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Mentor Modeling Mismatch: Power Dynamics in Cooperating Teacher's
Modeling for Preservice Teachers

Morgan Christensen

A dissertation submitted to the faculty of
Brigham Young University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Elizabeth Cutrer, Chair
Kendra Hall-Kenyon
Aaron P. Jackson
Melissa Ann Heath
Martinette Horner

Department of Counseling Psychology and Special Education
Brigham Young University

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ABSTRACT

Mentor Modeling Mismatch: Power Dynamics in Cooperating Teacher's Modeling for Preservice Teachers

Morgan Christensen

Department of Counseling Psychology and Special Education, BYU
Doctor of Philosophy

Through the use of interview and observation data, collected over two years, this qualitative study describes the perceptions, attitudes, and experiences of two Cooperating Teachers (CTs) and their assigned Pre Service Teachers (PST; $n = 12$) who were mentored over the course of two Special Education practicum experiences and five CT professional development trainings. Special attention was focused on the ways that CTs and PSTs describe modeling and how CTs' modeling seemed to affect the CT/PST relationship. Participant responses were analyzed using a qualitative narrative method and indicated that CT's use of modeling served primarily as a socializing process in which PSTs learn the role of a professional teacher through their interactions with the CT. Also, different types of modeling (e.g., simple vs. cognitive) seemed to affect this socialization process. The outcomes of simple and cognitive modeling were highly varied and affected the CT/PST relationship development differently. Additional findings indicated that professional development that focused on cognitive modeling may be related to CTs' mentoring role development and the way they implement mentoring processes. It is hoped that the findings in this study will help to initiate conversations between CTs and PSTs and teacher educators concerning the use of modeling and the potential effects modeling may have on the mentoring relationship.

Keywords: preservice teachers, mentor teachers, modeling, preservice teacher training, power dynamics, professional development

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DESCRIPTION OF DISSERTATION STRUCTURE AND CONTENT

This dissertation, *Mentor Modeling Mismatch: Power dynamics in Cooperating Teacher's Modeling for Preservice Teachers*, is written in a hybrid format, which includes traditional dissertation requirements with journal publication formats. The preliminary pages of the dissertation reflect requirements for submission to the university. The main body of the report is presented as a journal article and conforms to style requirements for submitting research reports to education journals.

The literature review is included in Appendix A. The consent form is included in Appendix B. The interview protocols and reflections are included in Appendix C. This dissertation format contains two reference lists. The first reference list contains references included in the journal-ready article, while the second includes all citations used in Appendix A, entitled "Review of the Literature."

Introduction

Building self-efficacy, self-worth, and professional identity are the primary goals of mentoring (Eby et al., 2013). These goals apply to the mentoring relationship between cooperating teacher (CT) and preservice teachers (PSTs), which is ubiquitously used in teacher preparation programs (Valencia et al., 2009). While the university classroom takes care in preparing teachers for work in their future classrooms, the university system employs the help of CTs to guide PSTs as they practice teaching lessons, guiding behavior, and taking on the responsibilities of the classroom teacher (Butler & Cuenca, 2012; Parker-Katz & Hughes, 2008; Roberts et al., 2014; Seevers, 2012). Mentors, including CTs and university supervisors, help guide each PST in the process of becoming a certified teacher working in the field (Valencia et al., 2009). The ultimate goal is for student teachers to learn to teach effectively and progressively become teachers in their own classrooms, whether that be the elementary, special education, or secondary education setting (Valencia et al., 2009).

However, this work of preparing teachers is done in a complex setting with various players, including university supervisors and CTs. University supervisors and CTs likely come from diverse backgrounds and may implement various teaching practices (Borko & Mayfield, 1995; Valencia et al., 2009). As a result, many teacher educators believe that student teachers are not adequately prepared to teach in their own classroom practicum experiences (Valencia et al., 2009). Additionally, there can be extensive variations in how influential CTs, and university supervisors are in the development of the PSTs whom they mentor (Borko & Mayfield, 1995).

A CT is typically defined as an experienced and knowledgeable teacher who works with the PST (Parker-Katz & Hughes, 2008; Seevers, 2012) as they complete work in practicum settings. Practicum placements are classroom settings where PSTs work in a classroom with a

CT and are an extension of the university preparation program (Butler & Cuenca, 2012). A PST is defined as a college student who is gradually being introduced to the role of a teacher (Katz & Isik-Ercan, 2015). Preservice teachers work under the supervision and direction of CTs as they work in these classroom settings (Roberts et al., 2014).

Quality mentoring relationships are important for bringing about PST's growth toward becoming a certified teacher and a CT's growth toward becoming a mentor for novice teachers (Rhodes et al., 2017). Quality interactions between CTs and PSTs are also important for both parties' career development (Amador et al., 2015). Mentoring relationships are typically fostered through establishing rapport (Garza, 2012), which is developed through high support from an CT (Lyons & Perrewe, 2014). These quality relationships help PSTs to learn teaching competencies, such as effective use of instructional tools and student behavior management strategies that help prepare them to effectively teach in a classroom setting (Rhodes et al., 2017).

While quality relationships are important for the development of the PST, the CT/PST relationship may include negative experiences for CTs and PSTs (Ensign, 2012; Ensign et al., 2018; Valencia et al., 2009). Negative experiences in the relationship refer to caustic interactions such as sabotage and exploitation, deception, self-centered behavior, personal differences, and performance difficulties with the mentoring partner (Eby & McManus, 2004). Additional struggles may be due to mismatched situations where pedagogical orientations differ greatly, such as the use of research-based reading and arithmetic teaching methods (Sudzina et al., 1997). Furthermore, when CTs and PSTs encounter negative mentoring experiences, the mentoring relationship tends to be perceived as globally negative rather than acknowledging both positive and negative attributes (Eby & McManus, 2004; Rhodes et al., 2017) and result in lower levels of relationship satisfaction for both CT and PST (Eby & McManus, 2004). Mismatch in the

CT/PST dyad may be due to a number of factors, including personal and pedagogical conflicts between the CT and PST (Sudzina et al., 1997). Mismatch can be felt by the CT, PST, or both; and lead to negative feelings and low relationship quality.

While CTs employ instructional strategies (such as providing feedback, modeling, and conferencing), research shows that CTs have various approaches to implementing these strategies when they mentor PSTs. Cooperating teachers' use of a myriad of mentoring approaches are due, in part, to the minimal amount of guidance that CTs generally receive on effective mentoring practices from the university (Valencia et al., 2009; Butler & Cuenca, 2012). Without guidance from the university, a CT's approach to mentoring often resembles how they were taught during their own practicum experiences (Butler & Cuenca, 2012). Lack of training from the university can also result in CTs who are unable to link theory taught in university courses with effective teaching practices in the classroom (Sudzina et al., 1997). Further, when CTs are not clearly guided by the university on how to use both effective instructional strategies as well as effective mentoring pedagogy, mismatch between the CT/PST dyads is more likely to occur (Lunenbergh & Korthagen, 2003). The next section will focus specifically on CTs' use of modeling as an instructional strategy to assist PSTs in putting teaching knowledge into practice.

Modeling

A frequent instructional strategy cited by CTs is that PSTs learn to teach by observing and implementing modeled instruction (Butler & Cuenca, 2012; Valencia et al., 2009). One of the significant effects of modeling is that after CTs model teaching, PSTs are encouraged to feel more comfortable managing their transition in applying theory to classroom instruction (Bashan & Holsblat, 2012). However, modeling practice is not enough, PSTs also need to be encouraged to reflect on how to apply the demonstrated strategies into their own teaching practices (Bashan

& Holsblat, 2012; Lunenberg et al., 2007). In addition, although modeling has been found to be very beneficial for PSTs' understanding of how to apply teaching practices, CTs' modeling skills do not automatically develop over their career, and experience as a teacher does not necessarily lead to an increase in effective modeling (Lunenberg & Korthagen, 2003). Also, many CTs believe that PSTs learn simply through watching and mimicking CTs' practices (Valencia et al., 2009). When PSTs are expected to look and act just like the CT, the PST's teacher identity development is hindered (Yuan, 2016) and the mentoring relationship is negatively impacted (Cutrer & Christensen, 2018). When modeling is not implemented in ways that are understood and easily accessed by PSTs, they can become frustrated during practicum and become unsure of and/or resistant to implementing the modeled practices (Cutrer & Christensen, 2018; Valencia et al., 2009). In the next sections the researcher will discuss the two most commonly researched forms of modeling: simple modeling and cognitive modeling.

Simple Modeling

The idea that PSTs learn through observation, is referred to as simple modeling. Simple modeling is "based on the principle of learning through imitation" (Bashan & Holsblat, 2012, p. 208). During simple modeling, a CT demonstrates the behaviors, skills, and/or strategies they want the PST to adopt into their own practice. These behaviors, skills, and strategies include specific lesson routines, behavior management strategies, and content lesson plans. The PST is expected to attend to what the CT is doing, then imitate this in their own teaching. The goal of simple modeling is for the PST to observe the CT's teaching skills, then to implement those teaching skills in future practice.

Simple modeling includes fishbowl and catastrophic modeling (Cutrer & Christensen, 2018). Fishbowl modeling describes a type of modeling where a CT demonstrates a practice that

may or may not be matched to the PST's need. The goal of fishbowl modeling is for the CT to identify themselves to the PST as a capable mentor and to gain trust. Catastrophic modeling describes when a CT, suddenly and unannounced, "jumps in" during a PST's lesson to correct teaching or behavioral practices. This impromptu modeling shows in real time how the PST should teach their lesson or respond to students' challenging behavior (Cutrer & Christensen, 2018).

However, certain problems can be associated with simple modeling (including fishbowl and catastrophic modeling). This type of modeling can lead to power struggles within the mentoring relationship. The PST may perceive that their knowledge and teaching skills are devalued by the CT (Yuan, 2016). Additionally, simple modeling may lead the PST to feel that they are in a coerced position of fitting into the CT's tight mold. Instead of facilitating the PST's development as an educator, simple modeling may result in the PST *biting their lip* and distancing themselves from their CT, feeling constrained to align with the CT's limited role expectations (O'Grady et al., 2018).

Cognitive Modeling

Cognitive modeling includes a concurrent conversation about the modeled skill (Bashan & Holsblat, 2012) as well as providing the PST with choice in what is modeled and when (Cutrer & Christensen, 2018). This conversation can happen either during or after the modeling takes place, and often focuses around the CT discussing their "pedagogical considerations, questions, feelings, and motives" surrounding the practices they are modeling (Bashan & Holsblat, 2012, p. 208). Cognitive modeling also allows CTs to act as a guide and provides the PST with knowledge of how to use modeled behaviors in future lessons (Cutrer & Christensen, 2018). Through cognitive modeling conversations, the CT teaches PSTs about their internal processing

of information and reasoning about their teaching practices, with the goal of helping them to adopt similar reasonings (Gorrell & Capron, 1990; Loughran, 1995). Cognitive modeling is a reflective process where CTs not only model, but also explain their thinking and decision-making to the PST, with the hopes that the PST will apprehend the modeled skills and behaviors.

In addition, the work by Cutrer and Christensen (2018) suggests that cognitive modeling leads to fewer issues of power between the CT and PST compared to simple modeling. They hypothesized that by giving PSTs choice, discussing the modeling with the PST, and helping the PST to apply the modeled practice in their lessons allowed the PST more space to understand and apply the practice in a way that best met their students' needs. This choice and understanding allowed the PST space to develop their own identity as a teacher instead of being forced to align with the CT's identity and position (Yuan, 2016).

However, even though CTs' implementation of cognitive modeling helps PSTs to better recall and apply what they observe (Gorrell & Capron, 1990), comprehend the relationship between teaching practice and reflection (Bashan & Holsblat, 2012), and learn about the choices CTs make while teaching (Lunenberget al., 2007), many CTs do not utilize cognitive modeling strategies. Cooperating teacher's lack of using cognitive modeling strategies may be due to a lack of knowledge concerning how to effectively use these strategies (Sudzina et al., 1997). They may not know how to use cognitive modeling to help PSTs generalize modeled skills and ultimately use these skills in their own practices (Lunenberget al., 2007). Thus, it is important to explicitly train CTs how to use modeling effectively to help PSTs gain the needed skills, behaviors, and strategies that they will use in their future work as certified teachers (Sudzina et al., 1997).

Summary

Modeling is frequently used by CTs as a means to convey teaching practices to PSTs through observational learning (Butler & Cuenca, 2012; Valencia et al., 2009). While modeling can be an effective means of conveying teaching practices to PSTs, not all CTs use modeling the same way and some CTs' use of modeling pressures the PST to look and act like the CT (Cutrer & Christensen, 2018). This pressure impedes PSTs' development as a teacher (Yuan, 2016) and increases their resistance to implementing the modeled practices (Valencia et al., 2009). When CTs place pressure on PSTs to implement their modeled strategies with fidelity, PSTs can become resistant. CTs who utilize forms of simple modeling, including fishbowl and catastrophic modeling, often establish a power dynamic in which the CT is in the position of knowing and the PST is seen as an incapable teacher. However, cognitive modeling has been shown to empower the PST and allows them to choose how they implement the modeled strategies (Cutrer & Christensen, 2018). Nonetheless, CTs are more likely to use forms of simple modeling than cognitive modeling, which contributes to resistance, mismatch, and other challenges in the CT/PST relationship.

Statement of Problem

Mentoring is a complex process including relational, developmental, and contextual components not well understood in the field of teacher education (Ambrosetti et al., 2014). One of the key mentors who helps guide the PST toward effectively teaching in a classroom setting is the CT (Borko & Mayfield, 1995; Butler & Cuenca, 2012; Parker-Katz & Hughes, 2008; Roberts et al., 2014; Seevers, 2012). However, many CTs are often not trained on how to effectively mentor PSTs (Valencia et al., 2009; & Butler & Cuenca, 2012). While mentoring provides learning opportunities for both CTs and PSTs (Amador et al., 2015), mismatch in mentoring

relationships can and do result in negative practicum experiences (Eby & McManus, 2004). Failure to create a positive practicum experience affects both PSTs and CTs and can be due to a number of challenges including mismatch in pedagogical orientations, mentoring behaviors (such as the way that mentors model, give feedback, and conference with PSTs), and dispositions (Eby et al., 2010).

One mentoring practice cooperating teachers (CTs) frequently use to support PSTs is modeling. When CTs model, PSTs can learn to approximate affecting teaching methods by observing the CTs, then implementing what was learned in their own teaching practice (Butler & Cuenca, 2012; Valencia et al., 2009). While modeling has been demonstrated to be an effective mentoring practice, it can introduce tension in the mentoring relationship. For example, some CTs insist PSTs fit into a specific structure of teaching to become as it were a *mini me* in order to look and act identical to the CT (Valencia et al., 2009). This constraint to look and act identical to the CT can hinder the PST's identity development as a teacher (Yuan, 2016) and lead to strain in the mentoring relationship (Cutrer & Christensen, 2018). In addition, not all CTs agree on how to effectively use modeling and observation strategies. This confusion can result in the PST feeling frustrated during practicum, as they may not know what should be implemented from the modeled instruction. Some PSTs may even begin to resist implementing the modeled practices (Valencia et al., 2009).

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study is to describe what role, if any, CTs' use of modeling played in the development of the CT/PST relationship. A concurrent purpose is to explore the ways that providing explicit training in effective modeling for CTs affect the CT/PST relationship, if at all. It is hoped that information from this study will inform teacher preparation programs, and aid

university supervisors in providing effective modeling instruction for CTs to use with PSTs during practicum experiences.

Research Questions

This study will address the following research questions:

1. How do CTs describe uses of modeling with PSTs in an intensive summer practicum setting?
2. How do PSTs describe CTs' uses of modeling in an intensive summer practicum setting?
3. How do CTs and PSTs describe the ways that CT's implementation of modeling impacts CT/PST relationships?
4. How do CTs describe the effects of explicit professional development on their modeling practices and any ways these practices impact CT/PST relationships?

Method

This chapter includes a description of research methods used to conduct this study. The participant selection, setting, data collection, and analysis as well as the role of the researcher in the study will be described. Additionally, quality indicator guidelines used to ensure trustworthiness of the data as well as limitations of the methods used will be addressed. Finally, this chapter concludes with an explanation of the ethical procedures utilized in this study.

This study took place within the context of the Brigham Young University (BYU) Special Education Department's teacher training program. This study focused on identifying and describing how CTs use of modeling affects CT/PST views of the mentoring relationship (if at all). CTs and PSTs were recruited from the Special Education- Mild to Moderate Disabilities program at BYU and were asked to voluntarily participate in this study.

Narrative Approach

Narrative research refers to a group of qualitative research approaches that rely upon written or spoken words of individuals and seeks to apprehend personal dimensions of experience over time (Cresswell, 2007; Cresswell et al., 2010). Narrative research asks questions about how participants' chronological and story-oriented experiences unfold over a certain frame of time (Cresswell et al., 2010). Researchers systematically gather, analyze and represent the narratives of the individuals in the study as told through their own stories and the meaning they create. Cresswell et al. (2010) described this type of narrative analysis where, "researchers collect descriptions of events or happenings and then configure them into a story using a plotline" (p. 243), which is the method used in this dissertation study. The emphasis in this approach is on how and what is said by the participant as they tell about their story or experience. Additionally, the narrative approach allows for the combination of intersecting of several individuals interacting with each other (Cresswell, 2007; Cresswell et al., 2010).

Participants

For this study, the researcher used purposeful sampling (Brantlinger et al., 2005) to recruit study participants. The criterion used to choose potential participants will be discussed below.

Preservice Teacher Participants

The main criteria used to select the PSTs for the study was that they were mentored by the specific CTs who were selected as participants for this study. Twelve PSTs met the selection criteria for this study. The first group of six PSTs were selected based upon their enrollment in a special education teacher education program and participation in a special education practicum class in the summer of 2018. They were also chosen because they were mentored by one of the

two CTs participating in this study (see below for CT selection criteria). The second group of six PSTs were selected based upon their enrollment in a special education teacher education program and participation in a special education practicum class in the summer of 2019 and because they were mentored by one of the two CTs participating in this study. Alternatively, all PSTs were given the option to opt out of participating. After Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval was obtained from the BYU IRB board, the primary researcher visited the class where the course was being taught, shared the study information with the PSTs, and invited the PSTs to participate. PSTs were provided with a hard copy of the consent and again invited to accept or decline participation in the study.

Cooperating Teacher Participants

The main criteria used to select the CTs for the study was that they were working as teacher mentors to the PSTs in the study in year one (2018) and year two (2019). Out of the 14 CTs who mentored in both 2018 and 2019, two CTs were chosen due to the degree of mismatch found in data collected from the *Coach-Teacher Relationship Tool* (CTRT; Cutrer, 2016) at the end of year one (2018). During the initial analysis of the CTRT administered twice during the summer of 2017 (once during the first week of practicum and once at the end of practicum), it was observed that specific groups of PSTs rated their CTs lower on modeling effectiveness. (For more about the CTRT, see Appendix C). These lower rated CTs in turn, believed their modeling for PSTs was effective. The misalignment of the CT and PST perception of the effectiveness of CT modeling resulted in the primary researcher questioning why PSTs and CT's perceived modeling effectiveness differently. Therefore, in order to answer this question, the primary researcher invited both CTs whose PSTs rated their modeling as less effective than the CTs rated their own modeling. The PSTs who were mentored by the focal CTs ($n = 12$; 3 per CT per year

of the study) were also invited to participate in the study. Preservice teachers and CTs completed parallel versions of the questionnaires once in the middle of the practicum placement and again at the end of the placement.

Cooperating Teacher- 1. The first CT in the study will be referred to by the pseudonym “Ellen.” Ellen served as a CT for seven years prior to this study. She served as a CT for over two dozen PSTs, including both practicum students as well as student teachers (refer to Table 1). During the first year of this study she served as a CT for three PSTs in a mild/moderate special education program: “Lana,” “Britney,” and “Felicity.” During the second year of this study she served as a CT for PSTs: “Camille,” “Zoe,” and “Ellie.”

Cooperating Teacher- 2. The second CT in the study will be referred to by the pseudonym “Nicole.” Nicole served as a CT for four years prior to this study. Over the last three years, she mentored seven PSTs, both summer practicum students, student teachers, and first-year teachers (refer to Table 1). During the first year of this study she served as a CT for three PSTs in a mild/moderate special education program: “Caitlin,” “Janet,” and “Georgia.” During the first year of this study she served as a CT for PSTs: “Desi,” “Kelly,” and “Olivia.”

After CTs agreed to serve as mentors for the summer practicum experience, the primary researcher shared with CTs concerning her interest in studying CT/ PST relationships. After they agreed to participate, they were provided with a consent form to look over and invited to accept or decline participation in the study. It should be noted that all CTs who served as mentors during summer practicum were expected to participate in mentoring activities and training whether or not they chose to participate in the study.

Sensitive and Fair Representation of Participants

During the time that the researcher engaged in the process of gathering data, all of the identifying information from the participants was retracted from the documents to ensure that no participants are embarrassed and that their information is protected (Brantlinger et al., 2005).

Setting

This study was conducted at two elementary schools located in Utah. Brigham Young University provides degrees in Early Childhood Education, Elementary Education, Secondary Education, and Special Education and utilizes local public schools as practicum training sites. Upon admittance, Special Education program undergraduate majors decide whether to focus on students with disabilities in the mild-to-moderate disability range, or on students with disabilities in the severe disability range. Both special education teacher education programs (mild/moderate or severe) have a high number of graduates each year. CTs were chosen from five school districts located within a 30-mile distance from the University.

The setting described is that of a practicum setting. These practicum settings are classrooms settings that align with the PSTs' focus of study (mild/moderate or severe) and are assigned by university supervisors. Specifically, PSTs are assigned to a CT and a practicum site. At the practicum site, PSTs and CTs work with district students in an assigned classroom. At each practicum site, CTs and university supervisors observe PST teaching practices and provide feedback and support to the PST. Practicum sites are located in two of the five local partnership school districts. The summer practicum experience takes place four days per week for six weeks prior to the semester the PST completes student teaching.

Interviews

Data sources consisted of individual and focus group interviews. Individual interviews with CTs took place prior to the first week of summer practicum. Individual interviews with PSTs took place after their summer practicum was completed. Focus group interviews with CTs and PSTs took place during the last week of summer practicum. Data were also collected from an additional CT focus group interview which took place directly following the mentor teacher professional development training in modeling.

Individual and focus group interviews with PSTs and CTs were audio-recorded and transcribed. Interviews were conducted in a systematic-open ended interview format. During the post summer practicum focus group interviews, PST groups and CT groups were interviewed separately, with parallel structured interview forms. These interviews asked questions about participant perceptions concerning their mentoring experiences and their mentoring relationships, with a specific focus on how the CT utilized modeling as a mentoring tool during summer practicum. Questions were carefully worded and reviewed so as to be clear and adequate in exploring the selected areas of interest (Brantlinger et al., 2005). Further care was taken to make sure that questions were not leading and were open enough to elicit a response that is not biased, based upon the question content or format (Brantlinger et al., 2005). If clarification was needed about a participant response, then the researcher conducting the interview asked follow-up questions. After transcribing was completed, the interview transcription was emailed to the participant for editing.

Professional Development Training

After year one of the study, 14 CTs (including the two CTs in this study) attended five, two-hour professional development sessions. Each professional development session featured

training on CT modeling practices and utilized a Decision Based Learning Model (DBL; Plummer, 2018; see Figure 1), discussion, and modeling of practices.

Research Analysis

For the purpose of this study, narrative analysis was implemented to better understand the participants' understanding of modeling during summer practicum. Participant interviews were the basis for analysis. First, a basic narrative of the mentor relationship was developed through interview responses given by the participants (both CT and PST). The basic features of the narrative analysis method are decontextualization, recontextualization, categorization, and compilation (Bengtsson, 2016).

During decontextualization, the researcher familiarizes themselves with the content of the transcribed text as a whole, and then breaks it down into smaller "meaning units" (Bengtsson, 2016). Accordingly, during this stage, the primary author implemented a deep reading of all of the transcripts in order to grasp the overall general concept of how CTs and PSTs perceived the use of modeling during the summer practicum. During this stage, data evidences from the transcripts were specifically coded into meaning units around the participants' descriptions of modeling and how that modeling impacted subsequent perceptions and behaviors between CTs and PSTs. Next, the primary researcher reread the document of these organized meaning units alongside the original transcripts to compare the selected codes in context with the narrative of the transcripts (recontextualization). At this point, the researcher considered whether or not specific meaning units or codes should be kept or discarded, based upon whether or not it served to broaden understanding on how the CTs and PSTs perceived modeling during the practicum placement.

Next, the primary researcher organized these codes and data evidences into categories or themes that contained similar descriptions onto a word document. After the data was placed into categories, the researcher began to notice instances of how the mismatch in the ways CTs and their PSTs perceived modeling during the summer practicum seemed to impact the CT/PST relationship during the first year. Additionally, during this phase of the analysis, the researcher noticed data episodes that described the effect modeling training had on the CTs use of modeling during the second year. Therefore, in addition to the CT/PSTs' perceptions of the use of modeling during summer practicum, this phase of the analysis provided the researcher with rudimentary familiarity of how the CT's use of modeling may have affected the CT/PST relationship as described by the participants. Also, this phase of the analysis revealed descriptions regarding CTs' changes in modeling during the second year of practicum following a mentor teacher professional development on modeling.

During the next state of the analysis, the researcher assembled a peer debriefing roundtable of expert members to read through and provide feedback about the data analysis. This roundtable consisted of former CTs who mentored PSTs during summer practicum, former PSTs who had completed summer practicum, as well as literacy and teacher education experts who had helped to plan the summer practicum. Members of the peer debriefing roundtable read through and compared the codes and emergent themes to the interview transcripts. The team provided feedback about themes that did not appear to be supported by evidence from data episodes such as the way in which the CTs responded to the modeling professional development provided prior to the second year of summer practicum. The researcher responded to this feedback by going back to the original transcripts to better capture the CTs' stories related to the professional development. Finally, the researcher compiled the themes and data evidences represented by

individual sentences and phrases into an emerging narrative to describe study findings (see Chapter 4).

Trustworthiness

To maintain methodological rigor and ensure the trustworthiness of the study, the researcher sought to minimize researcher bias by triangulation, peer debriefing, and clarifying upfront biases. More detailed descriptions of how these methods were used is explained below.

Triangulation

The primary researcher incorporated two types of triangulation during the study: Data triangulation and researcher triangulation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Data for the study was collected from two disparate sources; individual and focus group interviews. In addition, data from the interviews and reflections were analyzed separately by the primary researcher and by two other researchers involved in the study, then compared to see if findings aligned. The primary researcher asked the other researchers involved to also analyze the data to determine if they agreed with the analysis conducted by the primary researcher.

Peer Debriefing

Throughout the study, the primary researcher conferenced about the study with supervising university faculty. The roles of the main peer de-briefer were to analyze researcher bias, data analysis, and conclusions. In addition, the primary researcher organized a peer debriefing roundtable (as described in the methods section). Weekly meetings between the primary researcher and main peer debriefer (the dissertation advisor) took place before, during, and after the data collection until the analysis was completed. The peer debriefing roundtable took place after the data was collected but before the final narrative of findings was completed.

Clarifying Up-Front Biases

The researcher situated her positionality related to the proposed study by identifying her point of view of teacher education and the use of CTs as mentors for PSTs. The researcher's experiences as an educator before and after beginning graduate school full-time at the Brigham Young University to pursue her PhD in Counseling Psychology provided perspective on the process of mentoring PSTs from both inside and outside perspectives. Before the researcher began her doctoral program at BYU, she worked for four years as a general education teacher in Utah's public schools.

In addition, due to the fact that she herself was mentored by a variety of MTs throughout her preservice and teaching career. She had various experiences with her MTs, some of which were positive and some were negative. In preparation for this study, she discussed her mentoring experiences with her research supervisor and also when issues came up in individual experiences. She also sought awareness of how her personal experiences were similar to those of her participants. Additionally, because the researcher worked with these mentors and was present during their practicum and training experiences, her personal impressions of the participants were discussed with her research supervisor in order to help understand how these experiences may bias her interpretation of the results.

Findings

The purpose of this study was to describe what role, if any, cooperating teachers' (CT) use of modeling plays in the development of the CT/PST relationship. A concurrent purpose was to explore in what ways explicit training in effective modeling for CTs affect the CT/PST relationship, if at all. The researcher used a qualitative approach with participants who were

closest to the real-life context of this study by conducting in-depth interviews and assembling supportive data through observation notes.

The following section will present in detail the findings of this study organized by research question and by year of the study (beginning with the first year), then by participant. During the data analysis, the primary researcher determined that grouping findings from research questions one and two helped to better construct the narrative and address both questions, so for the purpose of this study, questions one and two will be presented concurrently. In addition, this findings section will be organized with the primary way that each participant modeled, using the two main types of modeling (e.g., simple and cognitive) as well as the two subtypes of simple modeling (e.g., fishbowl and catastrophic; Cutrer & Christensen, 2020). After the types of modeling are described through integration of CT and PST responses, the relationship impacts of these types of modeling will be described. Special attention will be paid to the CT's implementation of modeling after their participation in a professional development where the CTs were explicitly taught about the four types of modeling and the outcome of each on the CT/PST relationship.

Research Questions 1 and 2: Modeling Descriptions During Year One and Year Two

Year One: Ellen's Modeling

Ellen and the mentored PSTs described similarities in the way Ellen modeled for them during practicum. The two main ways Ellen modeled resemble descriptions of simple and catastrophic modeling.

Simple Modeling. During the first few weeks of practicum, Ellen's descriptions of her modeling practices align with simple modeling. She described using this type of modeling to show her PSTs how she wanted them to teach. She also described believing her PSTs wanted her

to model in those beginning weeks because they had, “no idea what’s going on,” and were, “just glad someone else is doing it.” Ellen’s comments suggest she believed her modeling was stress-reducing for her PSTs, however, the PSTs described it differently. When they reflected on the way Ellen modeled in those first few weeks, they described feeling the need to take what she modeled and copy it in order to get a good grade and added that they copied her modeling because they knew she was the one grading them. They also said they would copy her modeled practices even when they didn’t agree with those strategies and teaching methods to, “please her.” Additionally, Ellen’s PSTs remarked that they would have liked Ellen to respect their ideas and allow them to teach in the style they wanted.

When Ellen’s modeled practices differed from what PSTs observed in their university, her PSTs questioned her about her technique. Preservice teacher participants linked conflict that occurred between Ellen and Britney as a result of questioning Ellen’s modeled practices. When Ellen used simple modeling to model lessons in a manner that differed from how university professors taught, Britney and Felicity asked her questions to clarify these differences. In addition to asking Ellen questions, they went to the professor to ask him about those differences. This resulted in Ellen confronting Britney, telling her she was “unprofessional” because she had asked her to clarify her modeling. Britney described being “taken aback” by this confrontation because, she said, it “came out of the blue,” and because Ellen had not told her what being professional looked like. After this initial feedback, Ellen confronted Britney again. Britney described Ellen’s confrontation as an “attack” said Ellen called her “resistant.” Britney described this interaction, she described also feeling uncertain about herself professionally and personally, and as Britney reflected upon this event, she began to cry and said she had cried when this professor confronted her.

Ellen described the situation differently and viewed Britney's questions as a manifestation that she was resistant to her modeling. She also said that Britney did not trust her at the beginning and was resistant from the start, so she "had to be really strict with her and mark her down with professionalism." As Ellen reflected upon the event she mentioned that Britney "cried and cried, and after that, I felt that there was a big wall." She further added that after that event, Britney would accept whatever Ellen wanted her to do but shared: "for whatever reason, she never really trusted me after that."

Britney described being scared to go into student teaching because she was at a "breaking point" after this conflict and felt like she could not teach and didn't want to work with a CT again. Lana and Felicity also mentioned this experience in their interviews. Felicity said mentioned that she felt judged by Ellen and that she and the other PSTs, "couldn't just always be ourselves or use our best judgment—we had to do it the way she would want (the way she modeled)." Lana also spoke about just wanting things to be less "dramatic" and decided to go along with what Ellen wanted without questioning her would achieve this goal. She said after the incident, she started teaching the way Ellen modeled, "just to please her and maintain that good relationship." Lana also confided that after the incident, she was not sure she wanted to become a teacher and decided to wait an extra semester to complete her student teaching.

Catastrophic Modeling. Although Ellen used simple modeling in the first few weeks of practicum, she used catastrophic modeling most frequently throughout the duration of practicum. She described it as "jumping in" to show the PSTs how they should be teaching certain parts of their lesson. She shared she felt at ease to "jump in" because she had previously asked permission from the students before jumping into their lessons. She added that this, "really helped our relationship, and trust, which is a big part of the relationship." PST responses,

however, seem to indicate a different perception of this type of modeling. All of Ellen's PSTs shared that Ellen "jumped in" and interrupted their lessons without permission. Britney further described feeling confused when Ellen jumped in. She said her students would also become confused, because Ellen often gave them different instructions than Britney's and the students didn't know whose instructions to heed. Felicity described feeling thrown off and not knowing where to pick back up after Ellen ended her catastrophic modeling, saying, "I just kind of didn't know where to go from there." In addition, Lana said she felt like Ellen's use of catastrophic modeling made her feel like Ellen saw her as incompetent and felt the catastrophic modeling was condescending. Ellen's PSTs described the use of catastrophic modeling as an indicator that led them to believe that Ellen did believe they were doing a good job at teaching the students.

Year One: Nicole's Modeling

During practicum, the first year of the study, participant descriptions of Nicole's modeling mainly resembled fishbowl and simple modeling. The following sections describe this modeling in greater detail.

Fishbowl Modeling. Nicole's described using modeling to gain the trust of her PSTs at the beginning of practicum, which is the purpose of fishbowl modeling. She and her PSTs noted that Nicole modeled a few lessons in the first few weeks to help her PSTs understand how her practices worked for instructing PSTs. One of Nicole's PSTs, Caitlin, noted this type of modeling did help her to gain confidence in Nicole's abilities as a teacher. Caitlin shared that when she observed Nicole model behavior management techniques at the beginning of practicum and her teaching was effective, Caitlin gained confidence in Nicole's ability as a teacher. Nicole said she made it clear she expected her PSTs to implement the practices she modeled for them. She remarked that the PSTs' success in practicum depended upon how receptive they were to her

modeling and how willing they are to try out what she modeled for them. She stated that modeling allowed her PSTs to “buy-in” and be more willing to try out what she modeled.

Additionally, during the first year, Nicole noted using fishbowl modeling to demonstrate the standards she expected her PSTs to meet. She described believing some of her PSTs were meeting her standard for teaching and others were not. Nicole described a specific incident when one of her PSTs did not implement her modeling and how disappointed she was when her modeling was not followed with exactness. She postulated that perhaps her modeling wasn't implemented because a particular PST “didn't have the strongest work ethic,” and therefore was not meeting the standard Nicole expected. Nicole also described that the student's lack of implementing her modeling caused tension to arise in their relationship.

Simple Modeling. When Nicole described her modeling, she mainly spoke about modeling how teachers praise their students through simple modeling techniques. Nicole's PSTs also reported her modeling this teacher behavior, even when they asked her to model other things. Nicole described extensively modeling behavior management techniques, but only minimally modeling academic instruction. When Nicole most frequently mentioned modeling “praise rates,” a behavior management technique in which the teacher frequently praises students. Nicole mentioned modeling this technique extensively because she found her PSTs had difficulty praising their students as often as the technique demanded. Nicole explained that she prioritized modeling to teach behaviors because she did not think the PSTs were ready to learn how to teach instruction until they had mastered these techniques. This stance on modeling seemed to cause dissonance with the PSTs. Year one, PST, Janet, shared that it seemed that Nicole seldom modeled for the PSTs. She explained further: “When we specifically asked her to

model instruction, she [Nicole] would agree, but it was more behavior corrections than teaching.”

Year Two Modeling

Ellen and Nicole mentored a new group PSTs during the second year of the study. This year of mentoring occurred after Ellen and Nicole attended professional development in modeling and coaching pedagogy. One hour of this five-session training focused specifically on the four types of modeling: simple, fishbowl, catastrophic, and cognitive. Through the combined use of role playing, practice, and Data Based Learning (DBL), mentors learned not only about modeling but also about possible PST reactions to simple, fishbowl, catastrophic and cognitive modeling.

Year Two: Ellen’s Modeling

Ellen and the PSTs she mentored during the second year of practicum described Ellen using catastrophic modeling and implementing cognitive modeling techniques, namely conferencing about modeling.

Catastrophic Modeling. Ellen’s first reaction to the question about how her modeling was different after professional development, was that she sought to avoid using catastrophic modeling. She mentioned how she and the other CTs were very aware that catastrophic modeling was not a helpful way to model as a mentor. However, she and her PSTs mentioned a time or two when she would interrupt their lessons and implement catastrophic modeling. Ellen mentioned one incident when she interrupted Camille’s lesson and apologized for interrupting saying, “I’m sorry, I’m not supposed to do this!” but felt she needed to intervene anyway because a part of Camille’s lesson “wasn’t working.” After Ellen finished modeling, she reported that she sat by Camille’s side and made comments that were intended to tell Camille how to do

certain parts of her lesson and respond to certain student behaviors. Ellen believed she appreciated and benefited from the verbal interruption.

However, when reflecting upon the experience, Camille shared that she knew how to teach the lesson without Ellen's verbal interruptions. Camille noted that she was trying her best to implement those practices and when Ellen jumped in with catastrophic modeling, it became stressful instead of helpful. Although Camille describes not liking Ellen's interruption, Ellen still perceived that Camille appreciated it. Ellen said she and the other CTs talked about the differences between a "catastrophic" interruption and jumping into model and viewed her "interruption" of Camille's lesson as not catastrophic. She concluded, even though she avoids catastrophic modeling and does not want to do it anymore, "It worked out really well that I was able to do it (catastrophic modeling)." While Ellen tried to stay away from catastrophic modeling and added in a conversation about the modeling, she still utilized it and believed that her PSTs were grateful for that modeling and so it was fine for her to use that form of modeling.

Partial-Cognitive Modeling. As noted above, during data analysis of Ellen's second year modeling, the researchers noticed Ellen implemented a type of hybrid modeling. It seemed that while Ellen did not always implement cognitive modeling, she made several approximations, even when relapsing into catastrophic modeling. The researchers named this type of hybrid modeling as "partial-cognitive modeling." One of the main elements of cognitive modeling which Ellen implemented was having a conversation with her PSTs before and after she modeled. She described trying to implement these conversations, she said, "I've been a lot more aware to really keep going back to when I'm counseling and my meeting with them—what questions do you have? What do you want me to focus on?" In addition, she said that these

mentoring meetings where she discussed her PSTs thoughts and needs helped her to “be more specific” and to give the PSTs more ownership over when and what she modeled for them.

The utilization of these modeling conversations appears to be the biggest change in how Ellen modeled the second year, based on both her account and that of the PSTs. During these conversations, Ellen said that she explained to the PST what she wanted her to get out of the modeling. Her PSTs described that before Ellen modeled, she would tell them what she wanted them to pay attention to with instructions. Her PSTs also described the discussions after Ellen modeled where they would collaboratively review what Ellen modeled. Ellen’s PSTs explained these conversations helped them to think more about Ellen’s modeling and put it into practice. Ellen additionally talked to her PSTs about their goals and shared that having the PSTs create goals helped her to model with these goals in mind. Her PSTs agreed that Ellen’s modeling reflected their needs, noting that Ellen modeled the specific areas where they needed the most help.

Year Two: Nicole’s Modeling

During the second year of practicum, Nicole and the PSTs she mentored described Nicole modeling only a few times. Nicole noted that she specifically refrained from implementing catastrophic modeling.

Catastrophic Modeling. Nicole remarked since she learned catastrophic modeling didn’t have the best outcomes for PSTs, this knowledge stopped her a few times from jumping into their lesson to model, even when she thought she should have. However, even though she learned during professional development that catastrophic modeling wasn’t the best way to utilize modeling to mentor PSTs. She added that if she had told her PSTs she would jump in, that it would have been appropriate for her to do so. Nicole further noted her “fear to jump in the

wrong way may have . . . decreased the number of growth opportunities” for her PSTs and reflected she might have influenced their practices earlier if she had used catastrophe modeling. She said that she held back for “fear” of using catastrophic modeling. Nicole’s described taking notes about the things which prompted her to want to interrupt their lessons instead of using catastrophic modeling. She said she would share her concerns during feedback sessions instead of offering to model those practices for them later.

Cognitive Modeling. Nicole described when she did model, she utilized some elements of cognitive modeling, including conferencing with her PSTs about the modeling and pausing to talk during her modeling to point out specific practices. She added that learning about different types of modeling encouraged her to do more pre-conferencing with her students or to pause during her lessons and make comments. She also noted she would ask them questions following her modeling to help her PSTs reflect on her modeling and discuss how they could apply it. Nicole added she felt like this had made her modeling more successful and helped her PSTs to have “deeper collaborative time” than it had been before she received professional development on modeling. The PSTs also noted, while she did discuss her modeling with them and it was helpful in their understanding of her modeled instruction, these conversations were only a few minutes.

Olivia further noted Nicole would ask her what she liked about her day and this was the only prompt Nicole gave her for discussion. After the PSTs answered this question, Nicole would talk about things they could improve on and what she thought they should do during their future lessons. Olivia reflected that most of these feedback sessions include mostly “negative” feedback, such as, “You’re going to fail this if you don’t do this right away.” She also said that

she received very little praise from Nicole, which made it hard for her to want to receive feedback.

Research Question 3: Relationship Descriptions During Year One and Year Two

Year One: Ellen's Relationship Outcomes

In year one, Ellen's use of catastrophic modeling seemed to negatively affect the CT/PST relationship. Even though Ellen insisted her use of catastrophic modeling helped her PSTs respect her; the PSTs saw things differently. Year-one PSTs believed Ellen used catastrophic modeling to send the message she didn't respect them as capable teachers. This further led Ellen's PSTs to describe thinking they had to conform to Ellen's modeled practices in order to maintain a relationship with her. PST participants described Ellen's use of catastrophic modeling as a way to create "mini" Ellens. In other words, the PSTs describe feeling that Ellen's modeling positioned them to be mere copycats who were discouraged from differentiating instruction in any way other than the way Ellen modeled.

Another impression Ellen's use of catastrophic modeling left with PSTs was a feeling that she did not value the PSTs' budding knowledge of teaching. First-year PST, Britney, noted she felt like Ellen didn't value the knowledge they already had from their experiences at the university and they were "looked down upon" by Ellen. Britney also said Ellen seemed to have the attitude that her PSTs didn't know anything when they came into the practicum experience. Additionally, Ellen's first year PSTs also mentioned feeling that Ellen was the one who held "secret" teaching knowledge she would only give to the PSTs when she decided. For example, Britney described Ellen's attitude about the knowledge she had, saying it was like she had a 'secret teacher book' and that Ellen would only give her access to this knowledge when she decided they needed it.

Year One: Nicole's Relationship Outcomes

Year-one PSTs described Nicole's use of simple modeling as positioning them as unknowing. Nicole noted that during "testing night" (which was the first time Nicole observed her PSTs work with students), she said she realized her PSTs didn't know what they were doing. Nicole described feeling uncertainty after this event about whether or not she could trust that her PSTs were going to make it through practicum and be consistent in the way they taught their students. Nicole's PSTs noticed this lack of trust from their CT immediately. Janet described feeling that Nicole treated her "more like a child than an actual teacher candidate." She added that she felt Nicole was demeaning to her and the other PSTs a lot of the time, especially in the way she gave them feedback.

Nicole further described using modeling to set the standard her PSTs were supposed to meet. When first-year PSTs did not fully embrace her modeling, Nicole reflected that they didn't grow as teachers. Nicole noticed she had "personality differences" with some of her PSTs. Those PSTs she had personality differences with also tended to be those PSTs who were not ready for her modeling and did not have a lot of "with-it-ness" and thus did not implement the practices she modeled for them. Nicole also explained that those PSTs who did have "with-it-ness" were PSTs who were ready for her modeling and only needed an example and could copy her modeling exactly. However, she added that didn't have the time to model for the PSTs who she believed were doing well because she thought she needed to spend more time on the PSTs she perceived as struggling.

Conversely, Nicole's first year noted that she spent more time with one of them [Caitlin], whom they viewed as Nicole's favorite. The PSTs described Nicole modeling differently for Caitlin and remarked Nicole seemed more at ease and less critical of Caitlin than other PSTs as

having a favorite PST—Caitlin. By implementing simple modeling unevenly with her PSTs, Nicole may have inadvertently created a hierarchical relationship with her PSTs. Nicole viewed this hierarchy as necessary because not all PSTs were ready to accept her modeling; while this type of modeling led to the other PSTs feeling marginalized.

Nicole utilized fishbowl and simple modeling with her PSTs during the first year of this study. Nicole noted that she deliberately used fishbowl modeling to gain the trust of her PSTs and to set a standard for how she expected them to teach. Nicole described being more willing to model for PSTs who she believed were more willing to meet her standard, and said she decided which of her PSTs were ready for modeling and which were not. Nicole described her PSTs this way, saying,

They didn't embrace the modeling process. They were so concerned about their grade that they weren't doing what was actually happening in the moment . . . I noticed that pattern: those that were ready and those who were not.

Nicole's PSTs noticed that she did not model equally for them, resulting in the PSTs feeling marginalized when Nicole spent less time or seemed more critical of them. Caitlin reflected that the other PSTs felt judged, even though she got along with Nicole. She added that the other PSTs told her that she was Nicole's "favorite."

Year Two: Ellen's Relationship Outcomes

In year two, Ellen made changes in the way she modeled for her PSTs. In the second year, Ellen began moving away from simple and catastrophic modeling to incorporating elements of cognitive modeling as a mentoring tool to support her PSTs. Second year PSTs portray Ellen as being able to balance CT expectations and PST goals. In interviews, her year-two PSTs often mentioned having a personality match with Ellen. Year-two PSTs also noted

feeling appreciative of the relationship they had with Ellen as a mentor. When Ellen allowed PST choice, discussed her modeled practices, and based her modeling on PST needs and goals, her PSTs believed that she was demonstrating she was willing to modify her mentoring based upon their needs. Her PSTs further reflected that she involved them in reflecting upon their lesson and felt like it helped them to develop their own teaching style.

As opposed to first-year PST participants feeling they needed to become prototypes of Ellen; second-year PSTs described Ellen's focus on individual growth and helped them to realize they didn't have to be perfect. Ellen commented that her focus on understanding PSTs' individual needs during practicum helped her model what the PSTs needed to help grow and develop during practicum. Ellen's implementation of elements of cognitive modeling discussions during the second year, also helped Ellen notice and celebrate PST successes. Second-year PSTs pointed out that Ellen was very good at pointing out their strengths, both to them personally as well as to the other CTs and to the university supervisor at their site. Ellen's PSTs discussed being grateful to have her as their CT. Camille shared that she and the other PSTs would talk at the end of the day about how grateful they were Ellen was their mentor, perceiving that Ellen was on their side and wanted to help them develop as teachers during their practicum experience.

Year Two: Nicole's Relationship Outcomes

In year two, Nicole also made changes in the way she modeled for her PSTs. In the second year, Nicole began moving away from simple and catastrophic modeling as well. However, while Nicole moved away from physically implementing catastrophic modeling the second year, she seemed frustrated about not implementing this type of modeling with her PSTs. She commented that although she had moved away from actually doing it [catastrophic modeling]; she continued to discuss instances when she wanted to "jump in" and implement

catastrophic modeling as she observed her PSTs. Nicole would then share these instances with her PSTs at times when she would debrief PST lessons. Additionally, during the second year, Nicole modeled much less frequently overall for her PSTs.

Second-year PSTs mentioned feeling a lack of support from Nicole. They explained that while Nicole set high standards for them to meet, she infrequently modeled these standards for her PSTs. The PSTs shared that prior to practicum Nicole sent them an email warning them that even though the university set standards for the PSTs to reach, Nicole had higher standards she expected them to reach. Not all of the PSTs appreciated the email. Year-two PST, Desi, added it was an issue that Nicole set a different standard for her PSTs than what the university or other CTs set. Several of the PSTs noted they would have been more able to meet these expectations if Nicole provided more modeling for them, especially at the beginning of practicum. Desi added that because Nicole didn't provide modeling for her, she didn't perceive Nicole as a mentor, but someone who was "watching her" without offering help. Olivia added that when Nicole gave her negative feedback, she thought it wasn't fair because she hadn't had the method modeled for her. Desi and Olivia mentioned that the way Nicole's high standards and they had to fit into a very specific mold dictated by Nicole.

However, Nicole described not modeling for certain PSTs because she perceived one particular PST didn't think she needed Nicole's modeling. Nicole added this meant one of her PSTs wouldn't be ready for her final observations because she was not willing to having Nicole model for her. When Nicole perceived that there was a personality conflict with a PST, she conflated this with them being open to her modeling. Nicole was less likely to model for PSTs that she perceived as being "prickly" during their interactions. She said that she believed telling her PSTs how she was going to mentor them before practicum would help them be more open to

accepting her mentoring style. However, PST responses indicate that PSTs wanted Nicole to allow them space to develop their own creativity and identity as teachers. When Nicole spoke about PSTs that she perceived having personality conflicts, she also mentioned that they did not implement her modeling the way that she modeled for them. Kelly, whose teaching style seemed to align more closely with Nicole's, described a more positive relationship with Nicole than did Desi or Olivia. Kelly had worked with Nicole previously for a class assignment and had enjoyed working with Nicole so much that she requested Nicole as her CT. Nicole also described Kelly as more willing to ask her for feedback and ask her to model, saying it as a "personality" difference from the other PSTs. She said this willingness has led to "a lot of really good teaching on her part." Kelly further added that she perceived that she was able to teach in a way that reflected her own personality, even while fulfilling requirements.

Research Question 4: Professional Development

Ellen: Impact of Professional Development

After attending professional development on the four types of modeling (i.e., simple, fishbowl, catastrophic, and cognitive), Ellen avoided using catastrophic modeling and added elements of cognitive modeling when modeling for her assigned PSTs the second year. The addition of cognitive modeling conferences was described by both Ellen her second year PSTs as being helpful to better understand what was modeled. After Ellen learned about the different parts of cognitive modeling, such as discussing modeling with PSTs before and after the modeled instruction, using modeling in response to PST goals, and talking about her internal thought process while modeling, she reflected that she became intentional in the way she counseled with her students during their meetings. She added that she focused on asking them what questions they have and giving them more ownership over their goals and learning.

Additionally, Ellen describes that she was now aware of the negative aspects of catastrophic modeling and sought to avoid implementing it with her PSTs. She also implemented aspects of cognitive modeling, which led her PSTs to feel her modeling was more helpful than if she had only used simple modeling to instruct them. However, Camille added that modeling wasn't a regular thing which Ellen did.

Ellen and her second-year PSTs described having a positive CT/PST relationship, which contrasted CT and PST responses from the previous year. In addition, Ellen described that after attending professional development where she learned about the different types of modeling, she began to reconsider her CT role as more of a mentor than an evaluator. One way that Ellen described rethinking her perception of her role was that after learning there were better ways to model than others, she further asked, "What's the best way (to mentor)?" She noted that she appreciated the professional development she attended was "research-based" and this gave her more buy-in to implement cognitive modeling and to stay away from catastrophic modeling. She said, "I really felt the sense of this [modeling] is research based, which I never really thought about it before." Ellen described that as she began to reflect upon best modeling practices, she also asked herself, "How can we best mentor our students?" She added that she began to think more about how to be a good mentor for her PSTs.

Ellen further said that she appreciated the time, which was spent during professional development, which helped to bring these different modeling practices to her attention, although she added that she had to review the different types of modeling again during practicum. So, although the time was spent on this topic during professional development, Ellen describes that she continued to develop her views on being a mentor after the professional development. She says, "I've been thinking about things and trying to figure out how to guide students." She added

that she isn't worried about giving them points as much as figuring out how to best mentor her students.

Nicole: Impact of Professional Development

After attending professional development on the four types of modeling, (i.e., simple, fishbowl, catastrophic, and cognitive), Nicole avoided using catastrophic modeling and added elements of cognitive modeling when modeling for PSTs. The addition of cognitive modeling conferences was described by both Nicole and PSTs she worked with as helpful to understand what Nicole modeled. Nicole described that her avoidance of catastrophic modeling constrained her modeling. She did not model for her PSTs the second year, unless they specifically requested it. However, Nicole noted that perhaps if she had warned her PSTs at the beginning of practicum that she would use catastrophic modeling, they would know what to expect, and it would be acceptable for her to use it. Overall, second-year PSTs frequently described feeling unsupported by Nicole, further described perceiving her as less of a mentor and more of an evaluator.

Nicole also discussed how professional development helped her realize she needed to better prepare her PSTs to understand her personality so they would be able to respond better to her way of doing things. When asked about the most important aspect of the professional development she attended, Nicole mentioned what she learned about personalities when the instructor gave the CTs a personality test. She described that this personality test helped her to realize how personalities make a big impact on the ways in which a CT mentors. She said this led her to realize she should prepare her PSTs to know her personality is "to the point" and she will be blunt in what she says. She further said she realized her personality style, "was going to come out in my modeling and in my mentoring" and she needed to let her PSTs know this was how she was going to be approaching mentoring processes such as feedback and modeling.

However, she didn't mention trying to understand how to work with her PSTs' personalities, which was the point of the activity, according to the university trainer. When the primary researcher emailed to clarify the purpose of the personality test, the trainer replied that the purpose was to help them understand, "the way they perceive things may not be the way the PSTs perceive things." She further added, "The way they WANT to coach or mentor may NOT be the way the PSTs NEED to be mentored" (trainer emphasis). A second-year PST summed up how Nicole's personality came across to her, "like you've been doing all of this stuff wrong" which she adds "doesn't create like a great culture or feeling" during practicum.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to describe what role, if any, CTs' use of modeling plays in the development of the CT/PST relationship. A concurrent purpose was to explore the ways that providing explicit training in effective modeling for CTs affect the CT/PST relationship, if at all. It is hoped that information from this study will inform teacher preparation programs. It further hoped that it will aid university supervisors in providing effective modeling instruction for CTs to use with PSTs during practicum experiences. Findings from this study demonstrated that PSTs and CTs described modeling as a highly socializing process where types of simple modeling may impinge on PST identity development and growth during practicum. Findings additionally indicated that elements of cognitive modeling allowed PSTs a place to develop their ideal identities with the support of the CT whose modeling is used to support PST's individual learning goals. In addition, professional development may have an impact on CT's use of modeling when the CT began to use new understandings of the types of modeling as a springboard to taking on the role and identity of a "mentor" teacher.

Modeling Descriptions

One of the primary findings of this study is that the way both PSTs and CTs describe modeling as a key part of a socializing process and as a primary part of a PST's socialization process as an emerging teacher. This finding is in contrast to previous research, which describes modeling as an instructional strategy used to convey teaching strategies to PSTs. Socialization is the process of internalizing the norms and ideologies of a culture or society and involves changes in the individual's identity or sense of self. A PST's socialization process begins before they enter the practicum setting, in that the way PSTs are socialized into the role of professional teacher appears to be highly influenced by their experiences during practicum (Buckworth, 2017). When the role or identity the CT models for the PST does not match the PST's desired identity, the PST can become disempowered to create their "ideal" identity as a teacher. A PST's ideal identity reflects the behavior and attitude that they want to have as a professional teacher (O'Grady et al., 2018).

Mini-Me Identity

One of the study findings indicated that CTs seemed to overuse types of simple modeling, known as catastrophic and fishbowl modeling with PSTs (Cutrer & Christensen, 2018). When CTs used these types of simple modeling, PST were often positioned as CT "mini-mes" wherein the PST was expected to copy the CT's actions without questioning or engaging professional dialogue (O'Grady et al., 2018). PST participants described CTs using modeling during the first few weeks of practicum to convey to PSTs how the CT wanted them to teach. While CTs described believing that this was stress reducing, because the PST would then know how to teach correctly, PSTs felt pressured to copy the CTs' modeled practices exactly in order to earn a good grade and to avoid conflict with the CT. Because CTs' modeling did not always

match PSTs' university training, personal beliefs, or learned pedagogies about teaching, PSTs did not often agree with or feel comfortable applying the CT's methods exactly. Yet, they indicate that they copied their CTs modeling anyway.

One of the outcomes of simple modeling, as described by the PST participants in this study, is that the way the CT implemented modeling put them in a tenuous position in which they were asked to choose between the identity they desired and the identity their CT modeled for them. This identity is referred to as the *mini-me identity* where the PST was expected to share the CT's modeled identity. During modeling, the CT would ask them to sit and watch them teach with the idea that the PST would then copy their modeled practices. However, PST participant responses demonstrated that PSTs did not always view the CT's modeling this way, believing that it was simply one way to teach or an idea of how they could teach something. However, the CTs viewed it differently, believing they were showing their PSTs how they expected them to teach, and reinforced this idea in their feedback to PSTs. When the conflict between the two identities emerged in this study, it created conflict in the PST-CT relationship and resulted in conflict and distancing.

Disempowerment

Another element of modeling was demonstrated by the way that Ellen and Nicole's modeling practices assisted to de-professionalize the PSTs and seemed to position them as incapable teachers who needed the help of the CT in order to become successful (Yuan, 2016). When PSTs are not treated as professionals, it hinders their socialization toward becoming a professional teacher and leads by not allowing them to collaborate with the CT about their learning goals (Davis & Fantozzi, 2016). One of the ways that the PST participants in this study described being deprofessionalized was through the CTs use of modeling (Zhu et al., 2018),

especially when the CT implemented catastrophic modeling, where they interrupted the PST's lesson to model for them (Cutrer & Christensen, 2018). This type of modeling seemed to socialize the PSTs as followers, instead of being a part of the decisions that were made concerning their professional growth. When they are not included in this process, PSTs are also not allowed to act out professional identities, which seems to take a toll on their learning (O'Grady et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2018).

Conversely, cognitive modeling appears to be a process that encourages professional collaboration between PST and CT and helps the PST to become more socialized into the role of a professional teacher. This may be because PSTs have clear ideas about the types of support, they want from their CTs, but are often unsure of how to communicate those needs to the CT (Davis & Fantozzi, 2016). When the CT prompts the PST to communicate these needs to them on a frequent basis, and in specific contexts such as modeling or feedback, the role of the CT becomes transactional and part of a collaborative process (Davis & Fantozzi, 2016). Cognitive modeling serves to help PSTs to become professional because it helps to provide them with an opportunity to take part in managing their learning and their personal growth. An example of this is when Ellen had her PSTs create goals and then tailored her modeling to fit the goals that her PSTs created.

Relationship Outcomes

In addition, becoming a teacher is a highly political process (Zhu et al., 2018) and becoming socialized into the role of a teacher often becomes entangled in the CT/PST relationship. The way that the CT utilizes modeling as a means to help socialize PSTs to the teaching profession may greatly affect the development of a relationship between PST and CT. Evidence from this study suggests that the way a CT uses modeling may result in conflict,

contradiction, disempowerment, and negatively affect the collaborative interactions between the PST and CT. (Forsbach-Rothman, 2007; Zhu et al., 2018). In this way, a CT's use of particular modeling practices may contribute to a more closed, or fixed CT/PST relationship rather than one that continues to grow. For example, a CT that uses modeling as a means to control the role and identity PSTs are allowed to assume during practicum can impinge on the PST's identity development (Yuan, 2016; Zhu et al., 2018).

Relationship Breakdown

While teaching in a CT's classroom, PSTs seek guidance from the CT, but also concurrently want independence and recognition (Zhu et al., 2018). Further, the way that PSTs describe CT's use of the two types of simple modeling (i.e., catastrophic and fishbowl) demonstrate that simple modeling often thwarts the PST's desire for independence and recognition, which can lead to a breakdown of the CT/PST relationship. In addition, when CT and PST identities conflicted, so did respectful behaviors between the two and the CT/PST relationship seemed to suffer in consequence (Buckworth, 2017). Examples of disrespectful behaviors from CTs include demonstrations of the power position they hold over the PST (Yuan, 2016; Zhu et al., 2018). As a result, PSTs often distanced themselves from the CT or bit their tongue and complied with the CT's direction (O'Grady et al., 2018). These behaviors, which are affirmation of relationship breakdown, impinge on PST professional growth and learning. Conversely, when the CT demonstrated that she was willing to accommodate for the PST in the way that she modeled and conferenced with her. She concurrently allowed her the independence and professional recognition she sought (Zhu et al., 2018), the PST felt heard, felt that the identities matched up, and that her differences were prized by the CT.

Previous research on CT use of power in the mentoring process demonstrates the CT interaction with PSTs can vary greatly from minimal interaction or support, controlling and micromanaging, to supportive and professional (Buckworth, 2017; O’Grady et al., 2018; Forsbach-Rothman, 2007). For example, while CT Nicole offered little to no engagement for those PSTs whom she perceived as having clashing personalities, Ellen used her power in an overbearing and controlling manner during the first year of this study. Instead Ellen became supportive and professional after professional development (Forsbach-Rothman, 2007). When Nicole set high standards but didn’t use modeling as a support to meet those standards, her PSTs didn’t see her as a mentor. Although Nicole frequently used modeling for those PSTs whose teacher identity resembled her own, she didn’t frequently use modeling for those PSTs who taught according to their own identity.

Relationship Building Through Collaboration

When a CT collaborates with a PST about their modeled practices and how the PST will implement those practices, PSTs perceive that they have space to grow and develop their ideal identity. This professional growth is strengthened with the guidance and support of a mentor (Forsbach-Rothman, 2007). A collaborative mentoring approach seems to allow the PST to explore and act out the different roles and identities they considered when completing coursework (Zhu et al., 2018). While it is important that the PST have space to try out these identities, the guidance and support of a CT is critical to help them gain insights and hone their teaching skills (Forsbach-Rothman, 2007). It appears that when the CT is either too overbearing and controlling or too distanced, that the PST either feels constrained to take on the CT’s mini-me identity or left to their own devices (O’Grady et al., 2018). Cognitive modeling seems to be one way to find balance between the two, by adding in a collaborative element in which the CT

guides and helps. Cognitive modeling allows CTs to adapt to meet the expectations the PST has for their practicum experience (Cutrer & Christensen, 2018; Forsbach-Rothman, 2007). This critical collaboration not only helps the PST to grow during their time in practicum, but also to have a more positive view about entering the teaching profession and being mentored in future situations (Forsbach-Rothman, 2007).

Professional Development Effects

Not only was modeling described by participants as part of a socializing process for PSTs, but CT participant descriptions also demonstrate that learning about ways to use modeling when working with novice teachers may help CT's to become socialized into the role of a mentor teacher. Cooperating teacher's views on their roles differ greatly (Butler & Cuenca, 2012) and they are often not given explicit information about the expectations of entering the role of CT (Burns & Bidiali, 2015). Participant responses from this study provide evidence that professional development on the outcomes of utilizing mentoring processes in specific ways can lead one a CTs to change their role perception (Hennissen et al., 2011). In addition, it should be noted that instances where PSTs are instructed on how to work with CTs during practicum were not found, indicating that while CTs are rarely instructed on how to work with PSTs, PSTs are less likely to receive instruction on how to work with CTs. In this study, Ellen reconsidered her role as CT from evaluator to mentor and coach. Attending professional development began a socializing process for the CT in which they began to ask themselves about what best mentor practices were instead of doing things the way that she had been doing them.

After professional development, Ellen demonstrated a shift from viewing her role as that of an evaluator and enforcer to be a mentor who was responsive to the needs of her PSTs. Providing concrete examples of how she could act as a mentor through modeling seemed to help

Ellen view her interaction with PSTs in a new light. As Ellen began to question her previous conceptions about how to mentor novice teachers, she began to avoid past behaviors she learned didn't have good outcomes for PSTs. This questioning and her subsequent experience as a CT in the second year of the study, gave her an opportunity to act out what she learned in professional development and began to take on the role and identity of a mentor instead of that of an observer and grader.

However, the professional development did not appear to have this effect upon Nicole, who came from the training with misconceptions regarding the principles presented and avoided modeling for her PSTs. Further, Nicole's resistance to implementing cognitive modeling strategies may be because it suggested that her previous use of modeling delegitimized her as a CT. When Nicole implemented cognitive modeling in a way consistent with her personality, she may have been attempting to protect her previous practices and identity as a CT. Nicole's reactions to professional development are consistent with descriptions resistance to implementing skills taught in professional development (Jacobs et al., 2018). During professional development, a CT may view the new skill negatively or not be committed to using it in their practice and value their previous use of the instructional strategy over the new suggested use (Jacobs et al., 2018). This finding seems to further demonstrate that mentoring is more than just a communication of skills from a seasoned individual to a novice, but that a CT's approach to mentoring may be linked to their identity as a mentor.

Previous research has uncovered the lack of understanding that CTs often have about their role (Butler & Cuenca, 2012). Although exploring this topic is outside the scope of this study, it is important to note that a lack of CT understanding concerning their role can lead to negative experiences for both PST and CT and lead to less positive outcomes for both

(Buckworth, 2017). Cooperating teachers' confusion about their role and responsibilities undermines the efficacy of the practicum placement (Hall et al., 2008). Additionally, research points to the need for CTs to have knowledge of the functions of mentoring which point to the need for professional relationships that strengthen growth through PST-directed, CT-supported learning (Burns & Bidiali, 2015; Hall et al., 2008). This is a model that appears to be inherent in cognitive modeling, which emphasizes collaboration, PST-created goals, and discussion (Cutrer & Christensen, 2018). Thus, it may not be surprising that upon learning about this model, Ellen began to question her previous methods and began to adopt these elements of cognitive modeling into other areas of her mentoring.

Limitations

This study is limited in its scope due to a limited setting. The nature of a qualitative study is not to generalize results to the broader populations of CTs and PSTs. The goal of this study is to describe the interactions of these CTs and PSTs, in hopes to gain more understanding of some dynamics that may emerge among other educators in various fields of education.

One limitation is that the survey and interview rely on self-report, due to the fact that self-report may not always be honest, and while anonymity is maintained, often participants respond in a way that maintains social acceptance. While this is part of the purpose of the study, as the researcher wants to describe differences between CTs and PSTs in their self-reported attitudes toward mentoring, it does lead the researcher to question the validity of responses.

In addition, while findings reflect some of the processes of mentoring, not all of these processes were taken into consideration due to the limited scope of this study. It is important to note that participant descriptions also frequently cited the way that CTs gave them feedback when responding to these issues. This suggests that it was not only the way that CTs modeled,

but the overlap of feedback and modeling that affected a PSTs socialization process. Because mentoring processes work together in concert, it is important not only to study them separately, but further research is needed to examine how they complement each other and build upon one another. However, participant narratives in this study indicated that modeling was a major part of how they become socialized to the teaching profession during practicum and that certain types of modeling led to more favorable learning and social outcomes than others.

This study could be improved through frequent observations of CTs and PSTs working together in their practicum settings in order for the researcher to experience first-hand what is going on in the relationship and not relying solely on self-report. However, while this does inform the results of the survey and interviews, the purpose of this study is not to examine what is actually happening between the CT and PST, but to understand how they see and describe how the CT's use of modeling affects their described experience during the mentoring relationship. Another way to improve this study would be to gather PSTs from a number of university settings so that the researcher can further generalize attitudes among PSTs from university backgrounds.

Implications for Future Research

In addition, further attention needs to be given to how different CTs respond to professional development and differences such as those seen in this study exist. Although responses reflected that professional development training may lead to improved mentoring behaviors, due to the limited number of CT participants in this study, and the limited attention paid to this topic, further exploration needs to be made concerning this topic.

It is hoped that the findings in this study will help to begin conversations between CTs and PSTs and teacher educators concerning the use of modeling and the potential effects that

they have on the mentoring relationship. In addition, it is hoped that the data gathered will give some insight into the effect of professional development on CTs' use of mentoring processes.

Implications for Practitioners

It is hoped that the findings in this study will aid teacher preparation programs in understanding how a CT's use of modeling affects the way that CTs and PSTs view their mentoring relationship, as well as explore whether providing explicit training in effective modeling for CTs affects the CT/PST relationship. Further, in a search for articles on CT use of modeling for PSTs, it was discovered that very little has been written on this subject. There is also very little research that compares CT with their PSTs to see to what extent their attitudes differ. In looking closer, less still had been written on PST perceptions concerning their CT's role in the mentoring relationship. By asking CTs and PSTs to describe their attitudes and perceptions toward their mentoring relationship, teacher preparation programs can be better informed on how to support CT/PST relationship formation.

While the purpose of this study was not to examine why a PST may choose not to enter the teaching profession, a desire to do so was frequently noted by the PSTs who participated in this study. This desire was frequently a result of a negative practicum experience, often focused around a negative experience with their CT. Although all PSTs in this study did choose to continue their teacher education, research suggests that one way to increase retention rate is to train parties involved in teacher education about how to support PSTs in navigating their emerging role as a professional teacher. Research further suggests that training CTs on modeling specific teaching techniques can lead to more favorable outcomes for PSTs (Forsbach-Rothman, 2007).

The findings of this study indicate that attending professional development increases CT understanding of mentoring process and specific ways to implement them for productive PST outcomes. Research suggests that CTs need to be trained on their role and understand what is expected of a CT in order to create positive outcomes for both CTs and PSTs (Buckworth, 2017; Hennissen et al., 2011). In order to create more positive outcomes for CTs and PSTs, teacher educators need to communicate role responsibilities to CTs (Butler & Cuenca, 2012; Hall et al., 2008) and support their mentoring through ongoing supervision (Burns & Bidiali, 2015). Research on CT training further suggests that training CTs on specific mentor processes has an effect on CT's behaviors during practicum (Hennissen et al., 2011). While prior to the first year of this study, CT Ellen had attended mentor trainings, attending training focused specifically on a mentor-process led to behavior change for Ellen, providing further support for this research that training CTs on specific mentoring behaviors helpful in bringing about positive change in CTs.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to describe what role, if any, CTs' use of modeling plays in the development of the CT/PST relationship. A concurrent purpose is to explore the ways that providing explicit training in effective modeling for CTs affect the CT/PST relationship, if at all. It is hoped that information from this study will inform teacher preparation programs, and aid university supervisors in providing effective modeling instruction for CTs to use with PSTs during practicum experiences. An important finding in this study is that modeling is a primary way that CTs socialize PSTs to the teaching profession. When CTs control the way that PSTs act and insist that they mimic their modeled teacher identities (Yuan, 2016), they not only control the teaching practices that the PST learns during practicum, but the CT/PST relationship also suffers. Because modeling appears to mainly be a socializing behavior, it affects the way a PST

views the teaching profession, which may be positive or negative depending upon their interactions with the CT (Buckworth, 2017). If a PST views the teaching profession negatively, they may reconsider wanting to enter the role of teacher (Buckworth, 2017). Cooperating teachers whose actions are based upon their power position seek to control the PST's identity as an emerging teacher (Zhu et al., 2018), by insisting that they become mini-me teachers and act out the CT's modeled identity (Yuan, 2016). This constraint often leads to disempowerment for those PSTs who do not want to align with the CT's identity (Yuan, 2016). This disempowerment that comes when a PST feels deprofessionalized by the actions of the CT can lead to behaviors such as lip biting or distancing (O'Grady et al., 2018), which can result in relationship failure (Buckworth, 2017). When CTs and PSTs collaborate during practicum, the CT allows the PST to be a part of guiding and directing their socialization and this collaboration builds the CT/PST relationship (Forsbach-Rothman, 2007; Zhu et al., 2018). In addition, evidence from this study suggests that professional development focused on modeling help CTs to see themselves in the role of a mentor and enact the behaviors they learn a supportive mentor implements when working with novice teachers (Burns & Bidiali, 2015).

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Tables

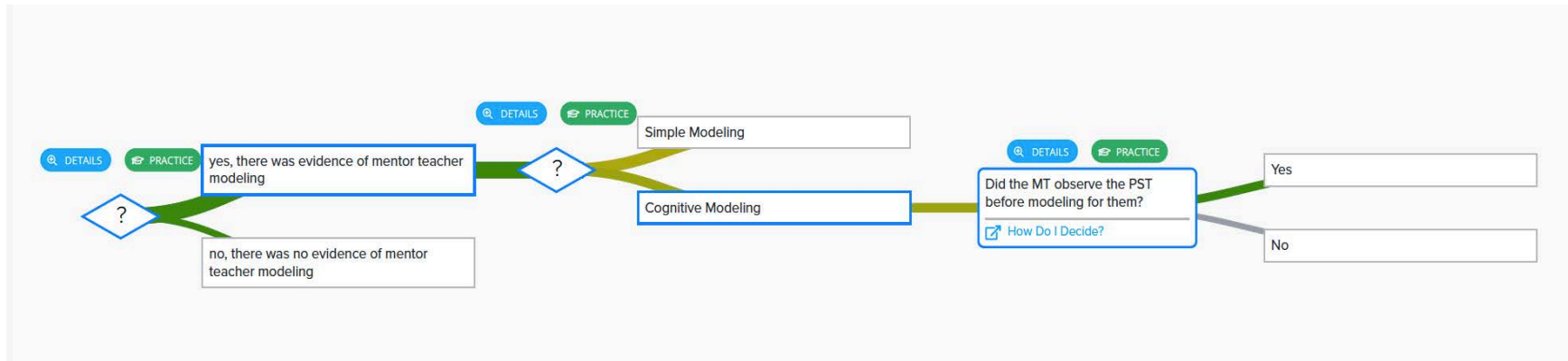
Table 1

Cooperating Teacher Demographic Information

Name Item	Description	
Ellen	Gender	Female
	Ethnicity	White; non-Hispanic
	Education	Master's Degree; Special Education
	Certificates	Math Endorsement
	Years Teaching	17 Years Special Education 1 Year General Education
	Years Mentoring	6 Years
Nicole	Gender	Female
	Ethnicity	White; non-Hispanic
	Education	Bachelor's Degree; Special Education
	Certificates	ELL Endorsement
	Years Teaching	2 Years Co-Teaching 3 Years Special Education
	Years Mentoring	3 Years

Figure 2

Sample Decision Based Learning Module: Modeling Decision Point Example



Note. While Natalie, a preservice teacher, is teaching, Claire, a mentor teacher, does not see that Natalie is using high enough praise rates. Knowing this is something Natalie and Claire have talked about during feedback sessions in the past, Claire felt comfortable jumping into Natalie’s lesson to show her what her praise rates should look like.

APPENDIX A

Review of the Literature

Mentoring Preservice Teachers

Building self-efficacy, self-worth, and professional identity are the primary goals of mentoring (Eby et al., 2010). This is also true of the mentoring relationship utilized by teacher preparation programs. The cooperating teacher (CT) preservice teacher (PST) mentoring relationship is one that is ubiquitously used in teacher preparation programs (Valenci et al., 2009). While the university classroom takes care in preparing teachers for work in their future classrooms, the university system employs the help of CTs to guide PSTs as they practice teaching lessons, guiding behavior, and taking on the responsibilities of the classroom teacher (Butler & Cuenca, 2012; Parker-Katz & Hughes, 2008; Roberts et al., 2014; Seevers, 2012). Mentors, including cooperating teachers (CTs) and university supervisors, help guide the PST in the process of becoming a certified teacher working in the field. The ultimate goal is for student teachers to learn to teach effectively and progressively become teachers in their own classrooms, whether that be the elementary, special education, or secondary education setting (Valencia et al., 2009).

However, this work of preparing teachers is done in a complex setting with various players, including university supervisors and CTs, with varied backgrounds, pedagogical knowledge, and practice. As a result, many teacher educators believe that student teachers are not adequately prepared for their teaching careers following their practicum experiences (Valencia et al., 2009). Additionally, there is a lot of variation in how influential CTs and university supervisors are in the development of the PSTs whom they mentor (Borko & Mayfield, 1995). Due to the intricate and myriad issues involved in this complex process, much

research has been conducted to understand the development of PSTs and CTs over the last few decades.

This study will discuss the mentoring process within the teacher preparation program, with a special emphasis on how CTs use modeling as a mentoring strategy and how this may affect their relationship with PSTs. Research on the CT's use of mentoring strategies and their effects on the PST-CT mentoring relationship is timely because, while several studies have been conducted to understand this relationship, very few of these studies compare CT perceptions with the perceptions of those they mentor. Further, much of the research on CTs and PSTs only examines one aspect of the relationship and the Coach-Teacher Relationship Tool examines the PST-CT relationship, how CTs coach PSTs in the processes of teaching, and results these processes and relationship have on PSTs ability to teach.

Teacher training programs are typically concerned with issues of identifying effective teaching practices, teaching and communicating those practices to PSTs, and helping PSTs adopt those practices into their own teaching (Katz & Isik Ercan, 2015; Valencia et al., 2009). This program includes a practicum setting, CTs, and university supervisors, who all fill different roles and work together to help communicate and guide each PST to adopt effective teaching skills and techniques. Each piece of the preparation program, including outcomes and challenges, will be discussed in the following chapter. This chapter will begin with an overview of typical teacher preparation program models. Next, definitions for and development practices of PSTs will be introduced. After an overview of typical PST practicum settings, definitions and roles of PST mentors will be provided. Finally, the chapter ends with a discussion of how the disparate parts introduced above (e.g., mentors, programs, roles and settings) work together to guide the PST teacher toward effectively teaching in a classroom setting.

Teacher Preparation Program Model

A typical model in the field of teacher education is that PSTs are expected to learn about teaching techniques during coursework and then use these techniques in settings similar to those in which they will be employed after receiving their teaching license (Maloch et al., 2015).

Teaching settings vary from general education classrooms to special education, as well as secondary education. To assist in helping PSTs apply what they learn during their university coursework into these classrooms, teacher preparation programs seek to enhance learning by providing opportunities for PSTs to work with students in real-life classrooms and programs (Macy et al., 2009).

One of the goals of the university is to identify effective teaching practices and assist PSTs to use them in the classroom setting. Newman-Thomas et al. (2012) taught their PSTs to use a theory-based instructional model, which is a set of guidelines and strategies based upon a teaching theory. Preservice teachers cited various benefits, such as feeling more satisfied with the program, being able to test students themselves, and feeling prepared to implement the program in the future. They added that PSTs may benefit from having additional time to practice these skills in a classroom setting.

University supervisors and CTs work together to give assignments, such as writing lesson plans, developing behavior expectations, and creating assessments, and helping PSTs to accomplish these assignments in a classroom setting. These assignments and expectations are designed to be similar to those of classroom teachers and the goal is to prepare PSTs to become certified teachers to become effective teachers throughout their teaching careers (Katz & Isik Ercan, 2015; Valencia et al., 2009). After assignments are given, much of the work of helping

PSTs accomplish the assignments given by university supervisors falls to the CT, who helps to guide PSTs to apply these assignments in the classroom setting (Dynak et al., 1997).

Although assignments given by the university and supported by CTs are designed to prepare PSTs to work in the field of education, they can be inadequate (Lunenberg et al., 2007). For example, in their review of teacher education and PSTs' practices and teaching abilities, Lunenberg et al. (2007) suggested that the effects of teacher preparation programs can be inadequate to impact teachers' beliefs about teaching and their teaching behaviors. The university system often relies upon highly trained MTs, which have been shown to support PSTs and help to prepare teachers for their careers (Borko & Mayfield, 1995; Parker-Katz & Hughes, 2008). However, CTs often struggle to link theory to practice in their guidance of PSTs, which can cause PSTs to face this difficulty as well (Lunenberg et al., 2007). Thus, while university assignments are meant to provide a way for CTs to enhance PSTs' mastery of content and teaching pedagogy, they may fail to adequately do so.

The purpose of teacher training programs is to guide PSTs as they apply what they learn in the university classroom into their practicum setting classrooms. Teacher training programs accomplish this by identifying effective teaching practices, teaching and communicating said practices to PSTs, and helping PSTs adopt learned practices into their own teaching. (Katz & Isik Ercan, 2015; Valencia et al., 2009).

Preservice Teachers

Preservice teachers are college students who are gradually being introduced to the role of a teacher. This includes student teachers, interns, and students enrolled in a teacher education program. Preservice teachers come from various teaching disciplines including elementary education, special education, and secondary education. Preservice teachers are also frequently

referred to as ‘teacher candidates’ but will be referred to as PSTs (with the abbreviation of PSTs) throughout this article (Katz & Isik-Ercan, 2015). The PST is prepared for a teaching career through both learning in a university classroom setting and participating in a classroom environment similar to where they will teach when they begin their career (Gorrell & Capron, 1990; Macy et al., 2009; Seevers, 2012; Valencia et al., 2009).

Preservice teachers generally begin their teacher preparation in the university classroom. Here they are taught by university staff. They learn teaching pedagogy, practices, and techniques. They complete assignments, such as writing lesson plans, reading articles and books about effective teaching practices, and looking over teaching materials. In the university, the PST practices writing lesson plans, learns about effective teaching models, and observes effective teaching practices. After university classes have been completed, the PST takes part in practicum placements where they have the opportunity to implement practices in a classroom setting under the observation and guidance of both university supervisors and an CT (Wetzel et al., 2017). Through diverse classroom practicum placements, PSTs have the opportunity to apply what they have learned in the university classroom (Macy et al., 2009). These hands-on practicum experiences are important in helping the PST to develop confidence to apply learned training in real classroom settings (Gorrell & Capron, 1990; Seevers, 2012).

Effective teacher preparation programs include practiced-based preparation, called a practicum placement (Rakap, 2017; Scheeler, 2008). Practicum placements are classroom settings where PSTs are allowed time to implement strategies and techniques learned in the university and include field experience, internship, and clinical practicum. (Butler & Cuenca, 2012). The goal in these settings is to give PSTs the opportunity to implement learned strategies with the guidance and correction of the CT to whom they are assigned (Butler & Cuenca, 2012).

Effective practicum settings reflect the diversity, problems, and complexity of teaching environments in which PSTs will eventually find themselves employed. This includes having exposure to the diverse levels of children's ability and disability as well as diverse cultural and ethnic backgrounds (Macy et al., 2009).

Practicum activities provide the PST with the opportunity to gain a deeper understanding of how to gather resources, use teaching materials effectively, plan instruction, and assess students (Macy et al., 2009; Parker-Katz, & Hughes, 2008). Here, they learn to teach through observation, reflection, and teaching (Butler & Cuenca, 2012). While most teacher programs provide practicum experiences, these experiences can vary in duration and quality (Rakap, 2017), but universities are heading in the direction of expanding the length of these experiences (Kahn, 2012). Additionally, practicum experiences can and should be diverse in order to prepare PSTs for the settings in which they will work once they become licensed teachers (Macy et al., 2009). While practicum experiences are important in the development of the PST, they may not have sufficient opportunities to practice their skills (Rakap, 2017) and link theory taught in the university setting to their teaching practices during the practicum experience (Dynak et al., 1997).

After the practicum portion of their education ends, PSTs take part in student teaching. During student teaching, PSTs synthesize knowledge gained through coursework and previous practicum experiences and apply these in a real classroom for a series of weeks (Valencia et al., 2009). However, if PSTs feel constrained by the CT's parameters and have little space to develop their own teacher identity, the PST may not have the opportunity to apply learned pedagogy to a classroom setting (Valencia et al., 2009). The PST will become a certified teacher

if s/he meets the university requirements and effectively applies learned teaching practices, by the end of the teacher training program.

Mentor Teachers

Preservice teachers require a mentor to guide them in their instruction and assessment (Parker-Katz & Hughes, 2008; Roberts et al., 2014). This guidance can help them bridge the gap between university preparation and their teaching career (Sudzina et al., 1997) and help them effectively apply skills learned in the university classroom into their practicum classroom setting (Parker-Katz & Hughes, 2008). This guidance comes in the form of corrective feedback on PSTs' lesson plans and teaching, helping PSTs identify appropriate assessments, as well as other techniques that will be discussed in subsequent sections (Parker-Katz & Hughes, 2008). As PSTs are able to experiment with applying their understanding of pedagogical approaches in the practicum setting, guided by their mentor, they are able to integrate these approaches as they gain experience in the field (Valencia et al., 2009). To guide PSTs to effectively implement the instruction and assessment learned in the university into the classroom setting, is one of the main roles of teacher mentors (Sudzina et al., 1997).

Researchers have noted that mentoring is a complex process including relational, developmental, and contextual components not well understood in the field of teacher education (Ambrosetti et al., 2014). In response to this, during the last two decades, there has been an increase in using mentoring to enhance teacher professional development (Mena et al., 2016). A mentor teacher is typically chosen based on their experience and knowledge as a teacher in the field of education (Parker-Katz & Hughes, 2008; SeEVERS, 2012). Preservice teachers work with these mentors to complete coursework in practicum settings (Butler & Cuenca, 2012). Mentor

teachers include university supervisors and CTs. Preservice teachers work under the supervision and direction of various mentor teachers (which will be described in the following sections) as

Cooperating Teachers

Cooperating teachers are classroom teachers who admit PSTs into their classrooms in order that they might observe the CT teaching practices and work with students under their supervision (Sudzina et al., 1997). During this time, the university assigns PSTs to teach lessons and complete assignments that are designed to help them practice what they've been taught in university classrooms. However, these assignments can often be arbitrary, and the university may have very little knowledge about how CTs will be able to support PSTs in completing assignments (Awaya et al., 2003; Sudzina et al., 1997). After the placement decision is made, PSTs spend an allotted amount of time in the CT's classroom, doing both what is asked by the CT, as well as what is asked by university supervisors (Awaya et al., 2003; Sudzina et al., 1997).

During practicum and student teaching, CTs can have a great impact on PSTs outcomes, and often have a greater influence on the development of PSTs' teaching practices and attitudes than the university supervisors (Wang & Ha, 2012). This could be due to the amount of time that CTs spend with PSTs as compared to university staff (Borko & Mayfield, 1995). Although university supervisors also play an important role, because of impact on CTs have on these outcomes, they become key players in the development of PSTs (Borko & Mayfield, 1995; Wang & Ha, 2012). The roles of both CTs and university supervisors will be discussed below.

University Supervisors

The university supervisor is a mentor who is based in the university and helps facilitate an effective mentoring experience for the PST (Gardiner & Robinson, 2010; Sudzina et al., 1997). University supervisors can assist PSTs and CTs in having an effective mentoring

experience (Gardiner & Robinson, 2010; Sudzina et al., 1997), but sometimes fail to do so (Valencia et al., 2009). Examples of this type of mentor includes both university professors and qualified veteran teachers employed by the university to observe and give feedback to PSTs, referred to as Clinical Faculty Associates (CFA). The university professor teaches classes and also oversees the practicum experience for PSTs and an CFA periodically visits the practicum site and observes the PST while they teach students in the CT's classroom.

The university supervisor, CT, and PST form a partnership with the combined goal of preparing the PST for effectively teaching in a classroom setting and future work as teachers. The university supervisory system can also help foster effectiveness of the mentoring of CTs by providing opportunities for CTs to become well informed of the universities goals, expectations, roles, and responsibilities (Sudzina et al., 1997). They can also support their mentoring process by providing CTs and PSTs with a shared language, tools, options for providing feedback, support, and help them work together (Gardiner & Robinson, 2010). However, there are often disagreements between the university supervisors and CTs (Valencia et al., 2009; Wang & Ha, 2012). These disagreements can ensue when ideas from the university supervisors are become overly idealistic in the eyes of the CT and when the university staff unfamiliar with the school context and student factors (Wang & Ha, 2012). When the idealistic views of the university supervisors compete with the views with CTs (Valencia et al., 2009), this can cause tension between the CT and the university. In addition, Valencia et al. (2009) found that when issues arise between PST and the CT, university supervisors have a tendency to solve problems and intervene at the practicum site with little consideration to the effect this has on the PST-CT relationship. While the partnership between the university staff and CTs is important for providing an effective practicum experience for PSTs (Gardiner & Robinson, 2010; Sudzina et

al., 1997), there are often issues that arise between the various mentors working with PSTs (Valencia et al., 2009; Wang & Ha, 2012)

The purpose of teaching preparation programs is to identify effective teaching practices, teach those practices to PSTs, and help PSTs adopt those practices (Katz & Isik Ercan, 2015; Valencia et al., 2009). In order to achieve these goals, a partnership forms between university supervisors, CTs, and PSTs. Through helping PSTs learn about effective teaching practices and helping them to implement these practices, this partnership can reach their goal of preparing the PST for their future work as a certified teacher. Although each of the players in this triad share a common goal.

The PST-CT Relationship

Quality relationships are important for bringing about positive change (Rhodes et al., 2017) and interactions between mentors and mentees, such as CTs and PSTs are important for both parties' career development (Amador et al., 2015). Mentoring relationships are fostered through establishing rapport, which is established through meaningful interaction (Garza, 2012). Preservice teachers who receive high support from their CT, also report feelings of high relationship quality with their CTs (Lyons & Perrewe, 2014). These quality relationships help to bring about the important changes that PSTs need to undergo in order to grow during the practicum experience. While many of the experiences that are outlined in the following sections are not specific to the PST-CT mentoring relationship, it is possible that some of the experiences reported by other mentors may occur in PST-CT dyads.

While quality relationships are important for the development of the PST, the mentoring relationship can bring about both positive and negative experiences for CTs and PSTs (Ensign, 2018; Valencia et al., 2009). One reason for the occurrence of both positive and negative

experiences is that it is often assumed that CTs and PSTs know what to do to foster quality relationships (Sudzina et al., 1997). Additionally, while some mentoring pairs have a mutually satisfying relationship during practicum, other mentoring relationships struggle, due to mismatched situations where pedagogical orientations differ greatly (Sudzina et al., 1997). This can lead to both mentors and PSTs having a variety of positive and negative experiences during the mentoring period.

Negative Experiences

Every year there are a number of mentoring relationships that fail to result in a positive practicum experience for both CTs and PSTs. Negative experiences are not usually one-time events but are issues and processes that extend over time and work in conjunction to affect the mentoring relationship (Eby & McManus, 2004). Additionally, the greater the negative experiences, the lower the relationship satisfaction (Eby & McManus, 2004). Negative experiences in the relationship refer to things such as sabotage and exploitation, deception, self-centered behavior, personal differences, and performance difficulties with the mentoring partner (Eby & McManus, 2004). In the end, negative experiences in the relationship ultimately outweigh the positive, and the mentoring relationships tend to be defined less by the positive attributes and more by the absence of negative ones (Rhodes et al., 2017).

The most common negative experience reported by both mentors and mentees is mismatch in attitudes, behaviors, and dispositions (Eby et al., 2010). Mismatch may be due to a number of factors including personal and pedagogical conflicts between the CT and PST (Sudzina et al., 1997). This mismatch can be felt by the CT, PST, or both; and lead to negative feelings and low relationship quality. Due to the fact that mentors and mentees have reported different types of negative experiences and outcomes, the following discussion will separate the

negative experiences reported by PSTs with those of CTs by placing them in separate sections (Eby et al., 2010; Sudzina et al., 1997).

Preservice teachers face a myriad of issues during their practicum placements that can cause them to have a negative experience, such as difficulty fitting into their practicum setting, working to implement practices learned in the university classroom, and managing student behavior (Ensign, 2018; Ensign et al., 2018; Valencia et al., 2009). These negative experiences lead to frustration for PSTs, and, depending upon how their CTs support them, they can result in lower relationship quality with CTs. However, in the search for literature on negative experiences in mentoring, more articles collected data on mentor's negative experiences than those of mentees, which means that there may be additional negative experiences mentees have that are not discussed in this study.

One difficulty that PSTs face is being guests in an CT's classroom, which can lead to difficulty fitting into the assigned practicum setting. In the CT's classroom, the CT plays a powerful role in evaluating PSTs and recommending them for future teaching positions (Valencia et al., 2009). Because CTs were in this powerful position, Valencia et al. (2009) found that many PSTs hid their teaching knowledge and dispositions and acted in a way inconsistent with their university training, so they could fit in with their CT's expectations. This led to PSTs having little room to develop their own practice (Valencia et al., 2009) and feeling marginalized (Ensign et al., 2018). In studying PSTs' positive and negative experiences, Ensign et al. (2018) found that some PSTs had feelings of inadequacy, isolation, and marginalization during practicum experiences, because their CTs treated them as guests in their classrooms.

In addition, PSTs may struggle to implement the practices and techniques they've learned in the university classroom (Ensign, 2018). Both the university supervisors and the CTs place

demands and pressure upon PSTs to be successful (Ensign, 2018). However, CTs do not always provide the needed amount of coaching to help PSTs to be successful and meet their expectations (Eby et al., 2010). Additionally, CTs sometimes assume that PSTs already possess the necessary skills and attributes needed to be a successful teacher and may not provide them with the coaching that they need (Margolis, 2007). This leads to PSTs not having the sufficient guidance from their CTs to implement effective teaching practices.

One area of teaching where PSTs struggle is managing difficult student behaviors (Ensign et al., 2018). Not being able to effectively manage student behavior during lessons can lead to negative experiences while teaching, as student behaviors can derail lesson plans and lead to frustration on the part of the PST. As PSTs try to fit into their practicum placements, try to implement practices learned in the university classroom, and manage student behavior, they can face a variety of negative experiences (Ensign, 2012; Ensign et al., 2018; Valencia et al., 2009). These negative experiences lead to lower satisfaction in the practicum setting and lower relationship satisfaction with their CTs (Ensign, 2012; Ensign et al., 2018).

Mentors also face negative experiences during mentoring. Because mentors have different needs in the relationship, and issues occur when the major needs of the mentor and/or mentee are not being met, it is important to differentiate CTs reports from PST reports when problems occur (Eby & McManus, 2004). Negative experiences include mismatch with PSTs, misalignment of goals with the university, and resistance from PSTs (Kahn, 2012). Of their sample of 161 mentors, Eby and McManus (2004) 70 percent reported at least one negative experience in mentoring. They found that these negative experiences result in greater burnout, low relationship quality, and less willingness to mentor in the future (Eby et al., 2010).

Kahn (2012) found that CTs often gauged their success based on what they were able to accomplish and the rapport they created with their PST. Creating rapport with the PST becomes more difficult when there is a mismatch in attitudes, behaviors, and dispositions (Kahn, 2012). As a result, mentors often describe negative aspects of their protégés as specific behaviors, qualities, or interactions with their mentees which were not effective (Eby & McManus, 2004). Mentors cite frustration in situations such as the mentee failing to meet CT expectation or seen as unwilling to learn from their mentor (Eby et al., 2010).

Although most PSTs conduct themselves professionally during practicum experiences, there are those who do not act professionally (Kagoda & Sentongo, 2015). Mentors often mention having conflicts with mentees and often feel that they are disingenuous or overly submissive (Eby et al., 2010). As a result of these conflicts, some mentees gossip about their mentor, although they may not actively try to hurt their professional reputation (Eby & McManus, 2004). In contrast, Margolis (2007) found that when CTs set expectations ahead of time and shared their thinking, PSTs did not seem to resent the CTs. Cooperating teachers reported that while sometimes these discussions involve a critique of the PST, when the conversations were direct and honest, it allowed for difficulties to be dealt with more rapidly and efforts were concentrated on teaching and student learning (Margolis, 2007).

Another issue that CTs face in particular is knowing the expectations of the university supervisors. Often university supervisors teach PSTs to implement programs of which the CTs have no knowledge (Kahn, 2012). Kahn (2012) found from interviews with CTs, that many wanted to be more informed about the methods taught to PSTs so that they could help their PSTs implement these practices. They also found that, in general, CTs want better communication of expectations and assignments from the university supervisors. Sudzina et al. (1997) further added

that university supervisors need to stop taking these circumstances for granted and make expectations explicit to fix miscommunication and mismatched expectations. Lack of clarity from university supervisors concerning expectations and methods can lead to negative experiences (Kahn, 2012; Sudzina et al., 1997).

Some CTs face resistance from PSTs when they make attempts to give them feedback and suggestions (Margolis, 2007). Feedback is an important part of helping PSTs develop their skill as teachers, and when PSTs are resistant to this feedback and correction, they miss out on learning opportunities. Although CTs' explicit feedback may at times be difficult for the PST to hear, this feedback can help PSTs make breakthroughs in their teaching ability (Margolis, 2007). When PSTs do not have open minds and are not willing to hear feedback from their CTs, this can lead to negative experiences for CTs and low relationship quality with PSTs.

Positive Experiences

While CTs and PSTs face a variety of negative experiences during their relationship, the majority of those who participate in the mentoring relationship note the multiple benefits of interacting with teachers in different career positions (Amador et al., 2015). Good mentoring experiences lead to mentors and mentees wanting to stay in the relationship, and higher overall relationship quality (Eby et al., 2010).

Preservice teachers perceive many positive experiences during their practicum experience (Ensign et al., 2018). One of the most common positive experiences cited by PSTs is a positive school environment and positive relationships with the teachers and administrators in that environment (Ensign et al., 2018). During the mentoring relationship, PSTs often define their success through attributes of the CT, including the number of opportunities they provide for them to teach, the feedback they give them (Kahn, 2012), and the support and help they provide

to solve problems (Rhodes et al., 2017). When the CT is positive and gives support to the PST, they are more likely to have a positive experience during practicum. When CTs are supportive and helpful, PSTs have a more positive mentoring experience.

Mentors also note several positive experiences during mentoring, such as a feeling of satisfaction when helping PSTs develop professionally (Eby et al., 2010) and learning from the knowledge and practices they bring from the university (Eby & McManus, 2004; Kagoda & Sentongo, 2015). Mentors who have positive experiences are more willing to mentor in the future and have stronger intentions to maintain the relationship long-term (Eby et al., 2010). Mentors often benefit from seeing their mentee develop professionally, which leads mentors to feel satisfaction from the mentoring experience (Eby & McManus, 2004) and helps them feel like they are contributing to the future of their profession (Eby et al., 2010). Cooperating teachers can gain a sense of satisfaction as they help mentor PSTs and see them become professional teachers.

Another way that CTs benefit from the practicum experience is that they can learn new practices and knowledge their mentee brings from the university (Eby & McManus, 2004). Kagoda and Sentongo (2015) assert that CTs should pay attention to the teaching skills, knowledge, and variety of teaching methods PSTs bring to the practicum experience, as the CTs can learn and benefit from those. This includes giving CTs updated pedagogical knowledge and new insights into teaching (Wang & Ha, 2012). Through learning new and updated practices, CTs not only teach PSTs, but have the opportunity to learn from them.

Preservice teachers and CTs can experience positive experiences during the mentoring experience. Preservice teachers are able to foster positive relationships with CTs and feel the benefits of a positive school environment. Cooperating teachers are able to feel a sense of

accomplishment as they help PSTs develop professionally and are able to learn from the new and updated practices PSTs bring into their classrooms.

Summary

During the practicum experience, CTs and PSTs develop a reciprocal relationship in which both benefit (Wang & Ha, 2012), although much of the responsibility for building this relationship falls to the CTs (Dynak et al., 1997). Because CTs have various ways of approaching the mentoring experience and giving support to PSTs, this can lead to various outcomes in the PST-CT relationship, as well as both positive and negative experience for both. Many of the reasons for negative experiences, surround mismatch with PST and university goals and feeling resistance from PSTs, but what is not discussed is how this mismatch and misalignment can be influenced by CTs use of instructional strategies.

Cooperating Teacher's Instructional Strategies

One area that is often overlooked when discussing arising issues, is how CTs use instructional strategies and how these may affect the mentoring relationship (Cutrer & Christensen, 2018). In order to help PSTs apply skills reflecting what they learned in the university, MTs use various instructional strategies, which include use of performance feedback, conferencing, modeling, and teacher assessments. These strategies have emerged in literature as likely to support PST's ability to generalize university learning in their teaching practice (Butler & Cuenca, 2012; Macy et al., 2009; Margolis, 2007; Parker-Katz & Hughes, 2008; Scheeler, 2008; Valencia et al., 2009).

Instructional strategies are one way that the university supervisor-PST-CT triad meets the goal of preparing PSTs for effectively teaching in a classroom setting, as these instructional strategies help to teach PSTs highly effective teaching practices (Butler & Cuenca, 2012). Using

theory-based instructional practices and multiple assessments are some of these practices that have been identified as highly effective in helping PSTs to adopt effective teaching practices. However, there are sometimes competing ways of implementing these strategies, (Butler & Cuenca, 2012; Valencia et al., 2009), which can lead to disagreement within the triad and less effective education for PSTs. When PSTs are not able to have the support of both CTs and university supervisors, they often struggle to learn about and implement important teaching concepts and strategies (Butler & Cuenca, 2012; Katz & Isik-Ercan, 2015; Valencia et al., 2009).

For example, Katz and Isik-Ercan (2015) followed CTs, university supervisors, and PSTs after the university implemented a new program and asked CTs and PSTs to use this new program during practicum. They found that while the university's model was based on student-centered teaching practices, this particular model was not visible in the ways outlined by the university. Further, this difference in pedagogical practices often created clashes between CTs and the university and changed how both viewed the other's work and how they reacted each other's proposals for teaching practices. After the study's conclusion, Katz and Isik-Ercan (2015) proposed that these roles and relationships should become a focus of future research, especially when new programs are undertaken. When the triad works together to identify highly effective teaching practices and convey these to PSTs, they are better prepared to become certified teachers, although they do not always work together to accomplish this goal (Katz & Isik-Ercan, 2015).

Mena et al. (2016) suggested that there is value in CTs using certain strategies to teach particular skills to PSTs and while regular conversations about teaching may be helpful, they may not be adequate in fostering specific teaching practices and skills. Further, it is insufficient

to provide training in teaching skills, unless that training leads the PST to become competent once they are no longer supported by CTs or university supervisors (Scheeler, 2008). Although PSTs may have done well in their coursework, this does not always lead to effective teaching once they are in their practicum placement (Seevers, 2012). One reason for this discrepancy is that many PSTs lack the ability to generalize teaching techniques in the classroom setting. This creates a need for CTs to support PSTs to apply practices that reflect what they learned in the university classroom. Applying skills with appropriate CT support increases the likelihood that PSTs will have success in their future classrooms (Seevers, 2012).

Feedback

One common tool that CTs use in instructing PSTs is referred to as ‘feedback’. Feedback comes in the form of CTs telling PSTs what they are doing well and where they can improve or correct certain teaching behaviors (Scheeler, 2008). Cooperating teachers provide several observations throughout the practicum experience. During observations, PSTs demonstrate teaching whole groups, small groups, and individuals. After the PSTs demonstrate the identified teaching practices, the CT to provide feedback to help the PST to improve their teaching skills (Macy et al., 2009). This feedback can be about any aspect of PSTs’ teaching, such as their activity choice and lesson structure; how they manage student behavior, praise students, and how specific and frequent their praise is. Feedback can be either written or verbal. One form of this feedback is where CTs allow PSTs to first reflect on their lesson and then discuss that reflection with them and provide feedback based upon this reflection (Butler & Cuenca, 2012).

In addition, it is important that the person giving the feedback is well trained on how to give effective feedback (Macy et al., 2009). In order for feedback to be effective, it should be immediate, specific, and positive. According to Macy et al. (2009), it is crucial to give frequent,

wide-ranging feedback to PSTs concerning their application of teaching skills. However, Sudzina et al. (1997) found that CTs are sometimes tentative about how they give feedback to their PST and Valencia et al. (2009) were surprised how little CTs observed lessons and gave feedback for their PSTs. Thus, while feedback is important, that feedback may fall short if those giving it are not trained on how to give effective feedback.

Conferencing

Conferencing is an open discussion between CTs and PSTs where PSTs can talk to CTs about their practices, ask questions, and look over lesson plans (Mena et al., 2016). It is also a time where CTs can share tools and resources with them. Conferencing allows PSTs to construct more sophisticated and specific knowledge about teaching practice (Mena et al., 2016) especially when CTs seek to establish frequent, trusting communication, with their PSTs (Margolis, 2007). The more PSTs have the opportunity to discuss lesson plans and outcomes with their CTs, they better they are able to generalize teaching strategies (Mena et al., 2016). In addition, the more precise the communication, the more that PSTs are able to redefine their practice, which demonstrates that recall and appraisals between CTs and PSTs constitute a base of understanding on which to build (Mena et al., 2016).

Conferences with PSTs can further enhance their use of specific instructional strategies. In their research, Parker-Katz and Hughes (2008) examined CTs working in Special Education education settings. These CTs used literacy artifacts as a method to help guide PSTs' transition from university classroom to the practicum placement. The researchers observed and interviewed fifteen Special Education CTs using literacy artifacts in their conversations about literacy instructional strategies. The CTs worked with thirty-seven PSTs enrolled in a Special Education program. They found that CTs can intervene and help to facilitate structured conferences about

teaching and learning. They further found that CTs can become a great resource for connecting what PSTs learn on campus to their instruction in the classroom when they conference with PSTs about this instruction with the help of artifacts familiar to both PSTs and CTs.

This research provides further evidence that CTs can help PSTs by facilitating discussions about teaching practices and learning content in general (Parker-Katz & Hughes, 2008). Cooperating teachers often use their own experience as a major resource in connecting PSTs' knowledge of pedagogy with their classroom-based practice. Through open and effective communication, CTs can become companions with PSTs to help them with teaching in the classroom setting and meeting their long-term goals. Cooperating teachers can further help PSTs to apply learned principles by sharing experiences that apply to their current practicum context (Parker-Katz & Hughes, 2008; Roberts et al., 2014).

Assessment

Assessment is another important tool that CTs use in order to make sure that their interactions with their PSTs are having the effects that they intend, is to make self, peer, and PST assessments (Dynak et al., 1997). These assessments help to define the expectations for PSTs and show where they have areas of strengths and of growth. Cooperating teachers observe PSTs as they teach lessons and interact with students, then record the absence or presence of specific teaching skills (Rakap, 2017). These assessments aide CTs and PSTs in making sure that their teaching is having the intended effect on both student learning and PST growth.

Modeling

Modeling is another tool that CTs use to assist PSTs as they learn to apply theory into their teaching practice (Bashan & Holsblat, 2012; Lunenberg et al., 2007; Rakap, 2017; Scheeler, 2008). This makes modeling an important element in the teacher-training program (Bashan &

Holsblat, 2012; Lunenberg et al., 2007). Modeling in teacher education is defined as the practice of displaying a chosen teaching skill, with the goal of helping PSTs to learn what that skill looks like in practice. Modeling provides PSTs with a view of how lesson plans, activities, and assessments occur in the classroom. Modeling is a way for CTs to demonstrate their practice in the way that they want their PSTs to practice (Loughran & Berry, 2005). Through modeling, MTs not only demonstrate the desired behavior, but help the PST make the connection from theory to practice (Bashan & Holsblat, 2012) which makes modeling an important tool CTs use to help PSTs learn to apply teaching theory into their practice. Modeling will be discussed in further detail in the next section of this article.

While instructional strategies, such as feedback, modeling, and conferencing are outlined in the literature, research shows that CTs have various approaches to mentoring PSTs, which lead to varied mentoring experiences (Butler & Cuenca, 2012; Lunenberg & Korthagen, 2003; Sudzina et al., 1997; Valencia et al., 2009). These myriad approaches are due, in part, to the minimal amount of guidance that CTs generally receive on effective mentoring practices and the aims of the university (Valencia et al., 2009; Butler & Cuenca, 2012). Without guidance from the university, CTs' approach to mentoring often resemble how they were taught during their own practicum experiences (Sudzina et al., 1997). These varied views on mentoring practices impact the experience of the PSTs, as their experience is based on the organization of their practicum placement and their CT's views on teaching and learning. In addition, this lack of training from the university often results in CTs who are unable to link theory taught in university courses with effective teaching practices in the classroom (Sudzina et al., 1997). In order to streamline the practicum experience and PST outcomes, CTs need guidance from the university to implement effective mentoring practices (Sudzina et al., 1997). With this direction from the university, CTs

are less likely to default to the way they were themselves mentored and are more likely to align their approach with that of the university.

Lunenberg and Korthagen (2003) studied CTs' views of learning and teaching PSTs. Five CTs working at four different institutions were interviewed about their mentoring practices. The researchers discovered that often CTs were not clear with their PSTs about their expectations and that what they believed their PST knew and understood differed from what was actually understood. They discovered that while CTs were capable of helping their PSTs put their knowledge into practice, they did not always find a balance between directing their learning process and allowing them to self-direct their learning. This led to the PSTs to describe feeling either constricted or abandoned by their CTs. So, without guidance by the university staff, CTs do not all use instructional strategies in the same way and these varied approaches will have different effects on PST outcomes (Butler & Cuenca, 2012; Lunenberg & Korthagen, 2003; Sudzina et al., 1997; Valencia et al., 2009).

Modeling

A frequent mentoring style cited by CTs, is that PSTs learn to teach by observing their CTs as they model instruction and then implementing what they learned from that modeling into their own teaching practice (Butler & Cuenca, 2012; Valencia et al., 2009). However, while some CTs believe that PSTs learn simply through watching and mimicking CT's practices, others further insist that their PSTs to fit into a very specific structure they model (Valencia et al., 2009). This constraint to look and act just like the CT hinders PST identity development as a teacher (Yuan, 2016) and can lead to other problems in the mentoring relationship (Cutrer & Christensen, 2018). In addition, while CTs often use modeling and observation as a mentoring style, not all CTs agree on how to effectively use this to instruct PSTs, which can lead to the PST

feeling frustrated during practicum and resisting implementing the modeled practices (Valencia et al., 2009). While CTs often have their PSTs learn through observing modeled teaching practices and then implementing what was observed, because modeling is used in various ways, PSTs can become frustrated, as they may not know what they should implement from the modeled instruction (Valencia et al., 2009).

Although modeling can be very beneficial for PSTs' understanding of how to apply teaching practices, CTs' modeling skills do not automatically develop over their career, and experience as a teacher does not necessarily lead to an increase in effective modeling (Lunenberg & Korthagen, 2003). Additionally, CTs often ignore theory- and research-based practices in their modeling and rely instead on common sense practices (Loughran, 1995; Lunenberg et al., 2007). If CTs do not model teaching strategies in an effective manner, training of PSTs will not be as successful compared to those whose CTs model strategies as part of their mentoring (Bashan & Holsblat, 2012). When CTs do not use theory- and research-based instructional strategies when they model, PSTs must make the connection from theories learned in the university classroom to their own teaching practices without the aid of a CT (Lunenberg et al., 2007; Loughran, 1995).

Simple Modeling

This idea that PSTs learn through observation, is referred to as simple modeling, which is “based on the principle of learning through imitation” (Bashan & Holsblat, 2012, p. 208). Simple modeling is a situation in which an CT demonstrates the behaviors, skills, and/or strategies they want the PST to adopt into their own practice. These behavior, skills, and strategies include specific lesson routines, behavior management strategies, and entire lesson plans. The PST is expected to attend to what the CT is doing, then imitate this in their own teaching. The goal of

simple modeling is for the PST to see how the CT teaches and the be able to implement those skills in future teaching.

Bashan and Holsblat (2012) studied the modeling practices of two CTs. One of the CTs was a general education teacher and the other a special education teacher. During the study, they served as mentors to sixteen PSTs each year and data was collected about their modeling over the course of three years. The PSTs were taught theory in the university classroom and then the CTs modeled practices that corresponded to that theory. Following modeling, PSTs applied what they had learned in class in their own teaching practices and kept reflective journals about their experience. One of the significant effects Bashan and Holsblat discovered was that through modeling, PSTs were encouraged to feel more comfortable managing their transition in applying theory to classroom instruction. Preservice teachers noted that the process of modeling as an instructional method is an important part of teaching practice. The researchers remarked that modeling practice is not enough and PSTs must also be encouraged by CTs to reflect on how to apply the strategies they demonstrate into their own teaching practice, as they do in cognitive modeling, which will be described later in this chapter (Bashan & Holsblat, 2012; Lunenberg et al., 2007).

Additionally, simple modeling, which includes fishbowl and catastrophic modeling as described by Cutrer and Christensen (2018) all involve issues of power in mentoring, where the PST is placed in a position of little status where their knowledge is not valued by the CT (Yuan, 2016). Fishbowl modeling describes a time when a CT models a practice for the PST with the goal of showing the PST that they are a capable mentor and gaining their trust. Catastrophic modeling describes a time when a CT “jumps in” during a PST’s lesson in order to correct their practice and show them how they should have been teaching their lesson (Cutrer & Christensen,

2018). These types of modeling often lead the PST to feel that they are in a position of having to fit into a tight mold set by the CT. It also constrains them to fulfil the role chosen by the CT, instead of the role the PST wants. This constraint can lead the PST to “biting their lip” or distancing themselves from their CT (O’Grady et al., 2018). The power dynamic inherent in simple modeling, including fishbowl and catastrophic modeling, often lead the PST to feel pressure to act like the CT and lead to less development for the PST.

Cognitive Modeling

Cognitive modeling builds upon simple modeling, where the CT includes a concurrent conversation about the modeled skills and practices (Bashan & Holsblat, 2012) as well as offers the PST choice in what is modeled and when (Cutrer & Christensen, 2018). This conversation can happen either during or after the modeling takes place and focuses around the CT revealing their “pedagogical considerations, feelings, and motives” surrounding what they modeled (Bashan & Holsblat, 2012, p.208), as well as answering questions and guiding the PST to have a knowledge of how use modeled behaviors in their future lessons (Lunenberget al., 2007). Through these conversations, the CT teaches PSTs about their internal processing of information and reasoning about their teaching practices, with the goal of helping them to adopt similar reasonings (Gorrell & Capron, 1990; Loughran, 1995). Cognitive modeling is a process where CTs not only model, but also explain their thinking and decision-making to the PST, with the hopes that the PST will apprehend the modeled skills and behaviors.

In addition, the work by Cutrer and Christensen (2018) suggests that cognitive modeling leads to fewer, if any, issues of power between the CT and PST compared to types of simple modeling. They hypothesized that giving PSTs choice, discussing the modeling with the PST, and helping the PST to apply the modeled practice in their lessons allowed the PST more space

to understand and apply the practice in a way that they felt best met the needs of their student. This choice and understanding allowed the PST space to develop their own identity as a teacher instead of having to fit into the identity and position given to them by the CT (Yuan, 2016).

When CTs use cognitive modeling instead of simple modeling alone, PSTs demonstrate a greater ability to recall and apply the modeled strategies (Gorrell & Capron, 1990). Gorrell and Capron (1990) created a study in order to see if there was a benefit to CTs' use of cognitive modeling over their use of simple modeling. The researchers showed videotapes of CTs demonstrating modeling to ninety-three male and female PSTs enrolled in elementary education, secondary education, and health and physical education programs at the university. Preservice teachers were shown videotaped instructors modeling practices. Tape A showed the instructor presenting a brief lecture explaining procedures for teaching the skill of finding the main idea of a paragraph and providing relevant examples. In Tape B, the instructor presented the same procedures, but also demonstrated thinking out-loud (cognitive modeling) as she presented the procedures of how to teach a child to find the main idea in a paragraph. After observing the videos, the PSTs who viewed Tape B (demonstrating cognitive modeling) had higher levels of recall and application of the teaching strategy than those who viewed Tape A which showed instruction only. This demonstrates that when CTs use cognitive modeling they help PSTs to better recall and apply teaching strategies better than simple modeling alone.

While CTs' implementation of cognitive modeling conversations along with their simple modeling helps PSTs to better able recall and apply what they observe (Gorrell & Capron, 1990), comprehend the relationship between teaching practice and reflection (Bashan & Holsblat, 2012), and learn about the choices CTs make while teaching (Lunenberg et al., 2007), many CTs do not utilize cognitive modeling strategies. Lunenberg et al. (2007) observed ten teacher

educators and found that cognitive modeling was not a common practice among CTs. They further found that four out of the 10 CTs they observed did not model at all and concluded that CTs apparently lack the knowledge and skills to model effectively and explicitly. When CTs do not learn how to use cognitive modeling while mentoring PSTs, then PSTs are less likely to master the internal processes involved in teaching and are less likely to generalize the modeled strategies into their own teaching.

Cooperating teacher's lack of using cognitive modeling strategies may be due to a lack of knowledge concerning how to effectively use these strategies (Sudzina et al., 1997). They may not know how to use cognitive modeling to help PSTs generalize modeled skills and use them in their own practices (Lunenberg et al., 2007). Thus, it is important to explicitly train CTs how to use modeling effectively to help PSTs gain the needed skills, behaviors, and strategies that they will use in their future work as certified teachers (Sudzina et al., 1997). Explicit training of CTs will help them to better convey teaching practices and skills to PSTs through the use of cognitive modeling. When CTs comprehend the use and benefits of cognitive modeling, they may be more likely to use it effectively in their mentoring of PSTs, leading to greater benefits and preparation for PSTs.

Summary of Modeling

Modeling is frequently used by CTs as a means to convey teaching practices to PSTs through observational learning (Butler & Cuenca, 2012; Valencia et al., 2009). While modeling can be an effective means of conveying teaching practices to PSTs, not all CTs use modeling the same way and some CTs' use of modeling creates pressure for the PST to look and act like the CT (Cutrer & Christensen, 2018) which can impede PSTs development as a teacher (Yuan, 2016) and resist implementing the modeled practices (Valencia et al., 2009). This pressure and

subsequent resistance are often a result of types of simple modeling, including catastrophic and fishbowl modeling, which all reflect elements of power. This power dynamic, which sets the CT in the position of knowing and the PST in whatever position in which the CT places them, has been shown to affect the PST-CT relationship. However, cognitive modeling, has been shown to empower the PST and helps them to implement the modeled strategies (Cutrer & Christensen, 2018). However, CTs are more likely to use forms of simple modeling than cognitive modeling, which can lead to resistance, mismatch, and other issues in the PST-CT relationship.

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APPENDIX B

Consent Form

Interview Consent Form—Mentor Study

You are being asked to take part in a research study of how mentors and preservice teachers interact both in and out of the classroom setting. We are asking you to take part because you indicated via email that you are willing to participate in this study. Please read this form carefully and ask any questions that you may have before agreeing to take part in the study.

What the study is about: The purpose of this study is to learn how mentors and their preservice teachers interact. You will be working at least ____ hours to take part in this study.

What we will ask you to do: If you agree to be in this study, we will conduct an interview with you. The interview will include questions about your attitudes toward mentoring, teaching experience, and the use of modeling in teacher preparation. The interview will take about 45 minutes to complete. With your permission, we would also like to tape-record the interview. We will also ask you to complete a five-minute survey about your mentoring relationship.

Risks and benefits: There is a risk that you may find some of the questions to be sensitive.

Confidentiality: The records of this study will be kept private. In any sort of report, we make public, we will not include any information that will make it possible to identify you. Research records will be kept in a locked file; only the researchers will have access to the records. If we tape-record the interview, we will destroy the tape after it has been transcribed, which we anticipate will be within two months of its taping.

Taking part is voluntary: Taking part in this study is completely voluntary. You may skip any questions that you do not want to answer. If you decide not to take part or skip some of the questions, it will not affect your current or future relationship with Brigham Young University. If you decide to take part, you are free to withdraw at any time.

If you have questions: The researcher conducting this study is Morgan Christensen. Please ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, you may contact Morgan at morganc2@byu.edu or at (386)916-5621. If you have any questions or concerns regarding your rights as a subject in this study, you may contact the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at (801)422-3841 or access their website at <http://orca.byu.edu>

You will be given a copy of this form to keep for your records.

Statement of Consent: I have read the above information and have received answers to any questions I have asked. I consent to take part in the study.

Your Signature _____ Date _____

Your Name (printed) _____

In addition to agreeing to participate, I also consent to having the interview tape-recorded.

Your Signature _____ Date _____

Signature of person obtaining consent _____ Date _____

Printed name of person obtaining consent _____ Date _____

This consent form will be kept by the researcher for at least three years beyond the end of the study.

APPENDIX C

Instruments**Preservice Teacher Interview Protocol—Post Practicum Year One**

The purpose of this interview is to examine preservice teachers' perceptions concerning working with cooperating teachers in special education.

Protocols:

- a) Welcome the participant
- b) Ask permission to videotape interview
- c) Ask Interview Questions
- d) Have the participant complete demographic survey

If they participated in summer practicum:

1. How confident did you feel in your mentor during summer practicum?
 Why did/didn't you feel confident?
 How did feeling/not feeling confident influence/affect the mentoring process (if at all)?
2. What are some experiences that you had while being mentored during summer practicum that influenced how you feel about mentoring? (if any?)
 In what ways did they influence you?
 Did your experiences this summer make you want to have a mentor again?
 Why/why not?
3. What are some experiences that you had during summer practicum that helped you feel confident in mentor teachers?
 And what are some aspects about ____ that help build your confidence in your mentor?
4. What are some experiences you had during summer practicum that challenged your confidence in mentor teachers?
 And what are some aspects about ____ that challenge your confidence in your mentor?
5. What are some areas where you were not confident in your mentor?
 What would help you feel more confident in those areas?
6. In your next mentoring relationship, what are some mentoring activities that you want your mentor to do the same way as your mentor did this summer?
 Why will do you want them to do that the same?
7. What are some things that you would like your next mentor to do differently (if anything)?
 Why do you want that to be different?
8. Is there anything else you would like to comment on in regard to your experience with mentor teachers during summer practicum?

9. How did your MT use modeling during summer practicum?
Was it helpful?
10. How did the way that she used modeling affect your relationship with her?

Relationship questions

11. What are the top five most important things that a mentor can do to help a PST to improve and grow during a student teaching or practicum experience?
Why do you feel each of those are important?
Have you always felt those were the most important things?
Why has your view changed/or not?
12. Do you feel like your MT was able to do those things effectively? Why/Why not?
13. Where did your MT spend most of their time and effort during your time with them?
Why do you think they spent your time/effort there?
Do you feel that was the best use of their time as a mentor? Why/Why not?
14. How would you describe a mentoring relationship?
What are some of the components that make up a good mentoring relationship?
What are some components of a (bad) mentoring relationship?
15. How do you personally build a relationship with your MT?
16. How important is a building a relationship in mentoring?
What is more important to you than the relationship with your MT?
Why are those things more important?
17. What are some aspects of your relationship with your MT that you feel are good?
What made it good?
What did they do to help build that relationship?
What did you do?
How did it affect other aspects of the mentoring experience (if at all?)
18. What are some aspects of your relationship with your MT that weren't as strong as you would have liked it to be?
What made it that way?
What let you know the relationship wasn't strong?
How did your MT respond to that (if at all)?
Did it help strengthen the relationship? Why/Why not?
19. How did having a poor relationship affect other aspects of the mentoring process (if at all?)
20. Is there anything else you would like to add in regard to mentoring relationships?

Cooperating Teacher Interview Protocol—Post Practicum Year One

The purpose of this interview is to examine mentor teacher' perceptions concerning mentoring preservice teachers in special education.

Protocols:

- a) Welcome the participant
- b) Ask permission to videotape interview
- c) Ask Interview Questions
- d) Have participant complete demographic survey

Questions:

1. How confident did you feel as a mentor during summer practicum?
Why did/didn't you feel confident?
How did feeling/not feeling confident influence/affect your mentoring (if at all)?
2. What are some experiences that you had as a mentor during summer practicum that influenced how you feel about mentoring? (if any?)
In what ways did they influence you?
Did your experiences this summer make you want to be a mentor again?
Why/why not?
3. What are some experiences that you had during summer practicum that helped you feel confident as a mentor?
And what are some aspects about ____ that help build your confidence as a mentor?
4. What are some experiences you had during summer practicum that challenged your confidence as a mentor?
And what are some aspects about ____ that challenge your confidence as a mentor?
5. What are some areas where you were not as confident as a mentor?
What would help you feel more confident in those areas?
6. How did you use modeling to enhance your preservice teacher's learning during summer practicum?
7. How did modeling affect other aspects of your relationship with your preservice teachers—if at all?
8. How did your use of modeling vary between your preservice teachers—if at all?
9. How did your preservice teachers use the practices that you modeled for them?
10. How did their use of your modeled practices/not using your modeled practices affect other aspects of your relationship with them?
11. In your next mentoring relationship, what are some mentoring activities that you want to do the same way you did this summer? Why will you do that the same?
12. What are some things that you plan to do differently in your next mentoring relationship (if anything)? Why will you do that differently?

13. Is there anything else you would like to comment on in regard to your experience with PSTs during summer practicum?
14. Where do you spend most of your time and effort when you mentor PSTs?
Why do you spend your time/effort there?
Have you always felt that was the best use of your time as a mentor? Why/Why not?
15. How would you describe a mentoring relationship?
What are some of the components that make up a good mentoring relationship?
What are some components of a (bad) mentoring relationship?
16. How do you personally build a relationship with your PSTs?
17. How important is a building a relationship in mentoring?
What is more important to you than the relationship with your mentee (if anything)?
 1. Who is more responsible for building and maintaining the mentoring relationship (if either party)?
18. Will you describe for me a relationship that you've had with a mentee that you felt was good?
What made it good?
What did they do to help build that relationship?
What did you do?
How did it affect other aspects of the mentoring experience (if at all?)
19. Will you describe for me a relationship that you've had with a mentee that wasn't as strong as you would have liked it to be?
What made it that way?
What let you know the relationship wasn't strong?
How did you respond to that (if at all)?
Did it help strengthen the relationship? Why/Why not?
How did having a poor relationship affect other aspects of the mentoring process (if at all?)
20. Is there anything else you would like to add in regard to mentoring relationships?

Preservice Teacher Interview Protocol—Focus Group Year One

The purpose of this interview is to examine preservice teachers' perceptions concerning being mentored in a practicum setting in special education.

Protocols:

- (a) Welcome the participant
- (b) Ask permission to videotape interview
- (c) Ask Interview Questions
- (d) Have the participant complete demographic survey

Questions:

1. Your mentors had the opportunity to model for you in multiple ways. How did your mentors typically model?
2. Was that modeling effective for you? Why or why not?
3. In what subject areas did your mentor typically model?
4. Did you find yourself copying how your mentor modeled for you?
5. Some of you chose to have university supervisors' model for you while some requested supervisors watch you then give you feedback. Why did you want the supervisor to model?
6. Why did you prefer not to observe modeling but instead request to be observed and given feedback if you did?
7. Some of you had the opportunity to implement new math practices this summer. In what ways did your mentor help model new math practices if they did?
8. What were the characteristics of math lessons that positioned your students as capable?
9. How did students respond when they were positioned as capable?
10. How did you use funds of knowledge in your math lessons?
11. How did you develop as a teacher of mathematics over practicum?
12. The survey results suggest that some of you felt confident in your mentor's ability to value what you already know about teaching. What do you wish your mentors would have done to demonstrate they valued what you already know about teaching children to read?
13. For those of you who felt that your mentor did value what you already knew about teaching children to read—what did they do that demonstrated that?
14. We are going to focus now on the feedback you received from your mentors: How did mentors let you know that you were improving from their feedback?
15. How do you wish they would give you feedback?
16. How was your mentor supportive of you when your lessons were minimally effective?
17. How do you wish they would have done to support you when lessons were minimally effective?
18. In this last section of questions, we will focus on your mentor as an advocate: How do you wish your mentor had advocated for you?
19. What were some ways that your mentor did not advocate for you?

20. If you were in charge of training mentors—what is the number one thing you would teach them?
21. If you found yourself at odds with your mentor—what did you feel like you could do to advocate for yourself?
22. The survey results suggest that some of you felt your mentor could discern whether or not you felt like the mentoring meetings and the practicum experience added to what you already knew about teaching. Many of you did not feel this way. Why do you think mentors did not understand how the mentor meetings added to your teaching knowledge?
23. What would make it easier for your mentors to understand you?
24. Is there anything else anyone would like to add?

Cooperating Teacher Interview Protocol—Focus Group Year One

The purpose of this interview is to examine cooperating teacher' perceptions concerning mentoring preservice teachers in special education.

Protocols:

- (a) Welcome the participant
- (b) Ask permission to videotape interview
- (c) Ask Interview Questions
- (d) Have the participant complete demographic survey

Questions:

1. In what ways did you typically model?
2. Did you feel it was effective & why/why not? Not?
3. In what subject areas did you typically model?
4. Did you find your teacher candidates copying how you modeled for them?
5. Some of you chose to observe when university supervisors modeled for your teacher candidates while some of you did not and instead asked for feedback. Why did you choose to observe the supervisor?
6. Why did you prefer not to observe modeling but instead request to be given feedback?
7. Some of your candidates had the opportunity to implement new math practices this summer. In what ways did you help model new math practices?
8. Let's shift gears and talk a bit about reading. One of the survey questions centered on whether or not you valued what your candidates may already know about teaching children to read. In what ways do you feel you demonstrated you valued what your candidate's reading knowledge?
9. What did you find challenging about valuing your candidates reading knowledge?
10. We are going to focus now on the feedback you provided for your candidates: How did you let your candidate know they were improving? Was it effective?
11. Looking back—what do you wish you would have done (if anything) to provide feedback more effectively?
12. How were you supportive of your candidate when their lessons were minimally effective?
13. Looking back—what do you wish would have done to support your candidates when lessons were minimally effective?
14. What do you think was ineffective with candidates when lessons were a flop?
15. In this last section of questions, we will focus on you as an advocate for your candidate: What do you think were the most effective ways you advocated for your candidate this summer?
16. Looking back—what do you wish you would have done to advocate for your candidate?
17. If you were in charge of training mentors—what is the number one thing you would teach them?
18. If you found yourself at odds with your candidate, what did you do?

19. Do you feel that candidates benefitted from practicum and mentoring sessions?
20. What were some of the things that were really beneficial during the sessions?
21. What do you wish you knew about your candidates that would make it less challenging to advocate for them?
22. Is there anything else anyone would like to add?

Cooperating Teacher Interview Protocol—Training Focus Group Protocol

The purpose of this interview is to examine cooperating teachers' perceptions concerning the training on using modeling as a mentoring practice when working with preservice teachers in Special Education.

Protocols:

- (a) Welcome the participant
- (b) Ask permission to videotape interview
- (c) Ask Interview Questions
- (d) Have the participant complete demographic survey

Questions:

1. What is something that you learned in the training?
2. What is something that you already knew?
3. What is something that you will implement in your mentoring of PSTs?
4. What is something that you will NOT implement in your mentoring of PSTs?
5. What is something from the training that is still unclear?
6. What is something that you learned that you agree with?
7. What is something that you learned that you disagree with?
8. What is something that you liked from the training, but will probably not implement?
 1. Why not?
 2. What are some barriers to implementation?
2. Is there anything else that you want to add?

Preservice Teacher Interview Protocol—Post Practicum Year Two

The purpose of this interview is to examine preservice teachers' perceptions concerning their cooperating teacher's use of modeling as a mentoring practice when working with preservice teachers in special education.

Protocols:

- (a) Welcome the participant
- (b) Ask permission to videotape interview
- (c) Ask Interview Questions
- (d) Have the participant complete demographic survey

Questions:

1. How does your mentor teacher model teaching practices for you?
2. How does this help you grow as a practicum student?
3. How does it hinder your growth as a practicum student (if at all)?
4. Does your mentor talk to you about the practices they modeled?
 1. (if yes) What do those conversations look like?
 2. How are they helpful/not helpful?
2. What are some of the best things about having a mentor teacher model teaching practice for you?
3. What is hard about having a mentor teacher model teaching practice for you (if anything)?
4. What were some of the areas in which your mentor teacher modeled practices for you?
5. Does your mentor teacher ever interrupt your teaching to model for you? (if yes) What is the impact of that?
 1. Is there anything else you want to share about your mentor teacher's modeling?
 2. Describe your relationship with your CT.
 3. Is there anything else that you want to share about your practicum experience?

Cooperating Teacher Interview Protocol

The purpose of this interview is to examine mentor teacher' perceptions concerning using modeling as a mentoring practice when working with preservice teachers in special education.

Protocols:

- (a) Welcome the participant
- (b) Ask permission to videotape interview
- (c) Ask Interview Questions
- (d) Have the participant complete demographic survey

Questions:

1. How do you model teaching practices for your PST differently this year than last year—if at all?
2. How has this affected your practicum experience this summer?
3. How does this help your practicum student grow?
4. How does it hinder their growth (if at all)?
5. Do you talk to you about the practices you modeled or will model?
 1. (if yes) What do those conversations look like?
 2. How are they helpful/not helpful?
2. What are some of the best things about modeling teaching practices for your PSTs?
3. What is hard about modeling teaching practices for your PSTs (if anything)?
4. What were some of the areas in which you modeled practices for your PSTs?
5. Is there anything else you want to share about your modeling?
6. Describe your relationship with your PST.
7. Is there anything else that you want to share about your practicum experience this summer?

Coach-Teacher Relationship Tool (CTRT) Description

The CTRT is a 24-item questionnaire. Most of the questions were modeled after questionnaires such as the Student-Teacher Relationship Scale (Pianta, 2001) and the Family Quality of Life Scale (Beach Center on Disabilities, 2006). The CTRT is a questionnaire that was being developed during the time of this study. Because the CTRT was not a valid and reliable measure during the time of this study, results from CT and PST responses were used only anecdotally to inform this study. Twenty-four of the questions involve a five-point Likert Scale response, with response options ranging from 1, *Not Confident*, to 5, *Very Confident*. Eight of the questions focused on the perceived relationship between CT and PST. An example question for CTs includes, “How confident are you in the way that you are honest with your preservice teacher, even when there is difficult feedback to give?” The PST version of this same question reads, “How confident are you in your mentor’s ability to be honest with you even when there is difficult feedback to give?” Another eight of the questions focused on perceived understanding of evidence-based mentoring practices utilized during practicum. An example question for CTs includes, “How confident are you in the way that you help your preservice teacher gain confidence in their ability to teach all children how to read?” The PST version of this same question reads, “How confident are you in your mentor’s ability to help you gain confidence in your ability to teach all children how to read?” The other eight questions focused on perceived outcomes of implementing evidence-based mentoring practices during practicum. An example question for CTs includes, “How confident are you in the way that you can tell whether or not your preservice teacher feels they are benefiting from the practicum experience?” The PST version of this same question reads, “How confident are you in your mentor’s ability to tell whether or not you feel you are benefiting from the practicum experience?”

Cooperating Teacher (CT) Coach Teacher Relationship Tool (CTRT) Questions

How confident are you in the way that you . . .

Relationships	Process	Results
. . . are available when your preservice teacher needs you (via phone, in-person, email, or video chat)?	. . . help your preservice teacher gain confidence in their ability to teach all children how to read?	. . . build confidence in your preservice teacher's ability to use teaching materials and/or resources (e.g., assessment, lesson plans, etc.)?
. . . are honest with your preservice teacher, even when there is difficult feedback to give?	. . . value what your preservice teacher may already know about teaching children (to read)?	. . . can tell whether or not your pst feels they are benefiting from the practicum experience?
. . . are a person on whom your preservice teacher can depend and trust?	. . . model teaching assignments clearly so that your preservice teacher knows how she/he should implement them in the classroom?	. . . help your preservice teacher become aware that he/she is improving each time they implement your feedback?
. . . speak up for your preservice teacher's best interests when talking to your site administrator and/or preservice teacher's university supervisor(s)?	. . . individualize your instruction to your preservice teacher's needs in a step-by-step process?	. . . can discern whether or not your preservice teacher feels like the mentoring meetings/coaching sessions add anything to what she/he already knows about teaching?
. . . treat your preservice teacher with respect?	. . . provide feedback that your preservice teacher can understand?	. . . judge whether or not your preservice teacher is increasingly able to readily diagnose the areas in which a student struggles?
. . . are supportive of your preservice teacher, even when lessons are minimally effective?	. . . take the time to observe your preservice teacher's lessons so that your feedback matches their needs?	. . . reliably support your preservice teacher in understanding all teaching assignments?
. . . let your preservice teacher's supervisor and/or site administrator know about the effective things your preservice teacher does?	. . . considers what your preservice teacher has to say about a lesson once it's done?	. . . notice when your preservice teacher increasingly modifies instruction to meet the individual needs of her/his students?
. . . respond consistently to your preservice teacher whether or you are having a challenging day?	. . . allow your preservice teacher choice within the parameters of assignments?	. . . observe that your preservice teacher can measure his/her students' growth and/or outcomes?

Preservice Teacher (PST) Coach Teacher Relationship Tool (CTRT) Questions

How confident are you in your mentor's ability to . . .

Relationships	Process	Results
. . . be available when you need them (via phone, in-person, email, or video chat)	. . . help you gain confidence in their ability to teach all children how to read?	. . . build your confidence in your ability to use teaching materials and/or resources (e.g., assessment, lesson plans, etc.)
. . . be honest with you even when there is difficult feedback to give?	. . . value what you may already know about teaching children (to read)?	. . . tell whether or not you feel you are benefiting from the practicum experience?
. . . be a person on whom you can depend and trust?	. . . model teaching assignments clearly so that you know how to implement them in the classroom?	. . . help you become aware that you are improving each time you implement their feedback?
. . . speak up for your best interests when talking to your site administrator and/or university supervisors?	. . . individualize their instruction to meet your needs in a step by step process?	. . . discern whether or not you feel like the mentoring meetings/coaching sessions add anything to what you already know about teaching?
. . . treat you with respect as a preservice teacher?	. . . provide feedback that you can understand?	. . . judge whether or not you are increasingly able to readily diagnose the areas in which a student struggles?
. . . be supportive of you, even when your lesson is minimally effective?	. . . take the time to observe your lessons so that their feedback matches your needs?	. . . reliably support you in understanding all teaching assignments?
. . . let your supervisor and/or site administrator know about the effective things you do?	. . . consider what you have to say about a lesson once it is done?	. . . notice when you increasingly modify instruction to meets the individual needs of your students?
. . . respond consistently to you whether or not he/she is having a challenging day?	. . . allow you choice within the parameters of assignments?	. . . observe that you can measure your students' growth and outcomes?

APPENDIX D

Institutional Review Board Approval Letter**BYU**

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD FOR HUMAN SUBJECTS

Memorandum

To: Professor Elizabeth Cutrer

Department: CP&SE

College: EDUC

From: Sandee Aina, MPA, IRB Administrator

Bob Ridge, PhD, IRB Chair

Date: October 24, 2018

IRB#: E18394

Title: *"Understanding Mismatch in Perceptions Between Mentor Teachers (MTs) and the Preservice Teachers (PST) Whom They Mentor"*

Brigham Young University's IRB has approved the research study referenced in the subject heading as exempt level, categories 1-2. The approval period is from **October 24, 2018 to October 23, 2019**. Please reference your assigned IRB identification number in any correspondence with the IRB. Continued approval is conditional upon your compliance with the following requirements:

1. A copy of the informed consent statement is attached. No other consent statement should be used. Each research subject must be provided with a copy or a way to access the consent statement.
2. Any modifications to the approved protocol must be submitted, reviewed, and approved by the IRB before modifications are incorporated in the study.
3. All recruiting tools must be submitted and approved by the IRB prior to use.
4. In addition, serious adverse events must be reported to the IRB immediately, with a written report by the PL within 24 hours of the PI's becoming aware of the event. Serious adverse events are (1) death of a research participant; or (2) serious injury to a research participant.
5. All other non-serious unanticipated problems should be reported to the IRB within 2 weeks of the first awareness of the problem by the PI. Prompt reporting is important, as unanticipated problems often require some modification of study procedures, protocols, and/or informed consent processes. Such modifications require the review and approval of the IRB.
6. A few months before the expiration date, you will receive a continuing review form.

There will be two reminders. Please complete the form in a timely manner to ensure that there is no lapse in the study approval.

IRB Secretary A 285 ASB Brigham Young University (801) 422-3606