

Transformative Features of Teacher Residency Programs: A Textual Narrative Synthesis

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ABSTRACT: Although teacher residency programs (TRPs) are increasing in prevalence, the scholarly literature on these programs has not been systematically synthesized to demonstrate consensus regarding benefits of teacher residency programs for teacher preparation over traditional models. This literature review provides a textual narrative synthesis of empirical research on teacher residencies from 2014-2019 and summarizes features of TRPs, including *enhanced mentoring*, *immersive resident learning*, and a *transformative third space* for teacher preparation. The literature synthesis confirmed that TRPs have the potential to transform teacher preparation and improve upon university-school partnerships to bolster theory-to-practice connections. As TRPs innovated and developed their residency programs, the reflective process was essential.

NAPDS Essentials Addressed:

2. A school–university culture committed to the preparation of future educators that embraces their active engagement in the school community;
3. Ongoing and reciprocal professional development for all participants guided by need;
4. A shared commitment to innovative and reflective practice by all participants;
7. A structure that allows all participants a forum for ongoing governance, reflection, and collaboration;
8. Work by college/university faculty and P–12 faculty in formal roles across institutional settings;

There has been concern in the field of teacher education about dissonance between theory and practice for decades (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Darling-Hammond, 2017; Feiman-Nemser & Buchman, 1985). Teacher candidates may learn about certain theories of pedagogy in their coursework, and be expected to enact different theories when they have their student teaching experiences. This disconnect may be identified as a clog in the research-to-practice pipeline and/or a lack of unified vision within school-university partnerships. Innovative models of teacher preparation have been explored in response to these concerns (NCATE Blue Ribbon Panel, 2010; Darling-Hammond, 2017; Walsh & Jacobs, 2007; Zeichner, 2012), including ways to strengthen school-university partnerships (Wasburn-Moses, 2017).

One of those models is now widely known as a teacher residency program (TRP) (National Education Association, 2014; Thorpe, 2014). This model is in use throughout the country (National Center for Teacher Residencies, 2020; Wasburn-Moses, 2017) emphasizing strong school-university partnerships as an overarching vision. However, the research on teacher residency programs has not been synthesized to demonstrate consensus on the benefits of TRPs for teacher preparation over traditional models (Beck, 2016; Garza & Werner, 2014; Hammerness et al., 2016; Wasburn-Moses, 2017).

In traditional models of teacher preparation (TM), the student teacher gradually assumes instructional responsibilities over the course of a prescribed time-period while being evaluated by the mentor and a supervisor (Fraser & Watson, 2014; Garza & Werner, 2014). Currently, TRPs are identified in the literature as a promising approach (Beck, 2016; Chu, 2019; Kolman et al., 2017; Leon, 2014; Ross & Lignugaris-Kraft, 2015; Wasburn-Moses, 2017). Research is still primarily exploratory regarding the features of successful TRPs (Wasburn-Moses, 2017).

Defined by the national government in section 101(a) (S1574 IS), TRPs are school-based programs in which a teacher candidate:

- (A) for 1 academic year, teaches alongside a mentor teacher, who is the teacher of record;
- (B) receives concurrent instruction, which may be taught by district or residency program faculty, in the teaching of the content area in which the teacher will become certified or licensed to teach;
- (C) acquires knowledge of planning, content, pedagogy, student learning, and assessment, management of the classroom environment, and professional responsibilities, including interaction with families and colleagues;

- (D) earns a master's degree and attains full state certification or licensure to teach prior to completion of the program; and
- (E) receives ongoing mentoring support in a structured induction program for not less than the first 2 years as teacher of record.

The National Center for Teacher Residencies (NCTR, 2020) further defined key features for *quality* teacher residency models (Howey, 2007; Solomon, 2009). The standards indicate a need for (1) a unified mission and vision for teaching that is common across school-university partners; (2) strong partnerships and commitment to evaluation; (3) "rigorous and competitive" selection of candidates; (4) rigorous and competitive selection and comprehensive training of mentors; (5) a yearlong residency with wraparound coursework and "intensive classroom apprenticeship;" and (6) intensive post-residency support, including careful placement of graduates. According to NCTR (2020), "focusing on all of these areas leads to the highest probability that teachers in high-need schools will develop the knowledge, skills, and disposition to be successful over time so that their students will meet or exceed learning targets" (The Residency Model, para. 3).

To better understand the breadth and depth of research around teacher residency programs, a systematic review of the literature was conducted. An examination of effective practices provided perspectives for teacher preparation programs to consider as they design and revise clinical components of their programs. The question framing this review was:

"What were salient features of teacher residencies that contributed to a successful teacher residency program?"

Research Methodology

Sample

Our review included studies from 2014-2019 to examine the most recent practices within teacher residency programs. Prior to 2014, there was early evidence of promise and possibility for TRPs as an innovative model of preparation, but the salient features of these programs were still newly forming (Berry et al., 2008; Boggess, 2010; Klein et al., 2013; Papay et al., 2012; Solomon, 2009; Tindle et al., 2011; Zeichner, 2010). The literature on TRPs from earlier studies demonstrated that these programs were able to recruit diverse candidates for hard-to-staff schools and increase teacher retention (Beck, 2018; Berry et al., 2008; Papay et al., 2012). Initially, we searched for literature in Google Scholar using keywords: teacher residency; teacher residencies and teacher preparation," which yielded a search result of 1080 articles. After further examination of the studies it was evident that many of the articles were connected to the medical field. Therefore, we explored educational database searches in EBSCO host and ERIC using the keywords: teacher residenc* AND teacher preparation, which yielded a search result of 78 articles. Twelve

were duplicates and eliminated. Sixty-six articles were screened through reading the title and abstract to determine if they met inclusion criteria. We included empirical research methodologies of qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods studies from peer reviewed journals that focused on TRPs.

As a research team, we collaborated to determine article eligibility for the study. All 66 articles were systematically analyzed initially through the title and abstract based on inclusion criteria. All studies that were identified as *maybe* were opened and thoroughly read to determine consensus. Each study was categorized as qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods in design. Forty of the articles met the inclusion criteria based on initial screening. After further analysis, 12 more articles were excluded because they were not empirical research studies, they were off topic, or were not from a peer reviewed journal. Twenty-eight articles were coded initially. Three articles were then added with a forward and backward search based on article reference lists, with a total of 31 articles analyzed (see Figure 1).

Data extraction and Analysis

Researchers collaboratively developed a process for extracting data from the studies. The first 3 articles were analyzed together by the first 2 researchers to establish consistency and patterns for coding. An open coding process was used in NVIVO 12 Software to develop codes as they emerged through the reading of the articles. Then, we worked independently on data extraction and coding with the remaining articles collaboratively reviewing coding on a weekly basis. We noted articles that raised issues and consulted with one another throughout the process. Researchers frequently merged codes and discussed developing trends. We ran a coding comparison query in NVIVO 12 on all articles which yielded strong interrater reliability (Cohen's kappa = .86). After all codes were established, we turned our focus to the findings sections of each study. During this process, articles were coded for a second time to ensure that theoretical saturation occurred with 921 items coded under the code *Findings*.

After an open coding process was complete, we used a visualization feature for axial coding in NVIVO 12 to investigate the relationships between concepts and categories that were developed and to compare the number of codes. Ten or more articles contained the following codes in weighted order from greatest to least: *theory to practice, structures, resident learning or new knowledge, challenges of context, content focus was learned, mentor-resident relationships, lessons learned, university-school partnership, alignment occurred or did not, social justice development, mentor selection, faculty role, co-teaching, and mentoring* (see Figure 2).

Codes were then consolidated into themes through selective coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Codes with only one finding were eliminated. Initially, the four themes of Mentoring, Resident Development, University Programs, and Theory-to-Practice Connections emerged through categorization of the codes. However, after comparing overlap of codes and trends, it became apparent that the notion of a *transformative third space*, which highlights the essential qualities of a collaborative school-

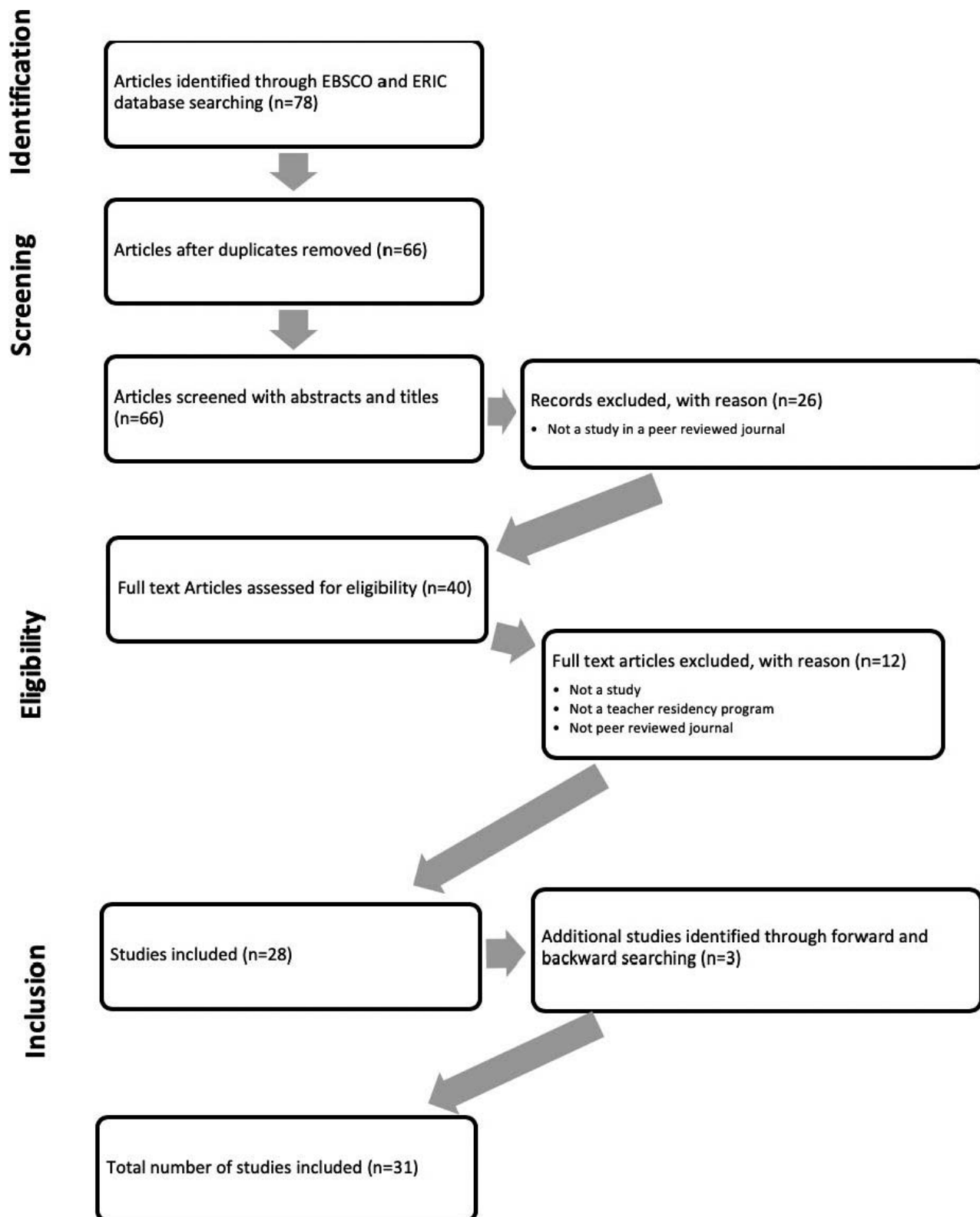


Figure 1. Literature Search and Evaluation for Inclusion

Number of Items Coded vs. Codes

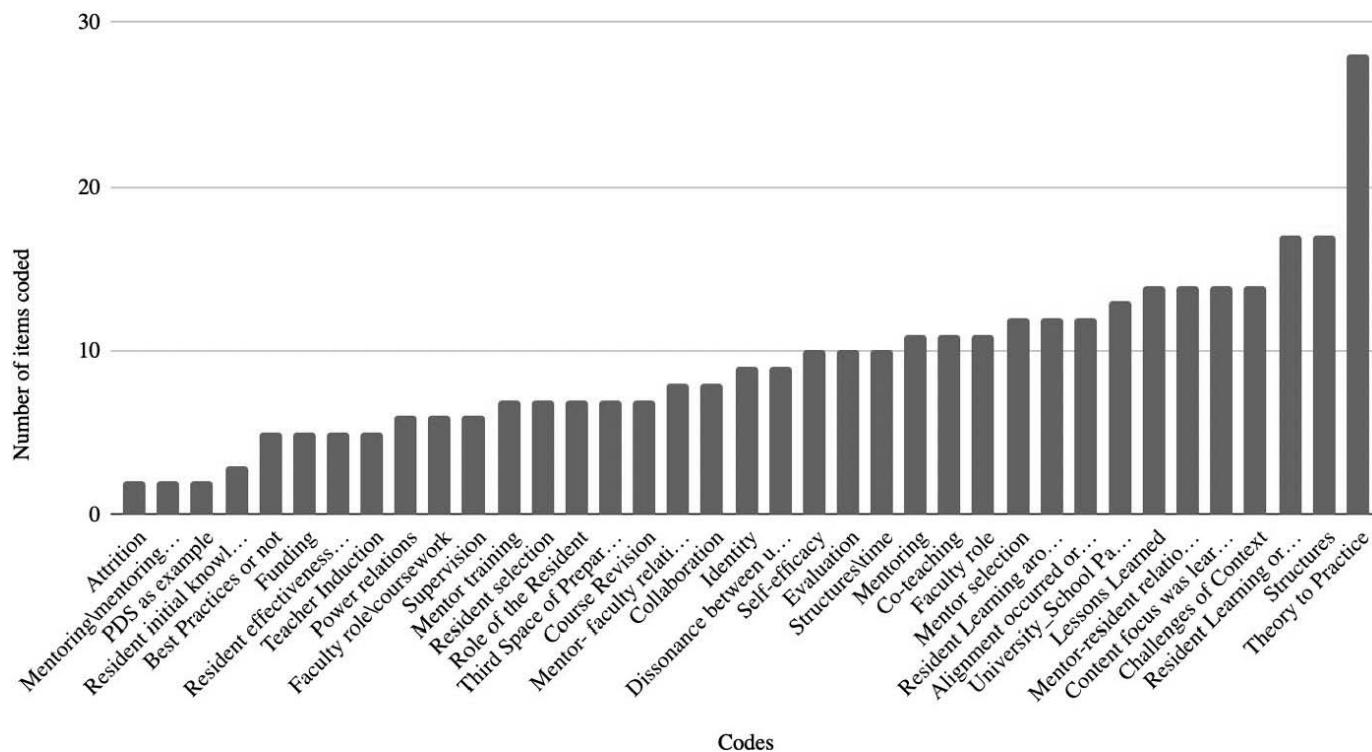


Figure 2. Number of Articles Per Code

university partnership, was threaded throughout all University Program and Theory-to-Practice Connections coding. Therefore, codes were consolidated into three categories, rather than four, through examining overlap between codes to form 3 themes: *Enhanced Mentoring*, *Immersive Resident Learning*, and *Transformative Third Space* (see Figure 3).

Results and Discussion

Our findings were themed around three synthesized codes: 1) *Enhanced Mentoring*, 2) *Immersive Resident Learning*, and 3) *Transformative Third Space*. There was a notion that as programs progressed beyond the initial pilots, reiterative development occurred as stakeholders revised their roles to more effectively develop teachers. Each of the themes that emerged had an undertone of reflective refinement as teacher preparation programs innovated, developed, navigated, and reported on their programs. In the following sections, we have synthesized the salient features of TRPs that emerged in our analysis.

Enhanced Mentoring

The theme, *Enhanced Mentoring*, developed with codes from 22 studies (71% of the sample). The theme emerged through the designation of codes including: mentor-resident relationships, mentoring focus, importance of mentor training, mentor-faculty

relationships, mentor selection, and co-teaching. Researchers proposed that effective mentors were essential to the development of new teachers (Grossman, 2010; Wilson et al., 2001). The most prevalent findings around mentoring that emerged through the coding process are discussed.

Mentor selection. Fourteen articles (45%) specifically discussed the importance of careful selection of mentors. Since mentors played a pivotal role in the development of pre-service teachers' practices for and knowledge of the profession (Ambrosetti et al., 2014; Butler & Cuenca, 2012; Rozelle & Wilson, 2012), careful selection of mentors in TRPs were needed. It is often challenging to select mentors for residents (Kretchman et al., 2018); yet, carefully selecting mentors that are willing to learn and grow as teachers and mentors was an essential characteristic.

The TRP is a new paradigm and requires new ways of thinking about how to select mentors. There were a variety of practical methods used to select mentors. Some programs had an application and observation process, and others obtained recommendations from building principals. Some programs had paid mentors, other studies did not report on the compensation of the mentors. Garza and Werner (2014) recommended use of an interview panel focused on identifying mentoring qualities that would positively influence resident growth. Agreement existed that established mentor selection processes were essential and there should be alignment between

TEACHER RESIDENCY PROGRAMS LITERATURE SYNTHESIS

Reference	Enhanced Mentoring (25 articles with 296 references)			Immersive Resident Learning (30 articles with 201 references)			Transformative Third Space (30 articles with 397 references)			
	Mentor Selection	Mentoring as Co-Teaching	Mentor Training	Time to Develop	Immersion in High Needs Setting	Participation in Cohort Model	Theory to Practice	Clinical Faculty Roles	Mentor Role	Dissonance between University and School
Anderson-Levitt, van Draanen, & Davis (2017)										
Beck (2016)										
Chu, Y. (2019)										
Gardiner, W. & Lorch, J. (2015)										
Gardiner, W., & Salmon, D. (2014)										
Garza & Werner (2014)										
Garza, Reynosa, Werner, Duchaine, & Harter (2019)										
Gatti & Catalano (2015)										
Goodwin, Roegman, & Reagan (2016)										
Hammerness. & Craig (2016)										
Immanuel-Noy, & Wagner (2016)										
Klein, Taylor, Onore, Strom, & Abrams (2016)										
Kolman, Roegman, & Goodwin (2017)										
Kolman, Roegman, & Goodwin (2016)										
Kretchmar, White, Hofkamp, & Kramer (2018)										
Leon (2014)										
Marshall & Scott (2015)										
Mentzer, Czerniak, & Duckett (2019)										
Mourlam, De Jong, Shudak, & Baron (2019)										
Ramirez (2017)										
Reagan, Chen, & Vermikoff (2016)										
Reagan, Chen, Roegman, & Zuckerman (2015)										
Reynolds, Wagle, Mahar, Yannuzzi, Tramonte, & King (2016)										
Roegman, Pratt, Goodwin, & Akin (2017)										
Ross & Lignugaris-Kraft (2015)										
Strom, Dailey, & Mills (2018)										
Taylor, Klein, & Abrams (2014)										
Vagi, Pivovarova, & Barnard (2019)										
Wasburn-Moses(2017)										
Williamson, Apedoe, & Thomas(2016)										
Williamson, & Hodder (2015)										

Note. Gray shading indicates presence of theme within the article findings, discussion, and conclusion sections.

Figure 3. Articles Included in the Literature Review by Theme

Note. Gray shading indicates presence of theme within the article findings, discussion, and conclusion sections.

the practices and beliefs of the mentor and the TRP. There was, however, no consensus regarding the superiority of one selection method over another. If mentors were not carefully selected, there was potential to undermine the development of the resident (Garza et al., 2019; Goodwin et al., 2016). Yet, Wasburn-Moses (2017) reported in their analysis of 30 TRPs, that little to no information was made publicly available about qualifications for mentors. Unless mentors possessed an understanding of and practice with the philosophies of teaching and learning that are aligned with the TRP, there was a tendency for mentors to affirm resident learning only when the resident adopted the mentors' practices (Garza & Werner, 2014).

Mentoring as co-teaching. There were 14 studies (45%) that specifically discussed a co-teaching model of mentoring residents. The concept of co-teaching originated in the context of special education and was expanded for teaching English Language Learners (Bacharach et al., 2010; Cook & Friend, 1995; Friend et al., 2010). Since co-teaching addresses the collaborative nature of how two specialists work together with the common goal of student learning (Willard, 2019), this

definition has been expanded in TRPs to describe how mentor teachers and residents can work together to benefit student learning (Bacharach et al., 2010).

Chu (2019) described co-teaching within residency:

The TRs [teacher residents] and MTs [mentor teachers] collaboratively plan instructional activities, prepare teaching and learning materials, and discuss and reflect upon their collaborative work after class and in designated planning and/or mentoring periods” (p. 254).

Vagi et al. (2019) further discussed co-teaching with a focus on increasing resident responsibility and leadership within the model. In order for co-teaching to be effective in a TRP, it was essential that there was mutual respect and a willingness from both the mentor and resident (Chu, 2019; Garza et al., 2019; Goodwin et al., 2016). Although the mentor has more experience, the resident also has skills and resources to contribute.

Garza and Werner (2014) reported,

Some mentors expressed a more thoughtful collaborative relationship where they acknowledged the resident as a partner and co-learner. . . [there were] more indications of relationships where mentors were actively engaging in a dialogue about teaching practice, instructional design and implementation” (p.10).

In TRPs, mentor teachers worked with their residents in a much more collaborative sense than in traditional models of preparation (Garza & Werner, 2014; Mazzye & Duffy, 2021). The experience of co-teaching in the TRP required the mentor and resident to invest in a collaborative, respectful relationship, where both individuals came together with the specific intent of better meeting the needs of students in the classroom. Because of the amount of time that the resident and mentor spend together, there was time for a trusting, collegial relationship to develop. Chu (2019) stated:

Conceptions of mentor as ‘friend’ and ‘sister’ indicated a caring and trusting relationship between the mentors and the residents afforded by the extended time they spent together in the residency and the MTs’ understandings of mentoring as providing emotional support (p. 263).

Although co-teaching was impactful for the mentoring of the resident, an additional benefit was that there was potential for P-21 students to gain from an additional, invested pre-service teacher in the classroom. Bacharach et al. (2010) found that students’ achievement increased in classrooms where student teachers were co-teaching alongside a mentor teacher due to increased amounts of small group instruction and a reduced student: teacher ratio. Interestingly, none of the synthesized studies specifically examined student learning outcomes.

Mentor training. Mentor training was an essential aspect of TRPs. Eighteen studies (58%) discussed the importance of university faculty providing professional development training for mentors. The studies described various platforms and timeframes for professional development. Some programs held summer workshops, and others held onsite, after-school professional development.

Being a highly effective teacher does not necessarily mean that one will be a highly effective mentor. Mentoring within a TRP required intentional training of mentors to assist in the development of the mentor and acquiring new knowledge (Chu, 2019). When mentors participated in a TRP, they tended to examine their own teaching practices and beliefs. The act of explaining their pedagogy to a resident was a catalyst for reflection (Chu, 2019; Garza et al., 2019; Goodwin et al., 2016). In addition, Chu (2019) described how mentors had to make shifts in their beliefs and practices as they learned to mentor.

the five MTs experienced an ongoing learning process to make sense of the demands of the TRP and reconcile their existing beliefs and practices of teaching and mentoring with those expected in the residency,

and developed mentoring practices that reflected their shifting understandings of mentoring and teaching (p. 257).

Mentor training in the studies reviewed revealed ongoing support for mentors throughout the TRP. University faculty were present in the schools and provided both informal and formal professional development throughout the experience (see *Clinical Faculty Roles*). For example, Kolman et al. (2017) reported ongoing professional development for both resident and mentor. Initially, training occurred as program orientation, continued on a monthly basis, and included two retreats. Without in-depth training on effective mentorship, mentors tended to revert to previous conceptions on mentoring. The mentors in the examined studies tended to internalize the training they received from the university faculty and reported using that knowledge as they mentored residents.

Immersive resident learning

Immersive Resident Learning emerged as a theme through the designation of codes from greatest to least including: *resident learning or new knowledge* (such as social justice or inclusive education), *content focus was learned*, *self-efficacy*, *identity*, *resident selection*, *resident role*, *resident effectiveness or improvement*, *resident funding*, *teacher induction and resident initial knowledge or readiness*, were examined. Twenty-nine articles (94%) discussed resident development and key features of the residency associated with that development.

Time to develop. A positive aspect of the TRP that contributed to the growth of the resident was the year-long experience to develop as a teacher. Thirteen articles (42% of articles) specifically discussed this trend. Given the extended time, there were extensive opportunities for residents to enact and reflect on theory and learning as well as understand and incorporate the feedback they received from supervisors, mentors, and faculty. Reynolds et al. (2016) described the affordance of frequent collaborative conversations between the resident, mentor, and faculty member to foster resident growth. Additionally, Kretchmar et al. (2018) reported the benefits of extended time in the TRP to develop understanding of school structures, adopt broad perspectives, and to embed theory to practice connections.

A common thread woven through the literature was that TRPs provided time for the instructional focus of the program to deeply develop. TRPs often had an instructional focus for their residents including inquiry science teaching, (Klein et al., 2016), teacher identity development (Gatti & Catalano, 2015), and social justice (Hammerness & Craig, 2016; Anderson-Levitt, 2017). Whatever the focus of learning for the TRP partnership, residents had more time than traditional models to internalize the focus, or to be influenced by the philosophy. Further, Moulam et al., (2019) stated, “Candidates believed completing coursework while in a yearlong clinical placement increased the content’s relevancy” (p. 408). Extended time in

the field allowed residents to connect concurrent coursework and school context.

Time in TRPs also allowed for relationship development with peers, mentors, P-21 students, and the larger school community, which had positive effects. Additionally, residents perceived themselves as crucial members of the school community because of extensive time spent in schools (Garza et al., 2019; Gatti & Catalano, 2015; Hammerness & Craig, 2016; Kretchmar et al., 2018; Klein et al., 2016; Mourlam et al., 2019; Ross & Lignugaris-Kraft, 2015). They understood school structures and had opportunities to participate in the greater school community, (i.e., after-school events, home visits, parent conferences). Increased time in TRPs afforded broader opportunities and immersion in school culture. In addition, self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977) was developed as residents became comfortable in their classrooms and fully engaged in school wide activities during the year-long experience. They were able to observe student academic success and improvement of their practice over time (Mourlam et al., 2019). Mentzer et al. (2019) found that residents consistently had higher degrees of confidence to provide higher quality science and math instruction than student teachers in other programs. Reynolds et al. (2016) found that residents grew in their self-efficacy beliefs when they assisted students acquire and deepen their learning. As residents observed learning in their students due to their teaching and became more comfortable in the year-long context, they grew in their sense of self-efficacy.

Immersion in a high-needs school. Many residency programs (twenty-six studies; 84%) were intentionally devised as “Urban Teacher Residencies” whose overarching goal was to prepare educators to teach in high-needs, urban settings (Leon, 2014; Roegman et al., 2017). Residents’ immersion in these settings were found to shape their professional and personal identities especially as they were exposed to experiences of poverty and trauma that were often unfamiliar to them, even when they had similar racial identities. These experiences of incongruity seemed to motivate residents to seek out resources to support their students. Residents were resourced in their concurrent coursework and had supportive conversations in their cohort that continued to influence identity development. For example, Leon (2014) found,

Although a number of the preservice resident teachers in this study were of the same ethnicity as their students, many experienced a socioeconomic and/or cultural divide from their pupils. This made these novice teachers particularly interested in locating research about culturally-sensitive effective pedagogy and classroom management strategies designed to help high needs urban youth succeed in school. (p.114).

Additionally, Reagan et al. (2016) found that the time residents were immersed in the urban school context fostered a shift in residents’ thinking about issues of social justice. They

observed that the residents increased in their understanding of students’ identities, which in turn shaped residents’ identities.

[Residents] explored these ideas during the program through the autobiographical analyses in ways that complicated the social political landscape, their individual backgrounds and experiences, and student learning. From the admissions essays to the autobiographical analyses, we find shifting articulations of self, students, and society (p. 223).

Another contributor to resident identity development in high-needs schools was connected to the dissonance that residents experienced when misalignment occurred between mentor and resident philosophies, or where the resident learned “what not to do” in regard to best practices for teaching (Anderson-Levitt et al., 2017; Gatti & Catalano, 2015; Kolman et al., 2016). When professional identities were established within the other supportive factors of the residency, such as coursework, a strong cohort, and faculty support, residents’ identity formation prevailed.

Participation in a cohort model. Another feature of TRPs that appeared to have a positive impact on resident development was participation in a cohort model. Twenty-three studies (74%) specifically used the term cohort to describe the model and an additional six (19%) described what would be considered a cohort. Therefore 90% of the studies noted a cohort model as a feature of their programs. Cohort models provided residents with a sense of community and a support system on which they could rely as they progressed through the TRP. For example, preservice teachers valued, “belonging to a group that was going through the same types of academic and emotional experiences in a program designed to help them succeed in a high-need school” (Garza & Werner, 2014, p. 208). Similarly, Kretchmar et al. (2018) described the cohort as a supportive group of “critical friends” who “provided a safe place for residents to debrief their experiences . . . [and] to discuss mistakes without feeling negatively judged” (p. 13). Other studies (Immanuel-Noy & Wagner, 2016; Leon, 2014; Reagan et al., 2015) indicated that residents in a cohort could stretch each other’s thinking and support one another’s growth. In these situations, TRPs set up specific learning opportunities that encouraged residents to engage as reflective practitioners with one another through processes such as instructional rounds or peer mentoring. In such situations, residents described a sense of trust among one another where non-judgmental, constructive feedback was provided.

Transformative third space

The theme of *Transformative Third Space* developed from a synthesis of findings based on NVIVO 12 codes from 30 articles (97%) focusing on the development of codes connected to university programs affected by *third space* preparation in the TRP. The hierarchy of codes from greatest to least is: *theory-to-practice connections, school/university partnership, faculty role, course-*

work, alignment/dissonance, challenges of context, collaboration, supervision, and evaluation. While only six articles mentioned the term “third space” explicitly (Beck, 2016; Klein et al., 2016; Kretchmar et al., 2018; Mourlam et al., 2019; Taylor et al., 2014), the other 24 articles within this theme discussed the attributes that are definitive of *third space* teacher preparation.

The term *third space* was used throughout the literature to describe transformative collaboration between universities, P-12 schools, and teacher candidates (Beck, 2016; Klein et al., 2013; Klein et al., 2016; Kretchmar et al., 2018; Strom et al., 2018). The purpose was to break down traditional hierarchies of power and privilege between these entities and allow space for all involved to contribute meaningfully toward resident development (Beck, 2016; Klein et al., 2013). *Third space* was designed to address the common challenge of connecting theory and practice between school-university partnerships in traditional teacher preparation programs (Beck, 2018, Feiman-Nemser & Buchman, 1985; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Darling-Hammond, 2017; Zeichner, 2010). For true transformation to occur in residents’ development, change was necessary in how all entities engaged with one another for the benefit of the residents. For example, Klein et al. (2016) described their *third space* as follows:

Our UTR [urban teacher residency] operates within a “third space” in teacher education, seeking to realign traditional power relationships and to create an alternate arena where the roles of the university, school, teacher candidate, and community can be reimagined. This third space encourages preservice teachers to be inquirers themselves in order for them to support their students as inquirers (p. 244).

Additionally, a *third space* provided not only a benefit for the residents and their preparation as educators, but also for all stakeholders involved. Since a greater variety of stakeholders discuss and negotiate important programmatic elements, the *third space* has been described as a more democratic model of P-12 school-university partnerships (Beck 2016; 2018). Developing a *third space* was a challenging, recursive, and ever-emerging undertaking that required investment of all stakeholders (Klein et al, 2016; Taylor et al., 2014). According to Klein et al. (2016), “Teacher education is not simply a launching event but it should be constituted as a continual third space where knowledge is shared and developed, where expertise is engaged and grown, and where learning as inquiry is always at the center” (p. 265).

Theory-to-practice. A substantial theme that arose was how the entities involved negotiated this *third space* in terms of the recursive development of their programs (Beck, 2016; Chu, 2019; Gardiner & Salmon, 2014; Gardiner & Lorch, 2015; Garza & Warner, 2014; Taylor et al., 2014). A shifting of structures was required to create an immersive experience that connected theory and practice in TRPs. One such change was solidifying the collaboration of university faculty and partner schools in the *third space* (Anderson-Levitt et al., 2017; Beck,

2016; Chu, 2019; Gardiner & Salmon, 2014; Klein et al., 2016; Kretchmar et al., 2018; Mourlam et al., 2019). For example, Klein et al. (2016) described benefits that occurred for residents when university faculty worked collaboratively with school partners to develop a deliberate alignment between theory at the university and practice in the classroom, “Because the third space blends theory and practice, for our residents, action and belief change happened simultaneously” (p. 262).

Theory-to-practice alignment was a prominent theme in the development of TRPs based on the articles reviewed. Twenty-eight of the studies (90%) discussed theory and practice alignment. The depth to which it was discussed varied, and sixteen studies (52%) reviewed specifically emphasized the importance of theory and practice alignment in a TRP. Roegman et al. (2017) suggested, “a need for pedagogical or philosophical alignment between the preparation program, the resident, the school, and the induction support” (p. 449). The *third space* required alignment of stakeholder perspectives if the residency was to be a success. For example, co-teaching was a critical aspect of the interaction between mentor and resident, and these stakeholders must have alignment. Additionally, Kolman et al. (2017) stated, “Alignment with program goals and philosophy was a particularly critical selection criterion given a core program practice of co-teaching and co-planning and a philosophical stance that emphasizes inclusive and student-centered teaching practices to achieve educational equity” (p.97). Alignment was fostered through collaborative relationships, connected coursework, and continual university presence onsite at schools (Chu, 2019; Kretchmar et al., 2018). For example, Taylor et al. (2014) stated:

We posit that teaching courses on site... is only valuable if universities and faculty are able to develop collaborative relationships with teachers that enable reciprocal teaching and learning. Faculty must find ways to read the school and bridge the two agendas of school and university, engaging in reciprocal work (p. 16).

Since university faculty was so connected to the schools in these partnerships, a cohesiveness not usually seen in traditional teacher education programs emerged allowing a deeper understanding of school contexts. University faculty then adjusted coursework to facilitate better alignment between theory and practice. This collaboration appeared to have a positive impact on the residents’ learning as well (Anderson-Levitt et al., 2017; Reagan et al., 2015; Ross & Lignugaris-Kraft, 2015). Kretchmar et al. (2018) found that the carefully aligned, concurrent coursework and fieldwork supported the residents’ abilities to connect theory and practice.

Clinical faculty roles. Eleven articles (35%) explicitly discussed changed faculty roles within TRPs. The university faculty role was reimagined in the *third space* and required faculty to morph and provide a connected bridge between the university and school context. There was a sense of a liaison role for the faculty

member in the literature. The faculty member was flexible, collaborative, and able to problem solve and engage with the learning needs of the school context. Faculty presence as liaisons reduced challenges between mentors and residents, uncovered research opportunities, created shared understanding of course content for mentors and residents, provided professional development around content or mentoring, and informed faculty development of course revision (Beck, 2016; Gardiner & Salmon, 2014; Gardiner & Lorch, 2015; Goodwin et al., 2016; Garza & Werner, 2014). Faculty, or “expert mentors” (Leon, 2014) also provided residents with explicit feedback for their teaching practices while onsite in the school context, in addition to that of the supervisor and mentor teacher (Ross & Lignugaris-Kraft, 2015; Taylor et al., 2014; Gardiner & Lorch, 2015). Indeed, the literature depicted the faculty liaison role as expansive and a complete reconceptualization from traditional faculty roles. For example, Gardiner and Lorch (2015) state, “FLs provided support for [mentors] that went beyond the work with residents such as facilitating professional connections, regularly working with groups of students, procuring resources, and brainstorming around mentors’ content area and pedagogic goals” (p.182).

Given this shift in role, Gardiner and Salmon (2014) discussed the importance of university support for and changes in perspectives on the time, investment, and scholarly work for faculty to enact extensive clinical work. It was important for the university to consider work connected with the design of the *third space* as scholarly.

Coursework alignment and revision. A theme that arose within *faculty role* was the need for faculty to revise their coursework and streamline content to foster alignment. Thirteen studies (42%) specifically discussed the importance of this shift. It is essential that university faculty have first-hand knowledge of school contexts in order to provide relevant coursework and assignments that have direct application. Gardiner and Salmon (2014) stated, “University faculty deepened their understanding of high needs schools and refined higher education courses in response to their increased understanding of local school needs and contexts” (p. 95).

Because of the intense demands on residents’ time in a TRP, it is important that resident coursework closely align with their work in the schools (Chu, 2019; Goodwin et al., 2016; Hammerness & Craig, 2016; Kretchmer et al., 2018). Seven studies (23%) reported stress and anxiety of residents due to the intensity of coursework and full-time school placements. Faculty sought to redesign coursework in order to mitigate stress and foster alignment between theory and practice. For example, Chu (2019) stated,

A re-design of the SSU teacher education curriculum is currently underway with the aim to adapt the course content and assignments around the residents’ mentored learning in the residency based [on] what [was] learned from the pilot. Mentor teachers are fully engaged and empowered in this process to contribute

their expertise and insights as active agents and integral collaborators in the preparation of the next generation of teachers and their potential colleagues (p. 268).

Garza and Werner (2014) also stressed the importance of faculty re-examining and revising coursework to meet the aims of a TRP,

In other words, the curriculum must be influenced by the residents’ teaching context, rather than by theory alone. This requires faculty to examine existing course schedules and materials and perhaps develop unique curricula that embrace the goals of the residency program and leads to a truly practice-based teacher preparation program (p. 213).

Professional development provider. An additional role of the university faculty member was to provide professional development for mentor teachers within the school partnership. Eighteen articles (58%) discussed professional development provided by a university faculty member. The literature revealed a range of content presented during professional development which varied from a content specific focus (Kretchman et al., 2018; Ross & Lignugaris-Kraft, 2015) to effective mentoring strategies (Chu, 2019; Garza & Werner, 2014; Garza et al., 2019). Regardless of the content, faculty was involved in the preparation and facilitation of specific, ongoing training for mentors. The facilitation of professional development may be a *third space* conception that held a nontraditional perspective of professional development, where philosophies and frameworks were co-constructed among the school-university partnership within the TRP. For example, Kretchmar et al. (2018) discussed the importance of professional development to foster shared understanding of inclusive education:

The residency program could be leveraged to develop more intentional placement classrooms by supporting in-service teachers in their professional development. . . . University faculty and teachers and administrators worked to create shared definitions of inclusive teaching and learning and implemented additional structures for placements (Kretchmar et al., 2018, p.11).

Through professional development within TRPs, there was the opportunity to foster alignment between theory and practice. When mentor teachers and residents were working within a similar philosophy and framework for teaching, the convergence of theory and practice aligned and resident learning was immersive and connected. The faculty member role is complex and fosters theory-to-practice alignment serving as a university to school bridge through developing school relationships, revising coursework, and providing professional development.

Mentor role. Mentor participation in the TRP required reconceptualization of the mentor role and practices around effective mentoring (Garza & Werner, 2014; Garza et al., 2019; Kolman et al., 2017). Through collaborative efforts, professional

development, and relationship building, Garza et al. (2019) demonstrated that the mentors developed a more “transformative paradigm” with effort to co-plan and co-teach within the TRP than was possible in traditional models. Mentors often used the professional development that they received to revise and refine their practice of mentoring. The essential and transformed role of the mentor in the third space was discussed above in detail.

Dissonance between university and school. Despite the call for alignment and cohesion in the *third space*, this ideal was not always enacted. *Dissonance between university and school* was a challenge of context that was coded and developed into a trend. Nine studies (29%) examined dissonance between the university and the school. Dissonance resulted through misaligned expectations, philosophical stances, and perspectives on the role of mentors and faculty (Beck, 2016). For example, Chu (2019) stated,

One of the sources of confusion and ambiguity among mentor teachers, teacher education students, and university faculty members was the misalignment of expectations between the university-based teacher education curriculum and the mentored field experiences (p. 268).

With the collaboration of various stakeholders, there is bound to be misalignment at times; this does not necessarily indicate failure on anyone’s part. Rather, dissonance was an invitation for deeper levels of collaboration that resulted in more immersive and comprehensive learning for all. The *third space* allowed for this ever-emerging, recursive work.

Discussion

Teacher residency programs have specific features that appear to contribute to these positive outcomes including 1) mentor selection, mentor training, intentional mentoring, 2) immersive resident learning and concurrent coursework in a year-long, cohort model, across diverse settings, and 3) commitment to work in a transformative *third space* by linking theory to practice. The feature that appeared to be particularly transformative is the notion of the *third space*, which made the unique work of mentoring and resident development possible. The purpose of the *third space* is reflective and recursive, a continual process of developing that is never complete (Klein et al., 2013). This space provides the opportunity for school-university partners and stakeholders to continually collaborate to improve upon the enactment of the TRP and requires innovative, problem solving, and visionary efforts that value the resident, faculty, school leaders, mentors, and P-21 students. When creating TRPs, careful effort should be made to embark upon *third space* work, including alignment of theory and practice. Specific considerations should be made for how this can be implemented and maintained. This requires expertise, planning, training, and time. The *third space* should look different from context to

context, based on the needs of those involved and should be a mainstay of the TRP.

Given the expansive and dynamic roles of stakeholders in developing and enacting TRPs, it is evident that there is an immense amount of work involved. If such programs are going to become mainstays in teacher preparation, a shift in how these programs are supported may be necessary. Both institutional support at university and district levels and financial support are needed for faculty, mentors, and residents. Universities can support the faculty involved in TRPs by acknowledging TRP design and oversight as a scholarly endeavor and provide commensurate compensation or course release. Similarly, school districts can provide administrators and mentors with release time, professional development credit, or other incentives. Since mentors have a more invested role in TRPs than in traditional models, funding may attract more qualified mentors to participate and allow for margin to take on this responsibility. Few of the programs in the reviewed literature specifically discussed funding, and most funding was through time constrained grant monies. Sustainable funding could be used to support universities and districts as well as to provide stipends for residents, who provide classroom support and instruction for an academic year (Bank Street College: Prepared to Teach, 2020).

The very nature of TRPs are contextualized in the schools in which they are enacted. While there are key programmatic features that should remain consistent if a program is entitled “teacher residency program,” not all of the studies shared the defining features of a residency and strayed from the national government definition of a TRP. Without adherence to the defining features, a given program may lack the very characteristics that catalyst the transformative potential (Mazzye & Duffy, 2021; Wasburn-Moses, 2017). Further, adherence to the features of TRPs is important in order to develop clarity in the field. To determine if TRPs truly provide transformative outcomes, studies of programs sharing certain features are necessary. If the term *teacher residency program* is used too broadly, it dilutes the essence of the concept and creates too many variables to study. To be true to the concept of residency and enjoy the benefits, programs should adhere to features of residency. Otherwise, the impact of residency is lost.

Future Research

Most of the research examined on TRPs is qualitative in study design (81%) and provided an examination of mentor, faculty and resident perspectives. Further quantitative or mixed methods comparative studies between traditional models and residency models of teacher preparation would be beneficial. We also recommend study designs and data collection instruments that examine the teaching abilities of residents in specific content areas such as literacy, mathematics, science, and social studies. In addition, studies should investigate the effect that TRPs have on the development of P-21 learners by examining assessment data and socioemotional development of students. If

the research were more deeply focused on P-21 outcomes, sustainable funding opportunities may become more available for TRPs (Bank Street College: Prepared to Teach, 2020).

Limitations

Several limitations to the study were noted. Not all programs described TRPs in the same way and had some varying features, which restricts definitive conclusions. Many of the study authors were also program faculty and intricately connected with the work, which may have introduced bias. We only examined studies from 2014-2019 that were obtained through a database keyword search of “residenc*” AND “teacher preparation” and through a forward and backward search of references. There may be other studies about TRPs that were not found through this method. In addition, although mentor teacher perspectives have been centered in the literature, the writing has been almost exclusively by university researchers. Including school leaders and teachers as valued members of research/writing teams would further illuminate the transformative potential of the third space.

Conclusions

TRPs had salient features (immersive resident learning, enhanced mentoring, and transformative third space) that appeared to transform teacher preparation and improve upon university-school partnerships to further bolster theory-to-practice connections. Schools of education looking for transformative outcomes in their teacher preparation programs may wish to incorporate these features. A full transformation to a teacher residency program may not be necessary to capitalize on some of these important features. For example, clinically-enhanced models of teacher preparation often make use of enhanced mentoring and a more immersive experience (Darling-Hammond, 2014; Scheeler et al., 2016) although not to the extent of a residency. However, according to the literature (Mazzye & Duffy, 2021; Mazzye et al., 2020; Wasburn-Moses, 2017) a piecemeal approach to incorporating these essential features is likely not going to produce the robust benefits seen in the programs reviewed. The TRP provides a framework that allows for the incorporation and synthesis of these features. Therefore, schools of education and P-12 schools may consider TRPs as a way to mitigate some of the issues of teacher preparation including the dissonance between theory and practice discussed in the literature (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Darling-Hammond, 2017; Feiman-Nemser & Buchman, 1985). ^{SUP}

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