentoring? In addition, I investigated several sub-questions that included: (a) What types of mentoring support do Resident Teachers expect to receive?; (b) How does the support provided by mentors align with the personal and professional needs of Resident Teachers?; (c) How does mentoring influence Resident Teachers’ conceptions about teaching and learning?; and (d) How do Resident Teachers perceive the influence of mentoring on their professional practice? To answer these questions, I analyzed multiple data sources at multiple points throughout their residency experience, beginning with their internship as they initially entered the program through the end of year-two as they served in an “associate teacher” role, alongside a veteran cooperating teacher. Looking across the span of the entire residency program, I compared and contrasted interview, written reflection, survey, and pupil work documents seeking similarities and differences amongst Resident Teachers’ mentoring experiences. In this chapter I present a summary of the findings and highlight residency program recommendations that emerged from both within and cross-participant data analysis.

The within and cross-participant analyses answered the research questions, revealing six salient themes: Expectations, Support, Gaps in Support, Teacher Development, Critical Friends Groups, Social Identities, and Tensions. Using extant interview data from the broader residency program study, themes emerged that did not directly answer my research, however I feel they are
worthy of consideration as I was better able to capture participants’ overall residency program experience. To this end, the themes are discussed in order of relevance to my research questions.

**Expectations**

The *expectations* category consists of units that describe Teacher Residents’ anticipated expectations. Resident Teachers enter the Residency Program with certain expectations or at least an idea of what they believe their role should be as well as the types of mentoring support they anticipate receiving. If the supports offered do not align with Resident Teachers’ needs, the goals of the residency program including improved teacher quality and student learning may not be realized. The *expectations* category has a total of 101 units and four subcategories, including 28 units in *Role as Resident*, 28 units in *Mentor Support*, 23 units in *Cooperating Teacher Support*, and 22 units in *Role as Teacher Resident*.

**Expectation for Role as Resident**

The subcategory *role as resident* consists of units describing anticipated benefits and responsibilities for Teacher Residents and has 28 units. Key themes include a co-teaching model for delivering instruction and opportunities to teach independently, resulting in new learning. For example, in her second interview as a year-two Resident Teacher, Renee stated, “I feel like co-teaching [is an expectation]…I feel like that would be very beneficial—especially just so that you feel like your first year you’re actually getting that experience that you need” (5:18-Interview, Oct 2013). In a similar vein, Trina also expressed an expectation of opportunities to teach independently when she explained, “I want to be involved in the everyday [activities] of the classroom. I would want to be able to teach a significant amount of lessons and learn from that” (15:36-Interview, Apr 2014). Several Resident Teachers viewed their role as an opportunity to hone their practice and become more effective teachers. For instance, Stevie stated, “I expect
that I'm [going to] learn a lot about being a good teacher. That's all I want to do. I want to learn more about being effective” (8:46-Interview, June 2013).

**Expectations for Mentors**

The subcategory *mentor support* describes anticipated support residents expect to receive from their assigned mentors and also consists of 28 units. Emotional support and availability were prominent themes shared by Resident Teachers. In her first interview as a year-one Resident Teacher, Cherie shared her expectation for emotional support when she stated,

> As a mentor I also think it’s important to keep in contact and I don’t think it always has to be work related… it doesn’t always have to be about, ‘When are you going to do this lesson or do you have those lesson plans together?’… I think the mentor should have some balance and shouldn’t overload you. (1:33-Interview, Sept. 2012)

Renee underscored this point when she also mentioned, “[A mentor] is someone you can come to for support. If it’s either with some aspect of a lesson or if it’s someone you just really need to talk to, to help you mentally get back to where you need to be” (5:29-Interview, Oct 2013).

Another point made by Resident Teachers is the expectation of meetings with their mentors. In her second interview as a year-two Resident Teacher, Susan stated, “I think that weekly scheduled support meetings are necessary…something that both parties have to attend, and are held accountable [for]” (10:82-Interview, Oct. 2013). Stevie expressed availability in a different way, not in terms of mentors making *time* to meet, but rather making *space* to reflect on what it was like to be a beginning teacher. In his initial interview, he described the qualities of an effective mentor as,

> Someone who is available, not meaning in call me anytime, but available as in you can ask me anything and I am going to do my best to help you. I feel like I need someone who understands what it’s like to be a beginner…someone who can remember because I feel that’s the most important thing. I do like to have reassurance that the questions and fears that I have are normal and that they’re relatable. (7:25-Interview, Sept 2012)
Expectations for Cooperating Teachers

The subcategory *cooperating teacher support* describes the types of support Resident Teachers expected to receive from their cooperating teachers and consists of 23 units. Learning from veteran teachers’ experience and observation feedback were key themes mentioned by Resident Teachers. When asked in her final interview as a year-two Teacher Resident about the types of support she expects to receive from her cooperating teacher, Trina stated,

Just working closely with an experienced teacher [who] would be able to offer me advice and show me what they were teaching by example, [or] things they’d done…to give us feedback and things like that. So I guess I was just expecting to learn from their years of experience. (19:4-Interview, May 2014)

Renee further emphasized feedback as an anticipated type of support as she maintained,

I expected to receive feedback on my teaching on ways that I could improve. Being that I was in the classroom with my lead (cooperating) teacher majority of the day…she would see my teaching firsthand, so just getting that veteran teacher’s feedback on ways I could improve my skill and craft. (20:3-Interview, May 2014)

Expectations for Residency Program

The subcategory *residency program* describes anticipated benefits and expectations Resident Teachers had for the program and consists of 22 units. *Support* was a prominent theme as Resident Teachers often discussed the expectation of receiving support from experienced teachers and for their transition from student teachers to lead teachers. Trina stated, “I expect to be supported with the continuing Critical Friends Group (CFG), and [the] cooperating [teachers], and mentor teachers…I expect to get more perspective and experience” (12:86-Interview, Oct 2013). Anticipating challenges as a beginning teacher, Renee was blatantly honest about her expectation for the residency program as she explained,

I feel [the residency program] just help[s] that transition of the first year to be smoother so that when you do go out on your own that following year, it doesn’t seem as daunting as if you didn’t go through the New Teacher Residency
Stevie spoke to the perspectives of both Trina and Renee when he shared his reasoning for participating in the residency program. He stated,

> The whole thing is about being supported. I am taking that over a larger salary… I could get paid $35,000, $38,000 or I could take a lot less than that and have a softer landing [and] not be thrown to the wolves…I don’t want to burn out…I think this model really protects you against early teacher burnout. You hear about that all the time. Teachers in their second year, third year, they’re like, ‘I wasn’t cut out for this.’ Maybe they were. Maybe they just didn’t have enough of the right kind of support at the right time. I bet some of them were and that’s unfortunate. (8:45-Interview, June 2013)

**Support**

The *support* category consists of units that describe the support experienced by Resident Teachers during their participation in the Residency Program. Included in this category are four subcategories discussed like the others, in terms of frequency; from most frequent to the least.

All together, the Support category has 311 units, including 94 units in *School Community Support*, 93 units in *Cooperating Teacher Support*, 71 units in *Mentor Teacher Support*, 22 units in *University Staff Support*, 14 units in *Unofficial Mentor Support*, 11 units in *Program Director Support* and 6 units in *Support for Teaching in an Urban Context*.

**School Community Support**

The *school community support* subcategory describes Resident Teachers’ reality of the support received from school administrators, unofficial mentors, parents, and other faculty and staff members who were not official members of the Residency Program. The subcategory consists of 94 units. In addition to the support of cooperating teachers, mentors, and CFG members, Resident Teachers received support from a myriad of individuals from the school community, including parents. Two major themes that emerged from the data in this subcategory were feelings of inclusiveness and a willingness to help. During her first interview as a year-one Resident Teacher, Renee stated,
From day one, they let it be known to parents and the community that we were residents, and we were part of the faculty. It just makes you feel more comfortable, like you’re a part of the school community. That makes you feel even more comfortable when you’re teaching, and [when] you’re going to the faculty meetings. You feel like you’re just another one of the teachers sitting in there. (4:17-Interview, Mar 2013)

In her third interview as a year-two Resident Teacher, Cherie further commented on feeling like a member of the school as she shared,

Other support [came from] Ms. Pitolo, the principal and the assistant principal, Ms. Rowe. Like I said [on] day one, you were definitely made a part of the school family. I don’t think there was ever a time that you would have an issue or a problem and you couldn’t go to them…that’s in person [or] via email. (2:8-Interview, Oct 2013)

In that same interview, Cherie also spoke to the support extended to her from parents as she explained, “The parents [may have just] met you, and they are just so welcome and open. They are willing to extend their hand in any way that they can help you, even though you're not necessarily the lead teacher” (2:60-Interview, Oct 2013). Lastly, when asked about the influence of the Residency Program on her professional development, Trina attributed her growth to the support she received from staff members both inside and outside of the residency program. She shared,

I feel like I can pull every part of my teaching and say that it’s been affected in some way [including] planning, instruction, management, assessment—all of it. I’ve been trying to absorb as much as possible. Not just [from] my mentor, cooperating teacher, and NTRP director, just all of the teachers at the school…I don’t feel like there’s anyone I couldn’t ask for help. (19:16-Interview, May 2014)

Cooperating Teacher Support

The cooperating teacher support subcategory describes Resident Teachers’ reality of the relationship and support received from their cooperating teacher and had 71 units. Support from Cooperating Teachers is crucial in helping Resident Teachers achieve a level of competency and confidence that translates their knowledge into meaningful and effective instruction. To this end, developing a trusting relationship where Resident Teachers feel
comfortable asking questions and receiving critical feedback on their teaching practices creates fertile ground for new teacher growth. Several Resident Teachers emphasized the emotional as well as professional development support provided by their cooperating teacher. In her second interview, Renee was asked about the relationships she felt were most supportive of her growth and development when she explained,

I would say that it was my cooperating teacher I had for student teaching. I feel like she’s been a great support. I can always come and talk to her. She’s definitely flexible. She [knew] that I want[ed] those times to teach more and lead [lessons]. She would even work her schedule around. She [would say] ‘I know you want to get that instruction time in.’ I felt like I [could] go to her if I needed someone to talk to. (5:26-Interview, Oct 2013)

In his first interview as a student teacher, Stevie also spoke about the relationship between himself and his Cooperating Teacher when he shared,

Just because I’m in someone’s classroom doesn’t mean I’m going to build a relationship with them, it just means that they agreed to have me in their classroom. That’s not what’s going on here…she’s very good at making me feel included. She’s given me many opportunities to assist with the instruction. (7:21-Interview, Sept 2012)

In his written reflection, Stevie further discussed his concern with managing the classroom and the support he received from his cooperating teacher as she addressed behavioral issues she was experiencing. He stated,

Some of the things that have been on my mind the most have to do with being effective in leading the students and in classroom management…I was struggling with thoughts about whether or not I could get it. On Tuesday this week, I was surprised to see that Ms. Jackson was addressing that very thing with her class. It was almost as if the thing I needed the most was being delivered on cue. (33:9-Written reflection, Sept 2012)

In her final interview as a year-two Resident Teacher, Renee explicitly expressed the types of support she received from her Cooperating Teacher when she mentioned,

I got a lot of useful activities and resources for different content areas. I got resources for word work and actual word sorts for various level students and that’s not just in literacy, but in math also… I was able to effectively collaborate with my lead teacher and the rest
of the team… I learned to differentiate between various levels of students and ways to manage time… [I] took some of it as it were and took some of it and kind of made it my own. (24:4-Interview, May 2014)

Trina gives one final example of how her Cooperating Teacher supported her professional growth when she stated, ”She always tell[s] me to be like the dog whisperer, that I need to be more commanding in my presence because I wasn’t at first. I think I’ve definitely grown in that which is great.” (19:19-Interview, Apr 2014)

**Mentor Support**

The subcategory mentor support describes Resident Teachers’ reality of their relationship with and support received from their assigned mentor. This subcategory consists of 91 units. In addition to the cooperating teacher, each Teacher Resident has the additional support of a trained mentor teacher. One of the goals of the residency program is to provide Resident Teachers with a system of internal supports as a way to promote interaction and collaboration with the intent of developing effective teaching practices and positively impacting student achievement. The findings show the mentor teacher provided emotional support by building rapport and making Resident Teachers feel comfortable with sharing concerns as well as support for their professional development through observations and reflections. For example, Susan shared,

> She recorded my voice and then made a transcript of the lesson…For me to be able to go back and look at what I actually said was so useful, to look back at that and see how I talked to the students…Not that you can go back in real life but next time, moving forward, [asking] what can I do [differently]? That helped me so much in practice. (9:65-Interview, Mar 2013)

In addition to receiving feedback from mentors on their teaching practices, Resident Teachers also had opportunities to observe the mentor teaching as Cherie mentioned, “She’s been really helpful in making arrangements for me to observe her.” (2:94-Interview, Oct 2013). There was however, the issue of arranging time for Resident Teachers and their mentors to meet. Susan
expressed the intention of her mentor when she shared, “I feel connected to her, because she does want to help, she’s just doesn’t have the time. She’s on leadership. She just has a lot on her plate” (20:10-Interview, Oct. 2013). One of the recommendations for state policy on induction by the New Teacher Center is for local school districts to build release time into their induction programs, allowing time for observations and conferences between mentors and beginning teachers to occur (Goldrick, L. et al., 2012).

University Supervisor Support

The subcategory university supervisor support describes Resident Teachers’ reality of their relationship with and support received from university faculty members and consists of 22 units. Resident Teachers felt supported by university staff in a number of ways and viewed many of them as supportive and flexible. Two key themes in this subcategory include access to resources and advice and responsiveness to the constructivist teaching model used in the school. During his student teaching placement as a year-one resident, Stevie explained, “I can go to her if I have questions about an assignment just like you would with any other professor…she also said, ‘I have resources [and] ideas I can help you [with],’ so she’s made herself available” (7:31-Interview, 2012). Susan further shared,

    She’s supportive and I feel like she cares about what we’re doing and wants to know about the school…she loves hearing about the stuff we do. She’s open to the ideas of the different curriculum; whereas some [supervisors] are more traditional. (9:48-Interview, Mar 2013)

Having the support of a cooperating teacher, a mentor, and a university supervisor can assist Resident Teachers in developing teaching competency, thus impacting student achievement. In her first interview as a year-one Resident Teacher, Renee commented on her level of satisfaction with the Residency Program when she stated,

    …my overall satisfaction is just having those three [types] of feedback during my student teaching… having a mentor teacher, a cooperating teacher, and a supervisor that I can come to
and ask for help, or ask for feedback or [receive] constructive criticism if I feel like something’s not going right in the classroom, or [if] I feel like [there is] something I need to improve on personally with my teaching [is helpful], just having three perspectives to go to.

**Program Director Support**

The subcategory *program director support* describes Resident Teachers’ reality of the relationship with and support received from the residency program director and consists of 11 units. While the number of units for this subcategory is small, highlighting the findings is important as the program director serves as the liaison between the local school and the university. Several Teacher Residents felt the program director provided another layer of support by observing lessons, organizing resident meetings, and encouraging residents to be more reflective about their practice. In her first interview as a year-one Teacher Resident, Cherie was asked about her most important support person in the program when she stated,

“…probably Ms. Fern [is most supportive] just because of all of the reflections and she really makes me think. If it wasn’t for the reflections I wouldn’t really be thinking about some of that stuff and we have the [Resident] meetings. Those really make me think a lot more. (1:28-Interview, Sept. 2012)

Stevie further discussed the support he received from the program director when he mentioned,

…she had us write reflections. She would give me really good feedback, useful feedback and say, ’Check out this article.’ It did give me more examples of how my experiences are universal to all teachers…. [it was helpful] just reading and deepening my knowledge of what it’s like to be a teacher. (8:58-Interview, June 2013)

While most felt the program director was supportive, there was the issue of her accessibility to Resident Teachers on the elementary campus as well as the middle school campus located two miles away. In her final interview as a year-two Resident Teacher, Susan stated,

Ms. Williams is awesome but she’s never here, she’s at the elementary campus. I feel like the elementary campus people get way more support from NTRP than we do…I feel like when I signed up she was my go to person for everything…I’m not mad at her or think it’s her fault, there just needs to be more people involved in this. (17:65-Interview, Apr 2014)
Support for Teaching in an Urban Context

The subcategory, Support for Teaching in an Urban Context describes Resident Teachers’ perceptions of the support they, along with other new teachers, may need for teaching in an urban school and consists of 6 units. While the number of units is small, I feel it is worthy of acknowledgement as context often influences the teaching and learning experiences of new teachers. Most Resident Teachers did not view BBCS as an urban school and felt they did not need any specific support but recognized the importance of understanding students’ cultural background. Trina, in her final interview, mentioned,

I can’t really think of anything specific except maybe differentiations. Being able to differentiate for culture and levels which I feel every teacher needs…just being able to know when you’re preparing for the background of your students and what they bring with them every day and what that means and how that will affect their learning. (Interview-19:24, May 2014)

In her final interview, Renee stated,

As far as here, I don’t think there would be any specific support [needed] but thinking about the schools surrounding the area, probably so…but working in an urban school, you’d probably need more support in dealing with home issues that come into the classroom. As far as here, I don’t think you would need it. (Interview-20:25, May 2014)

Cherie also did not view BBCS as an urban school, yet mentioned the importance of being aware of students’ background when she shared,

Honestly, I don’t think BBCS is as urban as maybe some of the other schools that I have interned in but I think it’s definitely important to train teachers in multicultural education. (Interview-24:9, May 2014)

As I analyzed the data, I realized that I should have probed deeper by asking Resident Teachers about their conceptions of an “urban school” and why they did not view BBCS as such since it is situated in a densely populated metropolitan area. In addition, I should have asked how their conceptions of an urban school were shaped or evolved (life experience, university coursework, etc.) Their responses to these questions could have provided me with more understanding as to
why they have suggested mentoring supports for other new teachers working in urban contexts but did not necessarily feel they needed additional support for themselves.

**Gaps in Support**

The *gaps in support* category consists of units that describe the gap between the level of support Resident Teachers expected to receive entering the residency program and the support they actually received. By illuminating the expectations held by Resident Teachers for their mentors and the alignment or misalignment of the support provided, policy makers, district leaders, and schools will be better informed regarding ways in which mentoring effectively meets their needs as well as ways to improve existing practices to better support their professional development. Included in the *gaps in support* category are four subcategories discussed in terms of frequency; from most frequent to the least. All together, the category has 90 units, including 40 units in *gaps in residency program*, 20 units in *gaps in role as resident*, 17 units in *gaps in cooperating teacher support*, and 13 units in *gaps in mentor support*.

**Gaps in the Role as Resident**

The subcategory *gaps in the role as resident* describes Resident Teachers’ expectations for their roles and responsibilities versus the reality of their experience and consists of 20 units. In this study, the majority of Resident Teachers entered the residency program with an expectation of teaching more lessons than they had during their student teaching experience, yet their expectation was not always met. For example, in February of her student teaching experience, Cherie was offered an Associate Teaching position after another Associate abruptly left the school. Cherie remained in the residency program, but transitioned into a year-two Teacher Resident role sooner than the others in her cohort. She expressed her expectation of more independent teaching opportunities as she stated,
I do have some opportunities [to teach], but I don't get opportunities to do it independently. I know that's not how it will be every time, but I would like that experience because what if I'm at another school? It's probably not going to be a model like this…I'm going to be the sole teacher, [with] no associate, no para [professional]. I would like some opportunities to be able to lead the class independently. (2:89-Interview, Oct 2013)

A co-teaching model can provide Resident Teachers with a safety net by having another teacher in the room who can step in with another technique or assist in redirecting the lesson however, in order for beginning teachers to develop a level of efficacy, they must have ample opportunity to teach independently.

Another theme that emerged from the data surrounded the new structure in Resident Teacher placements. During the previous year of their residency, Resident Teachers were placed in one specific cooperating (lead) teacher’s classroom. During the current school year however, several were assigned to a grade level and worked with multiple teachers. Although one teacher on the grade level team was named as the official cooperating teacher, Resident Teachers rotated throughout different classes during the day. Renee, who floated between four teachers on the 5th grade team, commented on the impact of the new structure on her ability to teach lessons. She described,

…it was really hard to develop that co-teaching that I feel like you would’ve developed in the classroom with one person and you would’ve gotten more experience just being in front of the students in the classroom…and it was more of a para[professional] type position and not true co-teaching. With that one teacher, you understand the flow and when you’re constantly floating, it’s pretty hard to fit in. (20:7-Interview, May 2014)

Trina, who also worked with four teachers in 4th grade, saw the new structure as both an affordance as well as a constraint. She shared,

…I guess there are positives and negatives to it. I really like getting to see four different teachers on a regular basis. And just they are all so different in their strengths and the way they run their classroom….so I feel like I am getting a great learning experience but as far as consistency, it would be nice to stay in the same room. And I feel like I’m not
connected…not that I don’t connect with my students, I do but connecting with 72 versus 24 is much harder. (15:10-Interview, Apr 2014)

**Gaps in Mentor Support**

The subcategory *gaps in mentor support* describes the types of support Resident Teachers expected to receive from their assigned mentors versus the reality of the support they were provided and consists of 13 units. The major theme that emerged from this subcategory is *lack of time to meet*. In her final interview as a year-two Resident Teacher, Susan shared,

My mentor is awesome. She’s great…she genuinely cares about my well-being [and] my future as an educator. She genuinely cares, but with the internal movement at the school, she’s on the leadership team and she has meetings all the time so it’s very hard to get a meeting with her. (17:12-Interview, April 2014)

Trina also explained in her final interview,

She is in 5th grade so I don’t get to see her as often as the other teachers but I do feel like she supports me in other ways…I have [observed her teaching] but not as much as I’d like to. Especially with our schedules, they just don’t match up very well. (15:7, 15:8-Interview, Apr 2014)

Most Teacher Residents felt supported by their respective mentors. The gaps expressed in their interviews stem from mentors being on a different grade level and having a different planning time causing an issue with scheduling a time to meet. Susan, however shares a solution when she stated, “I had an eighth grade teacher for my mentor. Our planning was different [but] if NTRP said, ‘This is the time that you have to meet with your mentees,’ that would be nice.”

**Gaps in Cooperating Teacher Support**

The subcategory *gaps in cooperating teacher support* describes the types of support Resident Teachers expected to receive from their cooperating teachers versus the reality of the support provided and consists of 17 units. This category is similar to “gaps in role of resident” described above, however the distinction is “gaps in cooperating teacher support” describes gaps that stem specifically from the cooperating teachers themselves rather than gaps in the roles of Resident Teachers. The most prominent themes in this subcategory are *lack of communication*
and feedback. One of the many ways cooperating teachers can support new teachers to develop teaching competency is to examine lesson plans in advance and ask critical questions to ensure the lesson is aligned with the curriculum and the teaching strategies are effective for meeting the lesson objective. Susan’s experience was unique because during student teaching, her Cooperating Teacher had dual roles. In addition to being the Cooperating Teacher for Susan, she also served a mentor for another student teacher in a different classroom. Susan felt that one of the consequences of her cooperating teacher serving in a dual role was it caused a breakdown in their communication. She explained,

...just in the middle of my lessons, because there was no communication of what I was doing, she would just interrupt and ask questions. If she were to have read my lesson plan, she would’ve known the answer to that question. That happened so much, and that was irritating (13:27-Interview, May, 2013).

Susan further expressed frustration with the lack of guidance from her cooperating teacher when developing her social studies unit. She shared,

In order for me to have done my own unit and felt confident about it, I would have needed a lot of help...not constructing it, just going through it and talking through it because I wouldn’t have been confident enough to just go up there and teach it. I have tons of ideas, that’s not the issue. It’s putting it down and planning it, and [asking] how long do you think it’s [going] to take them to do this? I need to talk through that with someone who knows. (13:41-Interview, May 2013)

Renee also expressed a gap in cooperating teacher support when she referred to the new structure of working with multiple teachers on the grade level. While the new structure was out of both her and the cooperating teacher’s control, she shared that she expected more feedback when she stated,

I was actually under four different lead teachers. I had a main cooperating teacher, who was also my cooperating teacher during my student teaching so I already had a relationship with my cooperating teacher and built a trusting relationship. So this year was a little bit different, I didn’t really get as much of what I was expecting. I didn’t get the time to actually just sit and talk with the lead teacher about things I wanted to plan
and things I wanted to teach and [feedback on] how did that lesson go. (20:7-Interview, May 2014)

**Gaps in Residency Program**

The subcategory *gaps in residency program* describes Resident Teachers’ recommendations for ways to effectively improve their residency experience. Themes that emerged include *making Resident Teachers aware in advance of all residency program details* and *establishing defined roles and expectations for Resident Teachers*. In her second interview as a year-one Resident Teacher, Cherie explained,

> I think it’s been a great program and it’s been very beneficial for me in different aspects with just the amount of support…however, I think for future residents…the wording of the program shouldn’t be as vague as it is. It needs to be really explicit…I think for people coming in, it’s important to know all [of] these details. It’s really upsetting to find them out afterwards. (3:58-Interview, Mar 2013)

In her final interview, Renee shared her recommendation for a common gap experienced by Resident Teachers who expected more opportunities to lead lessons. When asked for her perspective on ways to improve the residency program, she stated,

> …having an outline for that year-two [Resident Teacher] position or some of the things that are required. So it’s not so much [that] you [are] asking can you teach, it’s a requirement of a certain number [of lessons]…because I feel like the whole point of this [program] is so we can be lead teachers in the classroom. So just having it outlined so that when you’re coming into whoever’s classroom you’re coming into, they already know…there are a certain number of hours already laid out that is required that you teach. (20:26-Interview, May 2014)

Susan further emphasized the point of Resident Teachers having more clearly defined roles when she stated,

> I’m torn. I feel like that might be what the program is saying, you [and your cooperating teacher] can decide [your roles]. But I think something needs to be said about the role because sometimes I feel overwhelmed but I don’t want to be like, ‘Oh, I’m not going to do that.’ I feel uncomfortable saying that and I don’t think any year-two [Resident Teacher] should feel uncomfortable saying they don’t want to do something and be afraid of it looking like they are slacking…(17:27-Interview, Apr 2014)
Teacher Development

The teacher development category consisted of units that describe Resident Teachers’ perceptions of their professional development and satisfaction with the Residency Program.

Included in the Teacher Development Category are three subcategories discussed in terms of frequency; from most frequent to the least. All together, the category has 139 units, including 82 units in Sense of Satisfaction, 43 units in New Learning in Role of Resident, and 14 units in New Learning from Coursework.

Sense of Satisfaction

One of the sub-questions this research sought to answer is, “How does the support provided by mentors align with the personal and professional needs of Resident Teachers?” This subcategory consists of 82 units and aids in answering the question as it describes Resident Teachers’ sense of satisfaction in their role as well as ways the intended supports of the Residency Program align with their needs and expectations. The prominent theme in this subcategory is having multiple levels of support. The support from cooperating teachers, mentors, and other colleagues cannot be underestimated as an important aspect of Resident Teachers’ learning experiences. In his second interview as a year-one Resident Teacher, Stevie commented on the benefits of having the support of a mentor in addition to his cooperating teacher. He stated,

I’ve got a mentor teacher and a cooperating teacher. That’s a win-win because I know it’s set up so that if I can’t speak with one about something that I can speak with [the] other…the roles are designed differently…so I love having that. Plus they’re two different people. They’re two different personalities, with two different backgrounds, and two different philosophies and teaching styles.

(6:44-Interview, Mar 2013)

Cherie shared her perspective on new learning acquired as a year-one Resident Teacher when she stated,
I’ve learned that you cannot beat yourself up about one bad lesson. I’ve progressed in not doing that…you just reflect on what went wrong, what you could’ve done better and just try again. (3:43-Interview, Mar 2013)

In her final interview as a year-two Resident Teacher, Renee also spoke about the influence of program participation and the intended supports on her development when she mentioned,

I felt like if I had gone into the school in a lead teacher position, looking back, I probably would not have been as effective for those students…just doing school visits and [participating in the] critical friends group and having a mentor and giving us feedback [have been helpful]. If I hadn’t had what I have now, I wouldn’t have been as effective for that first class and they would’ve lost out…because I wouldn’t have been ready. (20:24-Interview, May 2014)

**New Learning in Role of Resident**

The subcategory *new learning in the role of resident* describes examples of new understandings acquired by Teacher Residents during the residency and consists of 44 units. In addition to examining their mentoring experiences, this research also seeks to show how mentoring may have influenced Resident Teachers’ conceptions about teaching and learning.

This category is crucial because the design of the residency program is to engage beginning teachers in a collaborative learning environment with multiple supports resulting in the development of effective teaching practices and improved student learning. Some of the prominent themes include *differentiation strategies, management strategies, and inquiry-based instruction*. In his second interview as a year-two Resident Teacher, Stevie stated,

No two classrooms are [going to] be the same. If I want to teach it one way to one class [or] to a different group of students I might say, ‘Well, this group of students likes to move around more, so I’m [going to] make the activity where they get up and go to another table’…I learned to take into consideration those variables, too…lesson planning and being flexible with how they're delivered. (8:13-Interview, June 2013)

Renee further discussed how she was able to bridge the management theories learned in her coursework to the existing practices being utilized in the school. She shared,
…just seeing how they use conscious discipline in this school, and being able to participate in those workshops. Just seeing how it works in the classroom, I feel like my knowledge on it has grown compared to interning and hearing about it in management class. (5:35-Interview, Oct 2013)

Management was an area of practice that several Resident Teachers felt they had improved. In her final interview, Trina added,

I would say management is probably where I’ve developed the most. Just getting more time in front of the classroom and having to manage large groups…I feel like I’m better at being consistent and having a strong presence in the classroom that I might not have had. My confidence has grown in a lot in that area. (19:14-Interview, May 2014)

Renee is a Resident Teacher who was preparing to transition from the Residency Program and into a Lead Teaching position in another district. In her final interview, she reflected on her new learning in the residency program when she expressed,

I learned about this whole constructivist [learning] theory and how it is practice[d] in the classroom. We learned about it in the textbooks…but I’ve seen it in practice and had a chance to observe it for a length of time…So I feel like I could do these practices and still achieve what’s set out from the county or district as standards they want students to meet. It made my outlook on student-centered learning different. (20:12, Interview, May 2014).

New Learning in Teacher Preparation Program

The new learning in teacher preparation program subcategory describes examples of new understandings acquired by New Teacher Residents through their university coursework and consists of 14 units. During year-one of the residency program, Resident Teachers continued to participate in coursework at the university. Even after completing their undergraduate program, and transitioning into year-two, Resident Teachers were afforded the opportunity to continue in post-baccalaureate coursework to concentrate on an area of specialization within their teaching with fees and tuition covered by the residency program. Two emerging themes in this category were management strategies and student learning theories. In his first interview as a year-one
Resident Teacher, Stevie commented on the influence of his undergraduate management course on his thinking surrounding building community in the classroom. He stated,

…the community building thing has become very important. That has to do with the 4640 [management] class too. What I’ve learned and read about…I feel like doing some work on the front end to build that community is really going to pay off in ways that are beyond time saving. (6:29-Interview, Mar 2013)

The teaching philosophy of BBCS was closely aligned with the constructivist teaching methods Resident Teachers were learning about in their undergraduate coursework. To this end, Resident Teachers were able to immediately implement the new knowledge into their teaching practice. In her third interview as a year-one Teacher Resident, Susan commented, “I learned a lot of things that I could use here, [for example], Socratic seminars, like a lot of progressive constructivist teaching methods (10:103, Interview, Oct 2013). One of the key benefits in the design of the residency program is the immediacy of Resident Teachers working with students. The model provides opportunities for Resident Teachers to combine theory and pedagogy through authentic teaching practices and reflection. Engaging in authentic teaching practices and collaborating with cooperating teachers, mentors, and CFG members support Resident Teachers with gaining the requisite skills necessary to become effective teachers which can lead to higher levels of student learning (Papay et al., 2012).

Social Identities

The social identities category consisted of units that describe socially constructed identities Resident Teachers developed through social influences as well as the identities they projected in their roles. Included in this category are three subcategories discussed in terms of frequency; from most frequent to the least. All together, the social identities category has 142 units including 58 units in sense of self, 46 units in sense of influence, and 38 units in sense of efficacy.
Sense of Self

The subcategory *sense of self* describes Resident Teachers’ perceptions of themselves in their role as well as influential teaching and learning experiences that helped shape their self-perception. Teacher development can be viewed as both circular in nature and forward moving. Olsen (2012) asserts, “A teacher is always collapsing the past, present, and future into a complex mélange of professional beliefs, goals, memories, and predictions while enacting practice” (p. 24). As Resident Teachers enter into the residency program, they bring with them attitudes and beliefs about themselves as well as teaching and learning. Their attitudes and beliefs will influence their pedagogical decisions and ways in which they interact with students and colleagues. For example, in her first interview as a year-one Resident Teacher, Renee described a program which she participated in during high school that influenced her thinking related to effective ways to deliver instruction. She described,

> I got into a program called RISE. I liked how [the] hands-on experience could make me learn and grow…I felt like that right there just got me into this whole [idea of], ‘how much hands-on learning can make a student connect with a subject or a lesson that seems so far away in a textbook.’ (4:6-Interview, Mar 2013)

In her first interview as a year-two Resident Teacher, Trina was asked to complete an identity circle by naming descriptors she would use to identify herself as a Resident Teacher. After completing the identity map, she shared which descriptor she felt she most strongly identified with in her role when she asserted,

> I see myself as an equal colleague and I feel I am treated that way. I feel like I’m definitely on the same level…[I am a] curriculum specialist… I put that on there because I feel like I bring different curriculum knowledge and content knowledge. I plan all of the science lessons so I’m sort of the curriculum specialist for science. (12:110-Interview, Oct 2013)

Identity is viewed by many researchers as a dynamic, continually changing, and active process which develops over time through interactions with others (Lemke, 2003; Watson, 2006).
Resident Teachers will continue to develop and refine their professional identities as they transition from being Residents to becoming Lead Teachers in their own classrooms.

**Sense of Influence**

The subcategory *sense of influence* describes Resident Teachers’ perceptions of their influence on students and colleagues and consists of 46 total units. Key themes in this subcategory were *feelings of academic influence with students* and *an exchange of knowledge between Resident Teachers and their cooperating teachers*. In her second interview as a year-two Resident Teacher, Renee commented,

> “Some of the students [who] usually were my tough ones were saying, ‘I’m excited about writing tomorrow because Ms. J. is doing another persuasive writing lesson.’ I was like, ‘I’m really reaching [them]. They’re getting excited about learning’” (4:40-Interview, Mar 2013).

Several Resident Teachers felt not only were they influencing student knowledge, but they were also influencing their colleagues’ knowledge by sharing curriculum knowledge and teaching strategies acquired from their coursework. Cherie stated in her third interview as a year-two Teacher Resident,

> I can also help them improve their practice and bring new ideas that I’ve learned from ASU… I can bring those ideas to them and they can take those ideas and make them fit their teaching style or [their] group of students. (3:46-Interview, Oct 2013)

Renee further emphasized an exchange of knowledge between herself and her cooperating teacher when she mentioned,

> I feel that she gets new ideas of things that I’m coming up with, that she hasn’t had the opportunity to hear about… She’s getting that new information as well, the same way as I’m taking information from her years of teaching. She’s getting the new information that I’m learning about teaching as well. It’s just transferring between us. (4:30-Interview, Mar 2013)

**Sense of Efficacy**

The subcategory *sense of efficacy* describes residents’ feelings of teaching competency and preparedness to teach and consists of 36 total units. The New Teacher Residency Program
was specifically designed to” mentor teachers into the teaching field of teaching during a three-year cycle with targeted interventions each year” (Cross et al., 2010, p. 4). The innovative interventions provided Resident Teachers an opportunity to learn and further hone their practice with the goal of positively influencing academic achievement. Teachers’ sense of efficacy has been directly linked to student outcomes such as achievement, motivation, and students’ own efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001). To this end, it is important to highlight Resident Teachers’ sense of efficacy as a result of their participation in the residency program. The prominent themes in this subcategory are confidence and readiness. In his third interview as a year-two Resident Teacher, Stevie stated,

…I know there’s no program out there that’s going to provide you with absolute confidence. Every teacher who sits in front of students on the first day of their first year teaching is not [going] to be prepared for every eventuality…I feel like I’m [going] to be as good as anyone else… I’m [going] to be just as fine as they are because of this. I got to get wet. I got to jump in. (8:16-Interview, June 2013)

In her second interview as year-one Resident Teacher, Renee further shared how interning each semester prior to her student teaching placement helped build her confidence to a level where being in front of the students became natural. She stated,

I feel like this semester, I’m more comfortable with being in front of the classroom. That first block one was a little weird being in charge…after some blocks went on, I [became] even more comfortable…I walked into my placement Thursday and it was okay, just walking in and starting off. It’s just natural now, just being in front of the classroom. (4:25-Interview, Mar 2013)

According to Wolters and Daugherty (2007), teachers with high levels of teach of efficacy tend to be more open to new ideas and are willing to experiment with innovative instructional methods to better meet the needs of their students. With this in mind, Resident Teachers exiting residency programs with higher levels of efficacy have the potential to significantly influence
student achievement as they are more likely to employ responsive instructional methods to meet their students’ individual needs.

**Critical Friends Group (CFG)**

The Critical Friends Group (CFG) category consists of units that describe residents’ experiences with a residency program intervention designed to facilitate cross-career relationships focused on dilemmas of teaching and learning to teach. Included in the CFG category are four subcategories discussed in terms of frequency; from most frequent to the least. All together, the CFG category has 104 units, including 63 units in Support, 20 units in Tensions, 14 units in Expectations and Topics, and 7 units in Impact on Practice.

**Support**

The subcategory *support* describes specific ways Resident Teachers describe being supported as a result of participating in the CFG and consists of 63 units. This subcategory includes all instances where Residents expressed examples of ways the group participants supported them in their role. The most prominent themes in this subcategory were *differing perspectives* and *emotional support*. Most Resident Teachers appreciated having teachers from different grade levels with varying years of experience participate as they were able to glean from their experience and advice. In her second interview as a year-one Resident Teacher, Renee stated,

> I was the person presenting at a CFG about a student that I was trying to reach. Because of the team, and because of the collaborating, I was able to help that student and better reach that student because I was able to think of things that I wouldn’t have thought of on my own...they brought things to my attention that I wouldn’t have seen. Because of that work, I was able to directly help that student even more. (4:36-Interview, Mar 2013)

For one participant however, having teachers from the elementary and middle school campuses in the same group was an issue because she felt she could not effectively support others with their dilemmas. In her final interview as a year-two Resident Teacher, Susan stated,
I have two people from this [middle] campus then a couple from the other [elementary] which is another issue because… I can’t even give you a solution because I don’t know what you’re talking about. I have no idea what circle time is. So if they’re talking about “I’m having a problem with circle time,” I’m like, I don’t understand. (17:33-Interview, Apr 2014)

Resident Teachers also spoke about the level of emotional support extended by others in their CFG group. In her final interview as a year-two resident, Trina stated,

For me, I always felt like the CFG was for mental support more than anything else… it was nice to see every week that I wasn’t the only one that struggles with these things. Every teacher, no matter how long they’ve been teaching has something that they’re struggling with. I think that was the biggest support for me, like “Wow, you still want to know about that?” (19:18-Interview, April 2014)

**CFG Tensions**

The subcategory *tensions* describes challenges residents expressed surrounding their participation in CFGs and consists of 20 units. While a few Resident Teachers had an issue with extending their work day by meeting after school, the majority of the tensions were about the individual make-up of the groups. Some Resident Teachers valued having a mixed group of teachers participate in their CFG, while others did not. For example, when asked in her third interview to reflect on her overall CFG experience, Cherie stated,

I seemed to get more out of my CFG when I was a year-one resident. When there were all year-one residents. For some reason, it just seemed more relatable to me. And I don’t know if it was because the year-ones were all, not talkative, but they would elaborate and speak very in-depth [about] whatever issue that they brought and the explanations were very detailed and very thoughtful. I don’t feel like I got that as much this year. (24:14-Interview, Oct 2013)

Another tension highlighted by participants was meeting in CFG groups with other Resident Teachers who they may eventually compete with for limited Associate Teaching positions. Eight pre-service teachers were selected as year-one Teacher Residents but after completing their undergraduate program, all had to apply for the four positions available to remain in residence
the following year as Associate Teachers earning a $20,000 stipend. During his student teaching experience, Stevie was asked in a second interview about his CFG experience when he stated,

> It was good until, and I’ll be frank, until we learned that the positions were limited. Whether you like it or not, we’re competing against each other. Here we’re growing together, we’re sharing, then we learn we’re competing and I know that’s not a great word but that’s the truth…it did change interactions because how much do I share now? You [have] to ask yourself that. How much of myself do I expose? (6:40-Interview, Mar 2013)

In a Critical Friends Group where beginning teachers are encouraged to share dilemmas and concerns surrounding their teaching practices, being authentic and transparent about areas of practice in need of further development with other Resident Teachers who also want to be Associate or Lead Teachers will likely compromise or limit the level of sharing within the meeting. Susan underscored this point when she commented, “It’s just, in that group of people, that we’re [going] to be competing for jobs with, I don’t necessary [want to] share all [of] my weaknesses with them.” (9:34-Interview, Mar 2013)

**Expectations and Topics**

This subcategory consists of statements related to what residents expected from their participation in critical friends groups as well as topics discussed. It consists of 14 units. Some residents were unfamiliar with CFG and did not have any expectations while others viewed it as an additional layer of support and hoped to receive advice from colleagues on ways to improve their practice. For example, in her first interview as a year-two Resident Teacher, Renee stated, “I didn’t really have any type of expectations for it. I didn’t really know what it was. I was just kind of interested in figuring out how is this [going] to help us with our teaching practices?” (5:36-Interview, Oct 2013). Contrary to Renee’s perspective, Cherie was familiar with CFG and had specific expectations for participating in the group. She explained, “…we have these specific things we [want] to work on or things that we feel like we could do better. I hope to get some
suggestions and ideas, especially on things that I think didn’t [go] well” (1:48-Interview, Sept. 2012).

While some Resident Teachers held no expectations and others were more explicit about how their CFG could support them, there were commonalities among the topics Resident Teachers discussed in their meetings. Consistent with existing literature by Veenman (1984) and Johnson et al. (2004) identifying commonly perceived challenges by beginning teachers, one topic often discussed in CFG meetings was classroom management. During his third interview as a year-two Resident Teacher, Stevie responded to a question about topics discussed in the CFG meetings that he felt were most helpful. He stated, “Classroom management, behavioral stuff, definitely that…it was more ‘How do I motivate? How do I keep them engaged? What are some better ways to redirect?’” (8:53-Interview, Jun 2013). Work-life balance was also a prominent theme as some Resident Teachers experienced difficulty balancing family, school, and work. Trina shared her concern with trying to balance coursework with her role as a Resident Teacher. In her final interview as a year-two Resident, she stated,

…I was really nervous about my upcoming position at this school and the new structure and I’m currently going back to school for my master’s…So the question I brought was, ‘How am I going to manage my time and make sure I still have time for myself at the end of the day?’ (15:32-Interview, Apr 2014)

Impact on Teaching Practice
The subcategory impact on teaching practice consists of units in which Resident Teachers describe how CFG participation influenced their professional development and teaching practices and consists of 8 units. Some Resident Teachers described taking some of the instructional or behavioral strategies offered in the group and implementing them in their own classroom while others described using the CFG protocols with students. For example, when asked in her second interview as a year-one Resident Teacher how she feels participation in
NTRP has impacted her as a teacher, Cherie stated, “Someone brought forth trying breathing exercises. It’s like oh, that’s great. That could be great in the classroom. Just stop for a minute. We need a break. Let’s try some breathing exercises” (3:49-Interview, Mar 2013). Renee, who was leaving the school after being hired as a fulltime fifth grade teacher in another school stated in her final interview,

…[there are]so many protocols that we learned in CFG that we were able to apply to the classroom and solve problems with the students and allow students to think through and give you higher level thinking. I definitely want to take the CFG protocol book and use it in my classroom next year and hopefully, if my team is open to it, introducing them to the whole concept of CFG and hopefully I can start that at my new school. (20:15-Interview, May 2014)

**Tensions**

The *tensions* category consisted of units that describe challenges Teacher Residents experienced during their participation in the Residency Program. Included in this category are three subcategories discussed in terms of frequency; from most frequent to the least. All together, the Tensions category has 101 units including 66 units in *program participation*, 18 units in *coursework* and 17 units in *remaining areas of professional growth*.

**Program Participation**

The program participation subcategory describes challenges experienced and concerns expressed by Teacher Residents related to their role and/or program participation. Some of the key themes in this category were *compensation, new program structure, and limited lead teacher positions*. Every Resident Teacher discussed the issue of salary. During year-two of the residency program, Teacher Residents earned a $20,000 stipend. While they are not teachers of record, Resident Teachers still felt the compensation did not match the level of work they were expected to do. For example, in her final interview as a year-two Resident Teacher, Trina commented,
I felt like I was doing a lot of work, which I don’t mind, but the compensation… it’s hard because I wanted to learn more and prove that I’m ready for the next step and show what I can do, but doing all of that and not really getting paid for it is really difficult. (19:20-Interview, May 2014)

During her third interview, Cherie, who was also in year-two of the residency program further mentioned,

I [am] overworked and underpaid. Right now our salary is not that high at all, and although we don't take on as much as responsibility as the lead teachers—we're capable…I just don't think the salary supports the job and the work and the effort put into it. (2:21-Interview, October 2013)

Another tension highlighted by several Teacher Residents on the elementary campus was the shift in the structure of the program. In the original design, Resident Teachers were placed in one specific teacher’s classroom for the entire day. However, as these Resident Teachers transitioned from year-one to year-two, they were placed on a grade level “team” requiring them to float between four different teachers with one designated as their cooperating teacher. This new structure caused tension as Residents anticipated having the experience of working in one classroom, building relationships with students, and having many opportunities to teach lessons.

In her final interview as a year-two Resident Teacher, Renee commented,

I have thought about leaving in the middle of the year because of the new structure…I felt I wasn’t really getting enough time, and I felt like ‘Well, how am I building or learning as a [Resident Teacher] so I’ll be ready for next year?’… I wouldn’t mind working with four teachers, just hav[ing] the necessary number of hours, more teaching time. (20:23-Interview, May 2014)

Conversely, others saw teaching on a team as both an affordance and a constraint Trina, who worked with the 4th grade team stated in her final interview,

…I guess there are positives and negatives to it. I really like getting to see four different teachers on a regular basis. And just they are all so different in their strengths and the way they run their classroom….so I feel like I am getting a great learning experience but as far as consistency, it would be nice to stay in the same room. And I feel like I’m not connected…not that I don’t connect with my students, but connecting with 72 versus 24 is much harder. (15:10-Interview, Apr 2014)
Lastly, the Residents Teachers expressed tension around the process for becoming a Lead Teacher in the school. The way the process was interpreted by many Resident Teachers is they would complete year-two of the residency program and then interview for a Lead Teacher position that may become available. What they found was Resident Teachers who were just beginning year-two of the program were sometimes hired while others who had completed year-two were interviewed but not offered Lead Teaching positions. During her third interview as a year-two Resident, Susan mentioned,

…if the program were to work professionally, you [would] be a year-one, [then] year-two and get a lead job… that hasn’t really happened for anybody. There’s been [beginning] year two [Resident Teachers] that jumped to lead teachers over [beginning] year three’s, which we’re all kind of confused about…(10:63-Interview, Oct 2013)

Cherie underscored Susan’s point when she expressed a similar concern in her third interview.

She asserted,

When there is a spot, it's one to two or three… and my worry is the others [Resident Teachers] that have been trying and trying will get those spots, but then if they don't, it's, like, ‘Am I going to be that [Resident Teacher] that tries and tries every year, [and] never gets a spot? (2:66-Interview, Oct 2013)

There are Resident Teachers who completed year-two of the program and were not hired as Lead Teachers, yet chose to remain at BBCS for another year with the hope of additional positions becoming available. There was a strong sense of community and collegiality experienced by the Teacher Residents therefore, many were willing to sacrifice a higher salary and a lead position at another school for the opportunity to remain at BBCS. Having a more transparent process so Resident Teachers have a clear understanding of how new teachers are selected may lessen their confusion and tension.
Coursework

The coursework subcategory describes challenges expressed by Resident Teachers related to course assignments in the teacher preparation program and consists of 18 units. Several Resident Teachers mentioned issues they experienced submitting assignments on LiveText. LiveText is a web-based portal used by the university as a way for students to create, submit, and receive feedback on their assignments. For Cherie, it was her personal preference to hand assignments in rather than submit them electronically. During her second interview she stated,

I don’t particularly like live text and it’s been a lot of live text submissions since we do have one class. There’s been a lot of live text submissions back and forth and between supervisors and I don’t like that. I like to turn my things in. (3:63-Interview, Mar 2013)

In contrast, Stevie expressed issues he experienced with the technical aspects of submitting assignments on LiveText when he mentioned,

I was a little bit confused in the beginning, the way that the practicum courses are set up on LiveText with the templates and submitting documents and attaching and not attaching and scanning…it is not as smooth as maybe the administration thinks it is. (7:29-Interview, Sept 2012)

The tensions with LiveText were not viewed as gaps in support by the university because Resident Teachers were provided with an orientation session to preview submission procedures. While the university has little control over Resident Teacher’s personal preference for submitting course assignments, university supervisors can further support them by reviewing the submission procedures.

Remaining Areas of Professional Growth

The remaining areas of professional growth subcategory describes areas of teaching practices Teacher Residents identify as still needing to improve and consists of 19 units. Consistent with extant literature on the concerns of beginning teachers (Johnson et al., 2004;
Melnick & Meister, 2008; Sun, 2012; Veenman, 1984), classroom management was a prominent theme in this subcategory. In her weekly reflection as a year-one Teacher Resident, Renee stated,

This week I have been struggling with management. One of my goals…is to have an assertive voice and not [a] passive [one]. I found myself using [a] passive voice when giving instructions and it tends to come off as if I am asking the students to complete the directions instead of telling the students. (35:4-Written reflection, Oct 2012)

Stevie, in his initial interview as a year-one Resident Teacher also mentioned,

The stuff that I’m nervous about is classroom management…I feel like not having a good amount of control of the student’s focus is going to be my biggest challenge and learning ways to do that is something I have to learn. (7:7-Interview, Sept 2012)

As her year-two residency placement was ending, Trina also acknowledged management as an area in which she would like to improve when she shared,

I still want to work on it [classroom management]. If I had to put something down again [as a goal], it would probably still be there just because I think management is so important. And I’m not perfect at it. I don’t know if anybody is but I definitely think I am so much stronger than I was before… (15:46-Interview, Apr 2014)

Many of the challenges faced by new teachers, including classroom management, can be mitigated during Resident Teachers’ year-long placement. Participation in the residency program affords Resident Teachers ample opportunities to engage in professional collaboration, observe effective instruction, and develop a more nuanced and complex understanding of the process of teaching and learning. Collectively, these experiences can serve as a way to enhance new teaching competency and influence student achievement.

The table below (Table 8) highlights expectations held by residents in their role, for cooperating teachers and mentors, and for the overall residency program. Two of the main expectations Resident Teachers held was emotional and instructional support. The findings revealed that Residents did receive the emotional and instructional support they anticipated from a myriad of individuals, including the residency program director, CFG participants, and
university supervisors. Resident Teachers also alluded to gaps in the mentoring supports and tensions as a result of their participation in the residency program. Some of the gaps and tensions included unclear roles and responsibilities, limited opportunities to teach independently, lack of support with planning, and insufficient time to meet with assigned mentors. Residency program recommendations also emerged as Residents Teachers articulated the benefit of defined roles and responsibilities as a way to avoid any misunderstandings between themselves and their cooperating teachers or mentors. Release time for observations and conferences with mentors were also recommended as well as an increase in the yearly stipend amount.

Table 8

**Key themes and program recommendations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expectations</th>
<th>Supports</th>
<th>Gaps</th>
<th>Program Recommendations</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In Role as Resident</td>
<td>School Community</td>
<td>In Role as Resident</td>
<td>In Role as Resident</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Co-teaching model</td>
<td>• Feelings of inclusiveness</td>
<td>• Roles and responsibilities not clearly communicated</td>
<td>• Outline roles and responsibilities for Resident Teachers</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Opportunities to teach lessons independently</td>
<td>• Willingness to help</td>
<td>• Limited opportunities to lead lessons independently</td>
<td>Mentor Support</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Provide release time for observations and conferences with mentors</td>
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<tr>
<td>School Community</td>
<td></td>
<td>Mentor Support</td>
<td>Residency Programming</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Emotional support</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Provide Residents Teachers with all Residency Program details prior to their commitment</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cooperating Teacher</td>
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<td>• Extend graduate school stipend usage beyond two years</td>
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<td>• Instructional support</td>
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<td>• Increase yearly stipend amount</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Instructional and management strategies</td>
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<td>• Create a more transparent process for selecting Lead Teachers</td>
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<td>• Access to teaching resources</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cooperating Teacher</td>
<td>Cooperating Teacher</td>
<td>Cooperating Teacher</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Lack of support with planning</td>
<td>• Lack of feedback</td>
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Cooperating Teacher
- Emotional and instructional support
- Opportunity to learn from experienced veteran
- Observation feedback
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<th>Mentor Teacher</th>
<th>Mentor Teacher</th>
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<tr>
<td>● Emotional and instructional support</td>
<td>● Emotional support</td>
<td>● Lack of time to meet</td>
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<tr>
<td>● Feedback on ways to improve practice</td>
<td>● Classroom observations and feedback</td>
<td>● Taught on a different grade level</td>
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<td>● Regularly scheduled meetings</td>
<td>● Opportunity to observe their instruction</td>
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<tr>
<th>Residency Program</th>
<th>Program Director</th>
<th>CFG</th>
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<tr>
<td>● Support from experienced teachers</td>
<td>● Classroom observations and feedback</td>
<td>● Mental support</td>
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<tr>
<td>● CFG support</td>
<td>● Resident Teacher monthly meetings</td>
<td>● Advice from colleagues on teaching dilemmas</td>
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<tr>
<td>● More teaching experience</td>
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<td>● Preparation to become Lead Teacher</td>
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<th>University Supervisor</th>
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<tr>
<td>● Access to resources</td>
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<td>● Support with questions regarding course assignments</td>
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**CHAPTER FIVE**

**DISCUSSION**

In this qualitative case study, I examined the mentoring experiences of five Resident Teachers participating in a New Teacher Residency Program. Cherie, Renee, Stevie, Susan, and Trina were in year-two of their residency, teaching in an inner-city K-8 charter school. I investigated the overarching research question: *How do new teachers participating in a residency program experience mentoring?* in addition to several sub-questions that include: (a) What supports do Resident Teachers expect to receive from mentors?; (b) How does the support provided by my mentors align with the personal and professional needs of Resident Teachers?; (c) How does mentoring influence Resident Teachers’ conceptions about teaching and learning?;
and (d) How do Resident Teachers perceive the influence of mentoring on their professional practice? The findings and interpretations are detailed in Chapter Four. In this chapter I present a summary of key findings and highlight residency program recommendations that emerged from both within and cross-participant data analysis. I also demonstrate how the findings extend the literature. Last, I will include implications and recommendations for key stakeholders.

**What Supports do Resident Teachers Expect to Receive From Mentors?**

Resident Teachers in this study viewed the collective support as a way to help ease their transition from student teachers to lead teachers. Part of Residents’ motivation for entering into the residency program stemmed from the varied levels of support they anticipated receiving from cooperating teachers, mentors, and Critical Friends Groups. Resident Teachers identified learning from veteran teachers’ experience, utilizing a co-teaching model for delivering instruction, having more opportunities to teach independently, and receiving observation feedback as expectations they held for participating in the residency program. One of the strengths of residency programs is that Resident Teachers learn alongside experienced cooperating teachers and trained mentors as they scaffolded Resident Teachers’ learning through modeling, observing, offering feedback, and collaborating on ways to improve practice. Consistent with McIntyre and Hagger’s (1993) version of developed mentoring, cooperating teachers and mentors in this study encouraged Resident Teachers to reflect on their instructional practices, shared their ideas and experience, and provided critical feedback as a way to further develop teaching competency.

An additional expectation that emerged from the findings of this study was related to the availability of mentors and the emotional support provided to Resident Teachers. Cooperating teachers and mentors play vital roles in promoting beginning teachers’ personal and professional well-being by listening, offering perspective, and assuring them that their feelings and
experiences are normal (Stansbury & Zimmerman, 2000). While emotional support may not directly improve teaching performance, it may improve the likelihood that beginning teachers will remain in the professional long enough to have the opportunity of becoming more effective teachers. This finding holds important implications for multiple stakeholders, including residency program coordinators, local school administrators, cooperating teachers, and mentors as the current literature highlighting the specific expectations held by new teachers in the context of residency programs mentors is sparse. Having explicit expectations supports stakeholders in their ability to design mentoring experiences that align with the personal and professional needs of Resident Teachers as a way to enhance teaching competency and influence student achievement.

**How Does the Support Provided by Mentors Align With the Personal and Professional Needs of Resident Teachers?**

The residency program’s intention to provide multiple levels of mentoring support was well aligned with Resident Teachers’ needs. This finding substantiates the work of Luft and Cox (2001) as well as Hall, Johnson, and Bowman (1995) whose studies found that beginning teachers overwhelmingly regard having opportunities to observe others’ teaching and to be observed by colleagues as important support for their learning. Observations and feedback from mentors help new teachers reflect on their teaching and how students learn. These findings are consistent with a sociocultural perspective of learning where lesson-based discussions offer beginning teachers opportunities to develop teaching knowledge in context as experienced cooperating teachers, mentors, and colleagues can support Resident Teachers in achieving a level of learning beyond what they are able to achieve by themselves (Brown et al., 1989; Rogoff,
Residents Teachers articulated the effectiveness of having varied individuals (cooperating teacher, official/unofficial mentors, Critical Friends Groups, Residency Program Director, University Supervisor, and School Administrators) within the program to look for emotional, technical, and instructional support. In addition, the findings revealed that observational feedback and opportunities to observe cooperating teachers’ and mentors’ instruction proved to be most closely aligned with the needs of Resident Teachers as most entered the residency program anticipating the opportunity to learn from veteran teachers’ experience and observation feedback.

While Resident Teachers were pleased to have multiple layers of mentoring support, several gaps also emerged. During year two of their residency, several Resident Teachers said that time constraints caused a lack of communication and feedback from their cooperating teachers. Observational feedback was an expectation held by all Resident Teachers and while they valued the feedback provided, they desired more time to confer about instruction and receive feedback on their teaching practices. Along a similar vein, Resident Teachers expressed frustration with limited opportunities to meet with their assigned mentors. Mentors were often on a different grade level with a different planning time causing a conflict with scheduling time for Resident Teachers to meet with them. This finding is consistent with data from Kilburg and Hancock’s (2003) study that indicates the single most important factor that caused repeated problems for mentor-mentee teams was lack of time. The researchers found that majority of the teams had to find additional time for mentoring—time that was typically allocated for teaching, planning lessons, meeting with parents, and working with students. If mentoring is a high priority in the residency program, then adequate time must be built into the schedule for
observations and meetings as mentor feedback enables Residents to reflect critically on teaching practices in order to identify how to best promote students’ learning and engagement.

What I found most interesting in the study was that Resident Teachers did not feel they needed any additional mentoring support for working in an urban context. In my review of literature, I examined Veenman’ (1984) commonly perceived challenges of beginning teachers, including: classroom discipline, motivating students, dealing with individual differences, assessment, and relations with parents. Johnson et al. (2004) extended Veenman’s work by adding: teaching underprepared students, teaching English language learners, teaching across cultural differences, planning lessons to meet the standards, and dealing with standards and accountability. The urban context for these Resident Teachers did not pose many of the special challenges often encountered by beginning teachers working in such environments.

While the Resident Teachers in this study highlighted the importance of understanding students’ cultural background and providing differentiated instruction when working in urban schools, they further acknowledged that any student could benefit from these practices, not just students in urban schools. Several Resident Teachers did not view BBCS as an urban school at all even though it is centrally situated in a densely populated metropolitan area, serves a racially and economically diverse student population, and held Title I status. In retrospect, I should have taken more time during my interviews to investigate Resident Teachers’ perceptions of urban schools and explore why their teaching experiences were in contrast with those of many other new teachers teaching in urban school districts. Future research is needed to identify what makes urban residencies potentially different from non-urban contexts.
How Does Mentoring Influence Resident Teachers’ Conceptions About Teaching and Learning?

The residency model provided opportunities for Resident Teachers to combine theory and pedagogy through authentic teaching practices and reflection. Through their experiences at BBCS, these Resident Teachers stated that they had developed deeper knowledge about differentiated instruction, classroom management, and inquiry-based instruction as a result of their mentoring experiences within the residency program. Specifically, Resident Teachers emphasized their growing understanding of classroom management strategies (via a “Conscious Discipline” approach [Bailey, 2001]) and learning theories (constructivist learning [Bruner, 1996; Vygotsky, 1978]). While they had learned about both in their coursework, they felt as though the mentoring provided more models and provided opportunities to practice them with regular feedback. According to Darling-Hammond (2006), teachers who have had relevant coursework coupled with extensive guided practical preparation in an urban classroom prior to taking on independent classroom responsibilities are more likely to teach in flexible, learner-centered ways and to support student learning. This finding further supports the work of Boyd et al. (2008) whose research suggests that programs that provide opportunities for contextualized application of classroom teaching and time for analysis of and reflection on those activities can contribute to the effectiveness of beginning teachers. Engaging in authentic teaching practices and collaborating with cooperating teachers, mentors, and CFG members support Resident Teachers with gaining the requisite skills necessary to become effective teachers which can lead to increased levels of student achievement (Papay et al., 2012).

I attribute the Resident Teachers’ new learning to the collaborative culture of the school as well as the *educative mentoring* they were provided in the program. Feiman-Nemser (1998) developed the term *educative mentoring* where mentors go beyond providing emotional support,
tips, and advice to help new teachers improve their practice by engaging in collaborative analysis into classroom events, see the classroom in increasingly complex ways, and develop dispositions of reflective inquiry. Furthermore, Feiman-Nemser (2001a, 2001b) and Feiman-Nemser and Norman (2005) recognize the influence of school organization and culture on new teacher learning. Resident Teachers frequently stated that they felt “included” and “a part of the school community” as they often sought advice and support from other veteran teachers in the school, suggesting an existing culture of collaboration. In addition, cooperating teachers and mentors provided more than emotional and technical support by modeling, observing, encouraging reflection, and offering feedback in order to support Resident Teachers’ professional growth which is consistent with Feiman-Nemser’s (1998) educative mentoring framework. In contrast to research indicating that most mentoring relationships fail to go beyond emotional or technical support and affect new teachers’ practice (Carver & Feiman-Nemser, 2009; Norman & Feiman-Nemser, 2005; Wang & Odell, 2002), the results from this study indicate that Resident Teachers found mentoring to be a source of support as well as a resource for learning.

**How do Resident Teachers Perceive the Influence of Mentoring on Their Professional Practice?**

Resident Teachers’ learning and professional practice were both influenced by the culture of the school. Lesson planning and instruction emerged as specific ways mentoring influenced Resident Teachers’ professional practice. Through collaboration, observation, and feedback, Resident Teachers acknowledged that the collective mentoring support helped them become more reflective and efficacious in creating inquiry-based lessons and delivering instruction to meet students’ needs. Guided by the Common Principles of the Coalition of Essential Schools, BBCS’ curriculum is grounded in constructivism where instructional activities are student-centered and hands-on with teachers serving as facilitators rather than transmitters of knowledge.
This constructivist approach was not a new concept for Resident Teachers as it closely aligned with their university coursework. Being immersed in a school that utilized familiar pedagogical practices afforded Resident Teachers the opportunity to deepen their understanding and have it become a part of their professional practice. This finding is congruent with Lave and Wenger’s Situated Learning Theory (1991) emphasizing that learning is more relevant and meaningful when it is contextualized. New learning for Resident Teachers was contextual and embedded into their daily activities through the social interaction and collaboration with cooperating teachers, mentors, colleagues, and school community. Resident Teachers entered the residency program with prior knowledge, beliefs, and experiences they then used to construct and extend their understanding of effective instructional practices. As a result, what they learned and how they learned were influenced by both the experiences they brought with them and the environment in which they learned.

**Recommendations for Residency Program Improvement**

There were several recommendations that emerged from Resident Teachers as way for Residency Program Coordinators, cooperating teachers, and mentors to improve the mentoring experience. Consistent with extant literature on new teacher mentoring and induction, Resident Teachers suggested implementing release time for their mentors to observe and conduct conferences (Goldrick, 2012). In order for mentors to effectively support the growth and development of Resident Teachers, they need to be released from their classroom duties to observe Resident Teachers’ instruction and conduct post observation conferences. Resident Teachers also felt they would benefit from having more defined roles and responsibilities. Several Resident Teachers desired more time to teach lessons independently and others felt overwhelmed by some of the tasks their cooperating teachers were asking them to complete but did not want to question or refuse their requests. While there may be instances where Resident
Teachers may feel confident taking on additional responsibilities, having clearly defined roles and responsibilities in advance may limit the possibility of them being asked to perform duties that they may not yet feel comfortable. As Resident Teachers transition into their own classrooms, there will inherently be competing tasks they must learn to manage but the benefit of the residency program is that it initiates them into the dynamic role of Lead Teacher through a gradual release of responsibilities.

Along a similar vein, Resident Teachers desired explicit wording of residency program details. Some of the verbiage related to the stipend for graduate school and the selection process for becoming a Lead Teacher were thought to be vague. None of the Resident Teachers stated they regretted their decision to enter into the residency program however, they would have preferred to have all program details clearly presented to them in advance. The final recommendation expressed by all Teacher Residents was to increase the stipend amount for program participation. Resident Teachers acknowledged they had fewer responsibilities than their cooperating teacher but still felt the stipend did not match the level of work required of them in their role. Some Resident Teachers had to supplement their income by working part-time jobs or providing after-school tutoring. Increasing the stipend amount would decrease some the tension of balancing their residency program with having to work extra hours to support themselves and their families.

As shown in Table 9, findings from this research substantiate and build on Goldrick et al.’s (2012) recommended criteria for high-quality induction programs. Two findings that are consistent with their state policy recommendations relate to mentor assignment and caseload and program delivery. First, research results revealed a lack of time for Resident Teachers to meet with their assigned mentors. If mentoring is a high-priority in residency programs, then adequate
time must be built into the schedule for observations and conferences as mentor feedback enables Resident Teachers to critically reflect on their teaching practices in order to identify how to best promote students’ learning and engagement. The issue of inadequate time meeting time could be mitigated however, if state policy required programs to provide release time for mentors. Results further revealed the positive influence of specific induction program elements (assessment of teaching practice and classroom observation) on Resident Teachers’ professional development. Resident Teachers attributed new understandings in several areas of their teaching practice as a result of classroom observations, reflection, and feedback. State policy identifying key induction elements, including mentor-mentee contact time, assessment of teaching practice, and classroom observation, can help ensure induction programs are consistent with core components focused on collaborating with new teachers, observing instruction, and assessing their teaching practice.

Results of the study also suggest adaptations to the recommended criteria in the areas of program standards and funding. The recommendation of “states should have formal program standards that govern the design and operation of local teacher induction programs” (Goldrick et al., 2012, p. 1) should also include minimal guidelines for the roles and responsibilities of new teachers. While local teacher induction programs should be given some autonomy in determining the design and operation of their program that best meets district and school needs, study results imply that having minimal guidelines for the roles and responsibilities of new teachers could serve as a way to decrease misunderstandings about their expected duties and responsibilities. The final adaptation to the recommended criteria relates to funding. Goldrick et al., (2012) recommend that “states provide dedicated funding to support local educator induction programs” (p. 1). Most UTRs provide stipends for its Resident Teachers that range from $12,000- $33,000 per year. Results from this study indicate the need for an increase in the stipend amount. Teacher
Residents earned $20,000 per year for their participation in the residency program and while they acknowledged having less responsibility than cooperating (lead) teachers, they still felt the stipend did not match the level of work required of them in their role. The stipend amount also forced some Resident Teachers to seek other part-time work to earn extra income. Requiring states to earmark funding to support local school induction programs to include a living wage for Teacher Residents would decrease some of the tension of balancing their residency program with having to work extra hours to support themselves and their families.

Table 9

Additional Recommendations for Criteria for High-Quality Induction Programs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers Served</th>
<th>State policy should require that all teachers receive induction support during their first two years in the profession</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administrators Served</td>
<td>State policy should require that all school administrators receive induction support during their first two years in the profession</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Program Standards</strong></td>
<td>The state should have formal program standards that govern the design and operation of local teacher induction programs that include minimal guidelines for the roles and responsibilities of new teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentor Selection</td>
<td>State policy should require a rigorous mentor selection process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentor Training</td>
<td>State policy should require foundational training and ongoing professional development for mentors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Mentor Assignment and Caseload</td>
<td>State policy should address how mentors are assigned to beginning teachers, allow for manageable mentor caseloads, and encourage programs to provide release time for mentors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Program Delivery</td>
<td>State policy should identify key induction program elements, including a minimum amount of mentor-new teacher contact time, formative assessment of teaching practice, and classroom observation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Funding</strong></td>
<td>The state should provide dedicated funding to support local educator induction programs that would include a living-wage stipend to New Teacher Residency Program participants</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Implications**

In this study, I sought to understand how new teachers participating in a residency program experienced mentoring and how the mentoring supports aligned with their personal and professional needs. This study sheds light on understanding the dynamic interactions between Resident Teachers and their cooperating teachers, mentors, the local school staff, and university staff. It examines what types of mentoring supports Resident Teachers feel they need in order to become more effective. In addition, the study provides insight into how Residency Program Coordinators, university staff, and local schools can ensure the mentoring support provided meets the needs of residency program participants. As Norman and Feiman-Nemser (2005) explained, “…if we want to promote mentoring as a significant influence on new teacher learning, we need to know more about the kind of mentoring that makes a difference” (p. 681). There is a paucity of research in the area of mentoring support within urban residency programs as most research focuses on program evaluation. (Papay et al., 2012).

Educational policy is increasingly recognizing the role of mentoring in new teachers’ professional development and educational research states that there is a need to understand what
types of mentored support promotes new teachers’ learning and development (Carver & Feiman-Nemser, 2009; Norman & Feiman-Nemser, 2005; Wang & Odell, 2002; Wang, Odell, & Schwille, 2008). This study indicates that release time needs to be allotted for mentors to collaborate with Resident Teachers, model effective teaching practices, conduct classroom observations, and conference with Resident Teachers following observations in order to prompt reflection and provide timely feedback. Resident Teachers expressed frustration with scheduling meetings with their mentors as they were often on a different grade level with a different time for planning. These findings hold important implications for multiple stakeholders, including policy makers as state policies have a strong impact on local school induction and mentoring programs. Goldrick et al. (2012) conducted a review of state policies on teacher induction and developed (10) criteria for policies that work collectively to guide local districts in designing and implementing high-quality mentoring and induction programs. One area specifically relates to program delivery and suggests that state policy should identify key induction program elements, including a minimum amount of mentor-new teacher contact time, formative assessment of teaching practice, and classroom observation. To this end, residency program coordinators and local school administrators should work in concert to ensure adequate time is allotted for Resident Teachers and mentors to meet.

This study also demonstrates that Resident Teachers’ conceptions about teaching and learning and their professional practices were influenced by the educative mentoring they received. Mentors provided emotional and technical support, yet they moved beyond that level of support by modeling and engaging in collaborative analysis into Resident Teachers’ practices. Resident Teachers acknowledged developing in areas of their practice as a result of being observed and receiving feedback from their cooperating teachers and mentors. In order for
cooperating teachers and mentors to provide this level of support however, they need to be carefully selected and trained. Cooperating teachers and mentors in the residency program were required to participate in university-level coursework focused on curriculum and teacher development. Local school administrators should have a highly selective process for identifying mentors and ensure they receive foundational training, on-going professional development, and time to take on this important work. One additional point worthy of mentioning here is Resident Teachers felt a strong sense of support among all of the teachers in the school signaling an existing culture of collaboration and support. Perhaps districts and schools would benefit from providing mentor training to all of its teaching and support staff on the stages of teacher development as well as effective ways to support new teachers’ professional growth. In addition, creating new school practices where both new and veteran teachers participate in peer observations and engage in dialogue about what effective instruction looks like could serve as an empowering process to refine classroom instruction and influence student growth.

This study speaks to the importance of providing Resident Teachers with a well-funded and organized mentoring program in order to make a difference in their professional learning. Research indicates that mentoring programs are often inadequately conceptionalized (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Wang & Odell, 2002) and underfunded (Carver & Feiman-Nemser, 2009). The residency program in this study was the recipient of a Race to the Top Innovation Fund grant from the state to collaborate with a local university to establish a model residency program and explore an innovative mentoring system to support the induction of beginning teachers. Grant funding resulted from the reauthorization of Title II of the U.S. Department of Education’s Teacher Quality Partnership grant program that earmarked $900 million for teacher preparation programs such as urban teacher residencies that prepare teachers for high-need, high-poverty
schools and provide mentoring support once residents become teachers of record (AACTE, 2009). I argue that all new teachers, particularly those working in high-poverty schools who may or may not be residency program participants, should be entitled to, not granted, the opportunity to participate in a fully-funded, comprehensive mentoring and induction program. With educational policies focused on teacher quality and accountability, there should also be policies in every state that require teachers to receive comprehensive mentoring support during their first three years in the profession as a way to enhance their effectiveness and impact student learning. Akin to standardized testing and teacher evaluation budget funding, states should dedicate funding to support local school districts in developing and sustaining comprehensive mentoring and induction programs. In doing so, it lessens the onus of districts having to determine if induction matters enough to finance the cost of mentor training, compensation, and release time on their already strained budgets.

This study was conducted as part of a larger study examining the impact of a new induction model for K-8 teachers. The context of the study was an inner-city charter school consisting of separate elementary and middle school campuses. When the study initially began in the fall of 2012, the school served a racially and economically diverse student population with 58% of students being White, 30% Black, 9% Multi-Racial, 2% Hispanic, and 1% Asian. Due to the number of students eligible for free or reduced price meals, the school then qualified for Title I status. By the fall of 2013 however, the school demographics had shifted. The percentage of White students increased to 64%, Multi-Racial students increased to 6%, African American and Hispanic students decreased to 25% and 4% respectively while the Asian population remained the same with 1%. With fewer students qualifying for free and reduced lunch, only the middle school campus qualified for Title I status. According to Milner (2012), whose research focuses
on opportunity gaps in urban schools, there is no clear, uniformed definition as to the meaning of the term *urban*. Educational research in urban contexts however, often characterize schools and districts as being located in densely populated areas and having high levels of racial, linguistic, ethnic, and economic diversity with a disproportionate number of students who are low-income and qualify for free or reduced-priced lunch (Achinstein & Ogawa, 2011; Berry et al., 2009; Gardiner, 2012; Gardiner & Kamm, 2010; Papay et al., 2012; Singer et al., 2010; Solomon, 2009). While the context of my study was within a densely populated metropolitan area, it did not fully meet the traditional benchmark of an urban school as the shift in student demographics, decreasing the level of diversity and impacting the number of low-income students receiving free or reduced lunch. In researching potential factors for the shift in student demographics, I found that the area had experienced one of the largest increases in median sales prices in the nation, Forkel, 2014; Zillow.com, 2015). Consistent with Noguera and Wells’ (2011) perspective that schools are influenced by social and economic conditions in the local environment, rising home prices often lead to increased property taxes which may influence existing residents’ ability to continue living in the community. Conversely, residents may take advantage of rising home prices by selling their property and relocating to a new community. A second factor that may have attributed to the shift in student demographics is Hilman Academy (pseudonym), a neighboring K-8 charter school located just 2.5 miles away. The school is an International Baccalaureate Program School offering Mandarin Chinese which may have influenced some parents’ decision to transfer their children. As the discourse surrounding “failing” public schools, the promise of charter schools, and school choice persist, parents may seek alternatives such as BBCS in this study or Hilman Academy as a way protect their children from the real and perceived issues with public education.
As new teachers are being inducted into the profession, mentors should support them in understanding the social and political contexts influencing our schools. Over the past few decades, educators have seen an expansion of federal policies and resources dedicated to improving teacher quality and student growth. The No Child Left Behind (2002) set in place specific requirements aimed at improving the education of all students; particularly those who are economically disadvantaged. At its core were a number of measures designed to drive gains in student achievement and to hold states and schools accountable for student progress (US Department of Education, 2001). More recently, the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA) provided funds for the Race to the Top (2009) initiative. Race to the Top requires states to adopt more rigorous academic standards, expand opportunities for local charter schools, create alternative routes to certification, and meet standardized testing requirements. Policy makers stand on the assumption that standardizing the curriculum and establishing “high stakes” measurable goals will improve individual student outcomes for all students. The assumption however, fails to take into consideration the link between test scores and the broader issue that not all students begin schooling on the same playing field due to classism, sexism, racism, and other forms of oppression (Ahlquist, 2011). Rank (2004) suggests that Americans view laziness, lack of effort, and low ability as key factors related to poverty while ignoring structural reasons such as unemployment and discrimination. Rather than addressing social and structural inequities faced by high-poverty schools, policy makers have determined that holding teachers and schools accountable for reaching predetermined goals and sanctioning schools for not meeting those goals are more effective solutions. There is evidence that one of the primary reasons why greater progress in improving schools has not been achieved is because federal education policy has not adequately addressed the ways in which poverty and inequality influence school performance.
(Noguera, 2012). One of the many responsibilities of mentors is to support new teachers in developing “political awareness” and understanding the organizational context both within and beyond their classrooms (Achinstein, 2006). Equipped with political awareness, new teachers would be better able to navigate the system within they work. More importantly, new teachers would also be able to advocate for change on behalf of themselves and their students. My response to current education reform aligns with Parks and Wallin (2012) who insist that in order to create change in the current education system, reform must examine the intricacies of the system and acknowledge the connection between the economic structure of our country and schools and disrupt the culture that enables its existence.

**Future Research**

As I conducted my literature review on existing teacher residency programs, I noticed that most are located specifically in urban communities serving students with families that have low incomes, who represent disadvantaged racial groups, and who often speak English as a second language. Many of the programs, such as The Boston and Chicago Teacher Residency Programs, have partnered with local school districts where their graduates are placed in schools that have been identified as failing or “turn-around” schools. While Resident Teachers in this study did not feel they needed additional mentoring support for working in an urban context, future research is needed to identify what makes urban residencies potentially different from non-urban contexts. In addition, as policy makers continue to view mentoring as a way to improve teaching and learning, more studies examining the influence of residency programs on student learning and growth are also needed.
Conclusion

This study was conceived as a result of my past experience as an elementary teacher and my more current experience as a new teacher mentor. My interest in the topic stemmed from the struggles I experienced as a new third grade teacher. I was assigned a mentor yet rarely received the support I expected and needed during my first year. I have a particular interest in new teacher residency programs because of the structure and its intention of providing beginning teachers with multiple layers of support. Too often, beginning teachers are left to “sink or swim,” leading many to prematurely exit the profession (NCES, 1993). Studies estimate that 40-50% of novice teachers leave the profession within five years (Ingersoll 2010; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). Residency programs can be viewed as a way to reconceptualize new teacher training as beginning teachers would no longer be left to “sink or swim,” but placed with a trained mentor teacher to further support their professional development prior to their becoming teachers of record. While I view myself as an effective classroom teacher after teaching for 17 years, I often wonder how much more effective I could have been had I had the opportunity and experience of participating in a new teacher residency program.
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Interview Protocol for Resident Teacher Interviews March 2014

Introduction

After greeting participants and establishing rapport, I began with a reminder about the purpose of my research. I also asked the participant if they had any questions before we began the interview.

Statement to Participant of the Research Purpose

The purpose of this research is to explore the ways you experience mentoring. In this interview, I want you to discuss your experiences, perspectives, and opinions about your participation in the New Teacher Residency Project.

Interview Questions

Talk to me about your experience so far this year.

How do you feel about the support you receive from your lead teacher? And your mentor? Would you describe the support as meeting your needs as a beginning teacher? If not, how else could your lead teacher further support you?

How could your mentor teacher further support you?

Tell me about a time when each of them really helped you.

What have you learned from your work with your lead teacher? And your mentor?

Do you consider other colleagues as informal mentors? Who are they and how have they supported your professional development?

Who is your most important professional support person? Has that changed this year? How did this relationship evolve? In what ways does this person support you?

Talk to me about your experiences participating in your critical friends group

(What were some of the topics?, Have you brought any work?, Has your teaching practices changed in any way as a result? If so, in what ways?)
If you had to describe the ideal role as an associate teacher, what would that look like?

How has the NTRP impacted your work as a teacher? What skills have you learned that you have put to use in the classroom?

What impact do you think you are having on student learning? How has this been shaped by your participation in NTRP?

Think about your teacher education program. In what ways, if any, do you feel it has prepared you to be a teacher?

Tell me a story about something that has gone really well this year.

Tell me a story about something that has not gone well, or was disappointing or frustrating.

What is the best thing about being a Yr2 associate teacher?

What is the worst thing about being a Yr2 associate teacher?

If you could do it all over again, would you sign up to be a Yr2 associate?

What are your plans moving forward?
APPENDIX B

Interview Protocol for Resident Teacher Interviews May 2014

Interview Questions

What do you believe are the purposes of new teacher mentoring?

When you initially became a part of the NTRP, what types of mentoring support did you expect to receive from your lead teacher?

Describe your relationship with your lead teacher. What supports did you get from this person? What did you not get from your lead teaching partner?

When you initially became a part of the NTRP, what types of mentoring support did you expect to receive from your mentor teacher?

Describe your relationship with your mentor. What supports did you get from this person? What did you not get from your mentor?

With whom do you connect the most at ANCS?

Can you describe any additional supports you or another new teacher may need when working in an urban school versus a suburban or rural school?

Can you share with me any new understandings you have acquired about teaching and learning as a result of your participation in NTRP?

In what area(s) of your professional practice do you feel you have developed the most? How did your development evolve?

How do you think the mentoring experience in NTRP (lead teacher, mentor, colleagues, unofficial mentors) influenced your teaching practices?

What are your thoughts on CFGs now that the year has ended? Do you think CFG played a role in your development as a teacher? If so, how?

Tell me a story about something that has gone really well this year.

Tell me a story about something that has not gone well, or was disappointing or frustrating.
How do you think your first year teaching experience has been different from other members of your cohort who took lead teaching positions?

Have you ever thought about leaving the Yr2 associate teacher role? If so, why? Did you ever regret accepting this position? Why or why not?

Have there been any times when you’ve been really glad you took on this role this year?

Briefly describe the overall morale at ANCS.

Is there anything else you would like to share or any feedback on ways the residency program can improve?