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NEGOTIATING A MENTOR PRACTICE IN AN AGE OF REFORM

A DISSERTATION

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by

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Upper Montclair, NJ

2016

Dissertation Chairs: Dr. Kathryn Herr and Dr. Ana Maria Villegas

MONTCLAIR STATE UNIVERSITY

THE GRADUATE SCHOOL

DISSERTATION APPROVAL

We hereby approve the Dissertation

Negotiating a Mentor Practice in an Age of Reform

of

Linda Whalen Abrams

Candidate for the Degree:

Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

NEGOTIATING A MENTOR PRACTICE IN AN AGE OF REFORM

by Linda Whalen Abrams

This dissertation builds on a theory of situated social practice, which holds that social practices, such as mentoring, can be transformed in and through relationships among people who are engaged in activities in the socially and politically structured world (Arnseth, 2008; Kemmis & Smith, 2008; Freire, 1970). A participatory action research study grounds this work and adds to a nascent line of empirical research on mentoring in urban teaching residency programs (UTRs) by asking how inquiry supported mentors and teacher educators in recognizing, negotiating, and naming a mentor practice for their hybrid, practice-based, district- and university-sponsored, teacher preparation program.

I drew on situated learning theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998, 2010), to assert that mentoring in this study was a "boundary practice" that bridged teaching and teacher education practices in the UTR. Further, I showed that the boundary where mentors and teacher educators met was actively developed as a relational space where participants could resist pressure to conform with standardized, instrumental, performative, and complacent mentoring practices for the sake of improving the life chances of students in urban schools. Finally, I conclude that engagement in collaborative inquiry offered opportunities for mentors and teacher educators to negotiate the meaning and purpose of mentoring, jointly interpret and address problems of practice-based

teacher learning, appropriate teacher evaluation protocols for preparing residents, and

overcome discontinuities between their separate practices.

the way into the "third space" and sharing it with me. These intrepid teacher educators played a central role in launching my interest in urban teacher mentoring.

I send a special note of gratitude to my self-study collective, et alia, including Dr. Kathryn Strom, Charity Dacey, and Tammy Mills. These brilliant, supportive women helped me to keep my eyes on the prize even at times when I could not see it for myself. Kathryn was my other (better) half in the program and remains my steadfast friend. Charity, the optimist in the group, reassured me throughout that I was up to this daunting task. Finally, without Tammy, I would not be writing these acknowledgements because I would still be writing my conceptual framework. She knows this work better than anyone.

I want to thank my family for all of the ways you have supported me in achieving this dream. It is often said that we Whalens are an unlucky bunch, and the truth is we have be visited by a great number of tragedies. But what outsiders do not recognize is the grace, love, and dignity we earn by supporting each other in times of grief and pain. Just as my mother, brothers, and sisters have shared my burdens with me, I invite them to share in this success. To my children, Thomas Murchio and Amelia Caverly, I want to express my deep and eternal love and appreciation for all that they have taught me about being a mother, a teacher, and a family and for always humoring my inner nerd. I am also grateful to Dr. Kristin Alvarez, my daughter/friend and teacher/student, for encouraging me to apply to and persevere through the Teacher Education and Teacher Development Ph.D. And of course I cannot overlook Nellie, Birdie, and Orion, my constant companions through all of it, a job no human could have endured.

Last, but most importantly, I want to thank my husband, Richard Abrams, for seeing me for who I am becoming. No one has embraced me, encouraged me, supported me, and believed in me the way that he does, and no one has sacrificed as much as he has so that I could do this crazy thing at this stage in our lives. He is truly the kindest, gentlest, and most loyal person I know and I am the luckiest woman in the world because he holds my heart.

DEDICATION

For Richard, my favorite person in the whole world

&

For Robin, my dear sister

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Prologue: The Dream

I have two recurring dreams. The first of them features me pirouetting in a large space. The feeling is of flying, being freed from the ground with my arms working as propellers that lift me. When I was 12 years old, I loved classical ballet and secretly yearned to dance free from gravity or inhibition. I trace this dream to that one. The second dream is of being driven into the water. I think I also started dreaming this when I was 12 years old and it seems connected to a car accident my family had while visiting my grandparents "up the country" in Sullivan County, New York. This dream intensified and became more frequent right after my father's death when I was 19, and once I had children, I was the driver of the car and my children were sometimes passengers in the back seat. In this dream, I can't navigate a narrow bridge and we slide rather than plummet into the water. In all of these scenarios, I suddenly realize that the water is pouring into the car and I am helpless to do anything at all, even screaming doesn't work because I/we are under water. Both dreams appear in times of stress as if I summoned them.

Last night dream number one was invaded by the feelings of dream number two. I was pirouetting in "Grand Central," the nickname of the space where four major arteries intersect on the first floor of Freehold Township High School. No one was watching and the space seemed infinite. I felt my usual lift off but last night I was able to leap higher than

ever before. Each time I swung my arms out and pushed from my toes, my body flew higher and higher. It was exhilarating and physically and emotionally liberating. Then I noticed Jim Hayden, the former principal of FTHS, watching me in amazement. He asked if I thought I could lift someone so that they could reach the ceiling with me. I agreed to try and sure enough, it worked. He challenged me to lift larger and larger people and each time I could do it with ease, even going higher as the people I lifted got heavier. In all of the excitement, I didn't notice that the crowd watching me had grown, but when I did, my body became heavy and I could no longer lift my own weight, no less other bodies. The harder I tried, the heavier we became. A feeling of panic, helplessness, and shame flooded into my dream; the same feelings I experience when I slip into the water.

Looking back on my life as a teacher, I remember a time of pirouetting through school, feeling my own power and energy propel me to new heights, and later using that power to lift myself and others to a ceiling that was constantly being raised. But now I feel helpless and heavy. I am not sure of my ability to fly anymore, no less lift others. This feeling and the hybrid dream from the other night seem connected to having to rediscover my power as someone new. I feel challenged at every turn and humbled by what I don't know. I don't like my inflexibility, my mental rigidity. I have never felt it before and now it is weighing me down.

I don't like this feeling of being underwater, in a confined space, unable to

fill my lungs. I wish someone would come along and lift me for a while,

just so I can get out of the car, stay on the bridge, and learn to fly again

(personal journal, 10/13).

I wrote this journal entry in the midst of putting together my proposal for this dissertation. Versions of the dream have returned many times since and when I recall it the following morning, I smack my palm to my head and say, "That one was just too obvious." Typically the dream appears when I am trying to become new again in my waking life—when feelings of discomfort and helplessness and the sense that exhilaration and renewal are on the other side of newness invade my sleep. I have chosen to introduce my work with this dream as a reminder to myself that change, becoming, and transformation are frightening human endeavors but essential for lifting off again.

Chapter One: Introduction

Changes in education policies and increasing political and popular support for

reforms to teacher education which are aimed at moving teacher preparation to PK–12

schools are guiding the design of alternative teacher preparation programs and having an

impact on traditional models of teacher preparation globally (Berry, Montgomery, &

Snyder, 2008; Klein, Taylor, Onore, Strom, & Abrams, 2013; Maandag, Deinum,

Hofman, & Buitink, 2007; National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education

(NCATE, 2010; Zeichner, 2010a, 2014). Supporters of these initiatives hope that

providing student-teachers[1] with more opportunities to practice prior to becoming

teachers of record will mitigate some of the persistent problems of teacher preparation,

recruitment, and retention, including the divide between theory and practice, the shortage

of teachers willing to work in hard-to-staff schools, and the "reality shock" experienced

by first-year teachers (Berry et al., 2008; Hobson, Ashby, Malderez, & Tomilson, 2009;

NCATE, 2010; National Research Council, 2010). However, practice-based teacher

preparation is not "ideologically neutral," nor should it be considered an unqualified good

for the future of the teaching profession (Zeichner, 2014). Rather, the recent "turn to

practice" (Mattsson, Eilertsen & Rorrison, 2011) is a manifestation of the on-going

debate between "defenders" of "traditional" teacher preparation programs and

---

[1] I use the term student-teachers in reference to individuals who are studying teaching in traditional university-based teacher preparation programs. In the literature, student-teachers are also referred to as preservice teachers, education students, and novices. Because the student-teachers prepared in the urban teaching residency programs are called "residents," I replace "student-teacher" with "resident" when called for in this chapter and throughout Chapters Three, Four, and Five.

"reformers" who hope to advance the neoliberal[2] education policy agenda by creating

"alternative" pathways into teaching[3] (Zeichner, 2003, 2014). As such, university-

sponsored teacher preparation programs that adopt a practice-based model should

scrutinize ways the design elements of those programs implicitly frame learning to teach

and the teaching profession.

While initially "traditional" and "alterative" teacher preparation programs were

differently oriented and structured, newly innovated practice-based models have

appropriated features of both, thereby blurring distinctions between the two pathways and

obscuring the ideological agendas that animate them. Within this new group of practice-

based teacher preparation programs, urban teaching residencies (UTRs) have garnered a

great deal of interest from the United States government,[4] large urban school districts,

alternative teacher training providers, and university-based teacher education programs.

UTRs are designed to offer a contextually rich form of teacher preparation that takes

advantage of the distributed expertise of the sponsoring preparation programs (university-

based or alternative providers), the districts and schools where they are based, and the

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[2] Neoliberalism is defined in Chapter 2.

[3] Cochran-Smith and colleagues (in press) define "traditional" programs as those that "frontload coursework, fieldwork, and other learning opportunities before teachers enter the profession," and "alternative" programs as those that "provide minimal preparation prior to entry [into teaching] and then require coursework, mentoring, or professional development while participants are teaching" (p. 27).

[4] In 2009, the United States Department of Education awarded five-year grants totaling over $270 million to 28 UTRs under the Teacher Quality Partnership Grants Program and over $100 million to 12 additions programs in 2010. More recently, in 2014, another $170 million was awarded for a second round of five-year grants awarded to 25 UTR programs, some of which were recipients of the original 2009 grants (U.S. Department of Education).

communities where they are located for the purpose of preparing graduates for

employment in the district where they are prepared (Berry et al., 2008).

Problem Addressed in the Study

Although the dozens of federally funded UTRs currently in operation in the

United States vary according to specific program elements, all share one common

feature: Teacher preparation happens in schools where residents learn on the job under

the guidance of mentors[5] who serve as de facto teacher educators in their own classrooms

(Berry et al. 2008; Klein et al., 2013; Taylor, Klein, & Abrams, 2014; Taylor, Klein,

Onore, Strom, & Abrams, in press; Zeichner, 2010a). Therefore, mentors are an "active

ingredient" (Cochran-Smith, 2005a) in the UTR approach to teacher preparation, and as

such, they warrant support from the teacher educators involved in these programs. Failure

to engage with mentors in their new role as co-teacher educators risks the "mis-

education" of the next generation of teachers and inadvertently reinforces neoliberal

reforms to teacher preparation that threaten to undermine the teaching profession

(Grossman, 2010; Sykes, Bird, & Kennedy, 2010; Zeichner, 1980, 2010a, 2014).

However, teacher education literature offers limited guidance for those making

decisions about how to work with and support mentors in UTRs. Despite recent empirical

research that suggests the quality of mentoring support available to student teachers plays

a decisive role in their learning outcomes (Boyd, Grossman, Lankford, & Loeb, 2009;

Ronfeldt, Reininger, & Kwok, 2013), university-based teacher educators generally

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[5] In this dissertation, I generally refer to the in-service teachers who work with student
teachers/residents as mentors. They are also referred to as cooperating teachers in the
literature published since about 1950.

regarded mentoring as secondary to the theory and instruction provided in coursework. In fact, teacher educators have dedicated more time and research to chronicling and protecting student teachers from the "wash-out" effect of the practicum than to working collaboratively with mentors to improve clinical experiences, resulting in an uneasy relationship with their school-based colleagues (Zeichner, 1980, 2002, 2010a).

The quality and focus of the extant research on clinical experiences has contributed to persistent misconceptions about ways mentors contribute to teacher preparation (L. Anderson & Stillman, 2013; Feiman-Nemser, 1998a; Grossman, Ronfeldt, & Cohen, 2013; Wang & Odell, 2002; Wilson, Floden, & Ferrini-Mundy, 2001). Scant evidence of ways mentoring compliments teacher education and few reports of collaborations between university-based teacher educators have lead many teachers and teacher educators to assume that teaching and mentoring are equivalent practices, and therefore those who serve as mentors do not require additional skills, knowledge, insight into teaching, or connection with teacher educators to do the job well (Feiman-Nemser, 1998a, 1998b; Zeichner, 2010a). Consequently, most teacher education programs provide mentors with little more than a student teaching handbook and brief orientation as preparation for their role in teacher education (Furlong & Maynard, 1995). When they do connect with mentors, representatives of teacher education programs typically "work around" or try to "fix" mentors by providing training workshops designed to align their teaching and mentoring practices with the educational principles, standards for teaching, and learning objectives the program considers important (Cochran-Smith, 1991). This "training" orientation to preparing mentors neglects their teaching expertise as well as

their contextual and practical knowledge, and perpetuates a deficit view of their capacity to prepare future teachers (Cochran-Smith, 1991; Feiman-Nemser, 1998b; McIntyre & Hagger, 1993; Sykes et al., 2010).

Concerns about the implications of practice-based models of teacher preparation[6] and recognition that mentors will assume additional responsibility for and exert greater influence on learning to teach in UTRs creates a clear warrant for engaging with mentors in ways that support them "*beyond the acquisition of skills*" (emphasis in the original, Orland-Barak, 2010, p. 26). The level of "educative mentoring" (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a) UTRs depend on requires the development of mentors' "bifocal vision" so that they can simultaneously "see" both the pupils and student teachers in their classrooms and orient teaching and mentoring around learning for all. Specifically, effective mentors can use their own teaching practice as the basis for learning to teach, translate what they know about teaching for teacher learning, explain their pedagogical decisions, and critically examine the connection between teaching, pupil learning, and the school-community context (Feiman-Nemser, 1998a, 1998b, 2001a, 2001b; Feiman-Nemser & Beasley, 1998, 2007; Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1985; Crasborn, Hennisen, Brouwer, Korthagen, & Bergen, 2010; Maynard & Furlong, 1993; McIntyre & Hagger, 1993; Orland-Barak, 2005, 2010). As such, support for UTR mentors should be grounded in "respect for the complex and contextualized nature of teaching…honor [for] teachers' knowledge and ways of knowing, and engagement in…joint inquiry about teaching and learning to teach" (Feiman-Nemser, 1998a, p. 66).

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[6] For more on this topic, see Ellis and Orchard (2014) and Noel (2013).

Of equal importance to a successful collaboration with UTR mentors is teacher educators' openness to dissenting ideas about teaching. Whereas in the past, teacher educators held sway over the knowledge in teacher education, in practice-based models such as UTRs, mentors' knowledge of teaching and the material, social, and political contexts in which they teach will likely challenge pedagogical theories and taken-for-granted assumptions about what learning and practicing teaching ought to be like. In other words, authentic engagement with mentors in teacher preparation will justly and substantially influence what counts as knowledge for learning to teach and change the power structure of teacher education, thereby opening up what can be achieved in practice-based teacher education (Zeichner, 2010a; Zeichner & Payne, 2013).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to understand how engagement in collaborative inquiry supported a group of six mentors, two clinical faculty members, and me, the group leader and facilitator, in recognizing, negotiating, and naming a mentoring practice that supported the transformation of teacher preparation[7]. This study was conducted within the context of a federal grant-funded, "hybrid," university-district partnered UTR, referred to in this dissertation as the New City Teaching Residency Program (NCUTR), which is located in a northeastern city in the United States. During the three years prior to this study, the university-based faculty assigned to the NCUTR consciously positioned

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[7] Although the NCUTR administrator was not a participant in this study, she graciously granted me permission to include her direct quotes taken from the transcripts of the February 24, 2014 mentor meeting and an interview I conducted with her on June 12, 2014. I received notice of permission to include these quotes in this dissertation from the Institutional Review Board on February 17, 2015.

mentors as co-teacher educators and provided them with support for their role that was not available to cooperating teachers in the traditional university-based teacher education program (Klein et al., 2013; Taylor et al., 2014; Taylor & Klein, 2015). However, because the two founding university-based faculty were on sabbatical at the time data were collected for this study in 2014, a retired NCPS professional development expert and former clinical faculty in the elementary wing of the residency program took the lead as the clinical instructor for the secondary cohort of the NCUTR, supported by two full-time NCPS teachers and veteran NCUTR mentors who were hired as part-time clinical faculty.

Within this fluid setting, my specific intention was to facilitate a collaborative inquiry project in which all participants would have opportunities to discuss and reflect on mentoring and collaboratively construct a mentoring practice that connected with the other elements of clinical instruction. Although the clinical faculty served a different institutional role in this arrangement, their previous experience as UTR mentors and location in NCPS schools provided them with an insider perspective of the district and mentoring that closely aligned them with purpose of this study.

The questions that guided this work were:

1. How did a group of mentors and clinical faculty working in a school-based teacher preparation program recognize, negotiate, and name mentoring when they were invited into a community of inquiry?

2. How did I negotiate my multiple roles as participant and co-inquirer, participatory action research facilitator and dissertation researcher, teacher educator and mentor

while engaging in a participatory action research study with school-based mentors and clinical faculty?

I adopted Orland-Barack's (2010) definition of "mentor" in recognition of the unique professional role the teachers and teacher educators in this study played in preparing pre-service teachers within the context of "complex interpersonal and social professional webs" (p. 3), which challenged them to engage with other educators and their protégés in critical, collaborative, and just ways. I drew on situated learning theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998, 2010), to assert that mentoring in this study was a "boundary practice" that bridged the teaching and teacher education practices in the NCUTR, and I show that the boundary where we met was a place of resistance and relationship that offered opportunities for teachers, teacher educators, and me to negotiate the meaning and purpose of mentoring; to jointly interpret and address problems of practice-based teacher learning; to appropriate teacher observation for the purpose of learning to teach; and to overcome discontinuities between our separate practices for the sake of the educations mission in service of the public good.

I rejected more traditional research methodologies that would have positioned me as an "outsider looking in" to "objectively" observe and evaluate mentoring. Rather, I chose participatory action research (PAR) because it is a collaborative model of research "that values all participants' deepening understandings and reflects all parties vested interest in improving practice" (L. Anderson & Stillman, 2013, p. 58). While a cluster of recent studies has shown that opportunities for collaborative inquiry among mentors can influence their mentoring practices and promote their professional development (Arnold,

2002; Carroll, 2005; Parker-Katz & Bay, 2008; Sandholtz & Wasserman, 2001; Zeek, Foote, & Walker, 2001), the body of empirical studies that feature mentor and teacher educator collaborative inquiry is thin (Anagnostopoulos, Smith, & Basmadjian, 2007; Nielsen, Triggs, Clarke, & Collins, 2010; Norman, 2011; Taylor et al., 2014). Therefore, this PAR study addresses a gap in the literature on preservice teacher mentoring by considering how collaboration happens across dimensions of teacher preparation.

Data for this study were generated from our six mentor meetings, participants' (including my own) mentor journals, group and individual interviews with study participants and the NCUTR administrator, and my research journal. My method for data analysis was in line with strategies recommended by constructivist grounded theory (Charmaz, 2005, 2014). The objective of analysis was to understand how we came to recognize mentoring as a hybrid social practice that is distinct but derived from teaching and teacher education practices and to identify the boundary mechanisms that enabled us to negotiate and name mentoring together.

Significance of the Study

This study provides insight into how collaborative inquiry can serve as a mechanism for developing connections and a sense of mutuality between mentors and other teacher educators. This is an especially important study given the rise of practice-based teacher preparation programs and the dearth of research on ways teacher educators might collaborate with mentors who are positioned as co-teacher educators in those programs.

In this dissertation, I consider the success of our group's inquiry project in terms of whether all participants authentically engaged in naming mentoring and find that our ability to name mentoring was down to the development of a safe, communicative space located at the boundary between teaching and teacher education. This boundary space was built on our collective trust and courage to move into relationship with others, to seek and provide each other with support for making difficult decisions, and to innovate mentoring as a teacher education practice. There we could interrogate, interpret, and comprehend ways teaching and teacher education are differently oriented and evaluate the demands of mentoring on mentors' understanding of themselves as teachers.

Further, in this study, I show that while initially our impulse was to cleave to the goals outlined by the Teacher Quality Partnership Grants Program and focus our efforts on preparing "employment ready" residents, we later recognized and checked the encroachment of neoliberal values into our hybrid UTR program by re-connecting teaching and teacher education. In particular, I provide evidence that by nurturing our capacity for speaking authentically and listening actively, we became attuned to ways the program's design structured a state of vulnerability in which mentors were held accountable for accomplishing particular tasks, standardizing their mentoring practices, adopting predetermined performance standards as measures of residents' progress, and remaining complacent about their responsibility for preparing future urban teachers.

Finally, because this was a PAR study, it provides support for advocates of forms of research that empower all participants in building knowledge for the improvement of society by engaging in critical analysis of the institutions that undergird it. This study

illustrates the power of PAR for developing communicative spaces that motivate collective action in preparing teachers and preserving the professional integrity of teaching. Additionally, by examining my own experience in this PAR study, I illuminate the uniqueness and complexity of a second-person researcher perspective and show that as a PAR researcher, I toggled between my inside and outside positions before, during, and after I conducted this study.

Chapter Two: Locating This Study in Theory and Research

The purpose of this chapter is to situate my dissertation in the research on mentoring in teacher education and to address *how* theory worked for me as a tool for locating and understanding the hidden complexities of the data I collected during the six months of facilitating and participating in the participatory action research study that grounds this work. In the first part of the chapter, I trace my experience of developing a conceptual framework for this research and then make the theoretical roots and conceptual branches of my thinking explicit. In the second part of this chapter, I survey the history of the literature on mentoring (including its antecedents and aliases) and frame this body of work as representing a "meta-practice" that is influenced by and reconstructs prevailing ideas about teacher quality, the preparation of teachers, and reform initiatives.

The Conceptual Framework Spiral

In the course of this project, I learned first hand what Sikes (2006) meant when she cautioned researchers against the "Cinderella's slipper syndrome," which tempts researchers to "remorselessly cut and slice bits off their data (feet) in order to make it fit the theory (shoe)" (p. 46). In the course of completing this dissertation, I came to appreciate the need to be critical and reflexive about the theory I was using in order to "make the familiar strange and the strange familiar, to challenge the taken-for-granted…[and] provid[e] a foundation for transformative action" (p. 45). This process was especially challenging because I was *in* this study as a participant and also because it took an unexpected amount of time to read and digest "big T" theories, to consider them

in light of my research question, and then to find other "small t" theories to bridge the gap between theory and my data.

Arriving at the conceptual framework presented in this chapter was a spiral process that started well before I defended my dissertation proposal in the late fall of 2013. When I prepared for my defense, I decided to use situated learning theory as a framework for thinking about mentoring in the NCUTR because I had to plant my dissertation somewhere. This decision seemed appropriate in light of the program's "situatedness" and its unique affordance to residents of being able to work as apprentice teachers for a full academic year. Also, my prior work with the teachers who mentored the first two cohorts of residents in the program piqued my curiosity about how they made sense of their newly enhanced role in preparing residents to teach. I assumed that because they were positioned as "co-teacher educators" (Taylor et al., 2014), the 2014 mentor cohort would be quick to recognize that they were actually engaged in a form of practice that was linked to but different than teaching. I defended the initial version of my conceptual framework secure in the knowledge that I had found a direct line between my research question, situated learning theory, and the purpose of my study.

However, once the study was underway, I became confused about what I was "looking for" and began to notice that the mentors in the group were not actually the purveyors of their mentor practice, a realization that became increasingly unsettling as I made my first pass through the transcripts of our early meetings. I was struck by evidence that the mentors were not negotiating the meaning of their practice among themselves. Interestingly, their negotiations were instead with the non-mentor members of the group,

especially Amy, the program administrator, and Brenda, the lead clinical faculty. This realization defied my expectations, but I held fast to my original plan to frame this study using situated learning theory.

By April, four months into the study, I noticed a pattern in how our meetings unfolded. At least once during every meeting there was an incident that started with a member of the group presenting a mentoring problem, followed by a fairly contentious conversation, and ending with the group coming to a consensus about how to move forward. I began to think about these conversations as "critical incidents" (Tripp, 1993) because they evoked in me a sense that we had made progress in coming to a more mutual, complex, and nuanced understanding of mentoring as a result of them. As such, I *felt* that these incidents connoted some underlying process of negotiating the meaning of mentoring that I could not quite articulate and so I decided to ask the group to help me make sense of them during our final mentor meeting in June. Perhaps because I had already ordained the incidents as critical, or maybe because I was too close to the action of the incidents myself, at first, the group's reflections about them did not seem to add anything new to my understanding.

Months later, after the audio recordings of the meetings and interviews were transcribed, all of the data were compiled, and the tedious process of data coding and analysis (discussed in detail in Chapter 3) was underway, I realized that my theoretical lens was not up to the task of helping me make sense of what made those four incidents critical to our process of recognizing, negotiating, and naming mentoring. In frustration, I broadened my reading to include critical theory (CT) and later, thanks to Kathryn Herr's

gentle guidance, I found my way to relational cultural theory (RCT). These theories

created a gateway to other "small t" theories, which are also detailed in this framework.

To illustrate how my use of theory spiraled during this project, I present the

conceptual framework in four sections, each summarizing key elements of theories and

conceptual tools that were useful in helping me to locate this study within theories of

social practice, making sense of the data I was gathering, and unpacking the complexity

of interactions within our group. Figure 2.1 visually illustrates the conceptual framework

spiral that is detailed in the sections below.
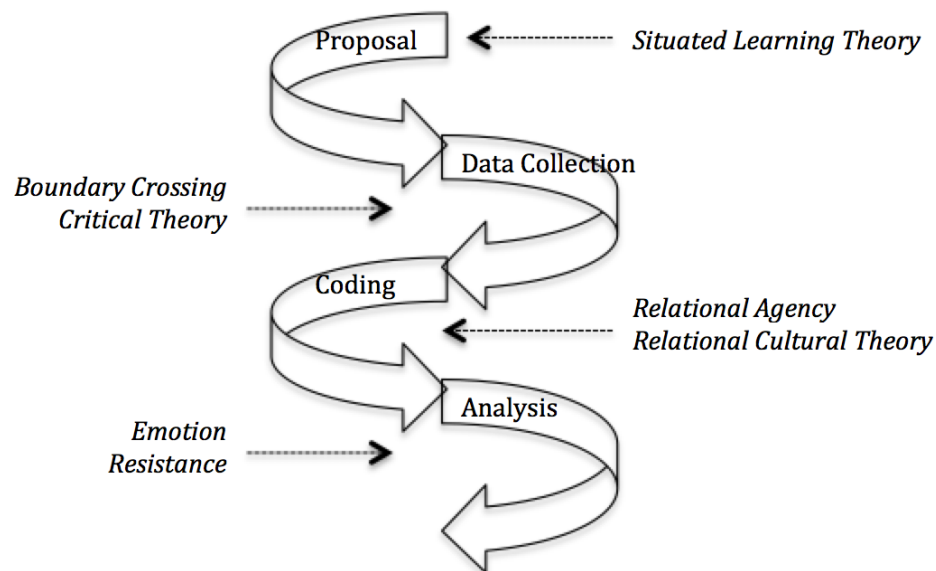
Figure 2.1. The conceptual framework spiral.

The first section of the conceptual framework was developed prior to the start of

the study. Here, I frame teaching residency programs as living exemplars of situated

learning theory because residencies' "situadedness" is an affordance for learning to teach. I explain that in residency programs, the teaching practice serves as the scope and sequence of the learning curriculum, and the teachers who mentor residents are the embodiment of the local teaching practice. I theorize that the teaching community of practice (CoP) is the steward of the teaching practice residents simultaneously learn and practice during their residency year.

In the second section of this framework, I consider mentoring a practice that is located at the boundary between teaching and teacher education. This section represents a refinement in my thinking about mentors' work at the boundary of teaching and teacher education practices. Whereas I originally assumed that mentors "spanned" this space by applying their knowledge from one setting (teaching) to another (teacher education) in an effort to create a distinct mentor practice, my data pushed me to locate non-mentors, or teacher educators, at the boundary too and to consider their influence on how negotiations happen there. Therefore, what I have written in this section is a more nuanced understanding of the boundary as a contested and generative space where practitioners can make use of different tools and learning mechanisms for constructing a boundary practice.

Because research situated at the boundary of practices is a new line of inquiry, especially in education research (Akkerman & Bakker, 2011), I found it necessary to expand this framework by adding more specific conceptual tools for understanding what was happening when the mentors and teacher educators in the NCUTR interacted at the boundary of their respective practices during our mentor meetings. Thus, in the third

section of the framework, I take up ideas from CT about the influence of social and

political contexts on the development of social practices and then pull in concepts

developed by various theorists of RCT and a related sociocultural concept, relational

agency, to help me make sense of how our collaboration was contingent upon the

development of a connected relationship.

In the fourth and final section of this framework, I draw on theories about

emotion and resistance to help me understand how the mentors' emotional responses to

mentoring signaled their willingness to participate in transforming mentoring.

Applying the Lens of Situated Learning Theory to Teaching Residencies

In this section, I explore teaching residencies as living examples of situated

learning theory. In doing so, I explain my understanding of the purpose of school-based

experiences in learning to teach as providing more than an opportunity for residents to

apply the theoretical knowledge they learn in their coursework to teaching activities and I

consider "situatedness" an affordance of teaching residency programs. Situated in a

sheltered teaching CoP, residents learn teaching[8] and become teachers by participating in

teaching; thus they are able to seamlessly integrate "cerebral" (knowing teaching) and the

"embodied activity" (teaching) (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998; 2010). I suggest

that residents develop their teaching competence as they engage in and fine tune teaching,

negotiate their teaching practice with other teachers, and develop their teaching identities

during their residency year.

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[8] In this dissertation, I adopt Lampert's (2010) phrase *learn teaching* rather than *learn to teach* because expressing it as such "allows us to hold out the possibility that learning also occurs while doing the work" (p. 21).

Situated Learning

From a theoretically "situated" perspective, learning is conceived as fundamentally relational and negotiated within practice, a thinking and knowing process that engages the whole person in "activity in and with the world" (Lave & Wenger, 1991 p. 33). As a theoretical principle, "situatedness" is a starting point for understanding how residents in teaching residencies learn teaching within a teaching community that is located in a given social and historic context. Situated in practice, residents interact with teachers and students, use the technical and conceptual tools available to them (e.g., Smart Board, grade book, lesson plans), and engage in teaching alongside their more experienced mentors. Thus, in a residency program, learning is not a separate cognitive activity that can be distinguished from practice—it actually *is* practice, and teaching and learning to teach are understood to be mutual, dynamic, and reciprocal social processes that bring together "new comers" and "old timers" in a joint activity that furthers their collective knowledge (Lave, 1988; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). This conception of learning teaching in a residency program raises the issue of how to characterize the teaching practice since it is the object of residents' learning and doing during their residency year.

Practice

Practice is explained as an ongoing dialectic interaction between a duality of activities: *participation*, as in doing teaching*,* and *reification*, as in making meaning in teaching. Participation in teaching shapes practice, and in turn, the practice shapes teachers. When residents practice with teachers, they begin to recognize themselves as

members of a community of teachers and they develop a sense of mutuality and purpose

through those relationships. While reification typically refers to a material representation

of a fixed meaning, here, reification refers to the process of making teaching

comprehensible enough so that teachers and residents can "proceed with the practices

[they] participate in" (Wenger, 1998, p. 69). Thus, from a theoretical perspective, the

teaching practice is fundamentally relational and residents' ability to learn it is contingent

upon their access to a community of practicing teachers and an understanding of ways

they reify their knowledge of teaching (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

Communities of Practice

As previously suggested, the teaching practice does not take shape in isolation; it

occurs within a community of teachers, or a teaching CoP (Lave & Wenger, 1991;

Wenger, 1998). A CoP, is defined by Wenger (1998) as an "analytical category that

captures a familiar aspect of our experience of the world" (p. 126), in that we engage with

other in three dimensions of community: mutual engagement, joint enterprise, and a

shared repertoire. Mutual engagement binds the community together and determines the

"depth of its social capital" (Wenger, 2000, p. 230) and participants' ability to address

real problems together. The CoP's joint enterprise, or the means by which they achieve

their objectives, has both an epistemological dimension as it signifies the "level of their

[practitioners'] learning energy" (p. 230) and an ontological dimension in that it is

emergent and open to change. Wenger (2000) describes a CoP's "joint repertoire" as both

observable routines and procedures and the community's collective "degree of self-

awareness" about who members are together and what they hope to accomplish. Each of

these dimensions of their communal relationships is sustained by constant negotiation

among the members of the CoP, a negotiation that occurs in a historic and social context

that is ever changing (Wegner, 1998).

Viewed from this perspective, a teacher CoP sets mutually agreed upon standards

for teaching and holds members accountable for the development and maintenance of

their teaching practice. As a social practice, teaching is passed down, adapted, and

renewed through ongoing participation in teaching and in negotiation with other teachers

positioned in a shared communicative space. The meaning of their activities, their ways

of knowing, and their ways of being teachers over time and across geographic locations

develop as they engage in activities such as telling stories about teaching, sharing

classroom resources, working through dilemmas with the support of colleagues, and even

posting helpful information about teaching on a teacher populated social media website

(Lave, 1988; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998).

Teachers make the meaning of their practice explicit to each other and to

outsiders by reifying it in the form of material and conceptual tools (e.g., language,

routines, and rituals) that are unique to them and their practice but recognizable to those

beyond it (Wenger, 1998). Teachers are ultimately the purveyors of their practice because

they alone can tap into the competencies, ways of knowing, and perspectives that mark

them as different from others (Wenger, 1998). However, a CoP is vulnerable to pressure

from the broader social system and its institutions but can "never be fully defined by an

outside mandate" (Wenger, 1998, p. 80) because members monitor their practice. As

such, the "activity and the participation of individuals involved in [a CoP], their

knowledge, and their perspectives are mutually constituted" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 115).

A Learning Curriculum

When a resident enters a school to learn the teaching practice, she is thrust into a socially, culturally, and historically situated learning-practicing community in which she becomes a "legitimate peripheral participant" (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Lave and Wenger (1991) described legitimate peripheral participation as "a way of learning—of absorbing and being absorbed in—the 'culture of practice'" (p. 95). Thus, the CoP is the "curriculum" for learning teaching because it embodies the "social structure of this practice, its power relations, and its conditions for legitimacy" (p. 98). In accordance with this principle, the learning focus of the resident is teaching as it is negotiated, conceived, and practiced by the teachers in the local CoP (Wenger, 1998).

This conception of how and what residents learn in their school placements is fundamentally different from what student teachers learn from traditional student teaching placements, which position *cooperating* teachers as "the source or cause of learning" (Wenger, 1998, p. 41). Legitimate peripheral participation decenters the experienced teacher as the object of learning and broadens the scope of resources available for learning teaching. Thus, a teaching residency grounded in principles of situated learning theory is aimed at the development of a "learning curriculum" (as opposed to a teaching curriculum) that is "the characteristics of a community" and its "everyday practice *viewed from the perspective of learners*" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 97). This is not to imply that teachers serving as mentors do not play a central role in

residents' learning. To the contrary, mentors' work remains critical in that they are typically the first point of contact for the resident and provide entry into the teaching CoP. However, they are more than just gatekeepers for the CoP. They are responsible for "sharing their understanding concerning what they are doing and what it means for their lives and for their communities" (Wenger, 1998, p. 98) and for providing the necessary "transparency" for student teachers to make sense of teaching by talking "about and within practice" (p. 109).

The Role of Cognition in Learning Teaching

To reconcile how newcomers move into participation, some social practice theorists explain situated learning more specifically as "cognitive apprenticeships" (Brown, A. Collins, & Duguid 1989; A. Collins, Brown, & Newman, 1990; A. Collins, 2006). Like legitimate peripheral participation, a cognitive apprenticeship places residents at the "nexus of activity, tool, and culture" (Brown et al., 1989, p. 40), but it attends to how experiential and cognitive processes are combined in learning teaching. The purpose of highlighting cognition in a situated learning model is to distinguish professional learning from traditional workplace apprenticeships. While in traditional apprenticeships, mentees learn according to what happens spontaneously as they work; in cognitive apprenticeships, mentors know how and when to increase the complexity of the tasks their mentees will perform and consciously guide them through three phases or "trajectories" of learning: *peripheral* which engages mentees, such as residents in observations of practice; *inbound* in which mentees move into practicing and then

eventually practice independently; and *insider*, which may not be achieved until mentees are employed (Brown et al., 1989).

In a cognitive model of situated learning, mentors first model teaching, then move on to coaching, scaffolding, and reflecting on teaching with their residents, all while articulating their own knowledge and thinking. As models, mentors perform teaching tasks and help student teachers build conceptual models of teaching from their observations. During the coaching phase, teaching responsibilities are gradually shifted to residents while mentors move into a support role. Scaffolding is an important feature of this phase and is contingent on mentors' judgments about the specific assistance residents need before scaffolds are faded and residents begin to teach independently. Reflecting with residents after teaching events draws out their thinking about teaching, and it is during this process that learning becomes mutual, as mentors and residents explore problems of practice together, set goals for improvement, and prepare for separation (A. Collins, 2006). While these phases in mentor-resident relationships are presented here as a linear progression, they should actually be thought of as recursive and linked to both learning and improving teaching.

Mentoring at the Boundary of Teaching and Teacher Education

Having framed teaching residencies as exemplars of situated learning theory and, more specifically, as situated cultural-cognitive apprenticeships, in this section, I turn to consideration of the nature of mentoring from a situated perspective. First I describe boundaries as contested spaces and locate mentoring at the boundary that separates the teaching and teacher education practices. At their boundary, teachers and teacher

educators have opportunities to translate, coordinate, and align their perspectives in an

effort to develop a mutually beneficial mentoring practice. Then I summarize four

learning mechanisms featured in empirical studies of boundary practices and focus

specifically on boundary objects that can either facilitate or hinder work at the boundary.

Boundaries

The boundary of a practice is a social construction that bounds a CoP's collective

participation in purposeful activity. Internally, a boundary delineates membership status,

the knowledge considered relevant to a practice, the relative power of practice

participants, and the object of the practice (Santos & Eisenhardt, 2005; Wenger, 2010).

The further members venture out from the center of practice and the closer to the

boundary they get, the more intensely they will experience a divergence of "competence

and experience" and feel "exposed to a foreign competence" (Wenger, 2010, p. 126). The

tensions practitioners experience at the boundary, while uncomfortable, generate

opportunities for learning and transformation. Therefore, more porous boundaries create a

greater likelihood that practitioners will learn by encountering other practices and

becoming legitimate peripheral participants in neighboring CoPs (Wenger, 1998).

Boundaries that are porous create peripheries where related practices overlap,

despite their discontinuities (Akkerman & Bakker, 2011; Edwards & Fowler, 2007; Star,

2010; Star & Griesemer, 1989; Wenger, 1998). There, practitioners are encouraged to

turn their gaze outward to enhance their understanding of their own practice by "seeing"

it in relation to another, and they are able to freely exchange material and conceptual

resources with their neighbors. Features of collaborative boundary encounters include:

recognition of intersecting interests and activities, engagement with differences and

commonalities, suspension of judgments about different competencies, and translation of

practice repertoires (Wenger, 2010, p. 126).

Situating mentoring "partially outside [teaching] and in contact with [teacher

education]" (Wenger, 1998, p. 118) creates "fertile ground" for generating the tensions

necessary for integrating teaching and teacher education. Tense boundary encounters

between teachers and teacher educators can actually "open new possibilities for meaning

translation, coordination, and alignment between perspectives" (Wenger, 1998, p. 109),

enabling mentors and teacher educators to knit together the overlapping elements of their

practices while still meeting their separate practice objectives. Thus, at the boundary of

their practices, teachers and teacher educators are uniquely positioned to deconstruct the

theory/practice and teacher educator/teacher binaries that heretofore have been an

impediment to learning to teach (Akkerman & Bakker, 2011; Wenger, 1998).

This conception of *boundary* is drawn in sharp contrast to its more common

depiction as a "diaspora" where less powerful practitioners are conceived as "others,"

dislocated, misunderstood, marginalized, and engaged in an "alternative" practice that is

undervalued (Akkerman & Bakker, 2011; Wenger, 1998, 2010). Reimagined as a place of

agency, a boundary is "made actively and relationally through connections [between

practitioners]…in a location that is fashioned…[by] the practices that take place within

it" (Edwards & Fowler, 2008, p. 114). Thus, ontologically, boundary and practice are co-

constituted when teachers and teacher educators are brought together and pushed to work

out new power arrangements.[9] The dexterous management of their new and complex

relationship requires both teachers and teacher educators to improve their "boundary

competence…to manage and integrate multiple, divergent discourses and practices across

[their] social boundaries" (Walker & Nocon quoted in Akkerman & Bakker, 2011, p.

140).

     Boundary mechanisms. In their comprehensive review of empirical studies of

boundary crossing and boundary objects, Akkerman and Bakker (2011) found that,

"dialogical engagement at the boundary does not mean a fusion of intersecting social

worlds or a dissolving of boundaries…rather [it is] a process of establishing continuity in

a situation of sociocultural difference" (p. 152). In fact, the ambiguity of boundaries as

belonging to "*both* one world *and* another" creates a "sandwich effect" for boundary

crossers and boundary objects since they "embody" the boundary while at the same time

existing beyond it in spaces occupied by other distinct practices (p. 150). Thus, boundary

practices are not always transformative and may actually reinforce boundaries that limit

interaction.

     In their analysis of empirical studies of boundary work in the context of several

different professional practices (e.g., nursing, education, medical research), Akkerman

and Bakker (2011) identify four boundary "learning mechanisms" that generate different

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[9] Bhabha conceives the location between cultural practices as a "third space" where
competing discourses and practices come together and give "rise to something different, a
new area of negotiation of meaning and representation" (as quoted in Klein et al., 2013,
p. 28). In an earlier publication I co-authored with the founding faculty of the NCUTR
(Taylor et al., 2014) we framed the dynamic between faculty, mentors and me as
constituting a third space, which we recognized as a "utopian space" that was developed
and maintained through "continual negotiation" (p. 14).

kinds of connections between practices and practitioners (the practitioners in this study

include mentors, faculty, and program administrator), including: "understanding, identity

development, change in practices, and institutional development" (p. 142). The first

mechanism, *identification,* reinforces boundaries through a dialogical practice of

"othering" and "legitimating" the co-existence of two or more separate but related

practices. *Coordination*, the second boundary mechanism, is aimed at securing

cooperation between practitioners and overcoming the boundary that separates them by

creating and using boundary objects that enhance "communicative connections,"

"translation," "boundary permeability," and "routineization" (p. 144) of their interactions

across boundaries. *Reflection,* the third boundary mechanism, engages practitioners in

"perspective making," conveying their view of a shared dilemma, and "perspective

taking," assuming the view of others for the dual purposes of learning something new

about their own practice and developing a better understanding of a different practice.

The final mechanism, *transformation*, is initiated by a "confrontation" between

practitioners of intersecting practices. This conflict inspires practitioners to reconsider

their cross-practice relations and to recognize that they share a common "problem space"

that calls for "hybridization" of their practices. "Crystallization" of their new mutual

understanding is the first step in the creation of a distinct boundary practice, which

portends changes in their respective practices. However, because transformation requires

"continuous joint work at the boundary," including "real dialogue" and collaboration

between "flesh-and-blood partners" (p. 149), it is the least common of the four varieties

of boundary mechanisms reported in the literature.

Boundary objects. Boundary objects feature prominently in coordination and transformation. As such, they warrant additional discussion. Boundary objects are both "material and processual" (Star, 2010, p. 604) and can support the development of a boundary practice if they are flexible, robust, and useful in "several intersecting worlds" (Star & Griesemer, 1989, p. 393). Even in the absence of consensus between practices, boundary objects offer material possibilities for cooperation across differences (Star, 2010, p. 605) and are useful for coordination. However, if they are not critically examined, they can lead to disruption at the boundary and within a practice or minimize the need for real interaction between practitioners and thereby become meaningless (Akkerman & Bakker, 2011).

A Critique of the CoP Concept

Once our semester together ended and I began to code the data collected, I realized that conceptions of CoPs and boundary practices were insufficient for taking into account issues of power within and beyond our group. Specifically, I wondered how to frame unequal relations of power within the group and how to take into consideration the pressure that was brought to bear on the group from the larger historic, social, and political context in which we were situated.

Critics of the CoP concept observe that it is silent on issues of power and repression (e.g., Contu &Willmott, 2003; Fox, 2000), despite attempts by Wenger (2010) to develop it further. In defense of CoPs, Wenger (2010) claimed that they "yield an inherently 'political' view of learning, where power and learning are always intertwined and indeed inseparable" (p. 190) and equity and fairness for all members are assured by

an internal mechanism of "vertical accountability." Likewise, he held that attempts by

outsiders or elements within the greater social and political context to control practice are

checked by the agency of the CoP to negotiate the meaning of their practice among

themselves. However, Wenger (2010) also admitted that within the larger historic, social,

and political context, there is no guarantee that a CoP's practice will be considered

legitimate, its members competent, or their knowledge valid.

In recognition of the limitations of situated learning theory, and specifically the

CoP concept, for helping me to make sense of how we negotiated mentoring given the

imbalance in the group's internal power relations and pressures from the larger social and

political context, I turned first to CT and then to RCT. This decision is in line with

Akkerman and Bakker's (2011) recommendation that studies of boundary crossing

should take a macro perspective by framing the larger social and historic formation of

differences between practices that meet at the boundary and a micro perspective that

takes into consideration how discontinuities are experienced. They suggested, "In this

way it becomes possible to study how sociocultural differences play out in and are being

shaped by knowledge processes, personal and professional relations, and mediations, but

also feelings of belonging and identities" (p. 153).

Adding a Critical Lens

The addition of a critical lens in this framework is aimed at helping me account

for the influence of the greater social, political, and historic context on our ability to

recognize, negotiate, and name mentoring (Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Freire, 1970, 1976;

Giroux, 1997). A critical analysis of the larger context of mentoring helps me, the PAR

researcher, to "penetrate objective appearances" and "expose underlying social

relationships" (Giroux, 2009, p. 27) that would have gone undocumented and unexplored

in this study. Thus, by incorporating a critical lens, I am able to maintain "wide

awakeness" (Greene, 1988) to the insipid influence of "positivist culture" and neoliberal

values on our work together (Giroux, 1997).

Schools and teacher education programs are social and political institutions that

perpetuate prevailing technical-rational educational theories and teaching practices

advanced by a "culture of positivism" (Giroux, 1997, p. 9). Cultural positivism assumes

that knowledge is objective and value free and emphasizes technical control within a

highly structured educational system that denies teachers and learners of their historic and

social consciousness and their agency to improve the circumstances of their lives

(Giroux, 1997). According to Giroux (1997),

> This suggests that existing institutional arrangements reproduce themselves, in
>
> part, through a form of cultural hegemony, a positivist world view, that becomes a
>
> form of self delusion…In part this is due to an underlying "self-perpetuating"
>
> logic that shapes the mechanisms and boundaries of the culture of positivism. (p.
>
> 15)

By locating this study within the "culture of positivism," I affirm that we, the group

engaged in this inquiry, are social agents who were born into and embody the history of

the education system and perpetuate the role it plays in the development of society. Thus,

a critical lens is especially important for a study situated within a teacher preparation

program designed to *change* teacher preparation for urban schools by democratizing

"what counts as knowledge" and "expanding access to knowledge and expertise available" (Zeichner, 2010a) within the context of schools and the communities where they are located (Zeichner, 2010a, 2014; Zeichner & Payne, 2013). The extent to which we are able to negotiate mentoring is determined by the degree to which we are able to "critically mediate the history of education and its attendant ideology" (Giroux, 1997, p. 17).

Vigilant awareness of ways we reinforce the traditional system of education during our meetings has implications for how I am able to understand the mentor practice we ultimately named. According to Freire (1970), the development of an "authentic" mentor practice depends on our willingness to "refuse to take control of the life, dreams, and aspirations of the mentee" and our commitment to empowering residents to become "owners of their own history" (p. 324). To mentor authentically means that the group must "transcend their merely instructive task and assume the ethical posture of a mentor who truly believes in the total autonomy, freedom, and development of those he or she mentors" (Freire, 1970, p. 324). As such, our group should *surpass* naming mentoring in accordance with rules and guidelines that are narrowly focused on developing residents' technical competence. Rather, authenticity is made possible when we examine the lived experiences of mentoring and develop our critical consciousness of taken-for-granted assumptions about teaching, learning, mentoring, and the role of education in the liberation of human potential (Carr, 2006; Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Freire, 1997; Kessels & Korthagen, 1996; Orland-Barak, 2010). To that end, the negotiation of an authentic

mentor practice depends on our inclination to examine the complexities of mentoring in the particular social, political, and historic context in which we are situated.

Our collective agency to question "commonsense assumptions…[and to] evaluat[e] them in terms of their genesis, development, and purpose" (Giroux, 1997, p. 26) is the driving force behind our efforts to name an authentic mentor practice. The deepening of our critical thinking, or "conscientização," can lead to awareness of oppression, examination of conditions that impede us from making decisions about mentoring, and initiate the actions necessary to improve conditions for learning to teach for the sake of human improvement (Freire, 1970). Thus, authentic practice, or "praxis," is "a form of political action" (Carr & Kemmis, 2009, p. 77) that is aimed at changing the world through morally committed actions that are informed by practice traditions (Kemmis & Smith, 2008). Practitioners of an authentic practice "perceive reality as process, as transformation, rather than as a static entity…and think [in a way] which does not separate itself from action, but constantly immerses itself in temporality without fear of the risks involved (Friere, 1970, p. 73). Thus, praxis is prefigured by "practice architectures," which involve the "sayings, doings, and relatings" of a given practice (Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008) but is also transformation oriented.

Our ability to mentor wisely, prudently, and justly within a given context rests on what we learn in and from practice about the actions that are appropriate for "these particular times and this particular place" (Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008, p. 59). This practice knowledge, or "phronēsis," develops as we think critically and uncover contradictions, inconsistencies, implicit values, and insufficient explanations about the

ways mentoring has been practiced in the past and how we expect to practice it in the future. Thus, by creating openings for transformations in practice, our relationships, and our practice knowledge, we can change the world (Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Friere, 1970; Giroux, 1981, 1997, 2009; Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008).

While the mechanism for transformation is dialogue that is "motivated by humility and faith in human potential" (Freire, 1970), particular relational conditions must be in place. Freire (2007) cautioned, "We have to apply ourselves to creating a context in which people can question the fatalistic perceptions of the circumstances where they find themselves, so that we can all fulfill our role as participants in history" (p. 5). To that end, I turn to consideration of how sociocultural differences can be mediated through relational competencies.

Focusing on Relationships at the Boundary

To understand how interactions at the boundary of teaching and teacher education might be generative of the kinds of internal micro conditions necessary for transformation (Akkerman & Bakker, 2011), I explore "relational agency," a concept that considers "the interactional aspects of purposeful action and how they are mediated by the common knowledge generated in boundary practices" (Edwards, 2010, p. 65) and RCT (Hartling, 2010; Jordan, 2004; Surrey, Kaplan, & Jordan, 1990), a perspective that affords me access to additional ways of interpreting the "relational competencies" necessary when people connect across their differences. The seven relational competencies discussed below appear to be essential for developing the conditions that support joint work.

Relational Agency

In her studies of teaching, teacher education, and welfare professions in England, Edwards (2007) examined how practitioners were able to enact a form of collective agency while engaged with other professions in boundary work. When the "institutional shelters" of separate practices were absent, the taken-for-granted expertise historically embedded in those practices was missing, creating a need for a different form of "strong professional agency" that enabled practitioners from different fields to develop a "common knowledge" for addressing their joint problem. Thus, by connecting to "the wider whole" of their problems of practice and responding to them as a shared responsibility, the separate types of expertise within their different practices were "woven together" (p. 14). Edwards named this capacity for problem alignment, joint interpretation, and collective response "relational agency."

This form of agency is especially important for successful boundary encounters in that it enables practitioners of different practices to effectively name and interpret their shared problem, read the environment in which their problem is situated, draw on their respective resources, act as resources for each other, and focus on addressing the problem as they collectively understand it (Edwards, 2007, 2010, 2011). After all, Edwards (2010) explained, boundary practitioners like teachers and social workers are not "working on separate 'bits of a child'…but are working in parallel, seeing the child as a complete person in a complex social world" (p. 66).

Relational agency develops in two dynamic stages. First, boundary practitioners recognize each other's motives, ways they interpret their mutual problem, and the

resources they bring to bear for addressing it. Then in response, they locate places where their separate knowledge of the problem overlap and diverge, thereby creating an enhanced understanding of it and ways of acting that accommodate both their separate and common purposes (Edwards, 2010). As such, relational agency requires confident communication of one's specialist practice knowledge and a capacity to listen for, recognize, and enjoin the expertise of others.

It is important to clarify that under conditions of relational agency, a practitioner of one practice is not expected to act like or assume the priorities of another. Rather, their objective is to enable collaboration by gaining insight into the purposes of the other's practice, by communicating their own understanding and professional values, by "knowing how to know who" is an expert resource, and by being responsive to others (Edwards, 2011, p. 36).

Relational Cultural Theory

In general, RCT proposes that connected relationships contribute to mutual growth and mutual empowerment and foster awareness of dominant normalized standards of conduct that disempower people and inhibit change (Hartling, 2010; Jordan, 2004). By developing critical relational competencies, groups can "disempower the disempowering ideas and values" (Jordan, 2004, p. 21) and begin to develop an "ethic of empowering people who will in turn empower others," resulting in a "relational ripple" (p. 22) that can fundamentally improve lives. Qualities of "good connections" associated with relational competence include mutuality, mutual empathy, authentic connection, courage, mutual empowerment, and resilience.

Mutuality is both a relational dynamic and relational context in which individuals demonstrate receptivity to another's experience and initiative to connect with and learn from them (Jordan, 1991; Surrey et al., 1990). As a relational dynamic, mutuality emanates from a willingness to connect with others and to "empathetically attune" with their experiences. Mutuality moves individuals from a "separate-self identity" to "resonance with" others and enhances their capacity to ask for, receive, and provide assistance. In mutual relationships, individuals open themselves up to vulnerability and create opportunities to build trust (Jordan, 2004).

Mutual empathy lies at the heart of growth fostering relationships and develops in an "environment of profound respect and openness to uncertainty" (Jordan, 2010, p. 211). Mutual empathy enables individuals to see that they matter, that they are effective, and that they can evoke a response in others (Jordon, 2010, pp. 211–212), thereby empowering everyone through a "mutual empathic flow" (Surrey et al., 1990, p. 3).

Relational authenticity is recognized as a "two-way, growth promoting quality of relating" (Hartling, 2010, p. 61), which develops when we "listen the other into voice" (Jordon quoted in Walker, 2010, p. 135) and respond in ways that show how the other is impacting us. An authentic relationship is "the locus of creative energy" (Surrey et al., 1990, p. 2) that is manifested by active and purposeful behavior that builds relationships from "movement into relationship" (Miller et al., 2004, p. 65). Authenticity is developed by engaging in "good conflict" (Miller quoted in Hartling & Sparks, 2010, p. 177) or "relational conflict" (Walker, 2010, p. 134) when we accept and learn from those who are different from us while simultaneously representing to them who we are (Hartling &

Sparks, 2010; Jordan, 1991). According to Jordan (1991), "without the capacity to engage in growth-promoting conflict—authenticity and thus genuine mutuality—is jeopardized" (p. 2). Thus, conflict can sometimes be a source of creative energy.

Authenticity and conflict take courage, a quality of relationship that enhances individuals' "capacity to act meaningfully and with integrity in the face of acknowledged vulnerability…bringing our truth into relationship" (Jordon, 2010, p. 204). The courage Jordon refers to is not "separate courage," but "courage in connection" that helps us to resist radical individualism and pressure from a dominant group to define ourselves as "the problem." Being authentic in relationship with others allows us to move into uncertainty, to be curious, and to learn together courageously, despite pressure to retreat.

Mutual empowerment is a relational form of power that stands in contrast to "power-over," which identifies winners (the powerful) and losers (the vulnerable) in inequitable relationships and treats rigid stratification of power as "normal" (Walker, 2010). In recognition that all power originates in relationship, mutual empowerment is meant to "enhance the sense of strength and courage of each person" (Jordan & Dooley, 2001, p. 18) and to ensure their ability to "influence their experience…and to take action on behalf of themselves and others" (Hartling, 2010, p. 59). Thus, relationships based on mutual empowerment enable us to decide "how to relate *to* and *through* the power [we have]" (Walker, 2010, p. 127) and disrupt stultifying hierarchical power relationships that perpetuate the status quo.

Finally, RCT suggests that, "certain relational practices and cultural conditions promote resilience" (Hartling, 2010, p. 55), which is not an inherently personal

characteristic or indication of an individual's "hardiness" but a relational strength that

comes from *"the ability to connect, reconnect, and resist disconnection in response to*

hardship, adversities, trauma, and alienating social/cultural practices" (emphasis in the

original, Hartling, 2010, p. 54). As such, resilience develops within a context of group-

centered "social esteem," mutual empowerment, relational competence, and authentic

connections. In this fertile ground, resilience against adversity is grown.

Emotion and Resistance

Once my data analysis was well underway, I identified several occasions when

the mentors in our group expressed negative emotions about their mentoring experiences

and wondered if those responses constituted a form of resistance against the demands of

mentoring in the NCUTR. To make sense of these data, I turned first to Jaggar's (1989)

feminist theory, in which she conceives of emotion as being a felt and embodied way of

understanding our experiences—a kind of knowing that involves the "whole person" in

sense making. However, emotions are not manifestations of an individual's separate

knowledge but social constructions that reflect an understanding of prevailing norms

against which we judge our experiences; hence we classify emotions as "positive" or

"negative," "appropriate" or "outlaw." From a post-structural perspective, Zembylas

(2003) explained that emotions are "constructed in social relationships and systems of

values" (p. 216), "embedded in culture, ideology, and power relations" (p. 226), and

"born in dialogue as a living rejoinder of our experiences" (p. 222–223).

Research and evolving ideas about teachers' emotions suggests that, "affectivity

is of fundamental importance in teaching and to teachers" (Nias, 1996, p. 293) for three

main reasons: Teachers feel strongly about their students, their teaching skills, and the

influence of educational policies on their students and themselves; emotion is intertwined

with cognition, values, attitudes, and beliefs about teaching; and because teaching is an

integral part of their personal identity, teachers are deeply emotionally invested in their

work (Nias, 1996). Emotions, then, reflect teachers' sense of themselves as professionals

and what they understand about the nature of their work and the moral implications of the

tasks they are asked to perform.

In considering the influence of reforms on teachers' emotions, Kelchtermans

(1996, 2005) argued that teachers' emotions reflect their "embeddedness" in a socially

constructed professional environment of "vulnerability," which she defined as "feeling

that one's professional identity and moral integrity, as being 'a proper teacher,' are

questioned" (1996, p. 319). Kelchtermans (2005) used the term "self-understanding" to

describe both the "*product*…and an ongoing *process* of making sense of one's

experiences and their impact on the 'self'" (emphasis added, p. 1001) which unfolds as

teachers "tell" or make explicit to themselves and others the meaning they give to their

experiences. In part, self-understanding develops from their "task perception," which is

comprised of ideas teachers have about what constitutes their professionalism and the

duties and tasks required in the teaching practice (Kelchtermans, 2005, p. 1001). When

policy measures and the normative principles they represent are not congruent with

teachers' self-understanding and task perceptions, they understand deeply "what is at

stake" for them and their students and find ways to cope. Thus, the state of vulnerability

and the emotions it conjures are mediated by the historic, political, social, and cultural

contexts in which teachers are positioned. Kelchtermans (1996) framed teachers'

emotional responses to the imposition of changes to their practice as "political actions,

aimed at (re)gaining the social recognition of one's professional self and restoring the

necessary workplace conditions for good job performance" (p. 319). As such, emotions,

though individually experienced, become a matter of collective concern when they are

recognized as acts of resistance against reforms that amplify contextual vulnerability.

Reframing negative or "outlaw" emotions as political acts of resistance against

institutional or ideological impediments to teachers' agency to practice in ways they

believe are in the interests of their students raises questions about how to judge whether

emotion/resistance should be repressed or engaged. According to Sannino (2010) and

Kindred (1999), acts of resistance make possible the necessary "participatory shift" in

teachers' engagement in change, a point further clarified by Sannino (2010):

> Engaging in resistance is to engage in a field of struggles. It is a field of conflicts
>
> and contradictions in which people dwell every day in their practice. If the
>
> interventionist wants to support practitioners in their attempt to engage in working
>
> out the contradictions in their work, practitioners have to be supported also to face
>
> and express conflicts…(p. 843)

In other words, "resistance is part of the process of learning" (Kindred, 1999, p. 217) and

should be seen as constructive rather than destructive of transformation. Accordingly,

expressions of negative emotions that are reframed as acts of resistance are understood as

movement "toward authorship…along the path of appropriation and empowerment, or

making mine" (p. 213).

Conclusion

During the earliest phase of developing this conceptual framework, I took a 30,000 feet macro-theoretical view of learning teaching in a UTR by considering the affordance of its "situatedness" (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and the potential it offered for engaging residents and mentors in a "cognitive apprenticeship" (Brown et al., 1989; A. Collins, Brown, & Newman, 1990; A. Collins, 2006). I expected that mentors in our group would function separately as a CoP and develop a mentoring practice that was distinct from their teaching practice (Wenger, 1998, 2010).

Key features of the CoP concept (mutual engagement, joint enterprise, and a shared repertoire) remained relevant throughout the process of data collection, analysis, and writing this dissertation. However, once the study was underway, it quickly became clear to me that our mentor meetings were happening at the boundary of teaching and teacher education, and for that reason, I focused more directly on Lave and Wenger's (1991) concept of boundary and brought in other conceptual tools, including boundary objects (Star, 2010; Star & Griesemer, 1989) and boundary mechanisms (Akkerman & Bakker, 2011), to develop a more robust understanding of what can happen in that contentious theoretical space.

Once I started coding and analyzing data, I realized that my more nuanced understanding of the boundary was not adequate for making sense of the data I had collected and so I incorporated critical theory into my thinking and analysis. Ideas from critical theory helped me to interpret the influence of power arrangements (Giroux, 1981, 1997, 2009) and "practice architectures" (Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008) on our

interactions and ways power and practice norms impeded our ability to negotiate and

collaboratively name an authentic a mentoring practice for the NCUTR (Freire, 1970,

1976, 1997).

I subsequently needed to sharpen my conceptual framework so that I could

identify ways the group was able to transcend systemic impediments and connect across

our differences. Conceptions of relational competencies, including relational agency

(Edwards, 2011), mutuality, mutual empathy, mutual empowerment, authenticity,

courage, and resilience (Hartling, 2010; Jordan, 2004) informed my analysis of critical

incidents that I believed indicated that changes in our relationship factored into changes

in our understanding of mentoring. This analytical turn to features of our relationship

allowed me to notice more subtle emotional qualities in how mentors were discussing

their mentoring experiences, which prompted me to search out conceptual tools for

understanding the role of emotion in their talk and ways others received their talk as

resistance and authorship.

The route to this framework was not linear, although it is represented here in that

way. As I experienced this study and the data I collected from it, I learned more about the

conceptual tools I needed to make sense of it. With each addition to the framework, I

circled back to the parts I had already stitched together so that I could trim and refine

them. Jackson and Mazzei (2012) discuss this process as simultaneous "*constitution and

emergence* of the data and the concept" (emphasis in the original, p. ix), but in the case of

my dissertation, I did not plan to think *with* my data. Rather, as I stitched this conceptual

framework together, I developed my capacity for "wide awakens" to the complexity of

what we in the group experienced during the six months of our work together and then what I learned from that experience upon reflection *through* theory. My understanding of this conceptual spiral is elegantly captured in one sentence borrowed from Greene (1988): "To be aware of authorship is to be aware of situationality and of the relation between ways in which one interprets one's situation and the possibility of action and of choice" (p. 23).

A Review of the Literature

In this review, I consider how the mentoring practice has been shaped by education policy and research during periods of reform in teacher education and depicted in the literature. Conceptually, I consider education policy and research "meta-practices" that shape the ecology of teacher education by ordering and connecting its subsidiary practices, such as mentoring, and thereby formalize each as "a practice of a particular kind and complexity" (Kemmis & Mutton, 2012 p. 15). As such, education research and policy influence and reconstruct what we know about mentoring and ways it is and should be practiced (Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008).

In an effort to unpack the influence of policy and research on what we know about mentoring, I analyze trends in the literature on student teaching and mentoring (including their antecedents and aliases) during four historic periods and explore how mentors' work with student teachers (including their aliases) has been depicted vis-à-vis the prevailing reform ideals. Beginning with the rise of normal schools in 1860, this review examines four periods: 1860 to 1960; 1960s and 1970s; 1980 to 2000; and 2000 to the present. Each period is marked by reforms in teacher education that provoked a

change in research and how mentors were depicted in the literature of the period. To

illustrate change over time, I provide exemplars of empirical research for each period and

address the following questions:

- What does education policy suggest about the reform priorities?

- What are the prevailing ideas about how teachers should be prepared?

- How are mentors expected to support teacher education?

1860 to 1960: From Critic Teacher to Cooperating Teacher

Prior to the proliferation of normal schools in the last half of the 19th century,

teachers were not formally prepared to teach (Laberee, 2008). The process of learning to

teach back then is best described as "take the class; teach the class" (Laberee, 2008, p.

291). Early efforts to prepare teacher candidates in subject matter and pedagogy typically

occurred during summer institutes that were sponsored by local and state school boards

and led by in-service teachers (Fraser, 2007; Johnson, 1968). The rise of normal schools

and their subsidiary "model schools" in the mid-19th century formalized teacher

preparation and created a role for in-service teachers as "critic teachers" charged with

teaching methods classes, modeling teaching practices in their own classrooms, and

critiquing "practice teachers" (Johnson, 1968). In 1860, Dr. Edward Sheldon,

superintendent of the Oswego School District, New York and originator of what became

known as "practice teaching," described critic teachers as "person[s] of large experience,

eminently successful and in every way a model of excellence…who could criticize

closely and point out defects and show the remedy" (Graham, 1938, p. 32).

In response to increased enrollments and new state standards for teachers at the turn of the 20th century, the number of state normal schools preparing teachers for elementary schools surged from 39 in 1870 to 180 by 1910 (Laberee, 2008). By 1930, most normal schools had become degree granting teachers colleges. At the same time, several major universities created departments of education, added schools and colleges of education, and hired academic experts to conduct education research and prepare teachers for high school teaching and school administration (Fraser, 2007; Laberee, 2008). Thus, a two-tiered system of teacher education was created—one for elementary teachers taught by in-service teachers and one for high school teachers taught by university faculty (Fraser, 2007; Johnson, 1968; Laberee, 2008). Despite differences in their academic coursework, both teachers colleges and universities maintained close ties with local schools and many housed laboratory schools on their grounds so that teacher candidates could complete the minimum 90 hours of practice teaching recommended by the American Association of Teachers Colleges (later the American Association of Colleges for Teachers Education or AACTE; Johnson, 1968, p. 157). By 1930, nearly all states required practice teaching for "standard" teacher certification (Johnson, 1968, p. 196).

In-service teachers maintained a central position in elementary teacher preparation through their work as critic teachers. As the demand for practice teaching placements grew, more teacher candidates were placed in classrooms off campus, leading researchers to wonder *who* critic teachers were and *how* they were preparing future teachers. Findings reported in three studies published between 1927 and 1931 provide the

following profile of critic teachers: 70% had more than six years of teaching experience (Bowden, 1927, p. 120); 83% felt unprepared for their role in teacher preparation (p. 120); they spent an average of 20 minutes a day in conference with teacher candidates (Hertzler, 1931, p. 96); and on average, they worked with five practice teachers per academic year (Johnson, 1968, p. 174). Hertzler (1931) and Fitch (1931) studied the activities of critic teachers to discern exactly what they did to support teacher education. Fitch (1931) found that the 335 critic teachers in his study believed their primary functions were to provide advice, discuss lesson planning, and observe teacher candidates' performance. Hertzler (1931) used a survey instrument to discern the difference between what critic teachers believed they were supposed to do and what they actually did. He found that critic teachers performed more tasks than anticipated.

In an early study, Bowden (1927) surveyed critic teachers who worked with practice teachers from 84 teacher colleges to learn how they were prepared for their work in teacher education. He assumed that critic teachers needed special training for this role since "it seems much more necessary that those who teach teachers how to teach should not only have a thorough knowledge of subject-matter in the field of education but also a knowledge of technical skills in how to train teachers how to teach" (p. 119). Finding that only 3.5% of respondents received any preparation at all (p. 124), he concluded that "[t]he lack of training on the part of the critic teachers, at the present time, is probably parallel to the lack of professional training which was characteristic of grade and high-school teachers of a generation ago" (p. 124).

Wholesale criticism of teacher colleges and the few surviving normal schools erupted following the development of standards for high school and college accreditation by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (a university-controlled body) in 1917 and the publication of a critical review of teachers colleges by the Association of American Universities in 1922 (Fraser, 2007). By the end of the Depression era, most teacher colleges had evolved from their original "separate purpose" and became liberal arts colleges or were consolidated with larger state universities in response to criticism and in an effort to maintain credibility as teacher education providers (Fraser, 2007). At the same time, support for the professionalization of teaching was growing and advocates claimed that, "professional knowledge alone seem scarcely sufficient; professional techniques are required" (Andrews, 1950, p. 260).

These developments had a dramatic impact on the role of in-service teachers in teacher education. Because universities hired academics and researchers as teacher educators, they "shifted a great deal of the power from teachers to those who believed that they knew best how teachers should be prepared, certified, and supervised" (Fraser, 2007, p. 150). Consequently, in-service teachers became subordinates to university faculty in their new position as "cooperating teachers" (Cornbleth & Ellsworth, 1994).

Despite their demotion in status, the original critic teacher role and their duties during "student teaching" changed very little. Cooperating teachers became more firmly entrenched in teacher education thanks to the 1948 publication of a three-year study of student teaching by AACTE titled, *The Laboratory School and Student Teaching* (Laberee, 2008). The report concluded, "such experiences [student teaching] are needed

as integral parts of course work to give functional meaning to ideas discussed and concepts developed" (Flowers, 1948, p. 68). However, the authors did not "set a pattern for student teaching" (p. 69), leaving the curriculum up to individual institutions and creating a sense that student teaching itself was in a period of "transition and experimentation" (Andrews, 1950, p. 259), and holding open the possibility for cooperating teachers to unilaterally determine the nature of the experience (Zeichner, 1980).

By the 1950s, most student teachers were completing their assignments off campus in public schools (Johnson, 1968). Cooperating teachers worked with student teachers free of university interference because university faculty wanted to distance themselves from schools in an effort to gain academic status within their universities (Cornbleth & Ellsworth, 1994). Back on campus, teacher education programs paid little attention to developing teaching practices beyond providing methods courses because "the good teacher" was generally described as a set of personal characteristics that cooperating teachers could model and "good teaching" was the logical outcome of transmitting university generated scientific research and propositional knowledge to K–12 students (Cochran-Smith, 2001; Franke & Dahlgren, 1996; Richardson, 1996).

The typical student teaching arrangement was described in research from this period as an "apprenticeship" supported by volunteer teachers who were not compensated or prepared for their work (Butterweck, 1951). Ambivalence about the value and purpose of school-based experiences prevailed as "public school[s] increasingly looked upon this relationship as a nuisance to be discharged with a minimum of effort," and university

teacher educators regarded it "as so much time spent, rather than as an opportunity for

professional growth" (Butterweck, 1951, p. 139). In a similar vein, Andrews (1950)

reported that while his university was committed to creating school-based or laboratory

experiences to develop students' "professional technique" and "judgment," the challenges

of scheduling and the scarcity of data about "what constitutes student teaching success,

what the characteristics of a superior teacher are, and how to measure them" (p. 266) left

the benefits of student teaching unconfirmed.

A targeted review of empirical studies drawn from educational research journals

published in 1950 (*Journal of Educational Research*, *Journal of Teacher Education*, and

Peabody Journal of Education) demonstrates that researcher/teacher educators linked the

development of closer ties with cooperating teachers to efforts to improve student

teaching experience. Burnett and Dickson (1950) attempted to bridge the gap between

their teacher education programs and cooperating teachers by holding a series of

cooperative workshops that brought together university faculty, student teachers, and

cooperating teachers. The researchers found that the success of the workshops were

"encouraging, probably because the key person in the success of the off-campus student-

teaching program, the supervising classroom teacher, also played a central role in this

workshop experience" (Burnett & Dickson, 1950, p. 288). McGrath (1950) sought to

improve the quality of cooperating teachers by "re-examin[ing] our relationship and

expectations…and by assist[ing] them with their work" (p. 238). The assistance provided

to cooperating teachers in this study included regular meetings and training workshops

aimed at "developing [their] sense of belongingness" (p. 239) within the university.

Likewise, Hollister (1950/1951) convened a meeting of 30 cooperating teachers so that

he could "plan a program" (p. 54) of study based on the topics cooperating teachers

discussed with their student teachers. These studies depict respect for cooperating

teachers' part in teacher education that was common at the end of this period but

tempered by rising concern about the lack of articulation with them.

The 1960s and 1970s: From Cooperation to Supervision

Public perception that the American system of education was failing following the

launch of Sputnik in 1957 set off a firestorm of criticism against teacher education, which

by that time had become a "higher education monopoly" (Fraser, 2007, p. 197). The

harshest criticism came from within the university itself. For example, Woodring (1957)

described teacher education as a field in disarray due to "the sharp conflicts in view

which may be found between professional educators and academic professors in many an

American university" (as cited in Fraser, 2007, p. 197) over the scope and sequence of

the teacher education curriculum. Faculty in academic departments believed that teacher

education programs lacked rigor, teacher education faculty complained that the academic

professorate "ignored the problems of teacher education" (Fraser, p. 2007, p. 201), and

teachers complained that novices entered teaching unprepared because they were not

given adequate time in the field to develop essential teaching skills (Fraser, 2007; Lanier

& Little, 1986). In apparent despair, James Bryant Conant, former president of Harvard

University, suggested that regulations and standards for teacher certification and degrees

in teaching at the time were universally inadequate, and that apart from student teaching,

all components of teacher preparation should be rethought (as cited in Fraser, 2007). He

further suggested that new clinical faculty positions should be created so in-service

teachers could "demonstrate in concrete teaching situations the implications of expert

judgment" (as cited in Cornbleth & Ellsworth, 1994, p. 58).

Spurred on by these critiques, education researchers undertook a quest for a

scientifically derived understanding of teacher effectiveness and how its corresponding

qualities can be learned (Freeman, 2002; Lanier & Little, 1986; Le Cornu & Ewing,

2008; Shulman, 1986). Under the influence of behaviorism, "the effectiveness of teaching

[was] seen as attributable to combinations of discrete and observable teaching

performances per se, operating relatively independent of time and place" (Shulman, 1986,

p. 10). Out of this epistemological framework emerged a new mode of student teacher

support, "clinical supervision," which positioned cooperating teachers as "student

teaching supervisors," charged with modeling micro-teaching skills and techniques for

student teachers to mimic (Franke & Dahlgren, 1996; Le Cornu & Ewing, 2008).

Empirical research in the process–product tradition aimed at identifying whether

cooperating teachers effectively modeled these teaching skills and influenced student

teachers to develop appropriate attitudes about teaching (Lanier & Little, 1986). Thus, a

"master-apprentice" model of mentoring emerged (Franke & Dahlgren, 1996).

In a review of empirical research on student teaching published from 1960

to1977, Zeichner (1978) reported that all but two of the hundreds of studies he examined

used an experimental design that typically employed a pre-test/post-test approach.

Because this research focused on outcomes of interventions and often provided

conflicting findings resulting from the use of unreliable instruments, this line of research

did little to advance the field's understanding about the process of learning to teach during student teaching and in fact gave rise to myths about student teaching and cooperating teachers that were, for the most part, unsubstantiated by the research (Zeichner, 1978, 1980).

Most of the empirical research about student teaching published during this period examined how student teachers were socialized to the culture of schooling. A common measure used at the time was the *Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory* (MTAI), which measured "the degrees of change in student teachers' attitudes and behaviors in relation to those of their cooperating teachers" (Zeichner, 1980, p. 47). For example, Price (1961) found that student teachers "acquire[d] many of the teaching practices of their supervising teachers during the internship semester" (p. 474–475) and declared the replication of these practices was an undesirable outcome of student teaching. Perrodin (1961) found that cooperating teachers who participated in a course on supervision had a positive influence on student teachers' attitudes about pupils and teaching. A seminal study by Yee (1969) also used the MTAI to measure the effect of cooperating teachers' attitudes on their student teachers' attitudes. However, what distinguished this study was that the researcher considered the possibility that student teachers actually had an effect on their cooperating teachers and so the test was administered to both members of 124 student teaching dyads. The study demonstrated that while indeed student teachers did influence their cooperating teachers, the influence of the cooperating teacher was dominant. This line of research incited concerns that cooperating teachers "wash-out" the progressive or liberal dispositions student teachers develop during university preparation,

leading to the conclusion that cooperating teachers impeded educational reform (Zeichner & Tabachnik, 1981).

By the late 1970s, researchers started to look beyond cooperating teachers to understand what other school and biographical factors influenced student teachers' attitudes and practices (e.g. Lortie, 1975), but the power of cooperating teachers' influence prevailed. Karmos and Jacko (1977) and Copeland (1978) considered the "ecological system of the classroom" (Copeland, 1978, p. 95) to discern the relative influence of cooperating teachers on student teachers. Karmos and Jacko (1977) found that cooperating teachers were most influential in "role development" and "personal support," while college instructors only influenced the development of student teachers' professional skills (p. 53). Copeland (1978) reported that congruence between the existing classroom ecology, which included the cooperating teacher's practices and students' learning routines, and the micro-teaching skills student teachers attempted was a determining factor in the quality of student teachers' teaching repertoire. While these studies point to other influences on student teachers, they reinforced the findings of earlier research that show the attitudes and practices of cooperating teachers as central to what student teachers learn during student teaching (Zeichner, 1978, 1980).

In line with this body of empirical research, Zeichner (1980) suggested that not all practical experiences in schools are beneficial; in fact, many are "miseducative rather than helpful" (p. 51). However, he did not blame cooperating teachers for the picture of student teaching painted by this research; rather he implicated the dominant research paradigm of the period "that is clearly inadequate to account for how and what students

learn during these experiences" (p. 52), leaving teacher educators/researchers to speculate whether cooperating teachers were uniquely responsible for the undoing of teacher education.

1980 to 2000: The Rise of the Mentor

By the 1980s, public education was once again under attack by conservative and liberal policy makers who linked the nation's political and economic wellbeing to education reform (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983), leading to greater scrutiny of the role of universities in preparing teachers (Grimmett & Ratzlaff, 1986; Imig & Switzer, 1996). Alternate routes and school-based preparation programs, which emerged in the 1980s largely in response to teacher shortages, were seen in the 1990s as viable alternatives to seemingly ineffective university-based course work, and subsequent calls for increased clinical preparation, even through university recommending programs, threatened the future of "traditional" teacher education (Imig & Switzer, 1996).

A burgeoning interest in teachers' professional knowledge and the influence of cognitive psychology on teacher education encouraged teacher education researchers to turn their attention to the complexity of teaching and learning to teach through descriptive-analytical studies of teacher education (Lanier & Little, 1986) and to recalibrate teacher education as an issue of learning not training (Cochran-Smith, 2005a). Efforts to tap into a teacher knowledge base that is embedded in teaching (Calderhead, 1987, 1996; Carter, 1990; Richardson, 1996; Schön, 1983; Shulman, 1987) and to understand how it develops in stages (Berliner, 1986; Fuller, 1969; Kagan, 1992; Thies-

Sprinthall & Sprinthall, 1987) generated hundreds of "learning to teach studies" (Kagan, 1992, p. 129) that focused on how teacher thinking and reflection develops during teacher education and beyond through career-long learning opportunities. "Research on teaching focused on pedagogy as social exchange among participants rather than as simply transmission of information" (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005, p. 83). Thus, research on student teaching re-positioned cooperating teachers as central to learning to teach during the practicum because they set the "intellectual tone" and "shape what student teachers learn by the way they conceive and carry out their roles as teacher educators" (Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1987, p. 256).

An emphasis on the "invisible aspects" (Feiman-Nemser, 1998b) of teachers' practices played out differently in studies of student teaching, depending on how teacher knowledge and learning were conceived by the researchers (Cochran-Smith, 1991; Wang & Odell, 2002; Zeichner; 1992). Some teacher education programs and their attendant programs of research focused on "inquiry oriented" (Zeichner & Liston, 1987, 1996), "constructivist" (McIntyre, Byrd, & Foxx, 1996), or "critical constructivist" (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999) approaches to learning that engaged student teachers and cooperating teachers in collaborative inquiry into teaching and learning, the purpose of education, and the social conditions of schools (Goodman, 1988; Wang & Odell, 2002; Zeichner, 1992). During field experiences, cooperating teachers and student teachers were expected to act as "agents of change," who are committed to restructuring teacher education, generating new knowledge about teaching, and fostering school reform to improve student achievement and societal improvement (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999;

Wang & Odell, 2002; Zeichner, 1992). However, this form of teacher education was uncommon and typically limited to programs developed through formal partnerships between P–12 schools and Professional Development Schools (PDSs), which were established in response to the Holmes Reports (1986, 1990).

School-university partnerships and PDSs were designed to fundamentally change the roles and relationships of cooperating teachers and university teacher educators and engage them in a process of "co-reform" (White, Deegan, & Allexsaht-Snider, 1997, p. 56). These arrangements repositioned P–12 teachers as teacher educators, researchers, and decision makers (Ganser, 1996; Holmes Group, 1990; Schussler, 2006; Stanulis, 1995; White et al., 1997; Zeichner, 2002) and provided the institutional and conceptual supports necessary to foster collaborative refection and the development of practical theories about teaching (Feiman-Nemser, 1990). In recognition of their new and enhanced role in guiding student teachers' learning, some PDSs renamed cooperating teachers "mentors" and supported their transition as teacher educators through ongoing professional development (Hamlin, 1997; Le Cornu & Ewing, 2008; Stanulis, 1995; Schussler, 2006).

In empirical research conducted in PDSs, mentors describe being "heard" by university faculty who appreciated their contributions to the preparation of student teachers (White et al., 1997). They were able to reconceive of their work as teacher education and accept greater responsibility for helping student teachers address the dichotomy between theory and practice (Browne, 1992). Positioned as mentors, P–12 teachers were expected to be "committed to improving teacher education and willing to

devote time for study, deliberation and practice in mentoring prospective teachers…[and]

jointly construct teacher education experiences and goals" (Stanulis, 1994, p. 32). They

embraced a cognitive coaching model of student teaching (Brown et al., 1989) in which

their thinking was articulated, central questions of teaching were discussed, and practices

were examined and challenged (Stanulis, 1995). Mentors' reported benefits from working

with student teachers in PDS settings including improvements in their teaching style and

in their ability to address pupils' needs, increasing their reflectivity and teaching

repertoire (Wepner & Mobley, 1998), and improved feelings of efficacy as mentors

(Brink, Grisham, Laquardia, Granby, & Peck, 2001). However, these special

arrangements required an unusual commitment of time and financial and human

resources (Schussler, 2006; Zeichner, 2002), making them difficult to replicate outside of

partnerships, and ultimately most reforms to student teaching, including the new role

mentors played in teacher education, were picked up by traditional programs but became

a "repackaging and renaming of the same old practices without fundamental changes in

the university-school power relationships" (Zeichner, 2002, p. 64).

      Teacher education programs that maintained a traditional applied science

orientation to teacher preparation and hierarchical approach to student teaching were

more pervasive during this period (Zeichner, 1992). These programs emphasized teacher

thinking and reflection during field experiences so that student teachers could become

"students of teaching—persons disposed to be more reflective and thoughtful about

teaching and schooling" (Cruickshank & Armaline, 1986, p. 39) with a focus on technical

questions about "what works" (Goodman, 1988; Zeichner, 1992). The knowledge base

for teaching was typically understood to be external to teachers' practice and derived from university-generated theories and research findings (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999; Goodman, 1988; Zeichner, 1992). Accordingly, cooperating teachers working in these programs were positioned as model teachers who were expected to provide student teachers with access to their technical knowledge so that it could be connected to university coursework and teaching standards (Wang & Odell, 2002).

According to Wang and Odell's (2002) review of the research published between 1980 and 2001 on "mentored learning to teach" (p. 481), cooperating teachers were not preparing student teachers in ways that were consistent with newly established standards for curriculum and teaching. Rather, the prevailing focus of mentoring depicted in the studies they reviewed indicate that cooperating teachers' support was primarily socio-emotional and technical in nature, and limited to cooperating teachers' memories of being mentored themselves, which provided few opportunities for reflection.

Studies of traditional student teaching arrangements depict the contrast between the ideal cooperating teacher and the mentoring practices and attitudes that researchers found in schools. "Good cooperating teachers" demonstrated "skills of presentation and classroom management," "professional responsibility," "experimental behavior," and "the study of learning behaviors" (Grimmett & Ratzlaff, 1986, pp. 46–47). Student teachers preferred cooperating teachers who were models of good pedagogy and classroom management and indicated that the value of their learning experience in schools was dependent on the quality of the guidance they received from them (Copas, 1984). However, in descriptive studies of their work, cooperating teachers were depicted

as "ambivalent participants in student teaching" (Koerner, 1992, p. 46), reluctant to shift

time and attention from their pupils to teacher candidates and lacking support and

recognition from the university. They found it difficult to support student teacher inquiry

and reflection, and rarely accessed their own pedagogical reasoning. By leaving their

teaching practices unexamined, cooperating teachers encouraged student teachers to

mimic teaching strategies that they would perpetuate long into their own careers (Feiman-

Nemser & Buchmann, 1985, 1986, & 1987). Thus, the "cross purposes pitfall" (Feiman-

Nemser & Buchmann, 1985) and the master-apprentice model of student teaching

persisted in most student teaching placements (Franke & Dahlgren, 1996).

Institutional impediments also conspired to undermine the quality of support

cooperating teachers provided. They reported being unfamiliar with the goals of teacher

education programs, having little communication with their student teachers' preparation

programs, and harboring serious concerns about their protégées' content preparation,

skills, and attitudes about teaching (Applegate & Lasley, 1982; McIntyre et al., 1996).

They had a sense that they were "in it alone" and needed support from their university

counterparts to more effectively fulfill universities' expectations for them (Koerner,

1992). A persistent lack of articulation between cooperating teachers and teacher

educators permitted the latter to enact their role based on their own experiences of student

teaching (Koerner, 1992) and their individual pedagogical orientation (Martin, 1997),

thus perpetuating the conservative cultural scripts of teaching (Cuban, 1993).

Occupational norms related to individualism, teacher egalitarianism, and learning

from experience negatively affected the quality of feedback cooperating teachers

provided to their student teachers, and ultimately student teachers learned that teachers

and classrooms are unique, teachers learn from trial and error, and effective teaching is

"what works" (Borko & Mayfield, 1995; Bunting, 1988; Richardson-Koehler, 1988). A

mis-match between cooperating teachers' and student teachers' cognitive abilities

rendered their feedback ineffective for teacher learning as cooperating teachers had

difficulty thinking like a novice (Borko & Livingston, 1989; Livingston & Borko, 1989).

Opportunities to learn from practice were lost, and student teachers "acclimated to

prevailing routines" as cooperating teachers emphasized form over content and

demonstration over conversation in their work with student teachers (Franke & Dahlgren,

1996).

Teacher education programs attempted to create "consonance" between university

and school-based learning experiences by providing training for cooperating teachers to

ensure that they would use appropriate models of supervision when they worked with

teacher candidates and reinforce appropriate practices and principles (Cochran-Smith,

1991). Guyton (1989) suggested guidelines for cooperating teacher preparation programs,

which included encouraging them to reflect on their practices, improve their procedural

practices (i.e., planning, observation, and communication and conferencing skills), and

provide them with substantive information about the research-derived teacher knowledge

base and the goals of teacher education.

Training proved to be effective in shifting cooperating teachers' supervision

practices to make them less conservative and more attendant to teacher candidate inquiry

and reflection and better suited to sequential induction into teaching (Browne, 1992;

Clarke, 1995; D. J. McIntyre & Killian, 1987). Research showed that cooperating

teachers, like student teachers, developed attitudes, feelings, and teacher education

strategies incrementally in stages, affirming the need for developmental support of their

practices (Caruso, 1998). Ongoing cognitive training was shown to improve cooperating

teachers' flexibility and responsiveness during student teaching (Thies-Sprinthall, 1980,

1984) and their ability to perform more educationally complex roles as they engaged with

pupils and student teachers simultaneously (Thies-Sprinthall, 1987). However, while

teacher educators seemed to favor training and mentor skill development, cooperating

teachers indicated a preference for greater recognition from teacher educators for their

work, adjunct status in the university, professional development opportunities, and

opportunities to participate in teacher education in ways that were "meaningful"

(Korinek, 1989; Whaley & Wolfe, 1984), all features of PDS arrangements which they

perceived were missing from their experiences as cooperating teachers in traditional

programs.

2000 to the Present: Transitioning to School-Based Teacher Educators

A shift in the focus of education reform was heralded in 1994 with the passage of

Goals 2000, a federal law that established national education goals, including benchmark

educational outcomes as measured by pupil performance on standardized tests (Cohen-

Vogel, 2005). In short order, the publication of *What Matters Most: Teaching for

America's Future* (National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, 1996) linked

teacher quality with pupil learning and called for restructuring the teaching profession

through an alignment of learning standards, standards for teacher preparation, and

licensure and an overhaul of teacher preparation, recruitment, and development. The

framers of the report asserted that the teaching profession suffered from decades of

neglect, which resulted in denying pupils "their educational birthright: access to

competent, caring and qualified teachers" (National Commission on Teaching and

America's Future, 1996, p. 10), thereby appropriating the language of social justice for

what would later become a main plank in the "neoliberal" education agenda (Zeichner,

2010a).

The enactment of the *No Child Left Behind* act in 2002 enhanced the federal

government's influence on education policy and granted it the authority to hold schools

responsible for meeting federally defined benchmarks for pupils' progress on

standardized achievement tests and standards for "highly qualified" teachers (Cohen-

Vogel, 2005). When pupil achievement scores did not reach the prescribed benchmarks,

advocates of the deregulation of teaching recast teacher education as a "policy problem"

(Cochran-Smith, 2005b) that was "created by state laws that give these [teacher

education] schools and programs a monopoly on training and certifying teachers" (Hess,

2002, p. 170). These attacks directed the attention of the public, policy makers, special

interest groups, and teacher educators/researchers on "the outcomes question" (Cochran-

Smith, 2001), which asks, "'How will we know when (and if) teachers and teacher

candidates know and can do what they ought to know and be able to do?'"(p. 6).

This subtle shift in the public discourse from *teaching* quality to *teacher* quality

reoriented education reform away from supporting the professional learning and

educational innovation of the 1990s to a narrow focus on standardized practices and

government surveillance of teachers (Groundwater-Smith, Mitchell, Mockler, Ponte, & Rönnerman, 2013, Chapter 3). Ultimately, "the outcomes question" paved the way for the Obama administrations' focus on teacher effectiveness encoded in *Race to the Top*. Under policies promoted by *Race to the Top*, the outcomes focus was broadened so that teacher quality was re-conceptualized as teacher *effectiveness* and teachers, and eventually teacher preparation programs could be held accountable for student performance. Under the auspices of *Race to the Top*, the infrastructure for using value-added modeling (VAM) was created and became widely accepted by federal and state governments as the "objective measure" of "a teacher's ability to produce higher than expected gains in students' standardized test scores" (Goe, Bell, & Little, 2008, p. 5).

Of particular importance for framing this dissertation study is the emergence of support since 2008 from the federal government, national teachers' unions, and NCATE for the development of teacher preparation programs that are situated in schools (Zeichner, 2014). The federal government has played an important role in this movement by providing funding for UTRs through the *Teacher Quality Partnership Grant,* a program funded by Title II of the *Higher Education Act of 2008*. *TQP* grants have been provided to higher education institutions as well as alternative teacher training providers, to launch UTRs, signaling that these programs are intended to be "ideologically neutral and disconnected from political debates about teaching and teacher education in the national media and professional literature" (Zeichner, 2014, para. 5). However, Zeichner (2014) argued, UTRs are being used to further two different visions of and approaches to reforming teacher preparation: one that aims to disrupt the "teacher education market" by

advocating technical training as the best way to develop an effective teaching force, and

the other which endeavors to reform university-based teacher education by sharing

responsibilities with PK–12 schools and districts for providing a teacher education for the

development of the teaching profession.

Critics of the near-universal focus on *effectiveness* in all of its manifestations

assert that it is motivated by neoliberalism, "a theory of political economic practices that

proposes that human well-being can best be advanced by liberating entrepreneurial

freedoms and skills…characterized by…free markets, and free trade" (Harvey, 2005, p.

2). Neoliberalism took root in education as greater collaboration between corporations,

government, and education lead to "redefining education in terms of its contribution to

the economy" (Hursh, 2001, p. 4). To that end, neoliberalism reframes education as a

consumer good not as a public good, which emboldens neoliberals within the government

and in the private sector to point to recurring reports of students' failing standardized

tests scores as evidence of the public mismanagement of education, thereby opening the

door to a series of policy initiatives and laws that undermine public education and

threaten the professional preparation and status of teachers (Collin & Apple 2010;

Giroux, 2010).

A result of this chain of neoliberal initiatives in education is the

"instrumentalization" (Giroux, 2010) of teaching and learning to teach encouraged by

"increasing levels of managerialism, bureaucracy, standardization, assessment and

performance review" (Evetts, 2011, p. 407). "Managerialist reforms" to public education,

particularly urban education, and the careful cultivation of an "audit or performance

culture" that values efficiency and utility in teaching (G. Anderson & Cohen, 2015) has

given rise to a "new professionalism" (Evetts, 2011), which depends on teachers' strong

performativity and weak professional agency (Edwards & Protheroe, 2004; Gu & Day,

2007). This new instrumental–performative approach to teaching equates "effective"

teaching with predictable and efficient curriculum delivery and desirable learning

outcomes as measured by standardized assessments. Thus, the neoliberal influence on

education has been to the detriment of ambitious forms of teaching that involve teachers

and students in inquiry to foster learning that is unexpected and build flexible habits of

mind such as imagination, critical thinking, and intellectual risk taking.

  In this age of neoliberal reforms to education, the stakes for university-based

teacher education could not be higher, as it is under attack for not fulfilling its mission

from all sides (Farkas, & Duffett, 2010; Leal, 2004; Levine, 2006; Steiner & Rozen,

2004). Reformers find solutions for the antinomies of teacher preparation by emphasizing

the importance of developing teachers' "organizational professionalism" (Evetts, 2011),

measuring their "performativity" (Ball, 2003, and reframing their training in terms of

"instrumentalism" (Cookson, 2015). They advocate that a more direct connection

between teacher training and "job readiness" (Ransome, 2011) will result from ending

higher education's "monopoly" on teacher education and recommend,

  Rather than struggle to connect college-based education programs with site-based

  mentors or to boost the quality of practice teaching, new models might provide

  new providers or district-based operations to host training in more client-friendly

locales and to import academic expertise, input and structure as they deem useful.

(Hess, 2009, p. 456)

From the other side of the debate, teacher education "transformers" (Zeichner, 2014) admonish university-based teacher education to "reconsider its purposes, integrate its activities and workers and seek to make a difference to practice and to research in terms that are recognizable to the profession and the wider publics" (Ellis, McNicholl, Blake, & McNally, 2014, p. 41).

Recent research in teacher education reflects this growing emphasis on instrumentalism (Cochran-Smith 2005a; Zeichner 2010b). Reports of large-scale studies that compare teacher education programs and preparation pathways and features including student teaching using VAM methodology have set off a flurry of interest in demonstrating the instrumental efficacy of features of teacher education (Goe et. al., 2008). Within this line of research is evidence that suggests that cooperating teachers are the most influential school-based factor in teacher preparation (Boyd et al., 2009; Ronfeldt et al., 2013). However these studies do not provide the fine-grained analysis of what happens between the cooperating teacher and student teacher so that we can understand how teacher preparation is advanced through their experiences together (Cochran-Smith, 2005a; Goe et. al., 2008; Ronfeldt et. al. 2013).

Despite the drive toward instrumentalism and performativity in teaching and teacher education, the small-scale studies of student teaching and mentoring have retained many of the features of research from the previous period (1980–2000), in which the practicum is intended to provide opportunities for student teachers to engage in co-

reflection and inquiry with their cooperating teachers as cognitive processes (Bullough, 2005; Feiman-Nemser, 1998a, 1998b, 2001b). In addition, a new dimension to the practicum is under consideration wherein researchers consider the learning that occurs when the student teaching context is reimagined as a collaborative discourse community that provides the tools, ideas, and theories that help student teachers make sense of teaching in context (Putnam & Borko, 2000). Zeichner (2010a) describes this new rendering of teacher education as a "shift in the epistemology of teacher education" (p. 95) in which university knowledge and priorities for teacher learning outcomes make way for other knowledge sources and local conditions. Thus, the work of cooperating teachers and university-based teacher educators create a synergy of learning experiences that connect schools and universities, practice and theory in a non-hierarchical "third space" (Zeichner, 2010a).

In this collaborative construction of student teaching, cooperating teachers are expected to be "active [in the] education of the mentees…go[ing] beyond training— beyond instruction and coaching…drawing out learning and development" (Fletcher, 2000, p. 8). They function as "teacher educators" (Zeichner, 2010a), engaged in "an educational intervention" (Feiman-Nemser, 1998b), wherein they recognize mentoring as a form of teaching and attend to student teachers as learners by "cultivating a disposition of inquiry, focusing attention on student thinking and understanding, and fostering disciplined talk about problems of practice" (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a, p. 28). This model of mentoring "stress[es] the reciprocal relationship between the mentor and the mentee(s) who engage in learning conversations that stress the importance and of all parties and

participants being acknowledged" (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a, p. 29). A collaborative model of student teaching rests on cooperating teachers' ability to make a "reflective-turn" (Schön, 1987) so that they can access and examine their practice and use it as a point of departure for studying the relationship between teachers' knowledge, reasoning, and their teaching social-cultural context (L. Anderson & Stillman, 2013; Orland-Barak, 2010; Smagorinsky, Cook, & Johnson, 2003).

Empirical research shows that cooperating teachers themselves understand that their knowledge, which is grounded in wisdom, authenticity, and passion, is distinguished from their university colleagues' knowledge, making their contribution to student teacher preparation unique (Goodfellow & Sumsion, 2000). Fairbanks, Freedman, and Kahn (2000) described cooperating teacher knowledge as practical knowledge, a crucial resource for student teacher learning and essential to teaching. Meijer, Zantig, and Verloop (2002) categorized cooperating teachers' practical knowledge according to three types: subject knowledge, knowledge of students, and knowledge of student learning and understanding. They conclude that this knowledge is useful for guiding teacher learning during student teaching if it is accessed, a conclusion that is supported by other studies showing that when cooperating teachers are explicit about what they know (or do not know), their student teachers have richer learning experiences and demonstrate greater and more desirable learning outcomes (Margolis, 2007; Nguyen, 2009; Nilssen, 2010; Ottensen, 2007; Ritchie, Rigano, & Lowry, 2000).

Cooperating teachers who encourage student teachers to "build accounts" (Ottensen, 2007, p. 613) of teaching and learning incidents by questioning them and

answering their questions (Ritchie et al., 2000) support the co-generation of knowledge

that is situated in practice and "neither theoretical or practical" (Ottensen, 2007, p. 613)

but a unique way of knowing teaching that is learned in practice. A study by Margolis

(2007) shows that cooperating teachers can support student teachers' learning when they

articulate their thinking, brainstorm solutions, model approaches to problems, and explain

their rationales explicitly so that teaching dilemmas can be used as learning opportunities.

Likewise, by articulating observable and achievable expectations of the local teaching

culture, cooperating teachers can act as cultural mediators, helping student teachers

navigate their transition from their own cultural upbringing to school culture in ways that

are critical and constructive (Nguyen, 2009). They are capable of supporting the

development of student teachers' pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) during planning

sessions when they focus conversations on each of PCK's four knowledge elements:

pedagogy, students, subject, and the classroom environment (Nilssen, 2010).

      However, research also indicates that student teachers do not automatically access

their cooperating teachers' knowledge, and cooperating teachers do not naturally

articulate what they know, making lesson observations and post-lesson conferences

ineffective for teacher learning (Bertone, Chaliès , Clarke, & Meard, 2006; Ethel &

McMeniman, 2000; Zantig, Verloop, & Vermunt, 2003). Even when student teachers are

encouraged to capture their cooperating teachers' reasoning, they have difficulty

transcending their own beliefs in order to understand their mentors' practical theories

without their support (Zantig et al., 2003).

Burn (2006) showed that cooperating teachers' inability to use their practical knowledge and to articulate "coherent rationales for their suggestions, recognize the merits of alternative approaches and acknowledge the tensions inherent in opting for one strategy or another" (p. 249) is what distinguished them from their university counterparts and creates an impediment to learning during the practicum. Jones and Straker's (2006) study demonstrates that although cooperating teachers actually tap a variety of knowledge sources when they work with student teachers, the most common source of knowledge in use during student teaching is their practical knowledge, which they can only describe vaguely as "instinct" and "intuition." From their findings, Jones and Straker (2006) concluded that cooperating teachers' emphasis on practical knowledge in preparing student teachers actually de-intellectualizes the teaching profession and fosters replication of ineffective teaching practices. Even in partnership arrangements that emphasize the cognitive development of student teachers, cooperating teachers tend to rely on their practice knowledge, which they express in a "technically instrumental way" as "teaching tips" (van Velzen & Volman, 2009, p. 358).

However, several studies published since 2000 indicate that many cooperating teachers may not be capable of mentoring of this caliber because they lack the knowledge, the skills, and the support they need. These studies show that when cooperating teachers work with student teachers to develop their teaching practices, they are incapable of discussing constructivist practices (Moore, 2003) or supporting their student teachers as they attempt these teaching methods (Hudson, 2007) in part because they are unfamiliar with the principles of constructivism (Braund, 2001; Friedrichsen,

Munford, & Orgill, 2006). Other studies show that student teachers are unable to expand

their subject knowledge during student teaching because their cooperating teachers are

unfamiliar with content standards, are insecure about their own subject knowledge, and

do not believe it is their responsibility to teach student teachers content (Bradbury &

Koballa, 2007; Burn, 2007; Peterson & Williams, 2008; K. Smith, 2001). L. Anderson

and Stillman (2010) found that student teachers placed in urban schools similarly

reported challenges to improving their knowledge of content and experimenting with

constructivist practices, but in their discussion, the researchers suggested the influence of

high-stakes testing and scripted curricula as contributing factors.

Recent empirical research also shows that cooperating teachers can derail student

teacher learning when they provide insufficient, misdirected, or inaccurate feedback

during post-lesson conferences. These studies depict cooperating teachers who do not

employ appropriate protocols for analyzing teaching and learning (Rich & Hannafin,

2008) and tend to give their student teachers unwarranted positive evaluations (Fernandez

& Erbligin, 2009; Hascher, Cocard, & Moser, 2004; Timperley, 2001). The nature of

their feedback is also problematic because it tends to be evaluative rather than educative

in nature (Burn, 2006; Fernandez & Erbligin, 2009) and they focus on immediate

concerns, pupil behavior, and classroom management rather than student learning

(Braund, 2001; Spendlove, Howes, & Wake, 2010; Tillema, 2009; Timperley, 2001;

Valencia, Martin, Place, & Grossman, 2009). Because cooperating teachers do not

consider their own pedagogical reasoning and have difficulty articulating their practical

knowledge, they are unable to engage their student teachers in a critical assessment of

teaching, a centerpiece of learning to teach in practice (Sanders, Dowson, & Sinclair, 2005). Unlike past criticism of cooperating teachers' practices, which zeroed in on their teaching performance, now their mentoring practices are the subject of critique.

Although cooperating teachers are expected to strike an appropriate balance between providing student teachers support and giving them freedom to practice independently so they can learn from their mistakes and accomplishments, research suggests that the hierarchical nature of the cooperating teacher-student teacher relationship hinder student teachers from accessing and understanding their cooperating teachers' practical knowledge and wisdom of practice (e.g. Ritchie et al., 2000;E. R. Smith, 2007), particularly in situations where the two held incongruent views about teaching and learning (He & Levin, 2008). To avoid the risks associated with challenging their cooperating teachers' expertise, student teachers tend to assume a deferential posture when their teaching ideals conflicted with their cooperating teachers' practices (Friedrichsen et al., 2006). Studies by Hayes (2001) and Hobson (2001) indicate that even when student teachers are more experienced and confident in their abilities, cooperating teachers do not relinquish control over their classrooms and limit their opportunities to teach. Denied the physical, personal, and professional space necessary to learn how to teach, student teachers had to work around their cooperating teachers (Bertone et al., 2006; Loizou, 2011; Maynard, 2000) or confront their authoritative positioning and mimetic approach to mentoring conscious of the risk they were taking (E. R. Smith & Avetisian , 2011).

This line of research confirms the limitations of conventional expert-novice relationships that prevail in the student teaching practicum. Such relationships seem to be grounded in cooperating teachers' conceptions of student teaching as a form of apprenticeship, during which student teachers watch and mimic their expert performance without question. As this research illustrates, in such relationships, the dyad is locked into roles that prevent student teachers from developing habits of mind—such as negotiation, reflection, and inquiry—considered essential for learning to teach in reform-minded ways. These studies support the admonition that being a good teacher does not ensure that one will be a capable teacher educator (Feiman-Nemser, 1998a).

Suggestions for improving cooperating teachers' ability to take on their expanded role in teacher education typically recommend some form of training for their professional development. They suggest that cooperating teachers can become more effective mentors by attending workshops in general supervision and mentoring (Fernandez & Erbligin, 2009; E. R. Smith & Avetisian, 2011), constructivist teaching practices (Bradbury & Koballa, 2007; Braund, 2001; Friedrichsen et al., 2006; Hudson, 2007; E. R. Smith & Avetisian, 2011), and providing effective feedback (Bradbury & Koballa, 2007; Hudson, 2007; Rich & Hannafin, 2008). These recommendations are substantiated by studies that demonstrate focused training workshops can support the development of particular mentoring skills (Hennissen, Crasborn, Brouwer, Korthagen, & Bergen, 2011), improve subject specific pedagogy (Grove, Odell, & Strudler, 2006; Soares & Lock, 2007), and shift the focus of lesson appraisals (Timperley, 2001).

However, training alone may only be suitable for re-tooling cooperating teachers' teaching and mentoring skills so they can perform the tasks of "the old model of mentoring, where experts who are certain about their craft can pass on its principles to eager novices" (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2000, p. 52) but unsuitable for preparing cooperating teachers to engage in a pedagogical relationship based in dialogue, collaboration, and reflection (Orland-Barak, 2010). Critics of a training approach to preparing cooperating teachers for their role in teacher preparation claim that it neglects cooperating teachers' teaching expertise and local and practical knowledge and perpetuates a deficit view of their capacity to prepare future teachers (Cochran-Smith, 1991; Feiman-Nemser, 1998b; D. McIntyre & Hagger, 1993; Sykes et al., 2010; Zeichner, 2010a), thereby reinforcing "the traditional distanced and disconnected model of university-based preservice teacher education" (Zeichner, 2010a, p. 95).

A cluster of recent studies demonstrates that collaboration among cooperating teachers can influence their mentoring practices. Regular meetings of cooperating teacher study groups convened under the auspices of the teacher education programs (Carroll, 2005; Parker-Katz & Bay, 2008 Sandholtz & Wasserman, 2001; Zeek et al., 2001) and informal, mentor initiated meetings (Arnold, 2002) can support the development of inquiry-oriented mentoring practices, promote professional learning through an exchange of ideas about teaching, and generate a local knowledge base about learning to teach. Parker-Katz and Bay (2008) reported that meetings of two such groups conducted over a five month period encouraged cooperating teachers to construct a "collective notion" of mentoring knowledge and beliefs, question prevailing teaching and mentoring practices,

and promote a "recursive vision of teaching" (p. 1266). Carroll (2005) indicated that "interactive talk" among a group of cooperating teachers around mentoring artifacts such as video taped post-lesson conferences is an effective way for them to construct inquiry-oriented mentoring practices and to create "a curriculum" for student teaching. Written narratives of mentoring experiences and critical incidents with student teachers shared by cooperating teachers during meetings through a process of "transactional inquiry" can provide a method for cooperating teachers to collaborate on complex issues of teaching and teacher learning (Zeek et al., 2001).

While cooperating teacher collaboration appears to play an essential role in changing how cooperating teachers mentor their student teachers, university support for their work together is vital. A study by Norman (2011) examines how she collaborated with a group of six cooperating teachers to develop a lesson planning protocol. Despite their success in constructing the protocol together, the cooperating teachers did not have an understanding of how student teachers learn to plan nor did they know how to teach planning. Without appropriate support from the university, their attempts to use the protocol for teacher learning failed. The missing element in Norman's (2011) study, university engagement, was made available in a study by Anagnostopoulos and colleagues (2007) in which the authors appropriate the concept of "horizontal expertise," a concept from activity theory in which professionals from different domains cross boundaries to work together to "enrich and expand their practices" (p. 140). In this study, 15 cooperating teachers and university faculty collaborated in the design of a rubric for learning how to lead a classroom discussion, a tool that would be implemented in both

the school and university settings. The process of negotiating a jointly constructed rubric created an opportunity for authentic participation in teacher education and co-learning for both cooperating teachers and university teacher educators. Follow-up observations of cooperating teacher–student teacher dialogues showed that cooperating teachers' mentoring practices were "transformed" because they learned "insider knowledge" about how to teach teachers.

Other studies indicate that university-based teacher educators/researcher can shift the focus of mentoring from modeling practice to critical reflection and collaboration in practice when they provide mentors with mediating tools as interventions. Lesson study (Tsui & Law, 2007), action research (Levin & Rock, 2003; Whitehead & Fitzgerald, 2006), stimulated recall interviews, and concept mapping exercises (Ethel & McMeniman, 2000; Meijer et al., 2002; Nillson & van Driel, 2010) help to expose cooperating teachers' knowledge and facilitate co-inquiry by inciting cooperating teachers to make visible the relationship between their practical knowledge and teaching. Engagement in these activities "allow the student teacher access into the cognitive world of the expert practitioner" (Ethel & McMeniman, 2000, p. 97) and encourage cooperating teachers to express their tacit knowledge and beliefs about teaching and learning so that they can be examined.

Conclusion

The work of cooperating teachers has evolved to meet the reform agendas of different periods in the nation's socio-political and educational history and education research has typically supported these initiatives. Nearly 150 years ago, in-service

teachers *were* teacher educators. They were responsible for leading summer training institutes and inducting new teachers into the work of elementary education. When teacher education was moved to colleges and universities and greater emphasis was placed on the academic preparation of teachers, the connection between teachers and teacher education became frayed. As teacher educators distanced themselves from teaching, cooperating teachers were left to mentor by modeling. A turn to behaviorism in teacher education research in the 1960s inspired educationists to develop micro-teaching skills, but because cooperating teachers failed to demonstrate those skills for their student teachers, their influence on student teachers became a concern.

The reforms of the 1980s and 1990s, which emphasized teaching and learning standards, inspired efforts to bridge the gap between universities and schools. Despite evidence that articulation between teacher educators and cooperating teachers in PDS arrangements improved mentoring practices, cooperating teachers who worked with student teachers in more traditional placements remained unprepared for the new demands of their "educative mentor" role.

In the present neoliberal times, "employment readiness" is beginning to seep into studies of teacher education, but for the most part, empirical research has maintained its focus on studying and making recommendations for how to prepare student teachers to use more ambitious and transformative teaching practices when they become teachers. However, new models of teacher education that bring student teachers into schools more frequently and for longer periods of time and place practice at the center of learning to

teach are bound to shift the focus of research and influence priorities in teacher

preparation.

Mattsson and colleagues (2011) referred to this period of transition in how

teachers are being prepared globally as the "practicum turn in teacher education" (p. 1).

In her forward to that book, Groundwater-Smith praises its contributors for focusing their

research on "trust and responsibility; professional exchange based on parity of esteem;

[and] participation and learning" and proposes that researchers should "interrupt

conventional discourse about the provision of professional learning" (Mattsson et al.,

2011, p. xi) to ensure that this "turn" does not compromise the enactment of a more

"liberatory" practicum curriculum.

Current pressure to focus teacher preparation on instrumental-performative

teaching practices for the sake of preparing "employment ready" novices has created a

sense of urgency among some teacher educators regarding the influence cooperating

teachers have in preparing new teachers. Zeichner and Payne (2013) advise researchers

and teacher educators to remain vigilant in finding ways "to work collaboratively to

articulate new goals, practices, and tools…across the boundaries" (p. 7) that separate

teaching and teacher education as a way to retain their influence on what new teachers

learn.

Chapter Three: Methodology and Methods

Research that is worth doing is research that addresses the hard questions and has an

intention to improve and transform the practices that are being investigated.

– Groundwater-Smith, 2010, p. 76.

My primary goal in designing this study was to ensure the voice, equity, and

integrity of the participants (Groundwater-Smith, 2010). I begin my discussion of the

methodology and methods with an ethical stance because those principles are the ones

that brought me to my doctoral studies and this dissertation topic. During the 24 years I

was a high school teacher, I felt unrepresented in the public discourse about teachers and

believed that academic credentials would grant me entry into cadre of education experts,

thus I would have a seat at the table. Once I entered the doctoral program, I felt even

further marginalized because I was no longer a teacher and not yet a scholar. Being

positioned in that no-man's-land between educational institutions caused an existential

crisis that is slowly resolving as I find my way into a community of education scholars

who provide a safe holding place for teachers/teacher educators like me—those who see

the potential of engaging teachers in researching their practice and including them as co-

participants and co-researchers in academic research. These education scholars envision a

future of "empowered scholar teachers" (Kincheloe, 2012, p. 18) who "challenge

common assumptions about knowers, knowing, and knowledge for the improvement of

teaching and learning that are operating in schools in these acutely conservative times"

(Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009, p. 39). My decision about *how* to conduct my study

actually preceded the development of my research questions. I tried to imagine doing a

more traditional dissertation study, but my commitment to improving practice by "working the dialectic" (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999, 2009) between research and practice drove the decisions that are discussed below.

Participatory Action Research

I chose participatory action research (PAR) as the methodology for this study because the explicit aim of PAR is to foster empowerment of participants by focusing on how they come together to co-create their shared understanding of an issue in order to improve it (Kemmis, 2008). As a research methodology, PAR opens communicative space so that practitioners can make decisions and take action by negotiating an "intersubjective agreement" (Carr & Kemmis, 2009, p. 79) about their own social practices with the support of a researcher. Thus, PAR creates an alliance between participants and researcher that is fostered through collaboration in decisions about the planning, implementation, and interpretation of their work (A. McIntyre, 2008). PAR is "a living dialectical process changing the researcher, the participants, and the situations in which they act" (p. 1) and challenges the traditional researcher–researched duality and hierarchy.

PAR teams function as "incubators" of local knowledge when they engage in recursive cycles of research, moving from "retrospective understanding to prospective action" (Carr & Kemmis, 1986, p. 186) by following a pattern of plan–act–observe–reflect. This process creates an "epistemological turn" in which action and knowledge are linked in a symbiotic process of action creating knowledge and reflection on knowledge leading to better actions (Gaventa & Cornwall, 2001; Genat, 2009; Park, 2001). The

knowledge generated, applied, and improved through recursive cycles of PAR includes

forms of knowing that are unrepresented in more traditional research (Fals Borda, 2001;

Gaventa & Cornwall, 2001; Park, 2001).

Kemmis (2001) observed that much of the knowledge generated by a technical

approach to action research is aimed at problem solving without questioning or changing

the circumstances that created the problem, and as such, the research is not emancipatory

or transformational. However, because PAR is communal research and directed at

knowledge production and improvement through action, other sources of knowledge that

strengthen community ties and peoples' ability to think and act critically are essential

(Gaventa & Cornwall, 2001; Park, 2001). Park (2001) called these forms of knowledge

relational and *reflective*. Relational knowledge enables people to share experiences so

they can better understand their world. It emerges through intersubjectivity in

communicative spaces and it motivates action (Gaventa & Cornwall, 2001; Park, 2001).

Reflective knowledge connotes knowledge that is cognitive, moral, and embedded in

action (Park, 2001).

PAR was the clear methodological choice for my research because the aim of the

study is to work alongside mentors to recognize, negotiate, and name mentoring; to raise

our critical consciousness about how we prepare preservice teachers in schools; to

examine our moral dispositions about mentoring; and to understand how our

collaboration worked (Freire, 1997, Orland-Barak, 2010).

Study Context and Participants

I conducted this study from January thru June of 2014 at the New City Urban Teacher Residency (NCUTR). The NCUTR represented a new facet in a long-standing school–university partnership between New City Public Schools and a northeastern state university (Robinson et al., 2015). Initially conceived to foster educational achievement for New City's school children through cross institution collaboration on teachers' professional development, student teacher field placements, and employment for graduates of the university's education programs, in 2009, the partnership was awarded one of 28 five-year Teacher Quality Partnership Grants from the Office of Innovation and Improvement in the U.S. Department of Education to create an urban teacher residency program. The design of the NCUTR was a modified urban teaching residency (Berry et al., 2008), which borrows from the medical residency model for learning a professional practice by placing "residents" in elementary and high school classrooms as co-teachers/apprentices with experienced teachers (mentors) for at least a full school year. A key feature in the design of the NCUTR was the integration of classroom experiences and coursework so that residents could learn through "inquiry in action" (Klein et. al., 2013). In this arrangement, mentors acted as co-teacher educators, working alongside the university faculty to co-construct the classroom component of the residency curriculum, and as co-teachers, collaborating with residents in co-teaching and co-planning their classes.

In September 2013, the NCUTR entered the final year of grant funding and two of the university-based faculty who designed and led the first three secondary cohorts of

residents left the program for sabbaticals. In their place, the NCUTR hired a lead

university-based clinical faculty who was a retired NCPS employee, Brenda, and two

part-time, school-based clinical faculty who were teachers in the district and former

mentors in the secondary NCUTR cohort. Only one of the two part-time clinical faculty,

Dee, participated in this study. Brenda and Dee's primary responsibilities as faculty

included leading the residents' seminar class, observing and evaluating residents'

teaching, and coordinating and supporting the mentors.[10]

My research study included mentors from the three New City high schools that

hosted the secondary cohort of the NCUTR during the 2014 spring semester:

Performance High School, Science High School, and STEM High School. All three of

these schools are magnet schools in one of the largest school districts in the state. At the

time of this study, the district was under new central office leadership and rumors

foretelling the end of the competitive entrance requirement for magnet schools featured

prominently in mentors' conversations. At the time of this study, however, all students

enrolled in magnet high schools gained admission through an application process.

Performance High School served 672 students from across the district in Grades 7

through 12, but unlike the districts' comprehensive high schools, admission to one of five

fine or performing arts majors was gained by application, an admissions test, and a live

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[10] Other university-based faculty taught courses in math and science methods, English as

a second language, and special education, but they were not invited to participate in this

study.

audition (http://www.state.nj.us). Science High School enrolled 800 students during the

2013–2014 school year in Grades 9 through 12. Each year, approximately 1,000 students

apply for 200 seats available to in-coming ninth-grade students (http://www.state.nj.us).

STEM High School provided the 672 students enrolled in 2013–2014 with targeted

preparation for further education and careers in engineering and applied sciences.

Applicants to Science and STEM high schools were admitted on the basis of their

performance on timed language arts and mathematics tests and state standardized test

scores, their elementary school records, and teacher recommendations. A demographic

and academic profile for the 2013–2014 student body in each school is presented in Table

3.1 below.

Table 3.1

Profile of Students Attending NCUTR Host Schools 2013–2014

	Performance HS	Science HS	STEM HS
Speakers of languages other than English	22.3	38.2	39.7
Racial diversity			
Black	56.7	28.5	27.5
Hispanic	35.9	45.3	62.0
White	07.1	22.1	8.7
Math proficiency			
Advanced	06.0	66.0	19.0
Proficient	66.0	34.0	78.0
Partial	28.0	00.0	03.0
Biology proficiency			
Advanced	01.0	43.0	04.0
Proficient	25.0	50.0	44.0
Partial	74.0	07.0	52.0

Six mentors participated in this study. They were math or science teachers in one

of the three high schools described above. Angela taught biology and forensic science

and Pedro taught algebra at STEM High School, but neither of them had experience

mentoring teachers when this study started. Denise, a biology teacher at Science High

School, was also new to mentoring. Pat and John taught math and Vivian taught biology

at Performance High School. Vivian's previous mentor experience was with a resident in

the 2012–2013 NCUTR cohort. Because John taught middle and high school class at

Performance High School, his resident was placed with him in September. Pat was a

novice mentor. A summary profile of the six mentor participants in this study is presented

below in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2

Profile of NCUTR Mentors Spring Semester 2014

Mentor	High school	Yrs. teaching experience	Preparation pathway	Yrs. mentoring experience	Resident
Angela	STEM	4.5	NJ Alt. Route	0.0	Kathryn
Denise	Science	3.5	NJ Alt. Route	0.0	Karen
John	Performance	2.5	University	0.5	Scott
Pat	Performance	2.5	University	0.0	Kate
Pedro	STEM	5.5	University	0.0	Tom
Vivian	Performance	8.5	NJ Alt. Route	1.0	Olivia

Organization of the Study

During the spring semester of the 2013–2014 academic year, six mentors from Performance, Science, and STEM high schools were selected to work with residents after being carefully vetted by NCUTR faculty and administration through a process that included classroom observations, interviews, and principal recommendations. While I did not have an official role in the NCUTR during the 2013–2014 academic year, I was given permission by the program administrator to co-facilitate professional development workshops and to facilitate monthly inquiry meetings so that I could conduct a PAR study for my dissertation.

Initially, I planned to invite only the six mentors to participate in this study. However, the administrator of the NCUTR indicated that unless the lead and part-time clinical faculty were permitted to participate in the inquiry portion of the monthly meetings, I would not be permitted to do my research there because they played a central role in the field component of the program. At first I balked at what I considered an intrusion into my study. I was especially concerned that the lead clinical faculty would disrupt the study because she had indicated to me that she was worried about losing control over the mentor meetings. After serious consideration and an honest conversation with the program administrator, I decided that although inclusion of the clinical faculty would change my study, in fact it would provide a more realistic view of how mentoring was negotiated in a teaching residency where mentors and faculty are positioned as co-teacher educators by design. At the time, I believed that the administrator and clinical faculty thought the inquiry portion of our time together was a stand-alone project aimed

at objectives that were different from the ones they thought were important. However, I

hoped that as we went through the process together, they would understand the value of

inquiry for improving practice.

Mentors, faculty, program administrators, and I met for the first time during a

full-day workshop in mid-January. That first meeting provided everyone an opportunity

to become acquainted with each other and the responsibilities and procedures of

mentoring in the NCUTR. Mentors and clinical faculty attended two additional full-day

meetings in February and March and three two-hour meetings in April, May, and June.

The topics covered during each meeting are summarized in Table 3.3 below. As they

arrived to meetings, mentors completed standard check-in forms (see Appendix A), and

for the first 15 minutes of each meeting, we disseminated and discussed NCUTR program

and organizational information. During the morning sessions of our three full-day

meetings, the NCUTR clinical faculty and I guided the group through traditional

professional development workshops aimed at developing mentors' teaching and

mentoring skills, such as lesson observation and reflection. The last two hours of full-day

meetings and all of the partial-day meetings were reserved for "Studying Our Mentor

Practice," the groups' inquiry project.

We agreed that everyone involved in the inquiry portion of our monthly mentor

meetings would work collaboratively to examine mentoring in the NCUTR for the

purpose of naming and improving it. To that end, each month, members of the group

chose a topic or question to reflect on and write about in their mentor journals. We loaded

our monthly journal entries into shared folders on Dropbox so that we could access each

other's responses before we met. Although, only five of the mentors and I maintained

mentor journals, our entries were the catalysts for our inquiry conversations except for

our June meeting. In order to maintain the ethical integrity of this study, participants had

full control over what they choose to share and discuss in their entries and during our

meetings. In addition to discussions about our journal entries, two of six mentors

volunteered videotape feedback conversations they had with their residents so that we

could discuss mentoring by observing their practice during our meetings in April and

May.

 Discussions of our journal entries and videotapes were bookended by

conversations about what we were learning about mentoring through our collaborative

inquiry. At the start of each meeting, I invited participants to comment on, change, make

additions to, and ask questions about the open-coded transcript of the previous meeting,

which I made available in our shared Dropbox folder. At the end of every meeting, we

discussed our "take aways" from the discussion and planned how we would apply what

we had learned that day to our respective practices.

Table 3.3

Monthly Mentor Meeting and Journal Topics

	January	February	March	April	May	June
AM	• Check-in • Introduc-tions • Co-teaching workshop	• Check-in • Creating group norms • The video protocol • NCPS *Framework for Effective Teachers*	• Check-in • Using student data for instruction • Observation cycle • Providing feedback and opportunities for reflection • Resident coursework			
PM	• Discussion: *Describe your experiences as a mentor and mentee.* • Resident checklist discussion	• Journal discussion: *What does it feel like to "let go" of teaching?*	• Journal discussion: *How are you supporting your resident in learning to teach?*	• Check-in • Journal discussion: *How did your first observation cycle go? What will you do differently next time?* • Video discussion	• Check-in • Journal discussion: *What are my responsibilities to my resident as his/her mentor? How do I balance my mentor responsibilities with my responsibilities to my students?* • Video discussion	• Check-in • Critical incident discussion

Data Collection

Our PAR study focused on how we—mentors, clinical faculty, and researchers—

recognized, negotiated, and named mentoring through a process of collaborative inquiry.

Recordings and transcripts of our meetings provided a record of our collaboration and

evidence of how our talk about mentoring experiences and records of practice helped us

to construct our joint understanding of mentoring. Data collected from our meetings was

supplemented and compared with data from records of practice (mentor journals and video tapes), interviews, and my research journal and memos. The data collection scheme is depicted below in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4

Data Sources and Research Questions

| Research Question | Mentor Meetings | Records of Practice | | Group and Individual Interviews | Research Journal |
		Mentor Journals	Videotapes		
How does a group of mentors and clinical faculty recognize, negotiate, and name their mentoring practice when they are invited into a community of inquiry?	X	X	X	X	X
How do I negotiate my multiple roles participant and co-inquirer, PAR facilitator and dissertation researcher, teacher educator and mentor while engaging in a participatory action research study with school-based mentors and faculty	X	X			X

Recordings and Transcripts of Mentor Meetings

I audio recorded each two-hour afternoon inquiry session and the morning professional development workshops in March because I wanted to be an active participant in our discussions and hoped to feel less distracted by the need to take notes. I recorded my impressions and reflections about each meeting into a tape recorder during my 90-minute drive home in order to capture my "in the moment" thinking for later transcription and analysis. Likewise, audio recordings of our meetings were transcribed

within two weeks, and the original recordings and transcriptions were placed into the

group's shared Dropbox folder so that all participants were able to access them. Once the

transcriptions were completed, I open coded them noting *what* was said and *how* the

conversation developed. A coded version of the transcript was then posted in our shared

Dropbox folder one week before our next meeting. Although I invited members of the

group to review the coded transcriptions, few mentioned that they had done so.

Therefore, although my original plan was to solicit feedback from the group about the

transcripts at the start of each meeting, I summarized key ideas that I noted during the

coding process and asked others for their insights, which I noted in my research journal.

Records of Practice

The main activity of our time together was collaborative examination of records

of mentoring practice. Ball and Cohen (1999) described records of practice as "material

taken from real classrooms that present salient problems of practice" (p. 14) and depict

how teachers accomplish the central tasks of their work. When records of practice are

examined with other practitioners, opportunities for discussing their multiple perspectives

and ideas about practice are initiated, unexamined assumptions are surfaced, and

generative disequilibrium is created so that professional development is advanced

through a process of inquiry (Ball & Cohen, 1999). We examined two types of records of

practice: mentor journal entries and videotapes of mentor-resident interactions. Each is

described below.

Mentor journals. Although journal entries about mentoring do not exactly fit

Cohen and Ball's (1999) description of records of practice, I have included them under

this heading because it was the closest other members of the group could get to accessing

each other's mentoring experiences during this study due to time constraints and privacy

issues. All members of the group were asked to maintain a journal of their mentoring

experiences and reflections, including me.[11] However, as I previously explained, one

mentor and the two clinical faculty in our group did not write entries. Once entries were

posted to our shared Dropbox folder, I read them and wrote a narrative about what I

understood about what the author was communicating in the entry. My narratives were

added to the folder so that the author could comment back to me and further clarify

her/his meaning. In each case, the mentors told me that my understanding was accurate,

and Pedro and Pat commented that reading my interpretation pushed them to consider

what they had written in a new way. The original entries and my narratives about them

were especially helpful when I analyzed and attempted to make sense of the

transcriptions of our meetings.

     Videotapes of mentor–resident interactions. During our April and May

meetings, we focused on examining videotapes of mentor-resident interactions. Although

only two videotapes of mentoring were available for our analysis, they did provide

excellent fodder for discussion during those meetings and again when we met for our

final meeting in June.

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[11] During the planning phase of this study, both clinical faculty explained that they
considered themselves mentors to the mentors, and they agreed to write responses to
journal prompts with regard to ways they enacted that role during our meetings and when
they visited mentors' classrooms.

Interviews

I conducted an unstructed group interview during the January meeting and individual semi-structured interviews at the end of the study in June. The group interview explored the group's initial ideas about mentoring, asked individuals to describe their previous experiences of mentoring and being mentored, and participants' expectations about how they planned to mentor in the NUTR. The final interview focused on how individual group members experienced mentoring in the NUTR, their collaboration with members of the group, ways they developed professionally during the semester, and how they understood mentoring. The group and individual interviews were recorded, transcribed, and coded, but only the group interview was made available to the group.

My Research Journal and Memos

I regularly recorded my impressions, concerns, dilemmas, questions, and day-to-day activities related to this study in my research journal. I met regularly both in-person and online with a group of other doctoral candidates who acted as "critical friends" throughout the research process, and I recorded notes during those conversations. I also wrote memos to track my decisions throughout the data collection and analysis phases of the study. Together, my research journal and memos served as a record of my research process and my experiences with the group.

<p align="center">**Data Analysis**</p>

PAR is an emergent methodology, and as such, it depends on a flexible approach to data analysis because understanding grows through collaboration in cycles of planning–acting–observing–reflecting. For this reason, I started my analysis of data by

liberally applying principles of constructivist grounded theory (Charmaz, 2005, 2014). Constructivist grounded theory appealed to me because it permits the researcher to throw off the "cloak of neutrality" (Charmaz, 2005, p. 511) that positivist research presumes and assumes instead that the data collected and analyzed and the theory developed from the analytical process is interpretive and influenced by the researcher's personal history, values, perspective, and interaction with participants in the field. This critical version of grounded theory encouraged me to focus on my emergent understanding of the data rather than worrying about adhering to orthodox methods of analysis. A constructivist approach to grounded theory gave me permission to consider subjective experiences and social conditions the fruitful sources of data (Charmaz, 2005). Because constructivist grounded theory seeks to critique and improve "the way things are," it offers a complementary method for analyzing data collected in PAR (Charmaz, 2005; Merriam, 2009).

Constructivist grounded theory method provides a framework for developing conceptual categories that "arise through our interpretations of data rather than from them" (Charmaz, 2005, p. 509) and anticipates that researchers will engage in collaborative coding. However, as I have already detailed, I started data analysis by open coding our meeting transcripts and then I posted the coded transcripts in the group's shared Dropbox folder, hoping other members of the group would review them and make comments. To make my coding process more transparent for members of our group, during our second meeting in February, I distributed three pages of the coded transcript of our January meeting and, using a Smart Board, demonstrated how I coded the pages

and wrote analytical memos about each codes. While the group seemed intrigued by the

process, I think it also put them off coding themselves. I addressed their lack of

involvement in the coding process by regularly talking about what I noticed in the

transcripts from previous meetings, but ultimately, my attempts to involve others in the

coding process fell flat.

My initial coding and analytical memos were tentative but useful for providing

me with opportunities to relive each meeting in preparation for the next one. In June,

during our final meeting, I decided to make one more attempt at bringing the group into

the process of data analysis by selecting four "critical incidents" from our January,

February, March, and April meeting transcripts. My choices were based on the following

criteria:

- The incident was a seminal moment in a process of changing what we
  previously thought about mentoring (Cope &Watts, 2000).

- The incident changed how we were collaborating and our understanding of
  mentoring (Tripp, 1993).

- The incident affected how mentoring was practiced (Tripp, 1993).

At the start of the meeting in June, I asked the group to read the incidents and to write

reflections about each and then we discussed them together (see Appendices B, C, D, &

E). I provided the following is the list of questions to help guide written reflections and

our conversation:

- What was your role/involvement in the incident?

- What were your thoughts and feelings at the time of this incident?

- What were the responses to other key individuals to this incident?

- What mentoring practice dilemmas were identified through this incident?

- How did you resolve these dilemmas for yourself?

- What have you learned about mentoring through this incident?

Once our discussion of these incidents concluded, I asked the group to recall our May meeting and nominate an incident they thought was critical for helping them understand mentoring. Their reflections and the transcript of our conversation were very helpful later when I tried to make sense of the critical incidents on my own.

Once I completed data collection in June, I took a break from analysis because I realized that I was too close to the events and my in-the-moment thoughts and emotions to assume the critical distance I needed for data analysis. In other words, I had to step out of my participant role long enough to transition into my analyst role. After three months, I returned to the data and recoded it using gerunds, or "process codes" (Charmaz, 2014) in an attempt to capture the processes of recognizing, negotiating, and naming mentoring. I used NVivo software for this second round of coding, but after I finished the tedious process of line-by-line coding, I realized that I could only get far enough into my data to see that we named mentoring but not *how* we did it. Fortuitously, my NVivo software crashed and forced me back into the raw data yet again.

When I started over, I picked up the four critical incidents the group and I discussed during our meeting in June and decided to dig in, recoding each one, writing analytical memos, and attempting to understand why these incidents were critical to my understanding. The questions I asked about each incident included:

- Who were the interlocutors and what were their concerns?

- What mentor practice dilemmas were recognized during this incident?

- How did the group respond to the dilemmas?

- How did we negotiate the meaning of mentoring through this incident?

- How did this incident influence our emergent understanding about and naming of mentoring in the NCUTR?

Finally, I turned to focus coding and used three of the prompts for analytic memos suggested by Charmaz (2014):

- Which of these codes best accounts for the data?

- What does comparison across codes indicate?

- Are there gaps in the data? (p. 141).

It became clear to me that many of the process codes I used in the first two incidents could be categorized under four umbrella ideas: *expectations*, *expectancies*, *experiences*, and *assertions*. *Expectations* represented talk about the program's expectations for how the mentors would mentor. Mentors' *expectancies* were expressed when they articulated what they thought mentoring would be like before they actually started to mentor based on their own experiences of being mentored. *Experiences* included mentors' talk about their lived experiences as mentors and/or teachers. I located *assertions* in particular ways of talking about expectations, expectancies, or experiences in which the speaker confidently and forcefully declared the authority of her/his understanding. Assertions were originally process coded as telling, renaming, confirming, affirming, etc. but were qualitatively different than other ways of articulating one's understanding. By comparing

these categories of codes inside the transcripts (by which I mean *not* isolated from the context in which it was said), I identified relationships between them: when the program's expectations conflicted with mentors' experiences, mentors' emotions ran high, which was the defining quality of their assertions about mentoring that distinguished it from other ways of talking about it. (In Chapter 4, I rename these assertions *emotional talk*.)

It was challenging to read emotion in the transcripts and so I returned to the audiotapes of the January and February critical incidents, listened carefully for it, and realized that I was able to *hear* emotion more clearly, and for the first time, I also heard the "voice of silence" (Mazzei, 2007) hidden in the gaps in what we said, the tone of our comments, and our unintelligible responses to each other, particularly during our discussions about the *Resident Checklist* and the *NCPS Framework for Teaching Effectiveness*.

I returned to the other critical incidents to read and listen to what was said and written and what remained unspoken and unrecorded, and I asked, "How is this incident different from previous ones?" and attended specifically to differences in the data that fell under the four categories: expectations, expectancies, experiences, and emotions. I then started to build theory by reasoning that mentors' emotions might be reframed as a way of understanding their experiences and their assertions as acts of resistance against the

program's assertions of power.[12] The relationship between categories of data and ideas

(in italics) are depicted Figure 3.1 below.
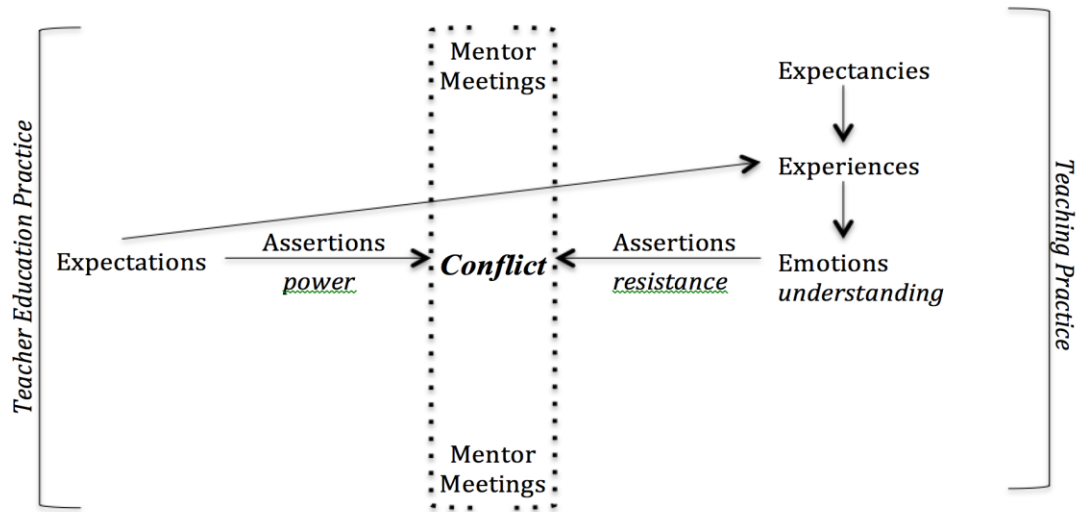
Figure 3.1. The conceptual relationships of categories of data.

This process of data analysis was time consuming, messy, and tangled up in my

position in the study, my professional history, and my personal inclination for puzzling. It

would be disingenuous if I did not also admit that one of the less direct ways I entered

into my data (if that is even possible to imagine) was by reading theory. As I explained in

Chapter 2, I spent a great deal of time trying on theoretical lenses to see my data

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[12] In the process of writing this chapter, I came to think of this reasoning process as *theoretical sampling* (Charmaz, 2014), even though all of the data for this study was collected previous to this phase of my analysis.

differently. Dabbling in theory helped me to think more broadly about ways I could think about my data, which opened my mind to new insights.

My Role and Positionality

Herr and Anderson (2005) suggested, "the degree to which researchers position themselves as insiders or outsiders will determine how they frame epistemological, methodological, and ethical issues in the dissertation" (p. 30). My account of how I analyzed the data from this study certainly bears this out. I had worked with mentors in the NUTR in the past in my capacity as a doctoral graduate assistant to NUTR faculty from September 2010 to June 2012 and as a co-teacher of a graduate course designed for NUTR mentors, Leadership in Self-Study and Action Research of Teaching Practices, during the fall semester of 2011. Through my previous work with NUTR mentors, I came to understand that they are the experts of their own experiences (Grant, Nelson, & Mitchell, 2008), and I developed respect for the value of their knowledge of teaching, learning, and the local context for mentoring NCUTR residents (Genat, 2009). Because I was a cooperating teacher and mentor during my teaching career, I identified closely with the NCUTR mentors and believe that my insider knowledge and experiences of teaching and mentoring would inform who I would be in this study. My personal experiences, the time I have spent in the NCUTR, and my feelings of kinship for teachers universally and the NCUTR mentors specifically complicated and challenged my ability to negotiate the multiple and nearly incompatible roles I played in this study.

Because I had not been involved with the NCUTR in over a year, I was initially positioned as an "outsider in collaboration with insiders" (Herr & Anderson, 2005, p. 38)

in this study. I assumed multiple roles simultaneously because I took the lead in our

collaborative inquiry: participated actively in the group, and intentionally assumed the

stance of co-learner and co-inquirer (Arieli, Friedman, & Agbaria, 2009; Genet; 2009;

Grant et al., 2008). My roles in the mentor group were layered with additional

responsibilities for supporting individual mentors beyond the parameters of the study. In

particular, my responsibility for facilitating the full-day professional development

workshops positioned me as an expert. I also worked with one of the mentors one-on-one

to support him in his work with his resident. Over time, I developed "insider"

relationships with a few of the mentors, clinical faculty, and the administrator.

Opportunities to engage with the clinical faculty outside our regular mentor meetings

made me privy to knowledge about the mentors and residents and the faculty's

assessment of their work. These encounters magnified my influence on the group.

Since our work together was initiated by me and used for my doctoral

dissertation, I initially sensed that I was intruding on the clinical faculty and mentors and

asking too much of their time and energy. My outsider status and personal motives for

doing this study caused me to hold myself apart from the group and to remain silent at

times when my "expertise" regarding mentoring might have been helpful (Dickson &

Green, 2006; Grant et al., 2008). I was conscious of the challenges endemic to my

multiple and complicated roles and positions in and beyond the group, and used my

personal journal to work out issues that seemed too personal to share with the group.

Researchers engaged in PAR studies are advised to discuss roles and expectations

for participation and what all participants hope to get out of the project up-front (Herr &

Anderson, 2005). As I mentioned previously, before the study was underway, I had

difficult conversations with the NCUTR administrator and clinical faculty, but thanks to

that up-front work, we were able to build relationships over the course of the study that

allowed all of us greater liberty to be ourselves. At the end of the professional

development workshop in January, I shared my hopes for the study and expressed my

deep appreciation for the group's willingness to join me in it. I regularly addressed

instances when the power imbalance between others in the group and me became

obvious, and I asked the group to hold me accountable for my promise to collaborate not

dominate the study. In addition, I modeled transparency by admitting my mistakes and

oversights and sharing my own uncertainties about what to do when difficult problems

were raised in the group. I shared entries from my mentor journal during our meetings

and poked fun at myself when called for.

It was important to me that I was not perceived as taking advantage of the group,

and I made efforts to guard against "researcher intrusion" (Dickson & Green, 2001, p.

249) and "parachuting in" (p. 246) to get data for "drive-by" research (A. McIntyre,

2008, p. 12). Therefore, I actively built relationships with other members of the group,

sharing appropriate personal information and asking them about their lives too. I hope

that by centering our collaboration on the group's concerns about mentoring and

providing open access to all data and initial coding, the group felt invited into the study

(Dickson & Green, 2001; A. McIntyre, 2008).

In the same vein, it was clear that in order for the mentors and clinical faculty to

participate in "authentic" (McTaggart, 1997) and "commonsense" (A. McIntyre, 2008)

ways, their roles and responsibilities in the project had to be worked out collaboratively. While I had hoped that everyone in the group would maintain a mentor journal and participate in discussions during mentor meetings, I had to accept that not everyone was willing to do so. Regardless of the journals missing from my cache of data, I am able to report "credible accounts" (Grant et al., 2008, p. 598) of our experiences in the group and how we named mentoring together. In the end, the quality of the group's participation during our meetings more than compensated for what was missing on paper (A. McIntyre, 2008).

Validity

I recognize that my role as a participant co-researcher in this study is a "privileged position of power" (Genat, 2009, p. 111) because I ultimately determined how our collaboration and practice is represented in this dissertation. Jones, Holmes, Macrae, and Maclure (2010) cautioned researchers to question, "'How can I write what I am seeing?' [which] invokes an imperative to consider the identity or subjectivity of the observer" (p. 486). Herr and Anderson (2005) recommended five validity criteria that are linked to the goals of action research:

1. Process validity concerns whether the research has generated new knowledge through a series of reflective cycles and analysis of evidence.

2. Outcome validity considers whether action-oriented outcomes have been achieved and problems have been solved.

3. Catalytic validity considers whether and to what extent both the researcher and
   participants in research have learned by "deepen[ing] their understanding of the
   social reality under study."

4. Democratic validity indicates that results of the research have been
   collaboratively achieved and are relevant to the local setting.

5. Dialogic validity determines whether the researcher has implemented a "sound
   and appropriate research methodology" (p. 67–70).

I have addressed criteria for process validity, democratic validity and dialogic validity in
the following ways:

- Process validity: I engaged with other members of the group in recursive cycles of
  planning-acting-observing-reflecting on problems of mentoring practice.

- Outcome validity: The problems of mentoring have not been resolved, but the
  group developed ways of working together and with their residents that made it
  possible to work in problematic circumstances.

- Catalytic validity: By the end of this study, the group had developed a clear
  understanding that mentoring is a negotiated, hybrid practice situated at the
  boundary of teaching and teacher education. For an overview of how or
  understanding of mentoring changed see, Table 4.2.

- Democratic validity: I shared my thinking about this study with the members of
  the group and invited them to clarify and elaborate on my understanding (Genet,
  2009; A. McIntyre, 2008). As I wrote this dissertation, I found ways to allow the

voices of the group to be heard, even when they were silent, and turned to them

for ways to express the meaning of our mentoring practice (Leonard, 2010).

- Dialogic validity: I used my research journal and analytic memos to create an

  audit trail of my methods and decisions, and I wrote regularly in my mentor

  journal. In addition, I discussed every stage of data collection and analysis with a

  group of critical friends who are familiar with the NCUTR (Costa & Kallick,

  1993; McNiff, Lomax, & Whitehead, 1996). Multiple methods of data collection

  and multiple sources of data improved the dialogic validity of this study. Outlying

  examples and discrepant evidence within the data were carefully considered and

  included in my interpretation of what I learned from this study (Maxwell, 2005).

Limitations of the Methodology

A first limitation of this methodology is missing data. Unfortunately, Brenda,

Dee, and Denise did not write reflections in preparation for our meetings. Brenda

indicated that she felt uncomfortable about sharing her thoughts with the rest of the group

and Dee did not think the topics applied to her since she was not actually mentoring a

resident that year (field notes, 2/26/14). Although I suggested that their reflections could

be "generally related" to the topic rather than specifically focused on it, they passively

declined my request by simply not writing entries. Denise explained that she was "too

busy with other responsibilities to write reflections" (field notes, 2/26/14), indicating that

she did not prioritize writing reflections or consider them useful for improving her own

mentor practice or supporting others in the group. Brenda and Dee's decisions not to

write and share their reflections in our shared Dropbox folder communicated to me and to

the rest of the group that they wanted to remain disconnected from others in the group, and because they held a separate status in the group, they were entitled to choose the activities they would take part in. Their missing data had implications for how I understood what they shared during our mentor meetings. Final interviews with Brenda and Dee provided more clarity about their thinking, but because Denise did not take part in an interview at the end of the semester, I was left with only what she said during meetings and a last e-mail as evidence of her thinking about what she experienced in the NCUTR.

Additionally, I did not plan to systematically collect or incorporate data about the specific goings-on in the NCPS district at the time this study was being conducted. In part, this oversight was due to my own naiveté about how disruptive district politics were in the lives of the mentors I worked with and my initial thinking about our group as a sheltered space that would be removed from the chaos of the political upheavals of the time. The absence of this data limited my ability to situate this study more accurately in that context.

A second limitation of this methodology was that we had access to only two videotapes of mentor–resident interactions. Because I wanted to ensure to the greatest extent possible that mentors did not come to think of our meetings as a venue for traditional research in which my agenda superseded their interests in studying mentoring and their comfort in sharing their practice with others, I did not ask them to record themselves until March, and then, only John and Pedro agreed to share their videos with the group. Likewise, because I felt strongly that the group together, not I alone, should

discuss mentors' practices, I did not plan to observe mentor-resident interactions in real time. Although both decisions were in accordance with my personal ethics as a PAR researcher, they did result in a trade-off in my ability to confirm that mentoring had changed in deed as well as word.

The final limitation is that my analysis ultimately pushed me to uncover our group's relational dynamics which advanced and/or impeded us in recognizing, negotiating, and naming mentoring, a focus I had not originally anticipated when I wrote my dissertation proposal. As an "insider" in this study, this work represents my experience of our group's collaboration more accurately than other's. I attempted to ameliorate the lop-sidedness of my analysis by coupling my interpretations with extensive quotes throughout this document in hopes that my readers can think critically as they read and decide for themselves whether they agree.

Chapter Four: Findings

My purpose in this chapter is to show that together, mentors, faculty, and I recognized that mentoring is a collaboratively authored boundary practice that required a change in our relational dynamic in order to address ways it disrupted mentors' self-understanding and created contradictory moral obligations to students and residents. However, by engaging in *emotional talk* about their experiences of mentoring, the mentors in our group articulated their awareness of the features of mentoring that structured their vulnerability. I theorize that the development of our group's relational competencies created the conditions necessary for us to hear mentors' emotional talk as constructive acts of resistance and legitimate claims to their responsibilities and right to negotiate and rename mentoring in ways that authentically represented their experiences. The chapter is divided into three sections, in which I discuss themes I developed by interpreting the data collected during this study. Unfortunately, the linear structure of this paper does not adequately reflect how my understanding of the data was iteratively layered during the writing process. As I developed a theme, my understanding of it fed into the development of the ones after it, but in the process of writing sections of this chapter, I returned to previous sections to modify them as my thinking became clearer. Here, I present my data analysis and discussion for each theme before I move on to the next one.

The purpose of the first section of this chapter is to provide an understanding of the various constructions of mentoring that oriented members of the group differently at the start of our inquiry project. I theorize that the ambiguity of our collective

understanding of mentoring foregrounded the state of vulnerability mentors sensed when

they began to practice.

I focus on mentors' narrated experiences of mentoring their residents in the

second section and assert that their emotional talk about their experiences is evidence of

contradictions between the moral warrants of teaching and mentoring and challenges they

faced as they acclimated to their new responsibilities for teacher education. I then suggest

that mentors' emotional talk was a bellwether that warned of ways mentoring structured

mentors' vulnerability.

In the final section of the chapter, I contend that mentors' emotional talk were

acts of resistance against the conditions that rendered them vulnerable. I locate mentoring

at the boundary of teaching and teacher education and theorize that two simultaneous and

co-generative forces, *resistance* and *relationship*, facilitated our process of negotiating

and renaming mentoring in ways that mediated the discontinuities between teaching and

teacher education that habituated mentors' feelings of vulnerability. Thus, I contend that

in that boundary space, our group was able to engage in authentic and productive

conversations about the discontinuities between mentoring as an abstraction and

mentoring as a lived practice. Finally, I suggest that two co-generative forces, resistance

and relationship, facilitated these conversations.

Contesting the Meaning of Mentoring

In this section of the chapter, I theorize that at the start of our inquiry project,

mentoring in the NCUTR was a contested practice because members of our group held

diverse ideas and expectations for how it would be practiced that were shaped by our

individual histories and the practice traditions familiar to us. I begin by showing that

Brenda, Dee, and I advocated two different and nearly incompatible constructions of

mentoring, *cooperative* and *collaborative,* and suggest that both constructions were

represented in material form by the mentoring tools we provided the mentors and by what

we said during our first mentor meeting in January. I then consider what the mentors

shared about their previous experiences of mentoring and their expectations for how they

planned to mentor their residents to show that a third *naïve* construction of mentoring was

also in play during our first mentor meeting. Finally, I theorize that because these were

abstractions that were not situated in lived mentoring experience, mentors believed that

there is one "right" way to mentor.

Mentoring as Cooperation

Brenda, Dee, and I communicated to the mentors that we expected them to

cooperate with us and support our efforts to prepare residents by offering them two

mentoring tools, the *Resident Checklist* (checklist) (see Appendix F) and the *New City*

Public Schools Framework for Teaching Effectiveness (framework). In this cooperative

construction, mentors were positioned as subordinates to the faculty and their mentor

practice would be defined by Brenda, Dee, and me and performed to our satisfaction.

Thus, what we communicated to the mentors during mentor meetings, whether verbally

or materially, was endowed with a high degree of authority and backed by the

institutional weight of the program. Below, I examine ways we represented to mentors

that the mentoring required their cooperation with us and suggest that Brenda's history in

NCPS and the NCUTR made her a strong advocate of this construction.

Mentoring tools. The checklist reflected the history of mentoring in the NCUTR, the lessons learned during the three prior years of the residency program, and the faculty and administration's expectations for how mentors would support and guide their residents into teaching. However, because the checklist was developed without input from the *current* group of mentors, it represented transference and extension (Freire, 1976) of the program's (in the abstract) intentions for how mentors should mentor. The checklist was originally written by the 2011–2012 cohort of NCUTR mentors and faculty, which included me in the role of doctoral student assistant, in response to mentors' request for more specific guidelines for ways they could support their residents and a timeline for moving the residents through the phases of the residency (observation, co-teaching, lead teaching) (Klein et al., 2013). Thus, the checklist represented the 2011–2012 faculty and mentor cohort's understanding that mentors play a vital role in "co-constructing the pre-service teacher education curriculum" (p. 42). Subsequent NCUTR cohorts adopted the checklist as a curriculum and pacing guide for residents' full-year placement. However, because residents in the 2013–2014 cohort were moved out of their first semester middle school placements and into high school placements during the second semester, I edited the original checklist in consultation with Amy, Brenda, and Dee so that it would reflect this change.

Through the checklist, we communicated our understanding about how residents would learn to teach and mentors' role in preparing them: (a) residents will develop teaching competence along a common trajectory by practicing teaching and getting to know the people and resources in their schools and communities; (b) residents will learn

to teach when they have opportunities to co-teach and discuss teaching with a mentor; and (c) residents will demonstrate their emerging mastery of teaching as they become more independent of their mentors and assume lead teaching responsibilities. By implication, we communicated that we expected mentors to be instrumental in supporting residents' learning by providing them access to teaching resources, creating opportunities for them to co-teach and eventually to lead-teach, and granting them entree into the local school and classroom communities.

We also provided mentors with a second tool, *The New City Public Schools Framework for Teaching Effectiveness,* a locally developed version of Danielson's (2007) teacher observation framework. In providing the framework, we announced that we expected mentors to supervise and evaluate residents' teaching according to NCPS's standards for employability and by implication let mentors know that they would be instrumental in making sure residents were "employment ready."

The framework detailed four dimensions of teaching—lesson design, instructional strategies, classroom climate, and learning assessment—for which mentors were expected to collect evidence and assess residents' competencies using a rubric. We expected mentors to assume a detached and evaluative stance by following the district's procedures for supervision in which they would: (a) collect evidence of "observable teaching behaviors and students' actions"; (b) compare the evidence to benchmarks described in the rubric; and (c) make "evidence-based judgments about the level of quality of instruction."

Advocating cooperation. Brenda advocated a cooperative construction of mentoring during preliminary organizational meetings with Amy and me in the fall and again during the first mentor meeting in January. Brenda was initially reluctant to dedicate the six mentor meetings scheduled for the spring semester to my plans for an inquiry project because she hoped to engage mentors in more structured professional development workshops aimed at developing their teaching and mentoring practices (meeting notes, 11/14/13). She assumed that residents would learn how to teach more effectively if the quality of their mentors' teaching was improved and if their mentors were able to apply the framework when they observed and evaluated their residents' teaching. She later alluded to her position at the end of our January mentor meeting:

> One thing for sure…when you come here, you have an opportunity to share things that are going on in your classrooms. *But* I will see you between now and then…I always want to like the mentors, …so don't take offense…if I'm asking you, "Are you pushing them?" Or [if I'm] asking the residents, "Are you asking your mentor about that sacred time? Are you getting it"…I recognize how important it is to them, their growth and development, and yours. (meeting transcript, 1/19/14)

Brenda's comment suggested to others at the meeting that while a portion of our mentor meetings would be for "sharing," she would ensure that mentors were enacting the mentoring practices she considered important for improving the residents' teaching by going into their classrooms and appraising their performance; thereby Brenda positioned herself in a "power over" (Jordan, 2004) role as the arbiter of mentoring quality.

Although Dee and I also believed that the checklist and the framework would serve the instrumental purpose of the program, I submit that Brenda's strong advocacy for a cooperative construction of mentoring was a consequence of her history in NCPS and the NCUTR program. Brenda was a retired NCPS elementary teacher and professional development leader, and upon her retirement, she was invited by the university to work with the elementary cohort of the NCUTR. She carried this history of experiences into her new role as lead clinical faculty of the 2013–2014 secondary cohort. As a former NCPS teacher and professional developer, Brenda was aware of and personally invested in ensuring the district's standards for teaching were upheld. In her previous experience with the elementary cohort, she worked closely with the mentors in an effort to develop tight coherence between the residents' classroom experiences and what they were learning in their course work. As such, Brenda valued mentoring practices that supported the educational purposes of the program, and she considered the particular mentor practices essential for learning to teach, including modeling effective teaching, completing resident observations and providing residents with feedback on their teaching performances, and maintaining close communication with the faculty (interview, 6/2014). Brenda's dual concerns, maintenance of teaching standards and creating coherence between mentoring and other facets of the NCUTR, informed her expectation that at least a portion of our mentor meetings would be informational in one direction— faculty to mentors. To that end, she advocated for presenting professional development workshops to reinforce the mentoring skills necessary for performing the tasks detailed

by the checklist and framework, and planned to ensure that mentors' practices were

calibrated to standards for employment in NCPS district schools.

A Collaborative Construction

Dee and I strongly advocated a collaborative construction of mentoring, and in

addition to what we said during the first mentor meeting in January, this construction was

communicated to the mentors in the third tool we provided them, the *video protocol*.

Positioned in collaboration with each other and the faculty, mentors would co-construct

their mentor practice with an emphasis on retaining the flexibility necessary to mentor

responsively and in coordination with other teacher educators. To that end, mentors

would engage their residents in frequent conversations about teaching using evidence

gathered during observations and repurpose their teaching practice as a curriculum for

learning and improving teaching.

The video protocol. Like the checklist, the video protocol had been designed by

the 2011–2012 NCUTR faculty and mentor cohort, with my assistance, to engage

residents and mentors in co-educative conversations about teaching that would "support

exploration of teaching motifs and practices, activation and sharing knowledge of

pedagogy, and responding to questions about teaching." By asking mentors to reflect on

teaching with their residents, we communicated that we expected them to transform the

traditional master-apprentice dynamic into a relationship of equals who are engaged in a

professional dialogue aimed at mutual professional development and co-construction of

teaching knowledge. In this regard, knowledge of teaching and knowledge of mentoring

was not static or measured against an outside standard.

The procedure for examining teaching outlined in the protocol required mentors and/or residents to video record themselves teaching. They would select a 10- to 15-minute clip from the recording and collect evidence of particular teaching practices or "a teaching motif" and then analyze the evidence to uncover new understanding about their teaching practices. The protocol offered three pathways for engaging in this reflective process but also encouraged mentor-resident pairs to develop their own protocols for talking about teaching, using video. Thus, this mentoring tool privileges the knowledge developed through reflection on action.

Advocating collaboration. Dee and I advocated the collaborative construction of mentoring in light of our history with the 2010–2013 secondary cohort of the NCUTR. During this earlier incarnation of the program, mentors and faculty successfully collaborated in developing mentoring by rebalancing the power dynamic between faculty and mentors and honoring mentors' knowledge as essential to teacher education (Taylor et al., 2014).

Through my experience as a doctoral assistantship for the secondary faculty during the first two years of the NCUTR program (2010–2012), I came to expect that the faculty and mentors would collaborate as co-teacher educators preparing residents to teach. During the January mentor meeting, I shared my expectations with the group:

> My hope is *not* that you're going to feel like I'm telling you how to mentor, but that you guys are helping each other figure out this thing we call mentoring…In fact, [our meetings] will be about whatever we decide they are about. So we're

going to…see what's working, see what's not working, and figure out how we're

going to spend our two hours together. (meeting transcript, 1/19/15)

My announcement suggested to others that I expected them to agree with my

constructivist orientation to practicing and learning mentoring and implied that I believed

our mentor meetings would shift the traditional university–school hierarchy with ease. In

accordance with a collaborative construction of mentoring, I hoped to set aside the last

two hours of our mentor meetings for an inquiry project, which would give us time to

discuss mentoring experiences and records of mentoring practice. I anticipated that the

outcome of our time together would be a clearer understanding of mentoring and creating

coherence in residents' learning across all facets of the program. As the leader of our

inquiry project, I had a vested interest in creating a collaborative and democratic

environment where we could accomplish the goals I set out for the group.

As a veteran mentor of the 2011–2013 NCUTR secondary cohort, Dee's

expectations were closely aligned with mine. She assumed that inexperienced mentors in

the group would develop their mentoring practice through an "organic" process of

sharing their experiences with others. She told the mentors they could expect to share

their experiences with the residents and to receive support for solving problems from

other members of the group. She described a typical interaction during mentor meetings

as, "This is what's going on with my resident. Is anyone else experiencing this issue? Do

you have any suggestions" (meeting transcript, 1/19/14)? In her new role as a part-time

clinical faculty member, Dee positioned herself as "the mentor to all of the residents"

(meeting transcript, 1/19/14) and reminded the mentors in the group that she was

available to "troubleshoot" problems with them outside of our regular meetings, but she assured them that the best support they would receive would come from each other.

A Naïve Construction

Although mentors did not specifically articulate the third construction of mentoring discuss here, I inductively shaped it from what they shared about their experiences as mentees during our meeting in January. Since only Vivian and John had mentoring experience, albeit for only a year and one semester respectively, mentors' *naïve* construction of mentoring was informed by the "good" and "bad" mentors they knew. In general, they expected to "support" their residents by sharing their classrooms, modeling teaching, allowing residents to practice teaching, and providing them emotional support and guidance.

Those mentors who were supported by *good* mentors when they entered teaching, whether through a traditional teacher education program or an alternate route to certification, appreciated their mentors' willingness to share their space, time, and expertise so that they could learn from them. They recognized that they relied on their mentors' support to get them through the challenges of their first year on the other side of the teacher's desk and from a relational perspective, their good mentors "took time," "held my hand," "cared," "[were] generous," "[were] conscious of my learning," and "created [appropriate] learning opportunities" so they could learn how to teach (meeting transcript, 1/19/14). They "showed," "explained," and "reinforced" how they performed teaching themselves, allowed their mentees to practice independently, and then gave their

mentees guidance for how to improve by combining "tough," "demanding," and "critical" feedback with well-defined guidance (meeting transcript, 1/19/14).

The group assumed that "good" mentors were at ease when they allowed student teachers to practice teaching independently and used metaphors such as "letting go," "stepping aside," and "turning over control" as a shorthand for describing mentoring as a linear and uncomplicated processes. Therefore, the group believed unquestionably that NCTUR mentors would engage in the same straightforward "letting go" process when they transferred their teaching authority and responsibilities to the residents in their classrooms.

In contrast to such positive image of good mentors, some of the participating mentor teachers indicated having *bad* mentors who made them feel "incompetent" and "beat up emotionally" (Dee, meeting transcript, 1/19/14). Such mentors did not allow their student teachers to practice teaching and expected that when they did teach, student teachers would replicate their own teaching strategies flawlessly. Bad mentors did not share their classroom, keeping it locked and off-limits to their mentees unless they were present. They left their mentees feeling they had to "go it alone" (Pedro, meeting transcript, 1/19/14) because they did not explain their teaching decisions, scaffold learning to teach, or offer effective feedback. Rather, these mentors "saw mentoring as a checklist" (Vivian, meeting transcript, 1/19/14) and gave little thought to their mentees as learners. The group understood that bad mentors were themselves victims of a system that rendered them "too busy [to] really have the time for mentoring" (John, meeting

transcript, 1/19/14). From their perspective, bad mentors should not have agreed to take on the extra responsibility of having a student teacher in the first place.

Regardless of the quality of mentoring the mentors received when they entered teaching, they were motivated to work with residents in the NCUTR because they recognized that their mentors played a critical role in launching their careers as either well prepared, uncertain, or fragile novices. Thus, the way mentors made sense of their experiences of being mentored drove their decision to become mentors. For example, Pat was motivated "to give the same strong support" to his resident that he received from Dee when he was a student teacher in her classroom. He was especially influenced by her willingness to "give up control" and treat him as a colleague "on day one" (meeting transcript, 1/19/14). In contrast, although Pedro's mentor gave him little support and severely limited his opportunities to teach, he was determined to provide his resident with a different experience because "[he is] going to be out there teaching thousands of human beings…"(meeting transcript, 1/19/14). As an alternate route teacher who did not have a traditional student teaching placement, Denise considered the long term impact her mentorship of a resident would have on students in New City schools, explaining, "they will have someone [a resident] who's going to come out with *all* the support she can possibly have" (meeting transcript, 1/19/14). John agreed that while his resident would be the immediate beneficiary of his support, it would have "serious implications" for students in the future because a well-prepared teacher would teach them.

The mentors expected that by sharing their experiences of mentoring, providing each other feedback, and exchanging ideas about "what works" during our monthly

mentor meetings, they would learn how to become "good mentors" from each other (meeting transcript, 1/19/14). Vivian affirmed their expectations by sharing that based on her previous experiences of participating in mentor meetings, other mentors were her primary "support network" and the meetings became her *"Chicken Soup for the Soul"* (meeting transcript, 1/19/14). These data suggest that mentors did not anticipate that their mentoring would be constrained by the expectations set forth by the NCUTR.

Discussion

In this section of the chapter, I have shown that at the start of our inquiry project, three substantially different constructions of mentoring were in play, and each one was an abstraction of our individual and varied experiences and knowledge of mentoring. This finding reflects the current sense in the field of teacher education that mentoring is a "contested concept" that is under-conceptualized, poorly defined, and differently practiced (Kemmis, Heikkinen, Fransson, Aspfors, & Edwards-Groves, 2014, p. 156). My analysis of the evidence presented above indicates that each of the three constructions of mentoring was grounded in particular assumptions about learning to teach and the role of mentors in that endeavor, aimed at achieving different objectives, required mentors to perform different activities, and depended on distinctive kinds of relationships and power arrangements. See Table 4.1 below for a comparison of the three constructions of mentoring discussed in this section of the chapter.

Table 4.1

A Comparison of Mentor Practice Constructions

Element	Cooperative	Collaborative	Naïve
Purpose	Support the goals of the NCUTR program	Collaborate with other NCUTR faculty and administration	Launch residents
Performance criteria	Alignment of teaching and mentoring with the standards established by NCUTR program	Coordination of mentoring practice with others	"Good" practices from the perspective of residents
Relations with:			
Faculty/admin	Hierarchical; subordinate	Democratic; collegial	N/A
Residents	Stratified; detached	Supportive; engaged	Supportive; selfless
Assumptions about learning to teach and mentoring	• Residents learn teaching on the same trajectory, by practicing and discussing teaching, and by receiving feedback on performances • Residents demonstrate mastery by teaching independently	• Residents learn teaching at their own pace, by examining and reflecting on teaching and by sharing their knowledge with others • Learning to teach is a collaborative endeavor accomplished in pedagogical relationships • Mentoring is a co-constructed practice	• Residents learn teaching by practicing • Mentoring is a straightforward process • Mentors have a powerful influence on their residents' teaching and career success • "Good" mentors are at ease when residents teach independently
Mentoring activities	• Provide access to teaching resources, opportunities to teach, and school and classroom communities	• Provide access to teaching resources, opportunities to teach, school and classroom communities	• Share their time and classroom • Model, explain, and reinforce effective teaching practices • Provide feedback and

	• Model expert teaching practices • Articulate teaching knowledge • Observe and evaluate residents' teaching performances using NCPS standards for competence and employability • Provide residents with feedback	• Analyze and discuss teaching • Articulate and examine thinking • Problematize teaching practices • Co-construct teaching knowledge	guidance • Provide emotional support
Mentor meetings	To provide information and training to the mentors	To ensure residents' learning is coherent across all facets of the program	To share mentoring experiences, provide each other support, and learn from other mentors

Because most of the mentors were new to the mentoring role, they conceived an idealized

model of mentoring based on their one-sided perspective of their own school-based

learning experiences and drew on their "apprenticeship of observation" (Lortie, 1975) in

anticipation of what they believed mentoring in the NCUTR would be like. Similar to the

teachers discussed in Lortie's work, the mentors in the NCUTR described generalized

notions of "good" and "bad" mentoring based on ways their own mentors affected them,

thereby creating an absolute dichotomy between binary opposites that obscured the

complexity of their mentors' lived experiences. Thus, their construction of a "good"

mentor practice was "intuitive and imitative rather than explicit and analytical" (p. 62).

In suggesting ways novices' "taken-for-granted, often deeply entrenched beliefs" can be

ameliorated, Feiman-Nemser (2001a, p. 1017) advises teacher educators to deal with

those beliefs head-on and "critically" so that novices form "new visions of what is

possible and desirable in teaching to inspire and guide their professional learning and

practice" (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a, p. 1017). However, Brenda, Dee, and I inadvertently structured a second dichotomy by endorsing two different and incongruous constructions of mentoring, which were derived from our individual histories as teachers and our previous experiences of working in the NCUTR. Absent a unified and coherent institutional message about what was desirable in mentoring and in light of Brenda's warning that she expected to "keep [her] hand on the pulse," we had inadvertently reinforced the mentors' assumption that there must be a "right way" to mentor.

However, since the cooperative, collaborative, and naïve constructions of mentoring were theoretical in nature and not situated in the particular social, discursive, and material contexts where mentors would be practicing, no single construction would be adequate for addressing the complexity of their lived experiences (Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008). Instead, as "co-habitants of sites along with other people, other species and other objects" (Kemmis, 2012, p. 888), the mentors and their practices would be affected by their relationships with those "others" and have to negotiate their own "better and worse courses of action, rather than right and wrong ones" (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 15). In the next section of this chapter, I consider the implications of starting our inquiry with ambiguous ideas about mentoring and draw on my analysis of how mentors talked about their mentoring experiences to show that they were not prepared for the "swampy lowlands" (Schön, 1983, p. 43) of the mentor practice and ways mentoring structured their vulnerability.

Mentors' Emotional Talk

In this section of the chapter, I consider the ways mentors communicated the emotional turbulence they felt when they sensed that they were losing control over their classrooms. By examining mentors' emotional talk about their experiences, I show that mentoring required more of mentors than any one of the constructions of mentoring members of our group held in January. In practice, mentoring required balancing pre-existing and paradoxical moral and social obligations, which ontologically structured and amplified the state of vulnerability in which mentors practiced.

I feel compelled to revisit a few key concepts prior to discussing how mentoring demanded more of mentors than our initial conceptions of mentoring permitted because they helped me think through and understand mentors' emotional talk. Kelchtermans' (2005) notion of self-understanding, which according to her describes both the "*product*…and an ongoing *process* of making sense of one's experiences and their impact on the 'self'" (emphasis added, p. 1001) is one of those concepts. I found this concept useful because unlike ideas about identity that consider the "self" fixed, *self-understanding* unfolds by "telling" or making explicit the meaning one makes of experiences to oneself and others. In part, self-understanding develops from one's *task perception,* which is comprised of ideas one has about what constitutes one's professionalism and the duties and tasks required in practice (Kelchtermans, 2005, p. 1001). These two concepts—*self-understanding* and *task perception*—undergird the mentors' *talk* I examine below.

The *emotional* qualifier that distinguishes the kind of talk I examine below from other kinds of talk is grounded in my understanding that emotions are "*constructed* in social relationships and systems of values" (emphasis added, Zembylas, 2003, p. 216) and "born in dialogue" (p. 222–223). Therefore, when I refer to emotional talk, I mean communication that suggests the influence of the social, material, and discursive contexts in which one is situated on self-understanding and task perception. In what follows, I focus on ways that mentoring structured the vulnerability mentors' sensed and expressed in their emotional talk during our mentor meetings.

Letting Go of Teaching

Teachers never have full control over the outcomes of their teaching because they depend on the alignment of a multiplicity of conditions that are beyond their control, not the least of which are their relationships with their students (Kelchtermans, 2005). Because mentoring required mentors to "let go" of their teaching practice to afford their residents opportunities to teach, the persistent state of vulnerability created by teaching was compounded, placing mentors in double jeopardy of loosing control over the learning and the teaching that went on in their classrooms. Therefore, evidence of their inclination to "hold on" was one way that mentoring structured vulnerability for them.

In the early months of our inquiry, mentors described struggling against the impulse to "hold on" to teaching, despite knowing that they "should" and "were expected to let go." This impulse was surprising to them because the "good" mentors they knew made "letting go" look easy. For example, Pat realized his assumption that Dee simply "stepped aside" so that he could teach was callow, and after just one month as a mentor,

he had come to appreciate how challenging mentoring must have been for Dee. He

shared, "I would not say that I completely understand why a teacher would choose to be a

mentor and then *not* give up control, but I am seeing things very differently these days"

(journal entry, 2/14). John and Pedro felt the same impulse, despite having had "bad"

mentors themselves and being firmly committed to "letting go." John recognized that his

early expectations about shifting teaching responsibilities to his resident were "naïve." He

thought, "'I'll help you with what you need, but go, do! Have fun! It will be easy.' But

that's not what's happening for me" (meeting transcript, 2/24/14). Likewise, Pedro

described his impulse to "hold on" and admitted that he was finding it difficult to

"remove myself more and more from each lesson in order to provide my resident with a

truly beneficial experience" (meeting transcript, 2/24/14).

For Vivian, the risk was the climate of her classroom and her role there. The

presence of Olivia, the resident with whom she was paired, changed the dynamic of the

teacher–student pedagogical relationship, which in turn disrupted the cooperative climate

Vivian and her students had established before Olivia's arrival. Vivian explained that

because Olivia arrived "ready to go right away" and "took charge and asserted her

authority" before getting to know the students and their ways of learning, students'

attitudes shifted from cooperative to adversarial (journal entry, 2/14/14). Vivian

explained that Olivia had attended New City's public schools as a student and Vivian

suspected that her resident's approach to teacher–student relations reflected how she had

been treated in school herself. She believed that Olivia erroneously attributed students'

uncooperative behavior to her "motherly" and "gentle" approach (meeting transcript,

2/24/14), and so when she did "let go," Olivia's "in your face" approach to student

discipline and her desire to "do things differently" left Vivian feeling "replaced" and

estranged in her own classroom. She shared, "It was like, '*Oh!*'…Even if you completely

trust this person, it's now someone who's in *your* space, *your* role—the teacher"

(interview, 6/2014).

Mentors described their "internal struggle" (Pedro, meeting transcript, 2/24/14) as

a moral dilemma in which they were forced to choose between their teaching

responsibilities—ensuring that lessons were taught well enough to support students'

learning—and their mentoring responsibilities—providing residents adequate

opportunities to learn teaching through trial and error, even if this approach did not

always produced the desired effects on their students' learning. Pat shared that it was

"difficult to sit back while your students are having difficulties or struggling…[o]ur first

concern as teachers is our students and if the resident is not prepared to take over it can

be difficult to allow that to happen" (journal entry, 2/14). Vivian described her dilemma

as having to choose between "letting go" or "protecting" her students. As she put it, "I'm

not doing anything and they're [the students] all failing. I've got to do something! How

far do you let it go? There was no right answer" (meeting transcript, 6/6/14). Vivian felt

especially stressed knowing that she had to "let the resident try to lead the class in her

own way" and described it as "the most difficult responsibility and one that conflicts with

the needs of my students" (journal entry, 5/2014).

Accountability for their students' performance on standardized district and state

tests created particularly acute feelings of vulnerability for Denise because she worked in

one of the top-ranked high schools in the state with students who were generally

considered the most academically talented in the district. She shared, "It's to the point

where, if she's teaching, I want to be there just in case something is taught wrong"

(meeting transcripts, 3/25/14). Denise's sense of vulnerability and her desire to regain

control over her students' achievement led her to provide her resident access to her own

lesson plans, assessments, labs, and all of the other materials needed to teach her biology

classes, despite being asked explicitly by Brenda, Dee, and me not to. In her own defense,

Denise told us that her resident's biology content knowledge was weak, which negatively

affected her confidence when she was teaching. Denise explained, "The minute a student

asks her a question she starts shaking a little bit because she doesn't know. She gets lucky

most of the time because another student will tell the answer" (meeting transcript,

3/25/14).

Although Scott's math content knowledge was strong, issues of classroom

management plagued his residency, "forcing" John (his mentor) to decide whether to help

Scott become a better teacher by allowing him to work out recurring problems with

student discipline on his own or take control of the class and trump Scott's authority to

ensure students learning. Early in the semester John reasoned that his greater

responsibility was to his students, but later he worried that he had made a mistake in

judgment. John recognized that by acting as a proxy disciplinarian, he did not help Scott

become a more effective teacher and struggled with retaining only the amount of power

necessary to ensure that his students could "do everything they're supposed to do"

(meeting transcript, 3/25/14). He worried, "Was stopping things myself and fixing them

in retrospect…a bad thing? I would have felt that I was actually allowing him to be the teacher if I had let him deal with it" (journal entry, 3/2014).

Becoming a Mentor

As mentors "let go" of teaching, they transitioned into a new role—mentor—but their lack of mentoring experience, unclear expectations, and inadequate preparation for working with adult learners led to feelings of anxiety, frustration, and for some of them, anger. Although the *Resident Checklist* provided a list of "assignments" the residents were expected to complete and a timeline for when they would assume lead teaching responsibilities, because residents were individual learners who required varied levels and types of support, mentors found the program's one-size-fits-all approach to mentoring restrictive and unhelpful for knowing how to mentor responsively. Without a clear sense of how to be a *good* mentor for their individual residents, beyond fulfilling a list of tasks in the checklist and "letting go" of teaching according to the specified timeline, the mentors felt unsure about the quality of the job they were doing.

Because nearly all of the mentors were new to the role, they relied heavily on their experiences as mentees to guide them in their mentoring relationships. However, as I suggested above, those experiences developed a one-sided perspective of learning teaching and established a binary of *good* and *bad* mentoring. Mentors' naïve ideas about mentoring impeded their ability to address its complexities. For example, when Pat was a student teacher in Dee's classroom, he actively sought opportunities to teach, and Dee gave him the freedom to experiment with ways of teaching math that she had not tried herself. However, Kate—Pat's resident—was "shy" and reluctant to undertake even

minor teaching tasks on her own. The differences in their personalities and approach to learning teaching baffled Pat: "I'm allowing her [Kate] to take control and she's not…but it's really a two way street" (meeting transcript, 2/24/14). He tried assigning Kate responsibility for teaching specific parts of lessons, leaving her on her own when he was called away from the classroom for meetings, and asking her to parallel teach with him, but after several failed attempts to engage Kate in teaching, he became discouraged and confided in his mentor journal, "This whole situation has really had me upset" (journal entry, 3/2014) and he was worried that he and Kate were just not a good match. For nearly the entire semester, Pat questioned if Kate would have been more successful had she been placed with a different mentor.

Absent official recognition that mentoring is a complex endeavor situated in a field of struggle and uncertainty, the mentors were left to believe that the "problems" they were having with their residents were their "fault." For example, Pedro wanted to know, "Am I doing well as a mentor? Am I being too strict? Am I guiding enough? Am I giving poor advice? Am I not being helpful" (Pedro, meeting feedback, 2/24/14)? John blamed himself when his resident foundered telling the group, "it's mostly my fault…maybe there were other things I could have done…but if I had to start over, how would I handle it? I don't actually know the answer to that" (meeting transcript, 3/25/14). Even Vivian, a one-year NCUTR veteran, admitted to being worried about what to do when issues came up with Olivia during the first few months of her placement and questioned, "What does [mentoring] look like exactly and how do we do it" (Vivian, meeting transcript, 3/25/14)?

Mentors realized early on that mentoring required more deliberate planning and a heightened consciousness about residents' learning and the need to attend to it. Pedro explained that he consciously had to stop and ask himself, "If this was your first year, what would you need to do and want to know" (meeting transcript, 2/24/14), but he was concerned that treating his resident as a learner did not come naturally to him the way it did when he was teaching his students math. Like other mentors in our group, Pedro was not prepared for his own "unconscious" and "visceral" reactions to being repositioned from his teacher role to being a mentor and shared with the group: "So I didn't think I was going to have an issue, I thought I would want him to take over, and now reflecting back, I'm like, why am I jumping in? Because I'm so used to being in the [teacher] role (meeting transcript, 2/24/14).

Making room for the residents as teacher-learners in their classrooms was further complicated by their arrival in the middle of the school year. Vivian shared that she had to "work at fitting Olivia into my mind set," adding, "It is hard to stop in the middle of things to include another person" (journal entry, 2/2014). By that time, class routines had been established and the classroom culture was inscribed in the ways the mentors and their students interacted with each other, which made it difficult for some of the mentors to move past the sense that their residents were tourists who should leave no footprints in their classrooms.

Many mentors were troubled about their residents' weak content knowledge, but they assumed that the residents would accept responsibility for learning it before attempting to teach it to their students and reasoned, "That's not our job" (Pedro, meeting

transcript, 4/21/14). To the mentors, knowing course content was unquestionably a professional responsibility, and they were rankled that some residents did not take the time to learn material before attempting to teach it. Angela articulated their common sentiments: "What you did in that situation was study, do research and ask your questions until you feel confident enough that you feel like 'I got this.' This is just what you do" (meeting transcript, 6/6/14). Likewise, they grew increasingly frustrated by their residents' lack of initiative in planning and complained that they were too reliant on textbooks and online materials. Pat was especially concerned about Kate's dependence on the course textbook because it affected the quality of her instruction and diminished students' engagement in learning. He shared, "Her response to a lot of [students'] questions is, 'Well, that's what the book said'. I tell her, 'You're teaching! This is supposed to be coming from you…watch kids just shut down…because [they think], Why are you teaching me? Why don't I just read the book'" (meeting transcript, 4/21/14). Likewise, Denise's frustration came to a head when Karen did not have lesson plans prepared following spring break because she could not find activities online. Denise told the group, "She's always telling me, 'Why reinvent the wheel' and I said, 'If you want to teach somebody how the wheel works, you make the wheel" (meeting transcript, 4/21/14)!

Despite their anger and frustration with the residents, mentors were at a loss about how to impress upon them the importance of knowing their content and preparing thoroughly for lessons, especially because residents were adult learners. For example, Pedro told the group that he felt guilty for not "double checking" to make sure Tom was

working out math problems prior to using them in his lessons, but he was reluctant to

treat him like one of his students. Finally, after Tom made several mistakes during a

lesson, he started asking him, "'Have you worked them all out'?'" and when Tom said he

had, Pedro would say, "'Show me'" (meeting transcript, 4/21/14). Pat also felt

uncomfortable "telling Kate what to do because she is an adult" (meeting transcript,

2/24/14). Like Pedro, he finally took on the responsibility of teaching Kate the math she

would later teach the students and worked with her after school and during their prep

periods to plan lessons until the semester ended. During his final interview, Pat

commented that he was initially unsure about what to expect from Kate "because I've

never done this before," but based on his own experience of being mentored and his

knowledge of the *Resident Checklist,* he felt sure that he had to do more than the "typical

mentor" to prepare Kate (interview, 6/2/14).

Discussion

In the first section of this chapter, I showed that our group carried three different

constructions of mentoring into our first mentor meeting in January, which established

sets of binaries and a sense that there was a "right" way to mentor. In this section, I have

shown that as un-situated abstractions, our constructions of mentoring were inadequate

for helping mentors find their way into mentoring and actually impeded their ability to

make sense of and cope with the complexity of their lived experiences. The commonality

and persistence of mentors' negative emotional talk indicates that they needed more than

training in mentoring skills and time to reconcile our construction of mentoring because

there was more "*at stake*" for them when they practiced mentoring (emphasis in the

original, Kelchtermas, 2005).

My examination of mentors' emotional talk about mentoring suggests that their

feelings were reasonably founded and adduced two ways mentoring in the NCUTR

structured their vulnerability: (a) contradictions between our expectations of mentors and

the moral dimensions of teaching created dilemmas for the mentors; and (b) the

program's inattention to the complex demands of mentoring jeopardized mentors' self-

understanding (Hargreaves, 1994 Jaggar, 1989; Kelchtermas, 1996, 2005; Zembylas,

2003).

Despite the many differences in the three constructions of mentoring we brought

into the NCUTR, all of them advanced *letting go* as a central task and primary obligation

of mentoring. However, *letting go* conjured emotional talk that indicated that mentors felt

vulnerable to the contradictions between their professional and moral obligations to their

students and their additional and differently oriented tasks and obligations to their

residents. As teachers, the mentors were professionally and morally obligated for creating

a responsive and engaging classroom environment and for preparing their students to

meet uncompromising academic standards by teaching rigorous lessons that were in sync

with a punishing schedule of curriculum coverage. But as mentors, these teachers were

expected to open their classrooms and expose their students to strangers who were

neophytes at managing classroom routines and student behavior and, from their

perspective, insufficiently prepared to teach. Reconciling these two contradictory sets of

obligations imposed the burden of judgments on the mentors that they did not have to cope with when they were *only* teachers.

Further, this finding suggests that mentors' *teaching* task perception served as the normative basis for their judgments about their mentoring experiences. The evidence indicates that mentors judged mentoring according to the degree to which it impacted their ability to maintain order and a sense of community in their classrooms, threatened their students' learning, and undermined their efforts to meet accountability standards and secure their jobs. Therefore, their responsibilities as teachers overshadowed their mentor practice. This sheds some light on why mentors had a limited sense of what they should be doing and how to determine whether their actions were supportive of learning teaching.

However, the institutionalization of mentoring is also implicated in this finding. In an effort to uphold institutional values for efficiency, consistency, and control, mentoring was reduced to a set of tasks and narrowly defined as a role, suggesting that the interpersonal and moral dimensions of mentoring were of little concern. Mentors' emotional turbulence points to the implications of a narrow "one-size-fits-all" approach to mentoring and a common presumption that mentors will transfer the knowledge, skills, and values that are effective in teaching un-problematically and directly to mentoring. Rather, this finding affirms that as in the teaching practice, what counts as a "good" mentor practice can always be contested because it is a "matter for practical deliberation" (Kemmis, 2012, p. 895) in the times and circumstances where it is being practiced (Hargreaves, 1994 Kelchtermans, 2005; Kemmis, 2012). As such, mentoring is a "living

practice" that requires ongoing negotiation among practitioners themselves (Kemmis, 2012).

As I have shown above, mentors worried that they did not know "enough about mentoring" or "how to mentor" and were confused about the norms and parameters for their practice. They believed there was a "right way" to mentor and had a sense that they were "doing something wrong". They were vulnerable to the ambivalence created by our different constructions of mentoring, the overly explicit and narrow focus of the checklist, and decisional power Brenda was willing to wield in her role as lead faculty. Their sense of the vulnerability that was structured by mentoring influenced mentors' self-understanding (Kelchtermans, 2005). For example, although the checklist reified the 2011 cohort of mentors' mentoring practice and was useful for creating a uniform experience for the residents and for ensuring conformity in the ways mentors would practice, it was less effective for addressing the unique problems faced by the 2014 cohort of mentors. Consequently, mentors assumed that their mentoring problems were due to some deficit in their abilities or their residents' character, not the limitations of the checklist itself.

I contend that mentors' emotional talk was a bellwether that warned of the contradictions that were built into mentoring, contradictions the group would have to negotiate together during our mentor meetings. Their emotional talk challenged our "common sense assumptions" (Giroux, 1997) about the ease with which the mentors would be able to make room for residents in their classroom communities, in their teaching practices, in their thinking, and in their self-understanding. It also suggests ways

mentoring had become essentialized through the tools the 2014 cohort of mentors were given. Acknowledgement of the inherent complexity of mentoring and mentors' lived experiences was missing in these documents, and as such, they triggered emotional talk. Finally, mentors' emotional talk suggests that they had developed a deeper appreciation for the complexity of mentoring than Brenda, Dee, and I could appreciate from our non-mentor perspective and wanted to resist the conformity that diminished the possibility that mentoring could become "something other than what had previously been established" (Britzman, 1991, p. 29).

Next, I place mentors' emotional talk in the context of four critical incidents to show that these communications were micro-political acts of resistance against the structured vulnerability of mentoring. I suggest that the group's relational dynamic, which evolved over the course of six months, created conditions that enabled us to understand mentors' emotional talk as "political actions, aimed at (re)gaining the social recognition of [their] professional selves" (Kelchtermans, 2005, p. 319), and to exploit them as opportunities to generate a mutual understanding of mentoring as a complex practice, to confront the vulnerability it structured for mentors, and to negotiate a mentor practice that took into consideration the discontinuities between teaching and teacher education.

Resistance and Relationship at the Boundary of Teaching and Teacher Education

In the previous sections of this chapter, I have shown that there was a discontinuity between the complexity of mentoring and the narrow and contradictory constructions of mentoring we brought with us to our first mentor meeting. I theorized

that mentors expressed their sense that they were practicing in a state of vulnerability by engaging in emotional talk about their mentoring experiences. Here I build out from those findings by (re)placing mentors' emotional talk in the context of four critical incidents (Tripp, 1993) and four follow-up incidents from our mentor meetings to suggest that mentors' emotional talk were acts of resistance against vulnerability. I show that we became aware of ways mentoring was institutionally structured to create a state of vulnerability that limited mentors' practice in order to ensure resident graduates were "employment ready" (Ransome, 2011) for NCPS when they completed their residency year. I equate mentors' emotional talk with acts of resistance against the constraints of institutionally normalized ways of positioning them and defining their practice. Further, I theorize that over the course of our six mentor meetings, we developed the relational competence and agency necessary to transform the boundary between the teaching and teacher education practice in our efforts to claim and rename mentoring in ways that exceeded institutional norms. Thus, resistance and relationship were co-generative forces that enabled us to collectively rename mentoring as a boundary practice that obligates mentors, faculty, and program administrators to authentically engage with each other.

Each critical incident featured below is analyzed for the particular characteristic of instrumentalism that triggered mentors' resistance, including: task orientation, standardization, performativity, and complacency. I analyze ways members of the group discursively responded to the act of resistance and discuss characteristics of our group's relations that precipitated or impeded a change in practice. I then scrutinize a follow-up

incident for evidence that the critical incident resulted in an enduring change in how we understood mentoring.

Critical Incident One: Resisting a Task Orientation In Mentoring

Below I present a critical incident from our first mentor meeting in January to show the early limitations of the group's capacity and my willingness to recognize that the work of mentoring exceeded the completion of tasks in the service of the NCUTR's institutional purpose—to prepare math and science teachers for employment in NCPS.

The incident. I introduced the mentors to the *Resident Checklist* during our first meeting in January and solicited their comments and questions. In response, they asked practical questions about how they could help their residents "get through it," and except for a brief exchange about whether the pace for having residents "take over" classes was too rushed, they agreed that the checklist would be "helpful" for organizing their work with the residents and were willing to support their residents in completing the tasks listed (meeting transcript, 1/19/14). However, as the conversation was winding down, I began to wonder why Vivian, the most experienced teacher among the mentors, had not shared a concern about the checklist she raised privately with me and another mentor during an earlier breakout session and decided to asked her to relay that conversation to the group. She commented:

> The hardest thing to really, you can't really teach it, just bring it to their attention, is what the kids are going through, the social justice part of it…it's not something you can teach. You can't say, "You need to do this." It's just something they need to be aware of. I mean, some of them get it, but some of them have not been in

this situation, like for me it was a shocking eye-opener the first time I was hit with

it. Just, grab the heart and squeeze hard. That's something that was hard, and you

can't put it in the checklist. Just how do you approach it? How do you bring that

subject up?

Because Vivian was the only experienced NCUTR mentor in the group other than Dee,

she had already experienced the limitations of the *Resident Checklist* and shared her

ambivalence about whether it adequately captured the complexity of mentoring and

learning to teach in a school where many students are socially and economically

disadvantaged.

Vivian's reluctance to share her critique of the checklist suggests that she did not

feel comfortable raising the specter of the challenges she believed the mentors would face

when mentoring residents in conditions that were complex and unfamiliar to them

because she did not want to disturb the agreeable tone of the discussion that preceded her

comment. She appeared concerned about how her critique would be received by other

members of the group—especially the faculty, Amy, and me—because it exposed a

discontinuity between the program's conception of mentoring as being narrowly defined

by a set of tasks and the complexity of the political and emotional work residents and

mentors would have to do together within the context of a high poverty urban school

district.

Angela's response to Vivian's comment confirmed that as an inexperienced

mentor, she was not ready to engage in a discussion about the limitations of the checklist

or the complexity of mentoring residents in an urban school. She advised Vivian, "So our

school now has advisories for some of that conversation. The advisory's pretty open—

just six to eight kids and just one-on-one conversations" (meeting transcript, 1/19/14).

Angela's comment suggests that she believed Vivian was asking the group for specific

suggestions for additional tasks that would help her resident learn about students' lives.

Although her advice was in keeping with the other mentors' practical consideration of the

checklist, it was not congruent with Vivian's depiction of the "grab the heart and squeeze

hard" experiences the residents were about to experience.

I was aware of the mismatch between Vivian's comment and the group's capacity

to discuss it, and so I hurriedly stated my own understanding of Vivian's critique, and

then, without pursuing the issue of preparing residents for the realities of their students'

lives or probing the group for further comments, I abruptly shifted the conversation to the

next item on our agenda:

> I think, though, when it comes to mentoring a new teacher, developing their
>
> sensitivity, or their awareness about being responsive to [students']
>
> situations…might be a little bit more difficult…to list on a checklist. So it's
>
> something to keep in mind. [*Change in tone of voice*] Ok, so just shifting gears!
>
> Guess what we're going to do with this list! We're going to come up with your
>
> mentor checklist!
>
> *[The group chuckles in response.]*

My words and vocal timbre provide evidence that I wanted to deflect the emotional

intensity of Vivian's comment and return our conversation to its previous low-stakes and

agreeable tone. I was reluctant to trouble the prescribed approach to mentoring encoded

in the *Resident Checklist*—after all, I was one of its co-authors--or to disrupt the smooth operation of our meeting so early in our time together. My desire to preserve the historic and functional integrity of the checklist and the cordial relations of our fledgling group superseded any inclination I may have had for critically examining the checklist with Vivian and the other members of the group. Actually, my analysis of the transcript suggests that although I asked the group for comments and questions about the checklist, what I was really seeking from them was affirmation and compliance so that the study would proceed as planned.

This episode shows that the groups' initial idealized construction of mentoring as an uncomplicated process of guiding, showing, sharing, and letting go remained contained and intact despite Vivian's critique of the inadequacy of the checklist for capturing the complexity of urban teacher mentoring. Because Vivian's comment was misunderstood by the mentors in the group and unsupported by me, the checklist endured as the reification of the program's expectations about what mentors were called to do. Thus, Vivian's perplexing question about how mentors could support their residents as they transitioned into urban teaching was left unsettled.

Characteristics of our group's relations. As shown above, in January, the mentor group was formally convened but did not function as a group. Since the only connection the mentors had to others in the group was through the formal organizational structure of the program, our interactions were guarded, superficial, and protective of cordiality. The group's function was to assure mentors' compliance with institutional expectations for how they would work individually with their residents. To that end,

mentors were charged with assisting their residents in completing the tasks detailed in the

checklist. In addition, because we were operating on different levels of familiarity with

the NCUTR program and with limited collective experience as mentors, individual ideas

and emotions were suppressed. Thus, the group had created boundaries for appropriate

speech, ensuring that the distribution of power among group members remained

unchallenged. These same limitations were in place during our February meeting, with

the exception that all of the mentors had some experience with their residents by then.

The follow-up incident. During our mentor meeting in February, the question of

how mentors could help their residents address the challenges of urban teaching

resurfaced when Vivian asked the group for advice about how to make Olivia aware that

her "teaching style" was disrupting the classroom climate Vivian and her students had

built during the previous six months while Olivia was in her middle school placement.

According to Vivian, students in the class were becoming resistant to Olivia, but she

mistook their behavior as a "discipline problem" and did not recognize the influence her

"attitude" was having on them. Vivian worried that Olivia's "confrontational"

interactions with students connoted a deficit view of urban students.

The group's response to Vivian's request for support was consistent with our

early task orientation to mentoring. Pedro shared that he provided Tom with explicit

information about the learning community he was entering, made specific suggestions

about how he could develop relationships with students, and then set aside one day for

Tom to introduce himself to his students. Brenda seconded Pedro's practical solution to

Vivian's complex problem, commenting that she assumed that all of the mentors would

allow time for their residents to introduce themselves. Thus, rather than brainstorming ways to engage residents in conversations about their views of urban students, which would have been a more effective approach to Vivian's concern, the group retreated to a more familiar and less risky way of treating a symptom of the problem.

Our general satisfaction with Pedro's expedient solution to Vivian's problem, as indicated by universal assent to his suggestion, suggests that because we prioritized maintaining the status quo in Vivian's classroom and limiting her vulnerability as a mentor, we lost sight of Olivia's learning and expected her to set aside her own ideas about teaching in deference to Vivian. Whereas divergence in perspectives about teaching can be generative of change when novices and experienced practitioners are open to learning from each other, we were more concerned with limiting the disruption to the smooth operation of Vivian's class and suggested ways she could quickly integrate Olivia into her classroom community. We held onto traditional ideas about the power and positioning of mentors and residents in classrooms, in which mentors act as hosts and residents act as tourists and missed an opportunity to expand our thinking about how to develop a mutually enriching pedagogical relationships between them. Thus, we addressed Vivian's quandary through the lens of our *teaching* task perspective, after all we were experienced teachers, and secured a traditional *cooperative* mentoring arrangement in the NCUTR.

Our support for Vivian during the follow-up incident reflected the predominance of performativity and expedience in our approach to solving complex mentoring problems, which interfered with our ability to be authentic and reflective when we

discussed mentoring issues. In light of the institutionally structured vulnerability of mentoring, authenticity in our relationships was unthinkable as was any change in our understanding of mentoring.

Critical Incident Two: Resisting Standardization

The following incident details an exchange between Amy and John, in which John challenged a key design principle of residency programs. In recounting and analyzing this incident, I posit that their emotionally charged interaction was a manifestation of the vulnerability structured by the program's goal—to prepare residents to become self-sufficient teachers on an established timeline according to a uniform process—and the contentious conditions found at the boundary of the teaching and teacher education practices.

The incident. During our February mentor meeting, Pedro and Pat shared impressions of their first experiences with their residents, and it was clear from the tone of their comments that they believed they were doing something wrong because the process was not as straightforward as our discussion of the *Resident Checklist* had led them to believe it would be. Other mentors' journal reflections indicated that this was a common concern, as all of them were troubled about whether their students would actually learn, if their residents were up to the challenge of teaching on their own, and what role they would play in their own classrooms once the residents took the lead (mentor reflections, 2/2014).

Pedro's humorous depiction of being unable to control his impulse to "jump-in" when Tom was teaching was received by the other mentors as an inside joke, since they

could relate to his experience of feeling torn between doing what was expected of him as a mentor and what he believed he should do as a teacher. However, the "joke" fell flat for Amy, the university-based NCUTR administrator who was not a member of the group but had joined us for part of our February meeting. She swiftly reacted to Pat and Pedro's comments by telling the group that during a recent meeting with the residents, she insisted that they must "Get teaching!" and she emphasized to us that she expected residents to be "doing 100% of the teaching by April…Because if these guys aren't running a class at the end of nine months of being in a student teaching position, we're in trouble" (meeting transcript, 2/24/14).

Amy was clearly frustrated by the slow pace of the residents' transition into the lead teaching role and the tone of her comment hinted that she suspected the mentors were partly responsible because they were enabling, maybe even encouraging, their residents to take a less active role in teaching. To Amy, the timeline for moving residents into a lead teaching role reified key principles in the design of the NCUTR program. Generally speaking, teaching residency programs place a premium on providing residents with extensive opportunities to practice teaching (for more on this topic see NCATE, 2010). As the administrator of the NCUTR, Amy was responsible for guaranteeing the residents in the program had frequent opportunities to practice teaching. Thus, Amy's priority was to ensure that the residents would "get teaching" in their high school placements as quickly as possible in order to practice the skills and apply the knowledge they were learning in their course work and from observations of their mentors. Her goal

was to encourage the residents to become autonomous from their mentors at the pace
outlined in the checklist.

There was a long pause in the conversation, suggesting that everyone felt the
weight of Amy's frustration, but then John asked, "I want some clarification on that,
because, do you mean, all classes, or the ones that they have already taken over up until
that point…?" Amy responded, "For me, he should be doing all your math classes." John
shot back, "I have five classes!" Amy appeared flustered by John's forcefulness, turned
away from him and briefly changed the subject. When she turned back to John less than a
minute later, Amy asked, "So [do] you have your answer to your question?" to which
John replied in a defiant tone, "I have a different question to follow up, but yes." This
exchange was so brief that it could have passed without notice, but as I wrote in my
journal that evening, "Amy's tone was very firm and I felt the tension in the room go
through the roof" (meeting reflection, 2/26/14).

At first, John requested clarification from Amy, but once he realized that strict
enforcement of the timeline would limit his ability to judge how and when to guide Scott
into teaching, he was able to connect his concerns to those expressed by Pat and Pedro, a
connection that I suggest emboldened him to assert their collective agency to resist
Amy's firm position on the timeline. His retort, "I have five classes!" was an assertion of
his perspective and an effort to get Amy to take it into consideration.

John persisted in his attempt to communicate to Amy his genuine concerns about
Scott's ability to manage his classes by explaining the specific challenges Scott would

face if he assumed lead teaching responsibilities, challenges that John struggled with himself:

> [*In a defiant tone of voice*] I have three preps, and if you want to be technical, I
> have four preps [because one of the preps is taught on two levels]. So it seems
> like a lot, and then [to] ask him as a zero year teacher, "Take these 25 kids that
> can at times be overwhelming even for me, and run three stations with them by
> yourself" (meeting transcript, 2/24/14).

Then, with a hint of sarcasm, he went on to ask whether Amy expected him to "just sit down and let [Scott take over]" or if he was permitted to "bail him [Scott] out" when needed.

John's persistent assertion of his lived reality as a teacher acted as a check on Amy's (and the program's) insistence that the residents must "get teaching," despite the complex and challenging conditions of the classrooms where they were placed. John reminded Amy that the teaching context matters and should factor into a resident's learning plan. The defiant and sarcastic tone of his retort suggests that he believed that Amy did not understand the demands of his teaching schedule and the real challenges it posed for even an experienced teacher like himself. John challenged the reasonableness of Amy's plan to have Scott prove his teaching chops by either "sinking or swimming" ("Can I bail him out?"), even though as Scott's mentor, he was in a position to prevent a disaster.

In this exchange, John asserted the value of mentors' ability to read their contexts in relation to their residents' readiness to teach and questioned the efficacy of severing

the interdependent relationships they had developed. Thus, with very few words, John crossed the boundary between teacher and teacher educator, challenged the traditional power hierarchy endemic to cooperative teaching, and pushed through the impediments of social protocols that emphasize cordial relations between employees of universities and schools.

John's ability to fold together his teacher and teacher educator task perceptions was a result of having already tried "just giving up control" (mentor reflection, 2/24/14) according to the timeline he and Scott followed during the fall semester. Unlike the other mentor–resident pairs, John and Scott had been together since the start of the school year, and from that experience, John learned that the standardized approach to turning over teaching responsibilities encoded in the checklist was not appropriate for Scott, and he was certain that Scott would become an even less effective teacher if he had to teach five middle and high school classes by mid April.

John was able to translate his teaching practice into his teacher education practice as demonstrated by his attempt to meet the spirit (if not the letter) of the timeline for "letting go" of teaching. He had planned to differentiate the program's plan by dividing his students into three instructional groups when the new semester started, hoping to remediate what he thought would be a "disaster" if Scott taught all of his students without support (mentor reflection, 2/24/14). According to John's plan, Scott would have lead teaching responsibility for only one-third of his students, which John believed would be a more appropriate and valuable teaching assignment, given Scott's progress in learning to teach and the nature of John's teaching load (mentor reflection, 2/24/14). Clearly, John's

well thought-out plan for how to support Scott would be undermined by the program's

one-size-fits-all approach to mentoring, and in his mind, compliance with the timeline

and Amy's directive would hinder Scott's learning.

John's depiction of the complexity of teaching as being "overwhelming" struck a

chord in my own emotional memory of learning to teach, and because in their journal

reflections, other mentors had raised similar concerns about their residents' capacity to

move into a lead teaching role, I was able to "empathetically attune" (Jordan, 2004) to

John's position. However, I held back until Dee glibly responded to John, "What's he

going to do next year"? At that moment I sensed that Dee and Amy were lining up

against John (and by proxy the other mentors too), and without knowing exactly what I

would say in advance but certain that whatever I said would be controversial, I

interjected:

> I think he [John] raises a very important and serious question because I have the
>
> benefit of reading people's journals. This is not an uncommon concern…it's one
>
> thing to say, "I want them to be teaching a full load two weeks after Easter," but
>
> for some people, that may not be what's best for them. So I'm going to push…

At that moment I took the perspective of the mentors and represented it to Amy, knowing

that in doing so I was crossing the boundary that separated the mentors from the non-

mentors in our group. I asserted my separate power and authority as an expert on

mentoring in the residency program to "speak the [mentors] into voice" (Jordon quoted in

Walker, 2010, p. 135) so that Amy would hear the legitimacy of what John was trying to

express on their behalf.

Before I was able to finish stating my intention to "push" Amy into considering John's perspective, she interrupted me saying, "And it's negotiable. You're going to be the experts" (meeting transcript, 2/24/14). Her sudden reversal came as a surprise to me, and from the looks exchanged between John and a few of the other mentors, it appeared they were also taken aback but only briefly because almost immediately the mentors began sharing with each other their concerns about their residents' ability to take on a full teaching load.

In our final interview, Amy shared that although it took her a few minutes to make the connection, John's persistence reminded her that in her previous job as a school leader, she had trusted in the "expert knowledge" of the teachers she worked with. Therefore, she explained, the sudden change in her position came when she realized that John's resistance to the timeline was evidence of his and the other mentors' expertise and insider knowledge of teaching in their schools. Although she did not specifically share her insight with the other members of the group during the incident, she did acknowledge that the mentors were "the experts," an affirmations of their ability to make judgments about the conditions in which they were mentoring and their residents' individual abilities to navigate them. Thus, Amy connected to "the wider whole" (A. Edwards, 2007) of the problem of teacher preparation by folding her experience as a teacher and administrator into her current role as a program administrator and viewed teacher preparation from multiple perspectives. Despite the pressure brought to bear by having to provide data to the Department of Education showing that the NCUTR was "enhancing the preparation of prospective teachers" (http://www2.ed.gov/programs/tqpartnership/index.html), she

affirmed the separate expertise of members of the group and joined us in reshaping a

more collaborative and authentic relationship.

Characteristics of our group's relations. The February incident showed all of

the hallmarks of an early boundary encounter. Discontinuities between the teaching

practice and the teacher education practice were clearly in evidence, and the group was

challenged by trying to overcome them. At the start of the incident, Pat and Pedro shared

the truth of their experiences of trying to "let go" in accordance with the requirements of

the timeline, but Amy dismissed their problem out of hand, seeing it as an aggravating

factor in her more consequential concern—the residents had to "*get* teaching" so that they

were employable in the district by the end of the semester—an expectation of the

teaching residency concept that is stipulated in the legislation that funds the Teacher

Quality Partnership Grant Program

(http://www2.ed.gov/programs/tqpartnership/legislation.html)

Initially, only John seemed able to recognize that he and Amy shared a common

problem—preparing the residents to teach—and he willing engaged in a "good conflict"

(Miller quoted in Hartling & Sparks, 2010, p. 177) with Amy. He asserted his

professional judgment by expressing his knowledge about his teaching context and his

understanding about what it took to teach there and communicated his desire to

participate more fully in residents' preparation to teach by representing his truth and the

value of his contribution to solving their mutual problem (Hartling & Sparks, 2010;

Jordan, 1991).

John's emotional talk effectively communicated his frustration with the timeline ("[Teaching] can at times be overwhelming even for me") and anger with Amy for not listening to him because at first she seemed oblivious to his sarcasm and defiance, which facilitated my empathetic connection to the mentors' experiences of "letting go." I felt justified in voicing my support for the mentors in light of their lived experiences and reframed my role in the group as a mediator positioned between two ways of understanding the problems associated with "letting go" and "get teaching." Whereas prior to this incident, I was reluctant to shake-up the power arrangement of the group, especially because it was assumed that I was aligned with the faculty and Amy, in this instance I was able to take the mentors' perspective and understand their motives for wanting to "let go" on a timeframe they judged to be appropriate for their residents. In doing so, I validated John's right to have his say in the timeline and shifted the balance of power in the group away from Amy and the faculty and closer to the boundary they shared with John and the other mentors.

However the shift was in process from the very start of this incident. It took considerable persistence and risk tolerance on John's part to break down Amy's preconceptions about why mentors were reluctant to "let go" and an equal measure of patience on Amy's part to explain why she, the NCUTR administrator, was so insistent that the residents must "get teaching." Finally, the mutuality of their motives became clearer—they both wanted to provide the best learning experience for the residents—and the overlap in their respective practices was uncovered. Finally, Amy was able to recognize the unique expertise the mentors offered—their knowledge of their teaching

contexts—and my interrupted "push" was enough to seal a new understanding about "how to know who" to count on for making decisions about the timeline (Edwards, 2007, 2010, 2011).

By agreeing to be "flexible," Amy confirmed that a space at the boundary had opened where we could negotiate, or "weave together" (Edwards, 2007, p. 14), divergent ideas about learning to teach from our different positions in teacher preparation. Mentors received Amy's comment that they were "the experts" as an acknowledgment that they had a stake in deciding the terms of their residents' placement in their classrooms and accepted it as invitation to come into that shared space to solve their common problems together.

When this incident ended, it was clear that we had begun to develop our "relational agency" (Edwards, 2007), which enabled us, despite our differences, to effectively name and interpret our shared problem and read the environment in which our problem was situated. We named the problem "mentoring residents in learning teaching" and interpreted it in terms of the complexity of knowing how, when, and under what conditions practice in teaching advances residents' learning. We were able to recognize that the environment created by the timeline reinforced a linear conception of learning to teach by mechanizing the pace at which residents would move into autonomous teaching without regard for their teaching contexts, their personal differences, or their mentors' expert knowledge. Consequently, mentoring would have been automated and standardized too, bypassing mentors' professional judgment and holding them accountable to the program's instrumental warrant for how they prepared teachers in their

classrooms. However, once the restrictions of the timeline were eased, and Amy affirmed their expertise, mentors felt less hesitant about bringing their experiences of mentoring to the group and we were able to engage more authentically in the complexity of mentoring together.

The follow-up incident. A month later, the fruits of our relational work in February were evident, when during our March meeting, John described the chaos he observed when he stopped by his classroom before the start of our meeting that day. He told the group that he was stymied by how to support Scott in getting control over the classroom short of disciplining students by proxy. The other mentors quickly responded to John's request for support by asking him questions about his standards for student behavior and whether he had articulated them to Scott, his strategies for enforcing them, and his thinking about why his strategies worked for him but not Scott. John sheepishly responded that he did not have a set procedure for student discipline, explaining, "I don't know. I just make something up at the time. I don't really know what I say. Stuff comes out, and most of it oftentimes works" (meeting transcript, 3/24/14). The other mentors chastised John for not having a student behavior management system in place, indicating that they were able to assess John's problem from a teaching task perspective. However, Pedro pushed the conversation further by asking John how he shared authority for student discipline with Scott. Pedro admitted, "I'm also struggling with that. I'm seeing that the way he [Tom] runs his classroom doesn't necessarily have to be the way I run a classroom" (meeting transcript, 3/24/14). His comment encouraged the mentors to reconsider whether the source of Scott's problem with student discipline should be

attributed to not having a discipline system in place that Scott could mimic, or if perhaps John had not shifted enough authority to Scott so that he could experiment with managing student behavior in his *own* way. Thus, Pedro engaged his mentor task perception in consideration of John's problem by decentering from his own experience as a teacher.

When compared to the February incident, this one showed a marked difference in the emotional tenor of what was said and the voices included in the conversation. To check the veracity of this initial impression, I completed a content analysis of 15 conversational turns taken during each of these two incidents (the incident between John and Amy and the follow-up incident summarized above). I found that in the first incident between John and Amy, the dominant emotion expressed in 9 out of 15 conversational turns was anger (coded as "frustrated," "defiant," and "critical"). John's reaction to Amy's admonition about the timeline during the first incident was communicated through negative expressions of emotion that were received by Amy as "outlaw emotions" (Jaggar, 1989) or challenges to the institutional values of the residency program and her authority as its leader. However, as John became clearer in communicating his concerns and the rationale behind them, I was able to hear his emotions as acts of resistance or "political acts" (Kelchtermans, 2005) or assertions of power against ways the timeline was undermining his agency (and the agency of the other mentors) to perform mentoring in accordance with his own professional judgment. The conflict between Amy and John was resolved once Amy recognized (with a little push from me) that John was not defying her authority but rather asserting his legitimate claim to "author" (Kindred, 1999;

Sannino, 2010) his mentoring practice in a way that diminished the structured

vulnerability of mentoring.

By contrast, during the follow-up incident, which included an equal number of

conversational turns, I identified 11 expressions of courage (coded as "inquisitive" and

"reflective") suggesting that an emotional "participatory shift" (Kindred, 1999) had

occurred following the first incident. This finding is also born out in a comparative

analysis of who spoke during these incidents. Of the 15 conversational turns examined

from the first incident, non-mentors took nine turns speaking (Amy, Dee, and me) and

John took six. In contrast, during the second incident, mentors took 14 out of 15

conversational turns and I took only one. These findings suggest that in the aftermath of

the first incident, the mentors were more open to "working out the contradictions of their

[mentoring] work together" (Sannino, 2010, p. 843) by bringing a problem of mentoring

practice to the group, using the problem as an occasion to reflect on cases like it from

their own experiences, and finding an approach to the problem that was helpful for

solving the immediate concern, while at the same time building their capacity to think

critically about their practice from both teacher and mentor task perspectives. Thus, by

the March mentor meeting, the mentors were becoming self-organizing, self-reflecting,

and self-regulating.

Critical Incident Three: Resisting Performativity

As described in the first part of this chapter, Amy and Brenda selected the

framework as the tool mentors would use when they observed and evaluated their

residents' teaching. Their choice was based on an assumption that the residents needed

the experience of being evaluated in the same way supervisors and principals would

evaluate them when they started teaching in September. Additionally, residents' scores

on the framework would help Amy and Brenda gauge whether residents were ready for

employment in the district and also fulfill the university's requirement that the program

submit six formal evaluations of residents' teaching performance.

However, as shown in this next incident, the mentors did not think the framework

was a valid or appropriate tool for mentoring, and they were concerned that using it

would muddle their relationships with their residents and undermine their ability to

provide them with valid feedback. They were especially troubled that they were expected

to engage in the same evaluation procedure their administrators followed when they

observed teachers.

The incident. During the March mentor meeting, only one hour after the group

helped John work through his problem with Scott, Pedro initiated a collective act of

resistance against using the framework as the observation tool that mentors would use to

evaluate their residents. The incident started when he quietly asked Brenda:

> I feel uncomfortable rating them as ineffective or partially effective simply
>
> because I didn't see [a competency] on that particular day. So…can we just leave
>
> [the rating] blank for that particular component, or can we put "not applicable"
>
> because we didn't see it, or can we give them a rating based on what we've seen
>
> over a course of several days? (meeting transcript, 3/24/14)

Pedro's question was a thinly veiled critique of how the framework was being

used in the district by administrators who based their assessment of teaching on a single

observation that lasted one period (or less). He had previously complained about the

district's directive that *only* the "evidence" of teaching observed during a 42-minute

period could be included in the document, but even worse, "The ratings and the narrative

don't match up…Or the lesson that I taught doesn't match up [with the evaluation] I get"

(meeting transcript, 2/26/14).

Brenda appeared surprised by Pedro's request and reluctant to give any ground on

how the mentors would observe and then score their residents. She reiterated that the

rationale for using the framework was to prepare residents for employment in the district.

Brenda responded:

> Well, this is based upon…one lesson…that one day. And I think that to help the
>
> residents to move forward, if you put in "ineffective" it helps build them up. I
>
> mean, these evaluations are not graded…they're just something for their growth
>
> and their development. So if they have an administrator next year that says, "You
>
> left that sentence out." I mean—[then they will] know how the administrator is
>
> looking at it.

Brenda attempted to recast mentors' evaluations as opportunities for residents to improve

their practice, but hidden in what she told the group was another more instrumental

purpose for using the framework for resident observations that was in keeping with the

employment agenda of residency programs (preparing teachers to work in hard to staff

schools). Having the mentors evaluate their residents using the districts' framework

would serve as a pre-employment orientation to the institutional purpose of teacher

observations, which was to ensure that all elements of a lesson detailed in the protocol were included.

However, Angela did not agree that her role (as mentor) included evaluating her resident. She responded to Brenda's rationale by echoing Pedro's discomfort and made a case that supervision of instruction and mentoring are two different practices:

> I would feel uncomfortable evaluating her [Kathryn] because I don't feel like I'm an expert in that [teacher evaluation] whatsoever. [I am] not able to define it [teaching] so well.…To me my job is, "Okay, let's see where we need to grow and change." But I can definitely, in the next lesson, look to see if she included or incorporated the growth areas [we discussed].…Most of the time they [administrators] give it [the evaluation] to you to review, and at that point…they can change it [the rating] based on me saying "Well, I did cover this in my lesson plan."

According to Angela, administrators observe teaching to audit whether teachers are in compliance with the district's standards for teaching, while mentors observe their residents' teaching to uncover ways to help them grow their practice. Like Pedro, Angela was concerned about the validity of using the NCPS framework for mentoring, since in her experience, it did not improve teaching as it was being used in the district.

As the conversation continued, mentors openly shared ways they "worked around" the evaluation system. For example, Angela performed teaching strategies that were not typically part of her repertoire when her supervisor observed her to ensure that she would get an "effective" rating "even though it [the strategy] made no difference to

my lesson" (Angela, meeting transcript, 3/25/14). The mentors understood that

administrators fed into the district's "audit culture" (G. Anderson, 2009, p. 62) by

producing the kinds of evaluation reports administrators above them expected to receive.

Pat explained his administrator's rationale for assigning a particular range of evaluation

scores in his department: "I [the administrator] can't give too many good ratings to a

young teacher and I can't have too many people in my department get highly effective."

This incident exposed the discontinuity between the mentors' desire to

legitimately support residents' in learning to teach and the program's rationale for using

the framework as a tool for getting residents "employment ready" (Ransome, 2011).

Pedro and Angela's resistance to using the framework as a mentoring tool was grounded

in their experiences as teachers and their emergent understanding about the "authenticity"

(G. Anderson, 2009; Freire, 1970; Kemmis & Smith, 2008) required for learning and

improving teaching. They claimed that the administrators operationalized the framework

in a manner that produced invalid scores and inspired performativity on the part of

teachers and administrators. In sharing their discomfort with the group, they articulated

their insider knowledge that the "new professionalism ethos" (G. Anderson & Cohen,

2015; Evetts, 2011; Zeichner, 2010b) had made its way into their schools. To their minds,

the framework was instrumental for controlling teachers' practices and undermining their

ability to truly improve education in NCPS.

Together Dee and I attempted to bridge the differences between Brenda's

expressed desire to prepare residents for their job search and future employment and

mentors' concerns that the framework, as used by administrators in this district, was not a

legitimate measure of teaching quality nor a useful tool for improving teaching. First Dee

suggested that if mentors used the framework, scored residents using the rubric, and then

encouraged them to advocate for themselves during post-observation conferences in a

safe and supportive environment, the residents would learn a valuable professional skill,

"self-advocacy." However, her rationale was not adequate for Angela, and she responded,

> Again, my comfort level isn't that high, because I don't have experience in it, and
>
> I know from talking to my supervisors that even they've had walkthroughs, all the
>
> supervisors together, through someone's lesson, and they themselves argue about
>
> what [the scores] are and what they didn't see as evidence.… (meeting transcript,
>
> 3/24/14)

Angela's refusal to back down from her position helped me to zero in on her

concern about having to score her resident's performance using what she believed, based

on her experience, was an invalid observation tool on which even supervisors could not

agree. I suggested a way she and the other mentors could credibly use the scoring rubric

with their residents:

> And there's a way around this. What if you *didn't* put the score in and you talked
>
> about the score [with the resident]…and you both came to a mutual decision
>
> about it?…Then they're not just passive receivers of [the score] and feedback.
>
> You're engaged in trying to construct what [the scores] mean together. (meeting
>
> transcript, 3/24/14)

The mentors agreed that Dee's reframing and the compromise I proposed would allow

them the flexibility they needed to ensure that the framework would be useful for

mentoring. However the discussion did not end there. The mentors wanted to choose which of the evaluation forms they would use: The short form listed the competencies, a number score, and a summary statement; the long form added descriptive statements for the range of scores in each competency and a space where mentors could include evidence of the teaching they observed. In the spirit of compromise, Brenda conceded, "I want to make it…ok, tell you what, whatever form you want to submit, I'm fine. Is that ok? So you decide on what form you want to submit" (meeting transcript, 3/24/14).

Because Dee and I were not involved in the decision to use the framework for mentoring, we did not feel the need to advocate for it. Thus, we were positioned *at the boundary* of the conflict, between the mentors and Brenda, a position that enabled us to hear opposing perspectives and find the overlap between Brenda's instrumental and the mentors' pedagogical purposes for using the framework. Dee recognized that Brenda's objective was to prepare residents for being observed by district administrators, and so she reinterpreted the framework in a way that legitimized using it for mentoring--the residents would learn how to advocate for themselves. I then promoted the efficacy of having mentors and residents collaboratively score the residents' teaching performance for stimulating reflection and achieving more valid scores. Our combined efforts maximized the potential for reaching a compromise that considered everyone. Brenda's final concession, allowing the mentors to decided if they would use the official or unofficial versions of the observation report, showed that she had listened carefully to the mentors' position and attempted to find a way to ease their "discomfort" and distinguish them from their administrators.

Characteristics of our group relations. Rather than distracting attention away from an act of resistance, as I did in January, or abruptly ending a conflict without further discussion as happened in February, in this incident, we worked through the discontinuities between the programs' goals, as represented by Brenda, and the ways mentors understood their experiences of teacher evaluation until we reached a compromise solution to the question of whether mentors should use the framework for mentoring. We accomplished this by ensuring that dissenting opinions were discussed thoroughly so that we could make distinctions between what was more or less important for individual members of the group. From there, we were able to construct a compromise solution. The outcome of this incident suggests that we were able to engage in "good conflict" (Miller quoted in Hartling & Sparks, 2010, p. 177) and had begun to develop our collective relational competence.

Pedro and Angela authentically and courageously shared their experiences and ideas about the framework, and together advocated against using it for mentoring despite the potential risks posed by resisting the institutional parameters of mentoring. Dee and I were able to hear and take their perspective based on our past experiences as teachers and mentors and our current position at the boundary. We had become multilingual and capable of fluently translating the meaning of the framework across the boundary that separated Pedro and Dee's task perspective from Brenda's. While our translations facilitated an exchange of ideas about the framework from one practice (teaching) to another (teacher education), the group's receptivity to each other's experiences and their

willingness to connect with and learn from each other created the relational space for compromise at the boundary of teaching and teacher education.

At the boundary, we re-purposed the framework as a boundary object that was useful in "several intersecting worlds and [able to] satisfy requirements of each of them" (Star & Griesemer, 1989, p. 393). As such, the re-purposed framework did not diminish the ability of the NCUTR to meet its institutional requirements or undermine mentors' professional integrity and the educative value of their work with residents. Ultimately, we were able to reframe mentoring as a hybrid practice by opening the floor to all voices, accessing different ways of understanding the purpose of observations, and opening the flow of meaning across our separate interests and objectives.

The follow-up incident. I knew from reading Pedro's subsequent reflections that he was experimenting with ways to make his evaluations of Tom's teaching more supportive of learning teaching, and so I asked him if he would bring a short video of a formal post-observation conference with Tom to our May mentor meeting. Pedro willingly accommodated my request, and at the start of our May meeting, he introduced the video by explaining that he had added a few steps to the evaluation procedure NCPS administrators typically followed in hopes that his modifications would result in "a constructive learning experience" (meeting transcript, 5/19/14) for Tom. He explained that immediately after he completed the observation, he sent his notes, a list of questions, and a copy of the scoring rubric to Tom so that he could prepare for their post-observation conference. Pedro hoped that soliciting feedback from Tom about his mentoring practice might re-balance the unequal power dynamic between them, and so

among the questions he wanted Tom to consider, he included, "What did I [Pedro] do

well, and what could I do to make this a better learning experience for you [Tom]?" Tom

sent his reflections and scores to Pedro before they met.

Pedro showed us a 10-minute video clip of the post-observation conference, and

when it ended, we discussed evidence that Pedro's approach supported Tom's learning.

Members of the group agreed that Pedro and Tom had engaged in "collaborative

reflection on teaching" (John, meeting transcript, 5/19/14) in that Pedro actively listened

to Tom's thinking and probed for deeper understanding, directed Tom's attention to only

a few aspects of the lesson to ensure they were focused, and encouraged Tom to think

about what he could do in the short and long term to improve in the areas they identified

together. Pedro told the group that he was pleased with how the conference went because

he accomplished his primary objective: "I wanted him to know the

framework…backward and forward…so next year he can use it to *think about* his

teaching" (meeting transcript, 5/18/14).

It was clear to all that Pedro had appropriated the framework and made it

generative for mentoring and learning to teach. The group's reaction to Pedro's approach

was unanimously positive. Brenda commented: "The time for the resident to reflect on

the lesson, to really have some time to think about before you sit down to have a post-

conference, to me that seems so much more valuable" (meeting transcript, 5/18/14).

Vivian added, "It's nice, because like you said, I feel like it's a deep read…You had time

to collect your thoughts as well as the resident…That's probably the best way to do it"

(meeting transcript, 5/18/14). Others were impressed by how articulate Tom and Pedro

were in discussing teaching and noticed that they used precise language taken from the

framework to center their conversation.

This follow-up to the third incident shows that by developing our relational

competence and agency to engage in a "good conflict," we had unleashed the creative

energy available at the boundary (Akkerman & Bakker, 2011; Edwards, 2009, Wenger,

1998). In spite of differences in our practices, we had opened ourselves up to influence

from each other so that we could interpret and address a mutual problem and

"disempower the disempowering ideas and values" (Jordan, 2004, p. 21) inherent to the

"audit culture" that threated to limit the mentor practice, and perpetuate performativity.

Critical Incident Four: Resisting Complacency

I started this chapter by showing that the mentors initially struggled in their new

roles, in part because they recognized that mentoring necessitated a different pedagogical

approach than the one they used with their own students but also because they perceived

that allowing residents to practice teaching on their students violated their task perception

and moral obligation as teachers. I suggested that this concern was intensified for Denise

because she worked in one of the top ranked high schools in the state, and since Karen,

her resident, had not taken the initiative to learn the content of the lessons she was

teaching on her own, Denise believed her students' academic achievement and her own

job would be at risk if Karen took over lead teaching responsibilities. During our meeting

in March, Pedro and I encouraged Denise to resume co-planning and co-teaching with

Karen until they both felt more confident in Karen's ability to teach the content without

support.

The incident discussed below took place in April, but it is connected to several other discussions about residents' content knowledge we had during the meetings that preceded this one. What distinguishes this particular act of resistance from the others discussed so far is my role as the resister. Here, I take issue with the mentors' complacency about their residents' content knowledge and challenge them to reconsider what they perceived to be their residents' "deficits" as pertinent to their moral obligations to their students' and the public good.

The incident. During our mentor meeting at the end of April, it was clear that Denise had not changed her approach to working with Karen. She rehashed the inadequacies of Karen's content knowledge, and before long, other mentors, in particular Pat, began to complain about their residents' content knowledge too. I interrupted them several times and asked the same question repeatedly in an attempt to return their focus to finding solutions to the problem. I asked, "As mentors, what is your responsibility, number one, and once you decide what your responsibility is, what do you do…how do you mentor [residents]…" (meeting transcript, 4/21/14)? Although the mentors made several suggestions about specific actions they could take, a few remained recalcitrant, and I grew increasingly frustrated with them. After more than 15 minutes of complaints about the futility of their attempts to improve their residents' content knowledge and persistent objections to having to attend to residents' content knowledge in the first place, Brenda and Dee engaged in a testy exchange about whether residents whose content knowledge was weak should be encouraged to teach in middle schools rather than in high schools. Dee became indignant and argued that placing weak teachers in middle schools

would only exacerbate the problems that plagued NCPS high schools. Their argument

crystalized for me why I was becoming increasingly frustrated during the previous

conversation and I sharply interjected:

> What's really making me angry about this situation is that it's about the future of
>
> the children of New City. Why should they have a substandard education because
>
> people do not want to do their work? The work that they've been paid for, the
>
> work that they signed up for…Keep that in the front of your mind…if it means
>
> that they [residents] don't teach; if it means that they have to demonstrate that
>
> they can do something [before they teach]; if it means that they have to stay an
>
> extra hour or an hour and a half after school; or they have to send you on Saturday
>
> night their lesson plans even though they don't want to disrupt their
>
> weekend…Keep in the front of your mind that this has nothing to do with *you*. *It*
>
> *has to do with the future of the kids of New City, and the quality of the teaching*
>
> *that is going to go on here next year.* And to me, that's the *ethical* position that
>
> you're in. It's not just about preparing them to teach. It's about preparing them to
>
> teach *well* (meeting transcript, 4/21/14).

My emotional outburst was in part a reaction to the possibility that less well-prepared

residents might be placed in middle schools, but I was equally troubled by the limited

scope of what mentors considered their responsibility for developing their residents'

content knowledge. It seemed to me that while we had made progress in renaming

mentoring as greater than its instrumental utility, we had not given due consideration to

the public purpose and moral responsibilities of mentoring, and so I named it for the

group as a responsibility for preparing teachers who are capable of improving the life

chances of students in NCPS.

The room was suddenly silent, and I immediately sensed that I had crossed an

invisible line that separated comfortable from uncomfortable ways of talking about

mentoring. I feared that the others heard my emotional outburst as an insult to them

(meeting reflection, 4/23/14). Although Brenda was obviously shaken by what I said, she

was the first to speak, and she blamed herself for not being more conscious of the gaps in

residents' content knowledge when she observed them in their classrooms. Angela

interrupted Brenda saying, "This is not just your responsibility. This is everyone's

responsibility" (meeting transcript, 4/21/14). With that, Amy assured the group that if we

did not consider residents "ready to teach," she would not permit them to complete the

program. In light of her administrative responsibilities as the director of a federally

funded program for ensuring that residents completed the program, Amy's statement was

a powerful commitment of her institutional authority and professional reputation for

ensuring that residents who graduate were ready to teach. As such, I heard Amy's

statement as both a promise and a charge to our group—*we* would determine whether

residents were ready to teach in NCPS together. I hoped that the group also recognized

the profound professional responsibility we had been given and what that portended for

our work together. I explained,

> So the reason I'm pushing you guys…is so that we can come to some kind of
>
> consensus, or agreement at least, about what is our minimum expectation [of the
>
> residents] and as mentors…how do you get your residents to meet that

expectation.…The point is to look inside ourselves and ask how can we move

them along…and how can we support each other in fulfilling our purpose

(meeting transcript, 4/19/14).

By the end of the meeting, the group agreed to develop a clear plan with their

residents for building their content knowledge. The mentors agreed that they would

engage with their residents in conversations about their personal responsibility for

learning the content and set aside "sacred time" (Brenda, meeting transcript, 4/19/15)

each week for that expressed purpose. At a minimum, mentors would hold their residents

accountable for knowing the content of the lessons they were to teach, taking time to run

through lessons with them before class, checking for their understanding, and expecting

them to prepare lesson materials with limited support. If a resident failed to meet his or

her mentor's expectations for knowing lesson content or making adequate effort toward

preparing ambitious and engaging lessons, the mentor would seek support from Brenda,

Amy, and Dee with an understanding that they were equally committed to preparing

residents to enter NCPS classrooms as well-started beginners.

Two days after our April meeting, Brenda, Amy, and I received an email from

Denise informing us that she was resigning as Karen's mentor effective immediately. She

explained that she wanted to focus on her students and their academic success and

believed that her work with Karen had compromised her students' and her own wellbeing

(email correspondence, 4/25/14). I was racked with guilt for days, worried that my

outburst had caused Denise to "give-up on Karen," believing that I had intruded on the

smooth operation of the NCTUR by going too far in voicing my own resistance to

mentors' persistent complaints about their residents' content knowledge (journal reflection, 4/25/14). Although I tried to reach out to Denise via email, she did not reply. When the word spread to other members of the group, a few mentors informally shared that they believed Denise left mentoring because the group had promised to hold each other responsible for ways they were mentoring their residents (journal reflection, 4/29/14). By implication then, the mentors recognized that membership in the group entailed accountability to others for how they practiced mentoring in their classrooms.

The characteristics of our group relations. I assumed a different role in this incident than I had in the others. In previous meetings, I functioned as the facilitator (Episode 1), the validator (Episode 2), and the boundary broker (Episode 3). During this incident, I played the role of the resister, a role that surprised me when I analyzed the corpus of data for this study since for the most part, I felt deeply ambivalent about my role in the group and worked hard at not revealing too much about how the group was affecting me. When someone said something that resonated with me, I would count to 10 and hope that the urge to interject would pass in time for someone else to respond. (This was the reason it took me so long to come to John's defense in Episode 2 and why I deflected the group's attention away from Vivian's comment in Episode 1.) However, as our relationship took shape, I became less conscious of the frequency of my comments and more comfortable supporting the group by sharing my knowledge of mentoring and teaching. I had started to feel like a member of the group by the time of this meeting, whereas earlier, I felt as though I was positioned on the periphery in a place where I

could facilitate meetings and retain a level of detachment from the internal struggle I witnessed from a safe distance.

In consideration of why I did not restrain my emotional outburst during this final episode, I came to appreciate that I had enjoyed all of the benefits of other's self-disclosure and vulnerability during previous meetings and when I read their journal reflections, but I had not fully participated in the group by bringing my truth into our relationship. However, by the time we met at the end of April, I felt *less* vulnerable in the face of the group's "mutual vulnerability" (Jordan, 2010, p. 214). I suspected that we had the capacity to tackle entrenched complacency about mentors' responsibility for ensuring residents were prepared to teach, and I believed this might be our last chance to connect mentors' emergent understanding of their mentor task perspective to their public purpose as teacher educators committed to improving the life circumstances of NCPS students.

The follow-up incident. The insights and comments mentors' shared during our next mentor meeting in May helped me to reframe Denise's decision to leave the NCUTR as an act of counter-resistance, not against me personally, but against the group's evolving communal self-understanding that we were co-teacher educators engaged in a boundary practice that required attention to both a teaching task perspective and a mentor task perspective. The high-stakes environment of Science High School structured Denise's vulnerability in ways others did not experience in their schools, which made the development of their mentor task perspective less treacherous than it would have been for Denise. For example, Vivian shared that from her perspective, "You [have to] figure out what does that person [the resident] need, and you give it to them. You don't spoon feed,

them…ultimately it's their responsibility. But if that's where they need the help, you help

them get the help [they need]…you owe them that responsibility". Angela concurred,

adding, "When do we give up on our students? We find every resource. We talk to every

person.…You don't give up" (meeting transcript, 5/21/14). In both comments, there is

not a trace of concern that by focusing on their residents, Vivian and Angela would be

jeopardizing their students' and their own wellbeing. However, for Denise, this was a risk

she was not willing to take.

Pat positioned himself in contrast to Denise, explaining to the group that although

he felt "Kate's put me through a lot in a couple months" (meeting transcript, 5/21/14), in

light of our conversation during the April meeting, he had decided to redouble his efforts

with her and bring in support from other members of the group. On a daily basis, he

relied on support from Vivian, John, and Dee because they were teachers in his school,

but he also asked Brenda and Amy to observe Kate and discuss her progress with him and

Kate so that they could find a way forward together (meeting transcript, 6/2/14;

interview, 6/4/14). He credited a "team effort" for getting Kate successfully through the

program. However, in Denise's context, a "team effort" was not as easy to assemble,

since she was the only NCTUR mentor in her school.

In hindsight, I understood that the Denise's vulnerability was differently

structured, with layers of threat from macro-institutional levels that the other mentors did

not have to contend with because their schools were not held in the same regard that hers

was. She was not only responsible for her students' academic success but for the

reputation of Science High School in the district, state, and nation as a top ranked public

urban high school. Since her students took part in state- and national-level exams and competitions, applied to the most competitive colleges and universities in the country, and some were the children of the city's "well heeled" citizens, she believed there was too much "at stake" for her, her students, and the district when she "let go" of teaching.

What We Learned About Mentoring

When we met together for the last time in June, the mentors shared that during the preceding months, they had learned that mentoring could not be standardized or enacted in ways that precluded sensitivity and responsiveness to human differences, whether their own, their residents,' or their students.' Angela told the group that she learned that mentoring occurs in a "gray area" because "there [are] so many variables involved…who the mentor is, who the resident is, how do they mesh together as a pair…" and Vivian added, "Plus who are the kids sitting in front of them"? (meeting transcript, 6/2/14). The group parsed the implications of engaging more responsively to meet the needs of their residents and agreed that mentors had to be "flexible" and "open" and to think of mentoring as an "evolving" practice (Angela, meeting transcript, 6/2/14). They understood that they had only laid the groundwork for residents' career-long professional learning, and as such, they were actually teaching their residents how to learn teaching throughout their careers, not just how to teach during their residency year. Consistent with their insight, the mentors described feeling "more comfortable" in the knowledge that the residents would end the year with different skills and knowledge for teaching and also a better sense of how to improve their teaching practice. Pedro shared that the experience made him realize that, "you won't get to everything"[…] At first I thought 'I

want to make sure we cover everything! We can do this!' And then halfway through it was like, 'Nah. These are the things we're going to focus on, and next year you should be able to navigate through this, this, and this on your own'… he just has a foundation on which to build." Pat agreed adding, "We're not creating a finished product" (meeting transcript, 6/2/14).

Brenda called mentors' contribution to launching their residents' into teaching a form of "grace," in that they provided a safe place to practice and learn teaching. She remarked that even when the mentors observed teaching that was different than their own or by their standards inadequate, they embraced it as part of their residents' learning process. She imagined aloud what mentors' internal dialogue might have been: "'I know you want me to step in, [have] me speed this up, or [have] me tighten this up a little bit,' but instead you've given them the grace to try it…and then you step up to the plate and you open yourself up [so they can learn] every day" (meeting transcript, 6/2/14). The mentors returned the compliment to Brenda, Dee, and me, noting that, "We were all in this together" and "We couldn't have done it without everyone else".

By the time our study concluded, I had learned that development of our relational competencies and agency were essential to our ability to negotiate and name our shared responsibility to the residents, each other, the program, and to the future of New City's children and to function as a boundary CoP, engaged in a hybrid practice. To check whether others agreed, I asked them to share their impressions of how we worked together. Angela described our process the way I understood it—as a movement into relationship:

I think there was an evolution in how we were collaborating…the first meeting
that we all got together, it was like, "Am I doing this right"?…and then it was
more open, like "I'm having this problem" and you know…people don't like to
say [that] because they think it's a reflection on them. But I think [the group] was
a safe place to come and say, "I trust all of you as colleagues and professionals,
and I trust and value your opinion, and I'm having issues, and can you help me
with it" (meeting transcript, 6/2/14).

Pat added that he noticed that our meeting agendas became less and less important with
each meeting "because we could fill in many hours on just one question" and Pedro
continued, "We adapted well" to each other's needs" (meeting transcript, 6/2/14). Dee
commented that we all learned from and taught each other in a "circular motion" of
sharing, reflecting, and changing our practices, and Brenda affirmed that our work
together helped her to appreciate that the mentors were troubled by the same issues that
worried her and were equally committed to solving them.

Finally, I asked what it took to prepare teachers for employment in NCPS. Pedro
remarked: "Be genuine. Be transparent. Constantly reflect, constantly learn…[We] have
to tell residents 'That's the way things are in New City, but it doesn't mean that you
become that way. You stay who you are, and you do whatever you need to do…because
you have these kids' [future] in your hands'" (meeting transcript, 6/2/14).

Table 4.2

An Overview of Critical Incidents

Incident	Markers of resistance	Markers of relationship	Mentoring (re)named
Resisting task orientation	Withdrawal from conversation Emotionally charged language	Guarded and cordial interactions Misunderstanding Silencing and deflecting "Power over" dynamic	Guiding Showing Sharing Letting go
Resisting standardization	Emotional talk Anger Persistence Courage	At the start of the incident: Assertions of experiences and expectations Conflict Silencing and deflecting "Power over" dynamic Change to: "Participatory shift" Connected and authentic interactions Relational agency "Power with" dynamic	Problem posing Complex Flexible Responsive Negotiated
Resisting performativity	*Emotional talk* Questioning validity and efficacy Persistence	"Good conflict" Authenticity and courage Truth telling Effective listening and re-voicing Perspective taking/making Compromise and innovation "Power with" dynamic	Hybrid boundary practice Innovative Collaborative Reflective Mutually enlightening Educational Empowering
Resisting complacency	Emotional talk Questioning purpose and responsibility Persistence	"Good conflict" Mutual vulnerability Shared responsibility Mutual commitment Collective purpose Collegial "Power" with dynamic	Ethical Situated Relational

Discussion

In presenting these four critical incidents, I have shown that during our mentor meetings, we brought two practices—teaching and teacher education—into a contested space located at their boundary. As depicted in the previous incidents, our emotional talk signaled our emergent understanding that at least in the context of the NCTUR, mentoring is a complex practice that was limited by institutional traditions that valued preparing employment ready resident graduates and impelled mentors' performativity and complacency (G. Anderson & Cohen, 2015; Ransome, 2011). Reframed as acts of resistance against instrumentalism, emotional talk was prompted by and created the conditions for the development of our relational competencies and agency and moved us into connected relationships at the boundary that notoriously separates teaching and teacher education. Gathered there, we transformed the boundary from a contested to a relational space, making it possible to transcend instrumentalism and to rename mentoring as an ambitious practice that serves the public good. Table 4.2 above gives an overview of markers of resistance and relationship and how we renamed mentoring as a result of each critical incident examined in this chapter.

This research builds on the theory of social practice, which holds that mentoring can be transformed in and through relationships among people who are engaged in activities in the socially and politically structured world (Arnseth, 2008; Kemmis & Smith, 2008; Freire, 1970). Our meetings broke from traditional mentor training arrangements in which teacher educators "extend" (Freire, 1976) their principles and values to teachers by "depositing" handbooks and other tools for mentoring into their

practice, expecting that they would "receive" them and un-problematically comply with

the "limit situations" they create (Freire, 1970). Meeting together at the boundary

between teaching and teacher education practices presented us with an opportunity to

disrupt the institutional structures and relational norms that typically regulate social

interactions and the distribution of power between teachers and university-based teacher

educators (Edwards, 2007). Having access to each other's thinking during face-to-face

dialogues precipitated a "participatory shift" (Kindred, 1999) in ways we practiced and in

our relational dynamic (Jordan, 1991; Surrey et al., 1990). Hargreaves (2001) called the

phenomena of relational proximity "emotional geographies," and he described it as "the

spatial and experiential patterns of closeness and/or distance in human interactions and

relationships that help create, configure and color the feelings and emotions we

experience about ourselves, our world and each other" (p. 132). As depicted in the critical

and follow-up incidents above, our close physical proximity made it possible to engage in

conversations that were focused on "generative themes" (Freire, 1970) derived from

mentors' lived experiences of mentoring in compliance with a narrowly structured and

limited perspective of preparing teachers in schools which was encoded in what we said

and in the mentoring tools provided to the mentors. In dialogue, we came to a clearer

awareness of the "situationality" of mentoring and our collective agency to name it when

we connected at the boundary of our practices. In that space, we took "initiatives [to]

uncover humanizing possibilities… to disrupt or de-familiarize what is taken for granted

as "natural" and "normal" (Greene, 1988, p.13). Thus, our ability to actively seek ways to

interpret the complexity of mentoring, to negotiate and align our thinking about it, and to

address its challenges were dependent on our "situatedness" in a relational space which

fortified our tolerance for dissension and capacity to engage in "good conflicts" (Jordan,

2004).

Our relational space was actively constructed. Initially, expressions of negative

emotions about mentoring were repressed and deflected, but later, as individuals became

increasingly "empathetically attuned," "mutually vulnerable," and "courageous" in

connection with each other, we did not need to ignore negative emotions for the sake of

preserving cordial and inauthentic relations within the group (Jordan, 2004). The gradual

development of our relational competencies improved our capacity for "perspective

taking" and "perspective making" (Akkerman & Bakker, 2011), which in turn led to

reframing negative or "outlaw" emotions as legitimate claims to knowledge about and

resistance against ways mentoring structured professional moral dilemmas, disrupted

mentors' self-understanding, and condoned complacency (Jaggar, 1989; Kelchtermans,

2005; Zembylas, 2003). We came to recognize that while our ability to fully participate in

renaming mentoring together was conditioned by wider sets of relationships within and

between our separate school and university communities and the practice traditions of

mentoring that we had internalized, together we had the collective agency to overcome

those limitations by first illuminating and then redressing them (Edwards, 2011; Edwards

& Protheroe, 2004; Freire, 1970).

Together, we interrogated what we believed were immutable "givens": those

material and social conditions and historic practice traditions that were woven

unconsciously into our dispositions about mentors' place in teacher education. We

recognized that through our sayings and doings, we had underexploited mentors'

expertise by assigning them a checklist and a framework in an attempt to standardize

their practice. Under different relational conditions, mentors' might have complied,

performing their duties and complacently moving residents through the system. Instead,

our meetings at the boundary created opportunities for authentic engagement with each

other, which culminated in the knowledge that mentoring did not exist separately from

ways it was being practiced by members of the group (Britzman, 1991; Greene, 1988).

Thus, we came to appreciate that we were all responsible for ways mentoring was

practiced in the NCUTR and therefore morally culpable for how it influenced the life

chances of students in NCPS, and on a grander scale, the public good.

Chapter Five: Discussion and Implications

This chapter is presented in two parts. In the first part, I discuss the findings of this study and synthesize them to answer the two research questions that motivated and guided this study. In the second part, I suggest several implications of this study for teacher education practice and teacher education research.

Discussion

Findings

At the start of our collaborative inquiry project, members of the group held diverse ideas about and expectations for ways mentors would participate in preparing residents in the NCUTR. I categorized our ideas according to three traditions of mentoring practice (naïve, cooperative, and collaborative) and found that these constructions of mentoring were distinguished from each other according to the role mentors were expected to play, objectives they were expected to accomplish, and the power arrangements that structured their relationships with residents and other teacher educators. This finding approximates those of a recent empirical study of international "mentoring archetypes" (Kemmis et al., 2014) and reviews of research about mentoring, which identified several "categories of participation" (Clarke, Triggs, & Nielsen, 2013) and multiple "mentor roles" (Wang & Odell, 2002). In this study, however, it became clear that no one of our three inert constructions of mentoring was singularly adequate for addressing the real world problems posed by teaching residents in New City's urban classrooms in the spring of 2014.

Discrepancies between these three constructions of mentoring were initially transparent to the group in part because we tacitly endorsed our separate views of "good" mentoring and assumed that our own was everyone's "practical theory" (Eraut, 2000) of mentoring. I traced the genesis of our different constructions of mentoring to our individual mentored and mentoring experiences and subsequent personal reflections on those autobiographical episodes (Britzman, 1991, 2013). Once we came together as a group, our relational dynamic, which was akin to "constrained collegiality" (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 80), further limited our ability to engage in the kinds of authentic conversations that would have uncovered our taken for granted assumptions about mentoring and challenged unspoken norms for how mentors and faculty were expected to work together in teacher preparation. The persistence of our separate and competing expectations was especially problematic since within the first two months of the arrival of residents in their classrooms, mentors recognized the limitations of their naïve construction but felt jostled between the cooperative and collaborative approaches advocated by the program. In light of conditions created by the unequal distribution of power within our group and unspoken but clear boundaries for appropriate speech, mentors were left to work out their own "right way" to mentor privately, while publically, they stifled direct references to the vulnerability they felt when they mentored and "veiled" (Mazzei, 2007; Morison & Macleod, 2014) their frustrations in emotional talk about their mentoring experiences.

My analysis of mentors' emotional talk uncovered evidence that mentoring "structured vulnerability" (Kelchtermans, 1996, 2005) in two ways: It generated moral dilemmas for mentors, and shook their "self-understanding" (Hargreaves, 1994 Jaggar,

1989; Kelchtermans, 1996, 2005; Zembylas, 2003) by forcing them to judge and

reconcile two contradictory sets of moral and professional obligations. As *teachers*,

mentors were professionally and morally obligated for creating a responsive and

engaging classroom environment and for preparing their students to meet

uncompromising academic standards by teaching rigorous lessons that were in sync with

a punishing schedule of curriculum coverage. But as *mentors*, these teachers were

expected to open their classrooms and expose their students to strangers who were

neophytes at managing classroom routines and student behavior and insufficiently

prepared to teach. In deciding whether their mentoring or teaching responsibilities were

most imperative, mentors initially viewed mentoring through the lens of their "teaching

task perspective" (Kelchtermans, 1996) and, as a result, unknowingly reinforced

traditional limits on their role in teacher education.

Concurrently, because the non-mentors in the group did not have direct

experiences of having to navigate conflicting responsibilities, we were unable to hear

mentors' emotional talk as evidence that our "one-size fits all" plan for learning teaching

fundamentally ignored the complexity of mentoring by reducing it to a set of tasks for the

sake of efficiency, consistency, and quality control. Thus we exacerbated mentors' sense

that they were vulnerable by rendering them powerless to act in the best interest of their

residents and students.

The most salient finding of this study suggests that our mentor meetings became

opportunities for "boundary encounters" that shifted the relational dynamic of the group

(Akkerman & Bakker, 2011; Bullough, Draper, Smith, & Birrell, 2004). Through

collaborative inquiry at the boundary between teaching and teacher education, we entered

into a dialogic and exploratory process, which developed our "relational agency" and

"competencies" and further fortified our capacity for posing, interpreting, and addressing

problems related to preparing teachers in schools (Edwards, 2010; Hartling, 2010). Our

relationship evolved over the course of six months because we "actively and relationally"

(Edwards & Fowler, 2007, p. 114) accessed each other's thinking during face-to-face

dialogues, became receptive to other's experiences, and resisted impulses to engage in

irrational and disempowering teacher education and mentoring practices (Jordan, 1991;

Surrey et al., 1990). The result was a "participatory shift" (Kindred, 1999) in our

meetings, characterized by an acute awareness of our connection and collective power to

author mentoring practices that were consistent with mentors' experiences and captured

the affordances of the NCUTR's "situatedness."

  Of particular interest, this research suggests that because mentors "embodied the

boundary" between teaching and teacher education, their emotional talk about mentoring

experiences concretized an underrepresented "standpoint" (Collins, 1990) about the

implications of practice-based teacher preparation that had not been taken into

consideration during our planning for the residency that semester. Thus, emotional talk

acted as a mechanism that "empathetically attuned" us to the effects of teacher

preparation on mentors and provoked us to check our assumption that mentors would

manage the responsibilities concomitant to teaching and mentoring simultaneously

without a hitch. Once we heard emotional talk as legitimate acts of resistance against the

program's instrumental approach to mentoring, it was a short step to recognizing that

teacher preparation was a shared problem that required development of a "hybridized"

course of action which took into consideration everyone's voice, professional judgment,

and expertise (Akkerman & Bakker, 2011; Edwards, 2010).

Ultimately, members of the group came to appreciate that while our ability to

fully participate in renaming mentoring was conditioned by wider sets of relationships

within and between our separate school and university institutions, together we had the

"collective agency" to overcome those limitations by "listening the other into voice" and

moving into a mutual relationship in an "environment of profound respect and openness

to uncertainty" (Jordan, 2010, p. 211).

Research Questions

In this section of the chapter, I answer the two questions I posed at the start of this

dissertation. Although I now understand that Question 2 is an elaboration of Question 1, I

consider each of them separately below.

> *1. How did a group of mentors and clinical faculty working in a school-based*
>
> *teacher preparation program recognize, negotiate, and name their mentoring*
>
> *practice when they were invited into a community of inquiry?*

In the previous chapter I showed that our group collaboratively authored a mentor

practice that was grounded in the lived experiences of mentoring. While on its face, this

appears to be a very simple answer to Question 1, in actuality, it attests to an active

dialogic response to the "limit-situations" (Freire, 1970) that initially impeded us from

recognizing ways members of the group were prevented from naming and practicing

mentoring authentically. To understand theoretically why we first needed to *recognize*

mentoring before we could name it, I turn to Freire's (1970) insight that each epoch is "characterized by a complex of ideas, concepts, hopes, doubts, values, and challenges in dialectical interaction with their opposites" (p. 82), which creates dynamic "generative themes" that are the engine of human liberation and world transformation. However, generative themes can become "concealed by limit-situations and thus are not clearly perceived" (p. 83), thereby preventing people from acting authentically and in the interest of humanity. The limit situations we confronted were both internal and external to the workings of the group. Internally, our individual preconceptions about mentoring and the hierarchical power relations typical of school and university collaborations challenged our ability to envision mentoring as a living practice that we could name. Externally, institutional pressures to meet the goals detailed by the federal grant that funded the NCUTR created a second limit situation that was more opaque and invasive.

In the case of our group's collaborative inquiry, the "limit situations" that obscured opportunities for authentically engaging with each other for the purpose of improving mentoring were uncovered by actively "listening" to mentors' emotional talk about their mentoring experiences. By speaking/hearing the problems of mentoring, the group recognized that mentoring in an UTR thrust mentors into a state of vulnerability. Thus, the NCUTR necessitated a new form of teacher–teacher educator relationship that established a safe space for collaboration based on mutual respect, trust, and commitment to a mutual endeavor so that uncertainty was bearable and change was possible. In this study, I located that relational space at the boundary of teaching and teacher education and theorized that because it was a place of *mutual* vulnerability, we were open to

negotiating the terms of our engagement and thereby we transformed the historic,

political, and social boundary that separated us according to our roles and the hierarchical

power arrangements between our respective institutions—what Kemmis and Grootenboer

(2008) referred to as "practice architectures".

Acts of resistance against irrational mentor practices, by which I mean practices

that contradicted mentors' understanding of their lived experiences, motivated our

collaborative effort to uncover the limit situations that impeded change in how residents

learned teaching in the NCUTR (Sannino, 2010). We were able to recapture the

dynamism of mentoring and expose its generative themes because mentors' emotional

talk about their lived experiences made them concrete for all of us. Rather than repressing

their emotional talk, we tapped into it and found it productive for raising questions about

compelling mentors to perform mentoring in prescribed and standardized ways, such as

using a summative teacher observation protocol to measure residents' learning, and ways

we had become complacent in our practice. In dialogue, we negotiated ways mentoring

could be practiced "authentically," jointly addressed problems related to preparing

residents in schools, and held each other accountable for agreed upon standards of

practice.

The federal government, in its capacity as the funding source for the NCUTR

program through the *Teacher Quality Partnership Grant Program*, structured a

particularly insidious limit situation that seemed to permeate our work, although I did not

recognize it before our April meeting. This study suggests the influence on mentoring of

the government's goals, which aimed "to increase student achievement by improving the

quality of new prospective teachers by enhancing the preparation of prospective

teachers…[and] holding teacher preparation programs at institutions of higher education

(IHEs) accountable for preparing highly qualified teachers"

(http://www2.ed.gov/programs/tqpartnership/index.html). While these goals appear

benign on the surface, they extended the reach of the government's reform "policy

technologies" (Ball, 2003, p. 215) into our work and established priorities for the

NCUTR that threatened to undermine mentors', faculty's, and administrators'

professional judgment about the purpose and nature of mentoring and the standards by

which we would consider residents ready to teach. As shown in Critical Incidents 2 and

4, the group, with Amy's support, worked around and through the "ontologically

insecurity" (Ball, 2003, p. 220) created by having to be responsive to external measures

of quality by first illuminating and then redressing them together (A. Edwards, 2011; A.

Edwards & Protheroe, 2004; Freire, 1970).

> *2. How did I negotiate my multiple roles as participant and co-inquirer, PAR*
>
> *facilitator and dissertation researcher, teacher educator and mentor while*
>
> *engaging in a participatory action research study with school-based mentors and*
>
> *faculty?*

Looking back on how this dissertation unfolded, I more clearly recognize the part

I played in the group's inquiry and the intensity of my emotional and intellectual turmoil

as I moved between different positions in this research. Here, I apply Kemmis's (2012)

three researcher "positions" in studies on/within practice. Practitioners who are studying

within their own practices occupy a "first person" position and provide a subjective and

lived perspective of practice, while more traditional "third person" or "objective" research is conducted *on* practice as an object and practitioners as "others" (Kemmis, 2012). The "second person" position is not as definitive as the other two in that it represents an "intersubjective perspective" (p. 896) of practice in which one studies practice from both inside and outside their own and other's lived experiences of practice. In this study, I developed a more nuanced understanding of my "second person" position as being one who is inclined to "listen others into voice" and in the process develop her voice.

Initially, I held onto my separate "third person" position as an "outsider in collaboration with insiders" (Herr & Anderson, 2005, p. 38) and believed that our meetings were events that I could and should hold apart from my personal "self-understanding" of my identity as multiple—student/teacher/mentor/researcher. I gradually moved into a "second person" position partly as a response to the group's evolving relationship and also out of an impulse to authentically connect with mentors' emotional talk about their experiences and to share my own history as a teacher and mentor with them. During those moments of inter-subjectivity, I talked about mentoring as *our* practice and I wrote about ways I was enacting mentorship within the group in journal reflections I shared with the group. However, privately, I felt self-conscious about my influence on the group's sense making and pulled by the normative discourse about objectivity in research.

Once data collection was complete, I found it extremely difficult to switch from being a participant in the group/inquiry to becoming once again a dissertation

researcher—especially because I was *in* the data. I believed I was too close to the data to

make sense of them, and therefore I tried to re-assume an outsider's perspective and

"technical-rational" approach to data analysis, believing that detachment would allow me

to see what I might have taken for granted in my second person position (Herr &

Anderson, 1998; Kemmis, 2012). For months, I labored *against* the data, trying to see it

differently than I had experienced it and faced what Ball (2003) referred to as "values

schizophrenia," a personal and psychological "cost" of performativity. In that dynamic

space of uncertainty, vulnerability, and conscious subjectivity, I began to understand that

the kind of research I was engaged in is not a received practice—it is lived and always

becoming with/in the researcher and with/beyond the social, political and material

traditions that structure it as a social practice. Kemmis (2012) recommended that this type

of *hybrid* second person or practitioner-academic research engenders a more authentic

perspective of practice because it "provides access to the intentions and lived experiences

of the participant" (p. 897). He continued:

> On this view, researching praxis means in the light of individual and collective
>
> self-reflection, to re-orient oneself in the practice of the practice, to re-orient one's
>
> understandings of the practice, and to re-orient the conditions under which one
>
> practices (Kemmis, 2012, p. 896).

Thus, the practice of second person research required me to rework my past experiences

as a school-based mentor and teacher into my new experiences as a university-based

teacher educator and novice researcher. In the process, I was becoming a research

practitioner and transforming the practice of research simultaneously, and like the others

in the group who moved across the boundary between their teaching and teacher education practices, I toggled back and forth within my hybrid second person position. Through my work on this dissertation, I have come to appreciate that because I *am* teacher, mentor, teacher educator, and researcher (along with the several other identities I have become during my life), I embody the boundary between teaching and teacher education, practice and theory, inside and outside research, and like the participants in this study, I lived/learned/became my multiple and conflicting identities and practices publicly during our mentor meetings and in writing this dissertation.

Implications

As I detailed in Chapter 2, university-based teacher education programs have historically distanced themselves from schools and not rewarded teacher educators financially or in terms of their professional status within the academy for their work on "relationship maintenance" with their school-based counterparts (Ellis et al., 2014, p. 39; Zeichner & Payne, 2013). Consequently, teacher education has been "undemocratic" in the ways decisions have been made about the professional education of teachers and has undervalued teachers' knowledge and expertise for teacher preparation (Zeichner, 2010a, 2015; Zeichner & Payne, 2013). Therefore, a change in how university-based faculty and mentors work together would likely require both a cultural shift and costly structural changes (Zeichner, 2010a; Zeichner & Payne, 2013), which begs the question: How can we reconnect teaching and teacher education in ways that bring about real reform in teacher preparation without undermining the unique contributions of university-based teacher educators to social improvement?

In light of these turbulent neoliberal times, the findings of this study suggest that building authentically connected and mutual relationships between teacher educators and mentors involved in a UTR showed promise for transforming teacher education; re-establishing higher education's mission in teacher preparation; and protecting the teaching profession from being completely high-jacked by "new professionalism" by providing the next generation of teachers with access to thoughtful, agentic, and committed professional educators. However, all of this was not accomplished by convening meetings for the sake of physical proximity alone. The quality of our collaboration and our success in transforming teacher education took intellectual and emotional investment and mutual commitment to developing respectful professional relationships. As such, we were able to reveal our vulnerabilities and respond to others' and open our minds to multiple and divergent ideas about how to prepare residents for teaching in NPS.

In the following sections, I propose several implications of this research for teacher education practice and future research in hopes that they will prompt further experimentation and examination of this topic.

Implications for Teacher Education Practice

Below, I highlight the implications of this study for teacher education practice and suggest that teacher preparation can be transformed without diminishing the role of universities by bringing mentors and teacher educators together at the boundary that separates teaching and teacher education in order to: (a) re-connect their common interest in teacher education and re-commit to their common public purpose, (b) shift the

epistemology of teacher education, and (c) develop persistence in mentoring. I conclude

my discussion of the implications of this study for teacher education practice by

describing ways I have applied the findings of this study to my current practice as a

teacher educator.

Re-connecting and re-committing together. In this study, I have shown that the

development of connected relationships among teachers and teacher educators at the

boundary that separates their practices creates conditions that support improvements in

teacher preparation. While other studies have shown teachers and teacher educators can

learn from each other when they are engaged in joint activities, this study suggests that

activities themselves are not the drivers of change. Rather, the purposeful development of

connected relationships across practices creates an environment conducive to change by

disrupting the power hierarchy that typically inhibits authentic collaboration between

teachers and teacher educators.

In Chapter 4, I detailed ways the benefits of engagement in joint activity were

amplified and extended as mentors and teacher educators moved into connected

relationships. The last critical incident illustrated the cumulative power of relationship

development in that the group, and the program administrator, Amy, did not retreat from

our ethical responsibility for ensuring that residents were prepared well enough to entrust

them with the future life chances of New City's children despite pressure from the federal

government, the university, and the district to demonstrate that the NCUTR was

instrumental in producing employment-ready teachers for NCPS. Our collective decision

to require more of the residents than what performativity and new professionalism

required was made possible because we reminded each other of the purposes and

promises of public education and developed ways to support each other in fulfilling the

public purpose of teacher preparation.

      Shifting teacher education epistemology. Another implication of this study

involves the importance of providing mentors and teacher educators with opportunities to

engage in collaborative inquiry into their teacher preparation practices because inquiry

moves everyone into an "interinstitutional boundary zone" (Zeichner & Payne, 2013, p.

15) where professional status is flattened and "mutual vulnerability" (Jordan, 2004) is

possible. Thus, collaborative inquiry effectively "shift[s] the epistemology of teacher

education" (Zeichner, 2010b, p. 95) by serving as a mechanism for tapping into the rich

and diverse funds of knowledge available for teacher education and transcending the

dualism of "formal" and "practical" knowledge. By orienting our meetings around

"problem posing" and reframing the task of teacher educators as "*communication, not*

extension" (Freire, 1976, p. 95), we were able to connect our individual questions and

experiences to others', regardless of their institutional affiliation, and consider and

integrate different perspectives and knowledges into our new understanding. Thus, we

co-created "interpretive frameworks" and "local knowledge" (Cochran-Smith & Lytle,

1999) that helped us make sense of our immediate experiences and our teacher education

practices more broadly and availed ourselves of the group's "horizontal expertise"

(Anagnostopoulos et al., 2007).

      Thus, emotional talk*,* which would have been stifled or ignored in a traditional

mentor training program, became a critical source of knowledge about the problems and

vulnerabilities created for mentors by moving teacher education into mentors'

classrooms. Reconceived as expressions of our lived experiences and assertions of our

freedom to feel/think differently about mentoring, emotional talk became a lens that

enabled us to see that mentoring was instrumentalized and standardized without regard

for how it effected teaching and mentors' "self-understanding" (Ball & Olmedo, 2013;

Kelchtermans, 2005). Our willingness to listen emotional talk into fuller voice so that it

became a valuable source of knowledge led to the development of smarter approaches to

teacher preparation.

Building persistence in mentoring. Further implications of this study concern

teacher shortages, the unprecedented rate of teacher turnover in high poverty urban

schools (Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003; Ingersoll, 2001, 2003), and warnings by

critics of university-based teacher education that it is unsustainable for meeting the rising

demand for new teachers (Walsh & Jacobs, 2007). In particular, claims that since only

4% of practicing teachers are "qualified" and "willing" to mentor student teachers, the

future of universities' centerpiece course, student teaching, is in jeopardy of collapse

(Greenberg, Pomerance, & Walsh, 2011, p. 17). However, this study suggests that in

sustaining connections with other members of the group, mentors were able to find ways

to persist in mentoring.

Findings from this dissertation study suggest that mentor–teacher educator

relationship development and maintenance has potential for cultivating *collective* efficacy

in mentors, which can ameliorate symptoms of burnout and support resilience in

mentoring by creating opportunities to learn from other's experiences, to air our concerns

about mentoring and express how it impacted us professionally and personally, and to seek support and validation from others as we worked through challenges (Bandura, 1997; Fives, Hamman, & Olivarez, 2007). As shown in this study, five of the six mentors developed a sense that their efforts in mentoring were "worth it," and at the end of the semester, they left feeling satisfied that they had launched well-started beginners into teaching.

A particularly significant implication of this study for mentoring within an audit culture is that our relational competencies enabled the creation of a communicative space where we could interrogate, interpret, and comprehend ways teaching and teacher education were differently oriented and competed for mentors' professional fidelity. While research has shown that accountability for both practices can cause mentors to neglect one (typically mentoring) for the sake of the other, the development of our group's collective trust and courage encouraged individuals to seek and provide support for making difficult decisions and/or finding ways to innovate their teaching and mentoring practices so that their different obligations could be met.

The single exception to this finding was Denise, the mentor who left the program in late April because she believed her students' "well-being was threatened" by her resident's poor content knowledge. I suggested that several factors may have contributed to Denise's decision to "disconnect" from the group, the most salient being the pressure she felt to raise her students' scores on standardized tests. While many of us were able to develop *"the ability to connect, reconnect, and resist disconnection in response to hardship, adversities, trauma, and alienating social/cultural practices"* (emphasis in the

original, Hartling, 2010, p. 54), the pressure found in Denise's school environment to comply with narrowly defined parameters for what counts as effective teaching and student achievement posed for her an insurmountable challenge to her ability to mentor her resident.

The implications of Denise's example are both chilling and compelling, especially for urban teacher education programs like UTRs, where teacher accountability measures have given rise to school cultures in which "tight reforms are tightly monitored" (Anderson & Stillman, 2013 p. 112). Although federal regulations have eased recently, states like the one where this study was conducted have amped-up the pressure on teachers by requiring them to provide proof of their "value added" to student achievement by tracking "Student Growth Outcomes" (Baker, 2012). Districts use the data teachers have collected about their students' growth to make employment decisions about them. As such, surveillance by the state and school administrations is likely to dissuade teachers, especially in urban schools, from serving as mentors because accountability adds to the vulnerability inherently structured by mentoring.

Putting these implications into practice. In my current position as the field-based faculty member in a different teaching residency program, I have adapted and applied what I learned from this study about working collaboratively with mentors at the boundary of teaching and teacher education. As such, I reserve two hours of our monthly mentor meetings for open discussion about mentoring experiences. During that time, I pay special attention to mentors' voices as well as their silences and actively seek to understand their perspectives about preparing residents in their classrooms. In return for

their honesty and trust, I share my own experiences and ideas about the residency

program, keep them apprised of residents' progress in their coursework, and visit their

classrooms several times a semester to co-observe and discuss teaching and mentoring

with them and their residents. As a result of our conversations, several changes have been

made to the design of the program. For example, the faculty agreed to change the scope

and sequence of residents' coursework in response to feedback I received from the

mentors regarding a misalignment between what residents were learning in their

coursework and what they needed to know to make sense of their experiences in

classrooms.

Together, the mentors and I have innovated ways to develop mentoring practices.

For example, we now participate in *mentoring rounds*, an adaptation of "instructional

rounds" (City, Elmore, Fiarman, & Teitel, 2009), in which mentors co-observe a resident

teaching, gather and analyze evidence of teaching and learning and collaborate in

preparing feedback, and, finally, observe and provide feedback about the host mentor's

post-observation conference with their resident. In addition, at the start of this residency

year, we used video recordings of teaching to establish common expectations for how

residents would demonstrate to observers that they are making progress in learning

teaching and collaborated with faculty in drawing up a continuum of benchmarks for

evaluating residents' growth in developing teaching skills, practical and formal teaching

knowledge, and critical and responsive teaching dispositions.

My current work with mentors is a testament to this new UTR program's

commitment of its limited resources to legitimizing mentoring practice in the professional

education of teachers and the value it places on sustaining authentic partnerships through

"relationship work" (Ellis et al., 2014). This level of commitment is especially

challenging and equally critical now as the bureaucracy of reform asserts more and more

pressure on teacher education programs through performance management and auditing

schemes.

However, I anticipate that university teacher education programs will need to go

beyond committing capital and human resources to developing and maintaining

relationships with public PK–12 schools and teachers if they hope to stave off the

encroachment of "the policy technologies of market, management and performativity"

(Ball, 2003) into the ethos of teacher education. I stake this claim on evidence from this

study which shows that it took me and the other university-connected members of the

group (all of whom are career Pk–12 teachers) nearly four months to fully include

mentors in making decisions about whether residents were ready to teach in New City

schools. Our reluctance suggests that pressure from forces that were external to the

group's relational dynamic impeded our trust in the "courage in connection" (Jordan,

2010) we had cultivated with the mentors.

While it is beyond the scope of this dissertation to fully examine what those

forces may have been, evidence from this study points to the insidious influence of

"academic capitalism," which is defined by Slaughter and Leslie as "'the pursuit of

market and market-like activities'" through inter-institutional competition for capital

from grants and student fees, and "'the blurring of boundaries among markets, states and

higher education'"(quoted in Ellis et al., 2014, p. 34). As I suggested earlier in this

chapter, the explicit goals of the Teacher Quality Partnership Grant Program influenced

our initial orientation to mentoring and with good reason, since the NCUTR

administration would have to report data to confirm the program was meeting its goals.

Absent the reporting requirements, we, the university-affiliated members of the group,

may have been more readily inclusive of mentors' judgments about the way the program

structured mentoring and their residents' readiness to teach. However, the need to

innovate teacher education requires a revenue stream and so the drum beat of

neoliberalism continues and bold educators will have to muster their collective courage to

find space for truly authentic relationships.

Implications for Future Research

Below, I discuss topics for future research and make suggestions for methods and

research methodologies.

Emotional talk. This dissertation research recommends further study of mentors'

experiences of mentoring. I find this an especially compelling area for further research

because although fieldwork was the most studied topic in teacher education research from

2000–2012, dissonance between universities and schools was the most studied problem,

and social constructivist theories of learning to teach grounded nearly all of these studies

(Cochran-Smith et. al., in press), I have found limited evidence that researchers

considered mentors' experiences of working with pre-service teachers in their

classrooms.

In this dissertation, I have discussed relationship and resistance as "boundary

mechanisms" that ameliorated unequal power relations between mentors and teacher

educators by digging into mentors' emotional talk. Discourse analysis of what mentors

say about their experiences will likely provide important but previously overlooked

insight into their experiences and how to support them in their work with residents.

Likewise, this approach may help us to understand why mentors "leave" or "stay" in

mentoring; the influence on mentoring of neoliberal policies that require teachers to

"exteriorize" their knowledge, values, and professional judgment (Ball, 2003; and the

impact of accountability systems on teachers' willingness to mentor.

Employment versus profession readiness. Both mentors and teacher educators

in this study raised questions regarding residents' "readiness" for teaching independently,

an issue that has perplexed the field of teacher education for decades. In the literature

review portion of this dissertation, I discussed several works that addressed the topic of

readiness, but one by Andrews (1950) specifically identified the problems associated with

the scarcity of data about "what constitutes student teaching success" (p. 266) and how to

measure it. Cochran-Smith (2001) referred to this as "the outcomes question." My

dissertation suggests that we have more work to do in understanding readiness, which

will push us to further consider "readiness for what?"

In terms of UTRs, which are specifically intended to prepare residents for

teaching in their residency schools or districts, the answer depends on whom you ask.

According to the legislation authorizing the Teaching Quality Partnership Grant Program,

graduates of UTRs should be "highly qualified teachers" (Higher Education Opportunity

Act of 2008). The National Education Association's (2014) official position is that

residents should be "profession ready," which suggests something very different than the

neoliberal agenda's goal of preparing "employment ready" novices (Zeichner, 2014). As

I have shown in the preceding chapter, Amy, the UTR administrator asserted the need to

get residents "ready to teach" (meeting transcripts, 2/24/14) by practicing teaching, still

another take on readiness that is in line with AACTE's (2010) recommendation that

residents should complete at least "450 sequential hours of closely monitored and

supervised clinical experience" (p. 11).

　　　　As Andrews (1950) warned, the readiness issue raises an important question about

how to measure it. In this dissertation, I have only scratched the surface of this issue by

suggesting that in the case of the NCUTR, what the faculty and administrator had in place

before the start of the semester did not take into consideration unique school factors and

mentors' opinions of the plan. Consequently, the mentors took issue with using the

district's teacher evaluation protocols to measure their residents' readiness, not because

the tool itself was invalid but because their experiences of how it was implemented by

some administrators in the district rendered it, in their opinion, ineffective for improving

teaching. Consequently, the group found ways to adapt the protocol for teacher

preparation, but the question of how we decided if residents were "ready to teach"

lingered until finally mentors acknowledged that they had "not created a finished

product" (Pat, meeting transcript, 6/2/14) but had laid a solid "foundation on which to

build" (Pedro, meeting transcript, 6/2/14) future learning.

　　　　The problem of readiness I am raising here has implications for how we prepare

residents and how we might measure their progress in achieving readiness, implications

that are beyond the focus of this dissertation, but ones that require careful consideration

in the design of UTRs, input from program administrators, faculty, and mentors, and further research.

Research as a situated social practice. This study further recommends development of greater awareness of the influence of researchers in shaping what we understand about mentoring, which entails recognition that researchers are not "detached spectators" of mentoring practices but responsible for co-authoring the "practice traditions" that have been and will continue to be passed down to mentors and teacher educators through research (Kemmis, 2012). My analysis of the literature on mentoring, my personal reflections about ways I attempted to manage my influence on the group, and my taken-for-granted assumptions about mentoring suggests that researchers are complicit in naming mentoring.

Cochran-Smith and Villegas (2015) provided a theoretical/analytical framework for considering researchers' influence on what we know about teacher preparation, asserting that research is a "historically situated social practice" (p. 8). Within this framework, we are challenged to broaden ways we read research by shifting our attention from consideration of researchers' "paradigms" to uncover ways their research "practice" is "historically situated" within a context of larger economic, social, political, and epistemological trends and influenced by their own "interests, commitments, and social experiences…and not simply their epistemological or methodological perspectives" (p. 11).

In line with Cochran-Smith and Villegas' (2015) framework, elements of my dissertation recommend greater transparency and reflexivity by researchers who conduct

empirical research about, in, and for mentors and other PK–12 teachers who work with

pre-service teachers. An analysis of the extant literature on mentoring using the situated

social practice framework will render the influence of researchers' assumptions about

teacher learning, their ideas about the purpose of mentoring in teacher preparation, and

the role of mentors in advancing that purpose more transparent. In addition, this

framework will uncovered the influence of researchers' epistemological frames on their

studies and their consequent recommendations for improving teacher learning during the

practicum. This kind of review of research on mentoring is especially imperative for

correcting the misconceptions about mentoring chronicled in Chapter 2 of this

dissertation and may help to address the deficit view of teachers' ability to prepare their

future colleagues I and others have noted.

      The affordance of PAR. According to Anderson and Herr (1999), action

research (in its various forms) presents a direct challenge to the norms of technical

rationality that prevail in paradigms of research that have historically curried greater

legitimacy among scholars. In consideration of the affordances of PAR for studying

practice, this study suggests that I was able to "enter into educational praxis" with other

members of the group as a fellow inquirer, observer, participant, and practitioner; a

position that provided me access to "hidden transcripts"—about mentoring that is

typically veiled in unequal power relationships (Anderson & Herr, 1999); "relational

knowledge"—knowledge developed by sharing experiences and moving into relationship

in and across practices; and "reflective knowledge"—knowledge that was cognitive,

moral, and embedded in actions (Park, 2001). Having access to and influence on multiple

ways of understanding mentoring enabled me to tap into and represent an "inter-subjective perspective" of mentoring in this dissertation while being up-front with my readers that what I have written was mediated by my own "historically situated social practice" of teacher education research.

This study provides evidence that PAR was especially effective for developing *local* knowledge to address problems found in the immediate context of the NCUTR and generative of *public* knowledge that is transferable beyond the local setting and essential for building theory. Initially, I expected to apply situated learning theory and the communities of practice concept a priori to my data for the purpose of identifying how, meaning *in what respect*, we recognized, negotiated and named mentoring. As such the focus of the findings would have been an account of end products, and while that may have satisfied other research methodologies, such findings would have failed to meet the validity criteria for action research (Herr & Anderson, 2005). However, in this study, I was compelled to think with multiple theories (Mazzei & Jackson, 2012) as tools for understanding *by what means* we "named" mentoring in an emancipatory sense (Freire, 1970) by confirming and disconfirming taken-for-granted assumptions, eliciting tacit knowledge, revealing complexities, uncovering power hierarchies, and exposing ineffective practices. Thus, the combination of engagement in collaborative inquiry with members of the group and my separate systematic analysis of evidence of our collaboration generated both locally useful and publicly transferable knowledge about the importance of moving into relationship at the boundary of teaching and teacher education practices which can inform ways teacher educators can expand what counts as knowledge

for learning to teach and change the power structure of teacher education in practice-

based teacher education.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Mentor Meeting Check-In

Directions: Jot down your thoughts about mentoring how things are going for you and your resident.

I wonder if…

I am excited about…

I am concerned about…

I need help with…

Mentor Meeting Feedback

What are the most important points that you have taken away from today's meeting?

How was today's meeting helpful to you as a mentor? How will it be helpful to your resident?

What topics/areas would you like to be covered and/or have further information about during mentor meetings?

Are there topics/areas you would like to take the lead on during upcoming meetings?

Appendix B

Critical Incident One

Vivian: Which is the hardest thing to really, you can't really teach it, just bring to their attention, is what the kids are going through, the social justice part of it, is that you can't, it's not something you can teach, you say, you need to do this, it's just something they need to be aware of. I mean, some of them got it, but some of them have not been in this situation, like for me it was a shocking eye-opener the first time I was hit with it. Just, grab the heart and squeeze hard. That's something that was hard, and you can't put it in the checklist, just, how do you approach it, how do you bring that subject up, how do you approach it, how is it brought to someone's attention? You can walk through a room and see nothing, or you can walk through a room and see someone's torn pants, and they have the same shirt on three days, and…You can help point it out, but it's really hard to teach. How do you fit that in there.

Angela: So our school now has advisories for some of that conversation. The advisory's pretty open to six to eight kids and just one-on-one conversations.

Linda: I think, though, when it comes to mentoring a new teacher, developing that sensitivity, or that awareness, and being responsive to situations, recognizing that that's, for lack of a better word, a skill, that might be a little bit more difficult, and hard to see on a checklist. So it's something to keep in mind. Ok, so just shifting gears! Guess what we're going to do with this list! We're going to come up with your mentor checklist!

Appendix C

Critical Incident Two

Pat: I wrote both mine about giving up control. In the beginning, it was a lot about my experience with Dee, and she made it seem very easy to give up control, and I'm seeing I have a very different perspective on it than I had before. I thought it was, make them feel comfortable, do certain things, and just give up control. But it has not been that easy at all. Some of it, I don't know if it's my doing as far as I'm not willing to give up control…

Pedro: I find myself struggling, constantly. I wanted to let go, and I wanted Tom to just go ahead with it. And now as I reflected on our lessons, I realized that I was chiming in unconsciously. He would say something, and then I would come in with clarification, so I would just chime in. Or he would say something and I would need to add something, so I would just jump in. Or sometimes he said it well, and I still just jumped in. [*laughter*] And so I reflected on that, and talking to him, for whatever reason, he didn't mention it, but I need to consciously make an effort to be quiet and not say anything, and then maybe tell him later. Or some of the things I was chiming in on were not really that important, and the lesson could have gone on well without me jumping in. So I didn't think I was going to have an issue, I thought I would want him to take over, and now reflecting back, I'm like, why am I doing this? Because I'm so used to being in the role.

Amy: So you know, I'm not with you and I'm not with the resident on a consistent basis, but I do check ins.…And I told them, I'm checking in. I'm checking in with you, to see how things are going from your end. I'm checking in with the mentors. Here's what I'm seeing.…I understand there were snow days, parent conferences, days off the calendar, but you've had six or seven days now in your new class. You transition. Get teaching. I said it very bluntly and very sternly. And I know all of you are going to go home being so glad we spent time together today…because speaking of release control and turnover teaching, I told all the residents on Monday that I was going to be telling you today that I want them, by two weeks after Spring Break, in mid April, the two weeks after, I want them doing 100% of the teaching.

Brenda: You only want them to do 100% for two weeks?

Amy: No, no! It will continue…

Brenda: Ok, that's what I thought!

Amy: But I told them…you know what it is, folks? If these guys aren't running a class at the end of nine months of being in a student teaching position, we're in trouble…

John: I want some clarification on that. Because, do you mean, all classes, or the ones that they have already taken over up until that point…?

Amy: For me, they should be doing all your math classes.

John: I have five classes!

Amy: Well, when he gets hired in September, and he gets a schedule like yours…he needs to handle it…
(Topic changes here to assignment of honors and AP classes.)

Amy: So you have your answer to your question?

John: I have a different question to follow up, but yes.

Brenda: …that 8th grade class…

John: He's already transitioned and will probably have to go back. Which is probably not a big deal. Here's the thing I want to know. We have started, as soon as I got the 8th-grade class back, a lot of what you saw on the video had been happening for an extended period of time and conversation after conversation. I needed to catch them back up, and so I started doing the split classroom there. It worked so fantastically, we started doing it in the 9th-grade classes as well. Split classroom, it's really ideal to have two teachers in the room. Does that mean I have to sit down? And let him…?

Brenda: That's the same thing we were saying to the residents, is you should have 100% of the responsibility, the planning, the leading…

John: But I should not come in and bail him out if something doesn't get done?

Dee: Yeah, [something] for two blocks, but for the third block, I teach alone.

John: I know, but you're an 18-year teacher. I…

Dee: But he's going to have to do that next year. He wants to flip, he's going to have to…

John: I have three preps, and if you want to be technical, I have four preps. So it seems like a lot, and then ask him as a zero-year teacher, take these 25 kids that can at times be overwhelming even for me, and run three stations with them by yourself?

Dee: What's he going to do next year?

Linda: I think he raises a very important and serious question. Because I have the benefit of reading people's journals. This is not an uncommon concern…it's one thing to say, I

want them to be teaching full load two weeks after Easter. But for some people, that may not be what's best for them. So I'm going to push…

Amy: And it's negotiable. You're going to be the experts.

Pat: Yeah, because I have a special case, I teach a seven-person calculus class. I don't know how necessary it is for her to have that experience, as far as, there's not a lot of pedagogy involved.

John: B2?

Pat: A2.

John: Send her down to help out Scott.

Pat: Okay. I could send her down to work with Scott. So that's something we could do. Or work with your A2. Especially because another concern of mine is the content knowledge, and if Algebra 2 Honors is overwhelming, to think of her teaching second semester calculus? I mean, she would have to spend, she would almost have to retake the course to be able to teach that class.

Appendix D

Critical Incident Three

Pedro: I just feel uncomfortable, rating, like Pat said before, if I don't see something in the lesson, I feel uncomfortable rating them as ineffective or partially effective simply because I didn't see it on that particular, so that was my next, can we just leave it blank for that particular component, or can we put not applicable because we didn't see it, or can we give them a rating based on what we've seen over a course of several days?

Brenda: Well, this is based upon, as we know, the NCPS, one lesson. That one day. And I think that to help the residents to move forward, if you put in, ineffective or that, because it helps build them up. I mean, these evaluations are not graded, they're not anything like that, they're just something for their growth and their development. So if they have an administrator next year that says, you left that sentence out…I mean, you know how your administrator is looking at it for you…

Angela: So since we have to do the March/April/May, and we've done March, and we did competency one and one other competency, to me my job is, ok, let's see where we need to grow and change. And so for me, I would feel uncomfortable evaluating her and giving, because I don't feel like I'm an expert in that whatsoever to be able to define it so well. But I can definitely in the next lesson look to see if she then included or incorporated the growth areas, and then now still looking at competency one, but now I'm going to focus on competency two.

Brenda: I guess I'm betwixt and between. I really am. Because I know they're going out on interviews, and some of the principals are asking them to do a class, and I know those principals actually have been doing it with them, and they said, like, oh, no, you were partially effective because of…so they may get some of that when they're out. When they're doing a demo lesson for a principal. I hear what you're saying, but I don't want to give them mixed messages.

Brenda: I hear ya. But I know that…they might not do it. And I believe if Amy were sitting here at this table, she probably would ask you to use the rating here.…It's not. It is not a make or break situation. Unless of course everyone is still, someone is having ineffectives, then we have to be concern. There's always concerns with that. But this is not a make or break deal. Getting them used to what's to come, and I think that's why Amy wanted us to move to this…

Dee: When you're gathering evidence and talking about that together and putting that down, that's more meaningful for both of you. And that also gives them that skill of having to, when they're evaluated next year by an administrator, of defending

themselves. They're doing that with you in a collaborative loving way, but they're learning that skill and being able to sit with an administrator next year and say, you know what, I feel like I was effective here, because why.

Angela: Again, my comfort level isn't that high, because I don't have experience in it, and I know from talking to my supervisors that even they've had walkthroughs, all the supervisors together, through someone's lesson, and they themselves argue about what those are, what those are, what they didn't see as evidence, so I would honestly ask him for guidance, like can you sit down with me, not too much to observe her, but I want to then compare, did you see the same thing I see, am I seeing something wrong.

Linda: And there's a point there that I want to bring up—actually, two points. Number one point is, I'm assuming you haven't had a post-observation meeting with them yet to talk about the evidence. So now's your chance, before you hand in this write-up, you're going to go back to school and you're going to sit down and you're going to look over the evidence with them. And there's a way around this. What if you didn't put the score in, and you talked about what score they thought, like you both came to a mutual decision about, where do you think you are in here? Because that allows them the opportunity to do what you've just done. You have had to go deep into competency one because now you're just not the passive receiver of the feedback. You're engaged in trying to construct what that feedback means.…And it forces them again to be reflective, so they're not the passive receiver of judgment. They're actually making sense of it with you.

Appendix E

Critical Incident Four

Linda: You know, I'm really angry, and I'm sitting here thinking, why am I getting so angry about this? So the subtext in my head initially was, well, because we all did that. We all had to work hard. But no, what it really is, what's really making me angry about this situation is that it's about the future of the children of New City. And why should they have a substandard education because people do not want to do their work? The work that they've been paid for, the work that they signed up for…Keep that in the front of your mind. Keep in the front of your mind that if it means that they don't teach, if it means that they have to demonstrate that they can do something, if it means that they have to stay an hour or an hour and a half, or they have to send you on Saturday night their lesson plans even though they don't want to disrupt their weekend, keep in the front of your mind that this is nothing to do with you. It has to do with the future of the kids of New City, and the quality of the teaching that is going to go on next year. And to me, that's the ethical position that you're in. it's not just about preparing them to teach. It's about preparing them to teach well.

Brenda: …So I guess maybe I should have been around you a lot more than I actually was, or here's my phone number, call when you have a challenge. Call. Text. Because I'll come in a heartbeat. People know, she'll come. She'll jump out of her car and get here. So I guess I'm just feeling…

Linda: You're taking responsibility for what the residents are not taking responsibility for.

Brenda: I don't know if I feel responsible, I guess I came off, and there is a sense of responsibility…

Angela: This is not just your responsibility. This is everyone's responsibility.

Appendix F

Spring 2014 Resident Checklist

February

During the first two weeks in your high school placement, you should learn about the school, students, parents, your new mentor, and the curriculum you will be teaching. While co-planning, co-teaching, and ultimately lead teaching are the goal for the month of February, becoming familiar with your new teaching assignment, especially during the first two weeks of your placement, will establish a solid foundation for teaching success. Please check off each item on the list to confirm that you have accomplished your monthly objectives.

Get to know the school:
__Become familiar with important information about the school such as rules, procedures, locations of important places and resources, and develop an understanding of "how things work" there.
__Ask members of the faculty, support faculty, administrators, and staff about the school.
__Attend all meetings (faculty, department, parent, other).
__Ask to see any "Opening Day" handbooks or documents the staff received at the start of the school year.
__Ask to see the Teacher Handbook used in your school.

Get to know the students:
__Take daily attendance and record it in the school system of attendance.
__Review students' attendance records.
__Review students' cumulative academic records.
__Collect information about students' backgrounds and personal and academic interests and create a file of student information that you can refer to.
__Conduct at least one formal (lunch, after school) and one informal (in halls, before homeroom, during group work) one-on-one meeting with students.
__Talk to the students regularly to establish and maintain a relationship with each of them.
__Read students' IEPs so that you are in compliance with all goals and accommodations.
__Write a class profile.

Get to know the parents:
__Attend at least one parent meeting/workshop (e.g. PTA meeting) scheduled by the school.
__Ask your mentor how he/she maintains contact with parents.
__Call a group of parents identified by your mentor to make initial one-on-one contact.
__Create and maintain a log of contact with parents.
__Attend parent report card conferences on February 13 and any additional parent meetings scheduled by the school and/or your mentor.

Get to know your mentor:
__Observe your mentor as they teach and take notes about what you notice.
__Observe how your mentor organizes and manages her/his classes and take notes about what you notice.

__Share your observations with your mentor.
__Keep a running-list of questions you want to ask your mentor and ask them when you meet
    formally or informally.
__Maintain a notebook of your observations and questions as described above.

Get to know the curriculum:
__Review the CCCS for the courses your mentor teaches.
__Review the scope and sequence of the courses you will be teaching.
__Review information regarding district testing in the courses you will be teaching.
__Pre-view all texts, on-line resources, and other materials associated with the courses you will be
    teaching.

Co-plan, Co-teach, and Teach:
__Co-plan all classes with your mentor.
__Co-teach all classes during the first 2 weeks of classes (February 3-13)
__Take the lead for at least one class starting the third week of classes (February 18). "Taking the
    lead" includes assuming primary responsibility for lesson planning and implementation, as well as
    classroom management, organization, grading of papers, etc.
__Discuss how class grades will be maintained with your mentor and implement the system agreed
to.
__Maintain a lesson plan file from February 3 through the end of June.

March

You should continue to build your knowledge of the school community and begin to develop
knowledge about the local community. March brings additional responsibility for taking the lead in
at least three classes and developing formal and informal student assessments. Your mentor will
continue to informally provide feedback on your teaching practice as well as complete their first
formal observation of your teaching and debrief their findings with you. Finally, you will begin to use
the video protocol with your mentor during this month.

Get to know the school and local community
__Attend at least one school-sponsored event after school (games, performances, clubs, special
events, etc.)
__Familiarize yourself with the local community by reading local news, visiting local shops, and
    attending local events.
__Review the your school's School Performance Report available at: http://education.state.nj.us/pr/
__Observe at least two other teachers in your department.
__Help your mentor plan a class trip.
__Attend a Board of Education Meeting in March or April.
__Continue to attend all meetings.

Get to know the students
__Continue to add student information to your student files.

__Become familiar with the extra-curricular offerings at the school and attend at least one student
    organization meeting or event that interests you.

Get to know the parents

__Maintain regular contact with individual parents via e-mail and/or phone calls and by meeting
with them in-person.
__Maintain regular communication with parents via a class website, newsletter, other.
__Talk to your mentor, other teachers, and administrators about how they reach "hard to contact"
parents.
__Develop and use at least five strategies to reach "hard to contact" parents.
__Maintain a log of contact with parents.

Get to know your mentor

__Continue to meet daily with your mentor informally and during planned meeting times.
__Establish routines for exchanging information regarding student progress, lesson planning, and
    other collaborative work.
__Continue to maintain a notebook of your observations and questions.

Get to know the curriculum

__Continue to refer to the CCCS and scope and sequence of the courses you will be teaching.
__Review information regarding district testing in the courses you teach.
__Continue to make use of all texts, on-line resources, and other materials associated with the
    courses you are teaching.
__Become familiar with procedures for state testing.

Co-plan, Co-teach, and Teach

__Continue co-planning with your mentor.
__Continue co-teaching classes that you have not assumed responsibility for with your mentor.
__Continue to maintain a lesson plan file.
__Take the lead for at least two classes by March 4 and at least three classes by March 25.
__Evaluate your use of instructional time and make appropriate adjustments to your lessons.
__Develop and practice techniques for checking for student understanding (i.e. Fist or Five, exit
    cards, wrap-up activity, etc.).
__Prepare formal assessments of student achievement.
__Analyze data from formal student assessments for insight about the relationship between student
    understanding and your teaching.
__Meet with your mentor to evaluate the quality of the assessments you used.
__Develop a tutoring schedule with your mentor.
__Develop strategies for addressing issues of student behavior, participation, and investment in class
    activities.
__Videotape two lessons and use the video protocol with your mentor to reflect on what you see
    and what you have learned about teaching from this process. The first video protocol meeting
    should take place by March 7 and the second video protocol meeting should take place by
    March 21.
__Meet regularly with your mentor for informal feedback.

__Visit the NPS website for information about and the guide to the NPS Teacher Evaluation
    Framework.
__Review the NPS Teacher Evaluation Framework with your mentor.
__Meet with your mentor for a review of their first formal evaluation of your teaching using the NPS
    Teacher Evaluation Framework.

April

You will assume the lead for at least four classes this month while continuing to learn about the
school and local community, the students, parents, your mentor, and the curriculum. While specific
new objectives in these areas are not listed here, you should continue to engage in the activities
described in those categories for February and March.

Co-Plan, Co-Teach, and Teach
__Continue co-planning with your mentor.
__Continue to maintain a lesson plan file.
__Take the lead for at least four classes by April 7.
__Debrief daily with your mentor during formal and informal meetings.
__Meet with mentor to debrief their second formal evaluation of your teaching using the NPS
    Teacher Evaluation Framework.
__Analyze data from several formal student assessments for insight about student progress,
    teaching strategies, and the quality of the assessments.
__Meet with your mentor to discuss your data analysis and identify improvements for future lessons
    and assessments
__Videotape lessons regularly and use the video protocol with your mentor at least twice this month.

May & June

You will continue to have full teaching responsibilities for at least four classes while continuing to
build your knowledge of the school and local community, the students, parents, your mentor, and
the curriculum. While specific new objectives in these areas are not listed here, you should continue
to engage in the activities described for February, March, and April. In addition, your ability to
reflect upon and evaluate your teaching practice will become more sophisticated and your teaching
repertoire will grow with practice.

Co-Plan, Co-Teach, and Teach
__Continue teaching at least four classes.
__Review lesson plans with your mentor.
__Debrief daily with mentor during informal and formal meetings.
__Meet with your mentor in May for a debriefing of their final formal evaluation of your teaching
    using the NPS Teacher Evaluation Framework.
__Analyze data from formal student assessments for insight about student progress, teaching
    strategies, and the quality of the assessments.
__Discuss how to review for final exams with your mentor.
__Plan for final exam review using student assessment data and what you know about the final
    exams in the courses you teach.
__Videotape lessons regularly and use the video protocol with your mentor at least twice in May

and at least once during final exam review in June.