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Novice Teachers Perceptions of Prior Mentoring Experiences

A dissertation

presented to

the faculty of the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis

East Tennessee State University

In partial fulfillment

of the requirements for the degree

Doctor of Education

by

Gloria Freels McElroy

December 2012

Dr. Pamela H. Scott, Chair

Dr. Cecil Blankenship

Dr. Catherine Glascock

Dr. Eric Glover

Keywords: induction program, Millennials, mentoring,

Professional Development School, teacher efficacy

ABSTRACT

Novice Teachers Perceptions of Prior Mentoring Experiences

by

Gloria Freels McElroy

More than 50% of novice educators leave the profession in the first 5 years of service. Novice educators were defined as educators with 5 or fewer years of teaching experience. The State of Tennessee has estimated the cost for that decision to around \$28,000.00 per teacher for each local educational authority. Many researchers believe mentoring increases novice satisfaction in the classroom. Even though many enter the field of education, Freedman and Appleman (2009) found that teachers leave the profession in rates higher than other professions. Ingersoll and Merrill (2010) showed the annual turnover rate for teachers was higher than for professions like lawyers, engineers and professors. The purpose of this study was to discuss the role of mentoring in the preservice preparation of novice educators.

This study included 10 novice participants with differing preservice mentoring. They were novices with traditional student teaching preservice preparation, year-long internship preparation, urban specialist year-long internships, and alternative licensures featuring a 3-week preservice preparation.

Qualitative interviews were conducted in face-to-face individual sessions. After county approval participants were identified and later consented to the study. An interview guide was used and all participants signed the Informed Consent Document.

During the interview process participants noted the importance of preservice mentoring. Commonalities perceived were the similarity of Millennials to “make a difference,” the desire to teach, and those who had “good” preservice mentoring believed it was more important to their level of job satisfaction than those who did not have “good” preservice mentors.

Preservice mentoring was embraced by those with access, and those participants without a “good” preservice mentoring experience expressed a desire to have had “good” preservice mentoring. Preservice mentoring was not found as essential to the retention of novice teachers interviewed in this study. All participants indicated they intend to retire in the educational profession regardless of their preservice mentoring. Recommendations derived from this study included extending preservice requirements for alternative programs and a change in the scope of collegiate work during a novice’s preservice training.

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DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my dad HM (Bill) Freels who wanted this for me longer than I even knew I wanted it for myself. Without the unending support of my father, this dissertation and the coursework before it would not have been completed. My dad was born the sixth son of a family of nine children as our country entered a worldwide depression, and he never forgot the life lessons he learned growing up poor or the importance of the country he has loved so much. From those so often quoted hills of Tennessee, he grew to be a man with strength of will unequalled by anyone I have ever known.

Because he wanted much for his children, he worried, fretted, and planned for our futures with a deliberateness any army commander would admire. From the days of my childhood, Dad set the example of a Christian father. I thank you for that, Dad. What my brother and I accomplished in our lives has been due in large part to the incredible, unnamed sacrifices you and our mother made. I love you, Dad. Thanks will never be enough!

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I wish to thank my mom Ruby Armes Freels for the life-long support and care of me, helping with my family, stepping in whenever needed, and mostly listening to Dad. She has also had to listen to my dad quizzing me about whom I would dedicate the dissertation to for much too long. Thanks, mom!

For my husband Doug and my daughter Merritt Marie, I am so grateful for all the pep talks. Where would I be without you two? Neither of you gave up on me. You always believed I could finish this effort. I love you both. To my brother Michael happy days are indeed here again! I am so glad to have you on this side of the continental divide. To the great Jehovah Jireh, worthy are You for all praise!

Special thanks to Dr. Pamela H. Scott whose unfailing faith, voluminous corrections, along with incessant e-mails, phone calls, and instruction kept me going towards the ultimate goal of any doctoral study – finishing. I also wish to thank Emily Redd and Dr. Taylor for their patience and assistance.

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION
Teacher Attrition

Colleges of education in the United States have graduated almost 4 million people (Ball & Forzani, 2009). In 2009 the Department of Education compiled a listing of over 6,500 active colleges of teacher education in the United States. Just 2 years later, the Beginning Teacher Longitudinal Study showed these institutions graduated 182,139 with a master's degree in education. Moreover, the most recent Department of Education's Nationwide Listing of Teacher Shortage Areas acknowledged teacher shortage issues in all states. For the school year of 2010-2011 there were recognized shortages in the areas of math, science, special education, and teaching English language learners.

To underscore these statistics, Secretary of Education, Arne Duncan (2009), met with preservice students at Columbia Teachers College to discuss those very realities. He discussed the dangers of not meeting the needs of practice-based initiatives and diverse students. He quoted President Johnson when he said, "Tomorrow's teachers must not merely be plentiful enough. They must be good enough" (para. 11). He also declared that schools, colleges, and departments of education were "doing a mediocre job in preparing tomorrows teachers for 21st century classrooms" (para.3). Finally, he predicted that by 2014 up to one million teaching positions will be filled by new teachers.

Duncan's remarks were echoed by the extant literature. Roussos and Hancock (2009) found national teacher vacancies listed as high as 500,000 to 540,000 in the school year of 2007 – 2008. They (2009) also reported that 15% of all teachers leave the workforce or move to new

teaching assignments each year. Of necessity vacancies have required replacements. Only about 10% of teachers reach normal retirement age according to Pomaki, DeLongis, Frey, Short, and Woehrle (2010). Teacher replacements required human resource specialists; recruitment, training, and dollars from other programs local education authorities can ill afford. In a study entitled “Review of state policies on teacher induction” the New Teacher Center (2012) published the following results. According to them, there were 65,000 novices who began their first year as teachers in 1988. Just 20 years later that number had almost tripled as first-year teachers numbered 200,000 (p. 49). Also relevant was their finding that the most common teacher in 1988 had 15 years of experience while the most common teacher in 2008 had 5 years or less in the classroom.

Over half of beginning teachers never find out if they can become successful teachers because they leave the profession early in their tenure (Greiner & Smith, 2009; Ingersoll, 2004; Woods & Weasmer, 2002). Further, data from the National Center for Education Statistics’s Beginning Teacher Longitudinal Study indicated that about 21% of Bachelor of Arts recipients in 2000-01 who began teaching the next school year of 2001 – 2002 were neither prepared nor certified to teach during their undergraduate years. Nugent and Faucette (2004) observed in their study that when new teachers report stress and fatigue, novice educators could be moving toward quitting the profession.

Cost of Attrition

Borman and Dowling (2008) asserted that attrition and its associated costs to the local governing authority are rarely addressed by formal policies or interventions of local education authorities (LEAs). Nationwide these high turnover rates cost school districts money and diminish schools’ ability to carry out long-term planning, curriculum revision, and reform (Brewster & Railsback, 2001). Together those numbers equate to over \$31,000 per teacher

transfer or quit decision. Darling-Hammond (1999), Ingersoll (2001), and Neiman-Femser (2001) defined quit decisions as when a teacher decides to leave the profession before normal retirement.

Such losses translated into significant recruiting, hiring, and training costs. Barnes, Crowe, and Schaefer (2007) calculated the costs associated with teacher attrition at seven billion dollars for the 50 states across the nation. It is important to note that an average of 4,100 novice educators graduate from Tennessee colleges and universities with degrees in education each year according to the Tennessean newspaper on June 6, 2011. However, the State of Tennessee loses approximately 2,800 teachers every year. In their latest year for published data Tennessee's State Board of Education calculated 2007 replacement costs at \$87,000,000. Many teachers leave the profession long before retirement age and cite high-stakes testing and stress as reasons (Brooks, 2000). Ingersoll and Merrill (2010) found in their study of national statistics that teacher turnover rates had increased 31% from 1988 to 2004 for first-year public school teachers. The U.S. Department of Education's longitudinal study (2009) reported that of those who graduated certified and qualified to teach, 23% chose not to teach within a year of graduation.

Tennessee recognized the problems of its educational future. In an effort to secure substantial assistance from the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA) of 2009 for education the State of Tennessee passed legislation entitled First to the Top. A formula was determined by the Department of Education for fund distribution to Local Educational Authorities (LEA). Shortly thereafter the State of Tennessee was awarded a Race to the Top grant for \$501.8 million by the federal government. First to the Top funds professional development programs were designed to enhance educators' abilities in the classroom. Acceptance of Race to the Top also granted Tennessee a provisional pass on No Child Left

Behind as the state worked with new methods to accelerate teacher and student performance in the schools.

An integral part of the proposal was a mentoring or induction program that would attempt to ameliorate gaps previously existing in Tennessee schools. Teacher retention was one of the education related goals Tennessee identified in its Race to the Top grant proposal to the federal government. Required mentoring became a mainstay of the grant proposal. Required mentoring was found to be an integral component of the plan after publication of findings by the Tennessee Advisory Council on Teacher Education and Certification to the Tennessee Board of Education (2007). Their data showed the state lost 41% of new teachers within their first 5 years of employment. The successful application to the federally funded Race to the Top and the enactment of the State of Tennessee legislation entitled First to the Top mandated mentoring or induction programs for all novice educators in Tennessee.

Addition of Mentoring

“In No Dream Denied: A Pledge to America’s Children,” a report from the National Commission on Teaching and America’s Future (2008) teacher attrition was described as “pouring teachers into a bucket with a fist-sized hole in the bottom” (p. 10). Researchers (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Brewster & Railsback, 2001) reported that adding school-based mentoring and induction programs assisted with lowering the turnover rates of beginning teachers. Further, Etscheidt, Curran, and Sawyer (2012) stressed the importance of preservice teachers’ reflection as it affords educators great opportunities improve and collaborate. Dewey (1933) began employing this device almost 80 years ago, as he emphasized the need to combine theory and practice. This employment was a significant one as reflection has been an accreditation standard from the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.

Feiman-Nemser (2003) found that “beginning teachers have legitimate unrealized learning needs that do not surface until the beginnings of stand-alone teaching” (p.26). Those unrealized learning needs can position a novice towards an early quit decision if not resolved to their satisfaction.

Protheroe (2006) cited surveys finding “inadequate support and dissatisfaction with teaching as major reasons why teachers leave the profession” (p. 47). Another reason a new teacher might leave the profession is that the profession itself has been slow to develop a systematic way to induct beginners gradually into a highly complex job. Novices cited a lack of administrative and collegial support, budget support and constraints, a flagging sense of personal teaching efficacy, and a controlled curriculum as reasons for leaving the classroom (Woods & Weasmer, 2002). Research by Feiman-Nemser (2003) indicated that providing high levels of support for beginning teachers through mentoring or teacher-induction programs can lead to higher rates of retention.

Washburn-Moses (2010) added that the presence of multiple and competing roles contributed to teacher burnout and attrition. Smith and Ingersoll’s (2004) study underscored other researchers when they cited the need for school-based induction activities, including collaborative and networking opportunities to lessen quit decisions. The authors implied that the lack of mentoring activities could be a predictor of attrition. Ingersoll’s mentoring studies (2003, 2004, 2007, 2011) revealed real differences in longevity between novice educators with induction assistance and those who did not have assistance. Induction assistance has been defined as formal mentoring whether through a Professional Development School for interns or student-teachers or in-house mentoring after hiring. Induction can be as simple as meeting with the principal, department head, or another teacher or as complex as any LEA should produce.

Mentoring can provide an avenue of fulfillment and reflection. The mentoring process was defined by the study as the course of action or progression through which a mentor and a mentee made use of modeling, reflective methods, and the practice of dissonance to create trust, build camaraderie, and engage creative teaching strategies.

The following issues were addressed in this introduction: (1) the problem of teacher attrition in the profession of education; (2) whether the addition of mentoring might make a difference in whether educators persevere in the profession; (3) the cost of teacher attrition; and (4) the possible role of the state government in the retention of teachers with First to the Top requirements. Finally, this case study is focused on five areas as they relate to the influence of induction programs and their effect on retention. Those areas are: (1) a historic view of teaching, (2) high turnover or quit rates of novice educators, (3) the Millennials - novice educators born from 1980 to 2002 who may carry a sense of entitlement, (4) an apparent disconnect between collegiate learning and classroom reality, and (5) the introduction of mentoring in teacher preparation, in-service mentoring, and informal mentoring.

Statement of Problem

The purpose of this study was to discuss the role of mentoring in the preservice preparation of novice educators. All 50 states require a student teaching practicum before issuing a teaching license (Katayama, 2001; Woods & Weasmer, 2002). Student teaching was seen by federal legislators as vital to the success of education with the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) as part of President Lyndon B. Johnson's War on Poverty Program in 1965. Some 45 years later, teacher induction programs were recognized as an important component in the reauthorization of ESEA. That act was PL 107-110 commonly called No Child Left Behind.

The time of student teaching or internship can be as varied as the type of preparation each preservice educator received. Future teachers may have as little as 2 weeks in charge of a classroom or as long as a year as their preparation. As a result, many novices find themselves ill-equipped for the classroom. Scherer (2012) recounted Lortie's (1975) comparison of a new teacher to a shipwrecked Robinson Crusoe, alone and unlikely to survive. Ingersoll (2012) along with his earlier work with Kralik (2004) found that when novices felt isolated and left to succeed or fail with little to no assistance in their classroom their attrition rate was higher. Millennials can find isolation a drawback. This may make the relative isolation of a classroom problematic because as Ingersoll (2012) reminded us "that even though teaching involves intensive interaction with youngsters, the work of teachers is done largely in isolation from colleagues" (p.47).

Even though many enter the field of education, Freedman and Appleman (2009) found that teachers leave the profession in rates higher than other professions. Ingersoll and Merrill (2010) showed the annual turnover rate for teachers was higher than for professions like lawyers, engineers, and professors. The revised Tennessee Framework for Evaluation and Professional Growth standards (Webb, 2009) included the following facts: (1) Tennessee loses almost half of its new teachers in the first 5 years; (2) Tennessee's most pressing needs are beginning teacher support programs, and (3) expanded professional development opportunities for teachers must be developed consistent with Board policy to support the other strategies in the Master Plan. The Master Plan was developed to meet the guidelines of the federal grant the State of Tennessee won for its education initiative.

Research Questions

A substantive overarching research question guided this qualitative case study: of what value do novice teachers place on the preservice mentoring process as a means for success in the classroom leading to their potential retention as educators? The mentoring process as defined by this study means the process through which the mentor and the mentee make use of reflective methods and the practice of dissonance to create trust, build camaraderie, and engage in creative teaching strategies. Also considered in the case study were broad subquestions as follows:

1. Do novice teachers feel well prepared for teaching?
2. What do novice teachers perceive as the important influences received during their student teaching or internships that have stayed with them as they became practicing teachers?
3. How does the former intern or student teacher describe the experience of collegiate preparation as training for classroom responsibilities?

Significance of The Study

Information gained from this study will contribute to the knowledge base regarding preservice mentoring and teacher retention. The question of whether the efficacy of preservice mentoring is a means for retention of novice teachers is an important one as over 500,000 teachers moved to other schools or left the teaching profession in 2008 in the United States according to the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS). The SASS reported that attrition, migration, and retirement caused many of the 3,898,420 educators in America to leave the profession. The Teacher Follow-up Survey (TFS) of 2004-2005 listed dissatisfaction with a teacher's level of support as the number one reason for leaving. Further, Ingersoll and Smith (2003) indicated that school staffing problems were the result of large numbers of teachers who

departed teaching long before retirement age. One anomaly in the above reported statistic was women working for a few years, leaving to have a family, and later returning to teach.

Ingersoll and Merrill (2010) found in their analysis of the latest SASS and TFS findings that the modal age of teachers in the school year of 2007 – 2008 was 55. At that age, many teachers are contemplating retirement. Many began teaching at 21 – 25 and the age of 55 would provide 30 years of service for an educator. Data confirmed by the New Teacher Center’s policy paper entitled, “Review of State Policies on Teacher Induction” (2012) listed the average age of retirement for teachers at 59. There is a natural need for replacement educators when educators retire.

There are many studies that have indicated mentoring programs can have the ability to affect a decreased attrition or migration rate for novice educators. However, even more important may be the educational improvement of schools and their students as enhanced and improved on-the-job training for educators influence the students of America. Reliance on a younger, less veteran workforce could result in lower test scores, discipline issues, or higher dropout rates. Many novice educators obtain positions in hard-to-staff schools as more veteran educators seek less turbulent systems. Therefore, a resulting benefit of this study may be an avenue for state legislatures to address the fiscal losses caused from the high quit rate among young educators with permanent funding for induction and mentoring programs.

Scope of The Study

This case study addressed the opinions, beliefs, and remembrances of novices regarding the role of preservice mentoring in their educational preparation. Qualitative methodology was the research design for this case study. Qualitative methodology provided an idiographic

explanation of the phenomenon. Interviews were accomplished with 10 novice educators. Interviews were the main method of data collection for this case study.

An emergent design process was found appropriate. Neuman (2006) called interpretative social science an approach that “gives the reader a feel for another’s social reality” (p. 91). Hence, I tried to describe the inner lives and subjective experiences of the participants when examining the processes by which those same participants make sense of their phenomenon through the interview process (Newman, 2006). Merriam (1998) reminded us that “We interview people to find out from them those things we cannot directly observe” (p.72).

Definitions of Terms

Induction Program – An induction program can refer to a variety of different activities like classes, workshops, orientations, seminars, and mentoring. Mentoring is the dominant form of teacher induction programs and the terms are interchangeable. However, the terms induction program and mentoring refer to separate ideas (Ingersoll & Kralik, 2004) in this case study.

Millennials – Born between the years of 1980 and 2002 these children were treated as special and important. They may carry a sense of entitlement about them and have an expectation of frequent positive feedback. Their parents advocated on their behalf and “spared” them from unpleasant experiences. As college students, they may have expected faculty and staff to shelter, protect, and nurture them – and resolve their conflicts (Millennials: A Portrait of Generation Next, 2010; Walker, 2009).

Mentor – A mentor is the seasoned, veteran educator who agrees to assist in the training of a novice teacher. Schlichte, Yssel, and Merbler (2005) referred to the effective mentor as one who nurtures and acts as a role model while reflecting on the five mentoring

functions of teaching, sponsoring, encouraging, counseling, and befriending. For the purposes of this case study, the mentor would be assisting preservice educators.

Mentoring – Mentoring is the process through which the mentor and the mentee make use of reflective methods and the practice of dissonance to create trust, build camaraderie, and engage in creative teaching strategies. Giebelhaus and Bowman (2002) defined mentoring as a “relationship in which a person of greater rank or expertise teaches, guides, and develops a novice” (p. 246). This case study regards mentoring as specifically for preservice educators only.

Professional Development Schools (PDS) –Professional Development Schools are a learning-centered community that supports the integrated learning and development of P-12 students, candidates, and partners through inquiry-based practices, teaching, and learning grounded in research and practitioner knowledge according to the standards of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.

Teacher Efficacy – Teacher efficacy is the teacher’s belief in his or her capacity to organize and execute courses of action required to accomplish successfully a specific teaching task in a particular context (Hoy & Miskel, 2008).

Statement of Researcher Bias and Limitations of The Study

The study is limited to the experiences of 10 novice teachers located in Knoxville, Tennessee. All involved participants worked for the same school system during the school years of 2010-2011 and 2011-2012. However, they did not intern or student-teach in the same school district. Many educators began work as teachers of record with Knox County Schools during the years of my research and unfortunately, I was not able to include all of them in this study. My own ebullient personality constrained my ability to obtain impartial and unbiased data from the

participants. To protect the authenticity of the case study and ensure the validity of the findings from any bias, a proxy interviewer was selected and trained for the interview phase of the research process. As for bias, I acknowledge the personal bias of a former mentor in the University of Tennessee's Professional Development School. Also, mentoring relationships as defined by this study concerned preservice educators and their mentors only.

Experiencing successful relationships with mentees kindled this researcher's interest in the efficacy of induction programs. I witnessed how the relationship affected my teaching in content and theory and further how that interest impacted the mentee. As noted in Corbin and Strauss (2008), there may be some difficulty in separating the researcher from the research. In fact, Neuman (2006) declared that "a qualitative researcher's first-hand knowledge of events, people, and situations cuts two ways. It raises questions of bias, but it also provides a sense of immediacy, direct contact, and intimate knowledge" (p. 153). Ultimately, the proxy successfully conducted all interviews with the aid of a digital audio recorder. All interviews were subsequently uploaded electronically to a certified transcriptionist, and transcripts were provided for review and evaluation.

Delimitations of The Study

The findings of this study are limited to the personal recollections, feelings, and experiences of the novice teachers in one school district; therefore, results are not generalized to other populations. However, any findings may be appreciated by state legislatures and LEAs seeking methods to lessen their quit ratio and balance their budget while improving the educational journeys of future constituents.

Overview of The Study

Organized into five chapters, Chapter 1 included the introduction and the reasons for the study, the statement of the problem, research questions, the significance of the study, the scope

of the study, research bias and limitations of the study, delimitations of the study, the definitions of terms, and an overview of the study. Chapter 2 provided a review of the extant literature. Chapter 3 described the methods and procedures used in this qualitative case study. Chapter 4 introduced the participants of the study and presented the findings of the research and the data analysis. Chapter 5 consists of a summary with findings, limitations and delimitations, along with recommendations for further research and conclusions.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter is a review of relevant literature involving teacher preparation colleges, a historical view of teaching in America, governmental involvement in the educational process of learning to teach, teacher retention, an introduction to Millennials, and the role of mentoring. The first section discussed alternatively trained educators versus traditional teacher preparation in teacher education colleges and universities. The second section related the history of teacher preparation education in the United States, while the third addressed attrition rates of novice teachers. The fourth section illuminated differences in millennial educators from those of previous generations. The fifth section focused on collegiate versus school-based learning designs. The final section introduced categories and types of mentoring and examined the merits of mentoring and induction programs. These sections afforded opportunities to examine the extant literature, define concepts, and discuss important peripheral information relevant to the case study.

The Alternative Path Toward Licensure

According to Feistritzer (2009) approximately one third of new teachers hired in this country come through “600 programs being implemented through under the umbrella of 125 state alternative routes to certification” (p. 32). Ng and Peter (2010) reported that 46 states and the District of Columbia employ some form of alternative certification to prepare teachers. They declared “In order to address the issue of persistent teacher shortages, urban districts increasingly rely on alternatively licensed teachers who are often viewed as well-suited to work in urban areas

because of their greater age, life and work experiences, and understanding of diverse communities” (2010, p. 123). The Department of Education identified over 60,000 alternatively trained teachers in U. S. classrooms in 2009.

In 2012 the State of Tennessee licensure standards allows a prospective teacher to obtain a transitional license with a major in the subject area in college or with 24 hours of course work in the subject as long as there is a proffer of a position. In New York City Kane, Rockoff, and Staiger (2007) found little difference in the average academic achievement impacts of certified, uncertified, and alternatively certified teachers (p.42). Foote, Brantlinger, Haydar, Smith, and Gonzalez (2011) reported that New York City defended its use of alternatively certified personnel on the basis “that there are strong systems of induction in place to support candidates” (p. 397). Feistritzer (2011) defended alternative preparation by remarking, “Effective teaching does not correlate directly with the type of preparation or certification program” (p. 34). However, Unruh and Holt (2009) observed that alternative-entry teachers enter the field with a strong knowledge base regarding their subject matter but may lack classroom instruction skills not yet covered in their alternative licensure program.

The federal government has been endorsing alternative routes towards initial licensure. President George W. Bush’s reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, commonly called No Child Left Behind, allocated \$62 million for three alternative-route licensing programs. The act allocated \$20 million to Troops for Teachers, \$39.4 million for Transition to Teaching, and \$2.6 million to Teach for America. The State of Tennessee participated in programs like Troops for Teachers, Teach for America, and the Transition to Teaching programs. Minimum requirements for participation in those programs include graduation from a college or university. Grade point averages necessary for participation can

vary from a minimum of 2.5 to 3.0 GPA depending upon the program. The State of Tennessee has documented good results from alternatively trained educators and continues its commitment to increasing the amount of alternatively licensed educators. Former Governor Bredesen organized two alternative groups to address the needs of college graduates wanting to teach. Called the Governor's Fellows and the Commissioner's Fellows, those programs consider life experience and grades of applicants in the place of a traditional postsecondary education. Standardized test results available to the public from the State of Tennessee Department of Education's state report card and delineated by alternatively trained personnel demonstrated the consistently good performance for Teach for America graduates.

Also, the Tennessean newspaper reported Teach for America graduates outperformed traditional graduates in the Metro Nashville school system on standardized testing scores during the 2009-2010 school years. The 2011 State of Tennessee report card cited the following results. Of the 43 teacher training programs examined, three programs tended to produce teachers (traditionally and alternatively licensed teachers combined) with higher student achievement gains than veteran teachers – Teach for America Memphis, Teach for America Nashville, and Lipscomb University. The influence of alternatively trained educators is significant in Tennessee as Governor Haslam chose Kevin Huffman to be the Commissioner of Education for the State of Tennessee. Kevin Huffman, a lawyer, was the former vice-president of public affairs for Teach for America and a graduate of the Teach for America program in 1992. Huffman taught for only 3 years in Houston, Texas which, by definition, made him a novice teacher.

Teach for America Tennessee (TFA) started in Memphis with 48 enrollees in 2006 and has 307 preparing for the classroom in 2012. In Nashville TFA began in 2009 and had 105

participants in 2012. Greater acceptance of alternatively licensed personnel in the State of Tennessee attracted traditional colleges of education in Tennessee to get involved in the process. Traditional 4-year colleges like Belmont, Austin Peay, and Lincoln Memorial University now offer training in this alternative manner. Colleges are attracted by market forces, increased enrollment, and increased federal funds available through the enactment of the Tennessee Race to the Top Law (Feistritz, 2011). Advertisements on billboards, in the newspaper, and on the television cite reasons for adding a degree or an endorsement at a local college or university. These ads list reasons like being able to complete college mostly on weekends, a shortened time frame for classes, and a cohort of colleagues to share in the work load.

In the Knoxville area colleges have offered classes to traditional and nontraditional students with a required semester of student teaching. Postbaccalaureate students may seek initial licensure at South College, Tennessee Technological University's two plus two program, or Lincoln Memorial University. An alternative teaching licensure for college graduates may also be obtained at Nashville Teaching Fellows. My alternatively certified participant obtained his training through Nashville Teaching Fellows. These programs offer quicker, more cost effective preparation for some college graduates. However, researchers such as Norman and Ganser (2004) warned "these alternative programs are often brief, intensive, and largely designed as on-the-job training" (p. 130).

The Traditional Path Toward Licensure

The National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF) made several recommendations regarding problems with traditional teacher education programs. Those identified problems included:

- (1) Inadequate preparation time and the confines of a typical 4-year undergraduate

degree program

- (2) The fragmentation of theoretical coursework
- (3) Uninspired teaching methods
- (4) Superficial teacher education curriculum with little opportunity to solve learning problems
- (5) The preparation of teachers for schools where they are (chalkboard) as opposed to where they should be (NCTAF, 2007, p.52).

In order to develop a more professional view of teachers in the State of Tennessee, Kershaw and Blank (2003) implemented a teacher preparation program for the University of Tennessee at Knoxville that required a year of internship along with an intensive program of classes and action research. It became the Professional Development School (PDS) at the University of Tennessee. Requirements for inclusion in the program included a bachelor's degree with a major in a subject area of choice and a requisite application followed by an interview process. If successful, a yearlong internship followed. The internship featured graduate level classes at the intern's school or at the university, an action research project, and a supplemental activity chosen by the intern.

Conaway and Mitchell (2004) reported that yearlong internships resulted in three positive critical factors. Those factors were "(1) a better understanding of teacher's curriculum and student behavior, (2) a heightened awareness of their profession, and (3) intensive staff development through a close interaction with university faculty" (p. 22). Darling-Hammond (1994) argued the PDS approach redesigned both teacher preparation and the practice of teaching by building a foundation that will support a profession of teaching. PDS promised a multi-

layered approach to teacher induction through the conferencing, cooperation, and blending of university goals, school needs, and intern requirements.

Even with the many alternative certification programs available to college graduates, the standard teacher preparation in Tennessee for prospective educators is a traditional collegiate teacher education program. As the State of Tennessee report card (2011) has shown, most colleges of education in Tennessee follow a traditional pedagogical curriculum of 4 years with a required practice teaching for 1 semester, notwithstanding the PDS program of the University of Tennessee.

The Professional Development School

As mentioned earlier, Kershaw and Blank (2003) implemented a mentoring program for the University of Tennessee at Knoxville that required a year of internship along with an intensive program of classes and action research. According to NCATE (2007) published standards for PDSs are innovative institutions formed through partnerships between professional education programs and K –12 schools. Professional Development Schools concentrated on the professional preparation of candidates, faculty development, inquiry directed at the improvement of practice, and enhanced student learning.

Not only would the intern have a collegiate advisor but an educative mentor trained in the PDS method. An educative mentor would be a mentor who assisted the preservice educator through reflection, dialogue, and inquiry (Fayne & Ortquist-Ahrens, 2006; Schwille, 2008). Both would work with the university and the school administration to ensure a successful experience for the intern. The intern would employ notes, observations, and artifacts of reflective conversations in order to improve, enhance, and practice their performance through introspection. This introspection would be the natural beginning for an action research project

that could lead to the intern's own life-long reflection-on-action. The benefits of a PDS preparation continued through check-ups with the school core mentoring team on site and continual follow-up by trained mentors for the first 2 years of stand-alone teaching according to Feiman-Nemser (2003).

Sheetz, Waters, Smeaton, and Lure (2005) conducted a survey of a year-long internship experience. They recognized novice improvements in the classroom but acknowledged mentors benefits as the mentors extended their knowledge of teaching, became exposed to current trends, established stronger relationships with their peers, and found reflective opportunities for their own personal professional growth. Sheetz et al. (2005) along with Woods and Weasmer (2002) found the collaborative nature of the university-school-student triad enhanced the mentor's own sense of worth and professionalism thereby increasing his or her own commitment to continued growth. Woods and Weasmer (2002) specifically cited increased reflection, time for planning, other activities, and a sense of self-efficacy by the mentors through the presence of student teachers and their responsibilities. This increased reflection is a recognized component of First to the Top legislation and the TEAM initiative for evaluation designed by the State of Tennessee.

Gschwend and Moir (2007) found in their study of a California PDS that "mentoring strategies that raised the staffs' collective efficacy levels resulted in the greatest gains for novice and veteran teachers, as well as their students" (p. 21). The term collective efficacy as used in their study meant "teachers' beliefs that as a group they can effectively raise student achievement" (p. 22). This collective efficacy can only bolster novices as they move from preservice to active member of a professional learning community. As novices gained *voice* through membership in their learning community feelings of isolation can be abrogated along with increased confidence as they share their plans, lessons, and successes with others in the

community. Nugent and Faucette (2004) learned that interns who matriculated through a PDS program “felt clear about their responsibility to deliver a program that was aligned with university, state, and national standards” (p. 61).

In fact, Darling-Hammond and Youngs (2002) addressed the PDS’s triad approach. They found the PDS approach to mentoring can realistically promise more effective teachers. Sharing or collaboration of skills plans and networking of ideas were necessary mainstays of the PDS program. Does mentoring provided by PDS prepare a novice educator for the realities of school life without forcing the “sink or swim” kind of philosophy in traditional student teaching (Fantilli & McDougall, 2009; Ingersoll, 2012)? Grisham, Laguardia, and Brink (2000) studied the effect of an increased university and field-based educator’s collaboration and found encouraging results for novices. Branyon (2008) found that on-site mentors gave interns confidence and the expertise they believed was needed to complete the certification process, including the evaluations in her study.

In Tennessee an average of 4,100 enter the teaching profession through both traditional preparation and postcollegiate alternative preparation but around 2,800 leave the profession every year (See Table 73, SASS, 2008). Attitudes regarding professionalism can affect morale, job performance, and satisfaction. Secretary of Education Arne Duncan’s (2009) speech to Columbia Teacher’s College made clear his belief in induction programs. Can those early quit decisions for novices be related to how the profession of education in America has evolved?

Educators as Professionals

Beginning teachers start out as other professions do; with an internship or practicum. All 50 states require a student teaching practicum before issuing a teaching license (Katayama, 2001; Woods & Weasmer, 2002). A practicum is a timed period of work for practical experience. A

goal listed by Garmston (2001) was, “Every new teacher needs to know and grow into what we define as a professional” (p. 54). Apprentice-type learning opportunities for preservice and novice educators have long been the subject of debate among educational researchers (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Gaytan, 2008; Hahs-Vaughn & Scherff, 2008). In fact, Lortie (1975) and Darling-Hammond (1992) called for those very learning opportunities much earlier. Novices must have the knowledge and the capacity to connect with learners rather than simply covering the curriculum (Darling-Hammond, 1992). Federal education legislation through the auspices of the 2001 NCLB Act encouraged official induction programs as well. The legislation listed the introduction of induction programs as one of the indicators of correcting poorly performing schools.

It is true that teaching has not had the kind of structured induction and initiation processes common to many white-collar occupations and characteristic of traditional professions (Ingersoll, 2012; Ingersoll & Kralik, 2004). Instead, issues such as NCLB, state curriculum guidelines, and inclusion confuse traditional roles for teachers (Washburn-Moses, 2010). Continuing education is common in most industries and professions. Continuing education is a requirement for educators in Tennessee. A profession, according to Ingersoll and Perda (2010), is an occupation that exhibits the structural or sociological attributes, characteristics, and criteria identified with the professional model. They also offered this definition “a professional is someone who is not an amateur, but is committed to a career and to public service” (p. 107). “Professionals make meaning from complex situations, creatively use specialized knowledge, generate new knowledge, and expand their own teaching repertoire” (Garmston, 2001, p. 54). Certainly Garmston’s definition of a professional explains what educators do in classrooms every day. Even though educators understand the complexities of their jobs, many outside the field

have a very different view of educators. In fact, Ingersoll (2003) said the comparison of educators with traditional professions was “stark” (p. 177). Ingersoll (2003) referred to a traditional professional as what someone in the general public would call a professional; a doctor, an accountant, or a lawyer.

He gave the following examples to demonstrate his point. “Cardiologists are not asked to deliver babies, real estate lawyers are not asked to defend criminals, and plumbers are not asked to repair plumbing concerns” (p.177). Integral to his example was the indisputable fact that traditional male-dominated positions like the above that require expertise and specialization are called professions while the female dominated teaching profession requires less skill, training, and expertise according to the general public, so some people and some elected officials may not think it is a true profession. Tapping data compiled from the NCES Common Core of Data, Ingersoll, and Merrill (2010) observed that “the proportion of female teachers has steadily increased from 66% in 1980 to 76% in 2007-08” (p. 18).

So where does the concept of professionalism begin? In the Middle Ages guilds developed highly developed systems of apprenticeships and journeymen (Ramirez, Stearns, & Wineburg, 2008). Those who completed guild programs were considered expert and commanded respect and pay commensurate with their position as master artisan. According to Lortie (1975) we still see the influence of those professional apprenticeships through industries like electricians, plumbers, and the medical field. Those aforementioned apprentices had a mediated entry in their fields with a protracted tutelage under a master artisan. Lortie (1975) compared teaching to the guild-like professions of today when he declared that, “compared with crafts, professions, and highly skilled trades arrangements for mediated entry and extended tutelage are primitive in teaching” (p. 59). Several researchers have noted that teaching has

been seen as a semiprofession due to its truncated training procedures and unenforced standards and an ill-defined body of knowledge (Ingersoll, 2003; Lasley, Bainbridge, & Berry, 2002).

Student teaching or internships can be seen as a type of mediated entry into the teaching profession. However, unlike the earlier discussed professions, after the allotted time for practice teaching, which varies with colleges of education, novices are considered practitioners. Many times the first-year teacher has the same duties and responsibilities of a veteran or master teacher (Arnold-Rogers, Andrews, & Quinn, 2004; Brock & Grady, 2001) but unlike a plumber, an electrician, or a resident at a teaching hospital that novice has no guarantee of guidance, assistance or mentoring.

Washburn-Moses (2010) has suggested that the presence of multiple roles for a teacher contributed to burnout and attrition for novice educators. Those multiple roles included the following; home room counselor, classroom teacher, and student advisor. Many of their tasks are not professional in nature. Teachers are responsible for bus duty, hall duty, bathroom duty, PTA meetings, fire drills, and blogging on school web sites. The very fact that teachers are completing these tasks every day could contribute to the continual impression that teaching is not a profession. Black's (2003) study on work-related pressures and teachers recommended the reduction or the elimination of tasks that interfered with classroom teaching and learning time for novices. Of the novice teachers who did leave the profession within those early years, many listed quality of life issues including the repercussions of state-mandated testing as key reasons for the great percentage of teacher turnover (Costigan & Crocco, 2004; Hahs-Vaughn & Scherff, 2008).

Estrada and Menchaca-Ochoa (2006) argued that "the current climate of high states assessment and accountability puts a great deal of pressure on new teachers who are held as

accountable as their more experienced colleagues” (p. 20). In Hirsch’s (2006) study of former educators, over 55% of those surveyed said that an overemphasis on testing was one of the reasons they decided to leave the profession. Tennessee’s First to the Top initiative has addressed many concerns of the Estrada and Menchaca-Ochoa (2006) study with its emphasis on mentoring teachers.

Besides increasing preparation time and depth for solo teaching upgrading licensing requirements for teachers may also perform a needed step on that professionalism ladder. The State of Tennessee recently partnered with Educational Testing Service in order to examine, rework, and redefine initial certification requirements. Committees representing teachers, college educators, and state personnel have been addressing requirements with an eye towards the creation of a more rigorous initial certification procedure. Tennessee has begun the process of tasking teachers with state personnel in the job of defining educator requirements. I was recently appointed to the State of Tennessee secondary social studies certification committee. Ingersoll and Perda (2010) called upgrading certification requirements an important step in professionalizing teaching.

Having more nationally board certified teachers could also be a step in the direction of professionalism, but unfortunately there are not a lot of them in Tennessee. There are 82,000 nationally board certified teachers in America. Of the 63,765 teachers in Tennessee, only 490 teachers are nationally board certified. That is less than 8% of teachers employed in 2012 in Tennessee. The state provided financial assistance for the process through 2012 but many districts have not supported the teacher in leave time or other necessary requirements to complete the extensive written reflections, examination, and video portfolio required by the program. As a state Tennessee does not offer extra compensation for the distinction. However, some individual

school districts do offer compensation. For example, Memphis city schools offer educators an incentive of \$10,000 per annum for the life of the 10-year national board certification. Moving toward a more rigorous licensure procedure and an increased population of nationally board certified teachers in the State of Tennessee could enhance the perception of professionalism.

A Historic View of Teacher Education

In America's history, religion and education seemed intertwined. Puritans came to America to worship as they pleased and Pilgrims gave thanks to God for food. Early Americans seemed united in an understanding of the need for the Christian God. The first college in the United States, Harvard, opened in 1636 as a school especially to train pastors. According to Lortie (1975) texts and materials used in early American schools were heavily religious in content. In fact, the McGuffey Reader (1836) stated that "the Christian religion is the religion of our country and that on its doctrines are founded the peculiarities of our institutions". Teachers would ring the church bells and "occasionally substitute for an ailing pastor" (Lortie, p. 11). Pulliam and Van Patten (2003) asserted that in New England compliance to the local theocratic beliefs was necessary for admittance to school. They also mentioned the use of private tutors for wealthy colonists or Americans who were often Anglican ministers or indentured servants who knew Latin or Greek.

The citizens of America believed schooling was essential to the health of the nation (Mondale & Patton, 2001). Our founding fathers sought universal education for America's children (Kennedy, 1999). Jefferson was quoted saying that democracy could only exist with an educated and informed populace. As former president, Thomas Jefferson told Colonel Charles Yancey, "If a nation expects to be ignorant and free in a state of civilization, it expects what never was and never will be" (T. Jefferson, personal communication, January 6, 1816).

Educating our young was considered essential to the political well-being of the nation. Later, he designed and built The University of Virginia in 1819 near his home of Monticello. Founding fathers worried about the ability of Americans to keep the democracy conceived in Philadelphia. When Mrs. Powel of Philadelphia asked, “Well, Doctor, what have we got, a republic or a monarchy?” Benjamin Franklin responded, “A republic, if you can keep it”.

Mondale and Patton (2001) reported that by 1890, over 100 years after the birth of our nation, nearly 9 of 10 white children were enrolled in locally controlled public schools. Those locally controlled schools were called common schools. While educating our young was considered important, training our teachers was not as important. Many teachers did not have skills far greater than their students. Teacher education programs were almost non-existent for the first 200 years of our existence according to Lortie (1975). How did a person become a teacher in the early United States? The first teacher college graduates did not matriculate until 1825 (Pulliam & Van Patten, 2003). These schools were called normal schools. A normal school was considerably like a typical high school of today. The establishment of the first normal school in 1839 was followed closely by many other schools (Lortie, p. 17).

As more men in the early United States sought their living through adventure like looking for gold or working for the railroad, hunting or trapping, and farming, the increasing population demanded more teachers. Women began to fill that need. Sklar said the inclusion of women as teachers created a “new ethic in schools” as teachers now cared for the students, as they would have at home (Sklar, p.54). In 1900 Mondale and Patton (2001) reported that no education profession as such existed and teachers had little training or supervision. “But by 1928, all but five states had established normal schools or state teachers’ colleges” (Lortie, 1975, p. 18).

As states got in the business of providing teachers through their state colleges, teachers became employees of the state and not of the community. Lortie (1975) commented that in the 19th century “a teacher was no longer the teacher: those instructing the young became members of a category of persons so employed in the local school” (p. 4). Teachers reflected the norms and mores of the community. As urbanization with its factory model of efficiency, assembly line, and replaceable parts replaced agriculture in the 1950s and 1960s in the United States as the dominant means of income for the home, the factory way of life naturally came to schools.

According to NCTAF’s (2007) report entitled, “Building a 21st Century U.S. Education System” the traditional model of teaching changed with the new century. This report maintained that the “old teaching role model was to transmit a fixed body of knowledge and skills to students who would use it to engage in predictable careers while the new teaching model included a knowledge-based workforce, a new understanding of how people learn; and a widespread adoption of collaborative teamwork” (p. 48). To accomplish those goals the report cited the need for a “collective effort of individuals who teach and learn at levels beyond what any of them could accomplish alone” (p. 49). Matriculation occurred when completion of the steps or the credits required by the state to graduate were achieved.

In those factory model schools Darling-Hammond (1994) found that teachers were judged as excellent or poor by their ability to follow procedures rather than their development or capabilities to make complex judgments based on deep understanding of students and subjects. Teachers were supervised full-time; hence the development of the hierarchy of bureaucracies within each local educational authority (Lortie, 1975). From one-room schoolhouses with no supervision, schools became orderly brick mammoths developed with precision and forethought.

Schools were built locally to service neighborhood children and teachers were concentrated together in buildings.

Neighborhood schools were the norm through the 1950s and 1960s in America. However, two major events caused the course of education to change. Those events were the launching of Sputnik and the increasing tension of the Cold War. After the successful launching of Sputnik, the USSR seemed technologically ahead in the Cold War. In the field of education there were two major responses to the Cold War. Reiman and Theis-Sprinthall (1997) declared those responses as (1) a Master of Arts in Teaching program and (2) a call for a more rigorous teacher preparation program. The Master of Arts in Teaching provided an opportunity for a more professional level of expertise for an educator. Reiman and Theis-Sprinthall (1997) documented this call for “teaching professionals” patterned after clinical hospitals (p.21). The call for a more rigorous teacher preparation program included mentoring or other types of induction programs but was ignored by the general population. Sims and Walsh (2009) regretted the call for mentoring was ignored by the general public. Their research concluded that many Americans believed that teaching was mostly common sense, with little need for professional study. Lortie (1975) also cited the old widespread adage of “anyone can teach” as another reason why people did not take the need for professionalism in education seriously even with the rising anxiety of the Cold War (p. 62).

The Federal Government’s Involvement in Education

The founding fathers considered education a power reserved for the states as education was not addressed in the constitution. However, the federal government has involved itself in education over the years with the passage of many laws and unfunded mandates. Some of these laws included the National School Lunch Program in 1946 and the National Defense Education

Act (NDEA) of 1958 which declared education a national educational emergency). Occurring after Sputnik's launch NDEA provided funding for teacher education programs, federal student loans, and graduate fellowships designed to assist in developing skills for teachers and their students essential to national security like foreign languages, higher level math, and science.

Later, President Johnson's War on Poverty impacted local education authorities. Students benefited from free and reduced lunch at school, Head Start, job corps, and work-study programs in colleges. Handicapped and gifted children were protected and empowered by the Individuals Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) of 1990. These benefits have continued for many years. In 2011, 21,917 or 42.8% of the student population in Knox County, Tennessee received assistance through those programs. The reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, commonly called NCLB, in 2001 was designed to ensure students in all schools were to be academically proficient in math, reading, and language arts by 2014. As part of NCLB, state graduation rates were to increase to 95% or the local education authority could face possible takeover.

In a National Education Association (NEA) white paper for the Senate committee on Health, Education, Labor, and Pensions in support of the reauthorization of ESEA they encouraged Senators to reflect on funding policies that would focus on comprehensive new induction programs and not just graduation rates. The NEA called for a "comprehensive induction program for the first two years of teaching." It also advocated "truncated classroom assignments, job-embedded professional learning opportunities, and financial recognition to individual teachers who demonstrate superior teaching skills." (p. 6).

NCLB required schools to increase the national high school average graduation rate of 60%. The Christian Science Monitor (June 9, 2009) reported that from 1996 to 2006 the

national graduation rate varied across the nation from 66.4% to 69.4%. Knox County's graduation rate for 2011 was 86.6%. The State of Tennessee reported an average graduation rate of 85.5% in 2011. In order to assist states with meeting the goals of NCLB President Obama proposed a new funding package for state boards of education. His administration earmarked \$4.3 Billion dollars for this effort. The legislative package provided monetary incentives for states while requiring them to release ineffective teachers with or without tenure by linking standardized test scores to teacher evaluations for those students who fail to make testing gains (Boston Globe, 8/17/2009; Wall Street Journal, 7/30/2009).

Tennessee's New Educational Framework

The American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA) of 2009 also called, *Race to the Top*, was specifically designed to assist struggling state schools in meeting the goals of NCLB. The federal government's initiative contained funds for induction support for beginning teachers nationwide via matching grants to states and localities to upgrade and expand their efforts to ensure coaching and mentoring programs. Darling-Hammond (2008) explained the initiative as a means to address attrition through increasing the capacity of the teaching force while supporting evaluation and the requirements of NCLB. President Obama's legislation provided funding to states that qualified. Forty-one states applied for the federal funds. Only Delaware and Tennessee had successful applications.

Tennessee's application was successful because it was able to document its adherence to *Race to the Top's* initiatives with the passage of the First to the Top Act of 2010. The State of Tennessee also identified vendors for its technology needs and named corporate sponsors like Battelle in Oak Ridge for its math and science endeavors. Those identified preparations made their application worthy of acceptance by the federal government. First to the Top committed

the State of Tennessee, the State Department of Education, and LEAs to foster innovation, improve achievement, raise standards, and improve teacher quality as in the actual provisions of the ARRA.

Through the legislative act the State of Tennessee matched federal requirements in a plan called a State Innovation Fund. This Fund allocated \$250.9 million dollars to programs, initiatives, and other specified activities like mandated mentoring intended to enhance the educational performance of Tennessee's youth. In an effort to raise standards for teachers and raise test and achievement scores for students, the State of Tennessee passed the Tenure Act in 2011. It was passed in some part as a result of research studies like those of DeArmond, Gross, and Goldhaber (2010) which reported that, "students with effective teachers make gains that are roughly half of a standard deviation higher in math and one third of a standard deviation higher in reading than those taught by less effective teachers (p. 324).

Tennessee teachers must now, in 2012, follow State of Tennessee curriculum standards, national legislation guidelines like NCLB, ARRA, IDEA, along with provisions of Tennessee's First to the Top in their classroom instructional strategies. With the adoption of the TEAM program for teacher effectiveness and assessment a teacher's personal learning community is now state-wide. As previously discussed, teachers selected by local communities in the 1700s and early 1800s were chosen based on their connections to the community, their religious views, and the norms or mores of the local community. They taught reading, writing, and arithmetic. Unlike the one-room schoolhouse teacher who satisfied the town fathers, teachers must, by law, employ national, state, and local curriculum standards in their classrooms, alongside other provided strategies and initiatives to enable their students to compete with other like children under the auspices of ARRA or First to the Top.

Tennessee's First to the Top primary focus concerned turning around low-performing schools, developing teachers and leaders, providing technology for math and science instruction, teaching common core standards to all teachers, and using technology to track student growth from kindergarten to graduation (Tennessee First to the Top Act of 2010, Tennessee Code Annotated, Section 49-1-602 (f)(1)9C(ii)). Because of the new law colleges, universities, and groups stepped up with ideas and platforms designed to access available funding. Through the State Innovation Fund the State Department of Education funded an UTeach program and expanded Teach for America corps and the New Teacher Project. UTeach was described by the state as a program designed to create more math and science teachers while the New Teacher Project worked to find and certify teachers for hard-to-fill schools. Funded separately from the First to the Top Act the Tennessee Board of Regents (TBR) introduced its teacher improvement program called Ready2Teach. That program was specifically designed to develop teachers as curriculum leaders. It was designed as a triad approach like that of the Professional Development Schools (PDS) employing the cooperation, collaboration, and deliberation of a college or university, a mentor, and a novice.

Tennessee signed the Common Core State Initiative for teachers in the subject areas of Language Arts, English, and Math. Endorsed by the National Governor's Association the Common Core State Initiative was intended to provide a high quality education for students no matter where they live in America. As of 2012 forty-five states and three territories agreed that children should have the same core quality education. The common core standards provide professional development assistance for teachers and novices who need confidence or direction in their teaching methods and strategies. Acceptance of the common core initiative was an additional way of ensuring that Tennessee's educational preparation K-12 prepares students to

meet and sustain a competitive edge. In just the same manner mentoring can be seen as an educational intervention engaged to support and promote the learning of novice teachers (Schwille, 2008).

For example, if preservice educators were taught national and state standards at any Board of Regents college or university, the novice would have core knowledge of where to look for standards and how to carry out those standards. Those students could develop lesson plans, activities, and formative assessments when their actual teaching began that would accepted and understood whether the student or the teacher was in Memphis, Tennessee or the other end of the state at Mountain City, Tennessee. Consequently, if standards were followed, at the end of the year students in Tennessee should have the same preparation for an end-of-year comprehensive statewide examination. In this manner the addition of mentoring or induction programs can add to the confidence and directional level of novice teachers so that federal, state, and local instructional goals and guidelines are met (Ingersoll, 2004).

High Attrition or Turnover Rates of Novice Educators

Attrition has been defined as teachers leaving the profession or migrating to a new school. Ingersoll (2007) argued that teacher control over issues like student discipline and outside curricula issues was strongly related to high rates of teacher retention and low turnover. His research indicated that in schools with low teacher involvement, 1 in 5 of every teacher would depart, whereas only 1 in 20 departed from schools with high teacher involvement in with issues other than classroom related issues. According to Ingersoll (2004) attrition or retirement has approximately the same percentage or costs to the local education authority (LEA). Boe et al. (2008) proffered that a transferee provided just as significant a loss to the school as a teacher

who quits the profession. They found the national average for teacher turnover was about one in four teaching assignments.

Smith and Ingersoll (2004) discovered a sort of “revolving door” in teaching across America (p. 682). When the move is voluntary, movers leave for two main reasons. Those reasons were (1) working conditions and (2) administrator support according to Greenlee and Brown (2009). One suggested incentive to keep high-performing educators in their schools has been differentiated pay but Greenlee and Brown (2009) discovered that teachers from only high performing schools favored differentiated pay, whereas teachers in lower performing schools favored staying in their schools if administrators with integrity who could create a “positive” working culture were hired. It could be assumed, therefore, that school staffing problems fraught with complexity may originate from large numbers of teachers leaving the profession before their retirement age. The essential question is, of course, why do teachers leave?

Nearly 50% of new teachers drop out of the profession within their first 5 years (Ingersoll & Kralik, 2004; NCTAF, 2007; Woods & Weasmer, 2002). Of teachers who leave, researchers have noted that the most talented new educators are often the ones to go (Ingersoll & Kralik, 2004; Walsdorf & Lynn, 2002). In fact, Ingersoll and Kralik (2004) found studies that showed novice teachers with high SAT scores and advanced degrees tended to have higher attrition rates than other novice teachers. They proffered that students with higher SAT scores may think they have other options in the job field than students with lower SAT scores, but the School and Staffing Survey (SASS) data compiled by the U. S. Department of Education showed those franchised by the option were primarily math and science teachers whose field of study easily translated into other professions. SASS was a comprehensive survey of American schools, principals, and teachers at national, regional, and state levels that employed a multitier selection

of participants beginning with schools stratified by state and school level followed by selection of teachers within schools stratified by their personal and professional characteristics (Roussos & Hancock, 2009). The results show a remarkable quit rate for the teaching profession.

Of those who quit the profession, half fail to complete their first year of teaching according to Danielson (2002). As an example, at my school a first year math teacher taught 3 weeks before quitting in the school year of 2010 – 2011. This novice complained that his classes were in a flat top located behind the main building and therefore separated from other math teachers. Experienced veteran teachers occupied classrooms in the math wing of the main building. Anhorn's (2008) study of first-year teachers found that isolation was a huge problem for novices, as they wanted to feel they belonged at their school but felt everyone was too busy to talk or include them. That very isolation can make novices dependent upon student response and reactions for their own sense of success or well-being (Lumsden, 1998).

Bradbury and Koballa (2007) learned that “beginning teachers based their ideas about teaching on their own experiences in lecture-driven high school and college-level science courses” (p. 1054). Because of that, they maintained novices were not prepared to face the stresses of teaching. That preparation was especially important because many novices were expected to complete the same tasks asked of a veteran teacher from the very first day (Andrews & Quinn, 2004; Brock & Grady, 2001). Just like the example of the young man who quit teaching at my school, Gehrke and McCoy (2007) found that beginning teachers who view their work environments as supportive are more likely to stay in the profession than those who did not find support.

Anhorn's (2008) study spoke of them wanting to establish relationships with colleagues that would allow them to acclimate to their school's “unique culture and sense of community”

but found their colleagues' very busyness renders their opportunities to share antidotal comments with their peers almost nonexistent. She noted that busyness led to a form of isolation and increased stress (p. 16). Carroll (NCTAF, 2007) learned that when "novice educators found themselves working alone in self-contained classrooms bound to the teaching practices of the past; they opt to leave the profession at an alarming rate" (p. 46). Costigan (2005), Gehrke and McCoy (2007), and Ingersoll (2004) listed more reasons for the high turnover rate as coming from novice educators' awareness of teachers' low economic status and high stress levels in the United States. Hahs-Vaughn and Scherff (2008) also included low salaries, student discipline problems, lack of support, poor working conditions, inadequate preparation, and little opportunity to participate in decision-making as reasons for novice attrition rates (p. 23).

Strunk and Robinson (2006) related the following information regarding attrition. They learned that the very schools that need the most experienced and qualified teachers lose them to suburban, richer school districts where the demands of high classroom discipline and lower academically minded students are no longer overwhelming. Strunk and Robinson (2006) noted, "because the turnover rate in these schools is high, the higher quality teachers who do stay in teaching are more likely to leave these lower performing, lower income, and higher minority schools, causing a cycle that matches lower quality teachers with the neediest children" (p. 74).

By employing the statistics of the 2005 Teacher Follow-up Survey (TFS) entitled "Teacher Attrition and Mobility" Heider (2005) recounted their predictions of three million teacher vacancies in the next decade with conclusions regarding the needed support for replacement of retiring teachers at 3.5 million. With those numbers, a teacher shortage will arrive quickly. In fact, Secretary of Education Arne Duncan (2009) set that date as 2014. The fiscal investment of states was perhaps more significant when compared to the projected teacher

requirement. Annual costs associated with attrition and turnover rose from \$2.2 billion in 1999 - 2000 (Borman & Dowling, 2008) to \$4.9 billion in 2005 (Boe et al., 2008) to more than seven billion in 2008 (Roussos & Hancock, 2009). There is a dual problem presented with these figures. According to statistics supplied by the Department of Education, the United States will experience a shortage of nearly half a million teachers while the costs for replacing those teachers will rise to over seven billion dollars. The Department of Labor has estimated attrition could cost LEAs 30% of departing teacher salaries. Those are funds that could be employed elsewhere.

Darling-Hammond (2008) saw teacher attrition as indicative of a much greater problem in education. As an education specialist for Senator Barak Obama's 2008 successful presidential campaign she had some influence over his policy agenda for education. Darling-Hammond (2008) argued that there was causal relationship between students dropping out of school; teachers leaving the profession; and the increase in social and welfare services, along with prison costs. The National Education Association (2007) reported those costs parlay into reduced program stability, lowered student achievement, and decreased teacher quality. Economically, her research showed an expected nation-wide annual loss of \$300 billion in wages and taxes due to teachers dropping out of the education profession for any reason. In a recession bound economy \$300 billion is a significant amount of money to lose through the attrition of novices and early-to-retire educators.

To counter the swinging door of hiring and quitting, Darling-Hammond (1992) proposed that teaching become professionalized saying, "the degree of power and control that practitioners hold over workplace decisions is one of the most important criteria distinguishing the degree of professionalism and the status of a particular occupation or line of work" (p.16). She added,

“Current school organizations developed at around the turn of the twentieth century cannot meet the needs of the future” (p. 14). In addition, Hargreaves and Fullan’s (2000) research concluded that creating education as a profession must be a collective quest towards a larger end: that of creating a strong, improvement-oriented profession in schools. Teachers are no longer only teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic to prepare our nation’s young for the workplace. At the turn of the century, one half of jobs were low or semiskilled with less than 10% requiring specialized knowledge (Nugent & Faucette, 2004). That is, of course, not true of today’s workplace.

While Darling-Hammond (2008) was working for Senator Barak Obama she discovered that three fourths of the fastest growing occupations require a postsecondary education for entry-level positions. Therefore, those days of students leaving high school ready to take on their life’s occupation are pretty much over. For instance, my father-in-law left high school one day and went to work the next day for the same company he retired from 45 years later. Many people he worked with only had a high school degree and some did not have a high school degree. Those baby-boomers could make a successful life for themselves; however, those factory-oriented type jobs have left America for different shores. Today, students must stay in school and graduate in order to prepare themselves for the workplace. Even the traditional placement for many not interested in postsecondary education may be closed as the armed forces now require high school degrees for a successful enlistment. In 2011 only 1% of GED graduates were accepted for Armed Forces training according to the Department of Defense Tier I standards.

Millennials

Today’s novice teacher belongs to the Millennial Generation. There are four generations represented in education as of 2012. They have been known as the Matures, born from 1900 to 1946; Baby-Boomers, born from 1947 to 1964; Generation X, born from 1965 to 1982; and

Millennials, born from 1983 and 2002 according to Werth and Werth (2011). Sheltered from birth by so-called helicopter or hovering parents, Millennials have been so protected that parents have even called universities for personal assistance or gone on job interviews with their children (Howe, 2005; Lum, 2006). Millennials have a sense of entitlement about them and have an expectation of frequent positive feedback (Pew Research Center, 2009). A case in point, a friend with a child entering college in the fall of 2011 frustrated by her child's waitlist consideration from a major university made a call to the university's registrar's office to implore her child's acceptance. She cited as her reason to the registrar that many of her child's friends had been admitted or received early decision letters and her child's feelings were hurt. With interference, or assistance like that it is easy to understand that many Millennials may never have had the opportunity to make life changing decisions on their own.

Howe (2005) enumerated the seven core traits of Millennials. They are as follows:

- 1.) Special. According to Howe (2005) older generations have indicated to Millennials they are important to the nation and their parent's sense of purpose.
- 2.) Sheltered. Examples of this included GPS in their phones, graduated driver's licenses, and amber alerts.
- 3.) Confident. There is no Cold War and technology seems to answer many problems.
- 4.) Team-Oriented. The rise of social media has transformed their generation's to trust Big Brother to "do the right thing," unlike their Baby Boomer parents.
- 5.) Conventional. They are less likely to experiment with drugs, alcohol, or tobacco than Baby Boomers. They also expect to succeed with every task.
- 6.) Pressured. They look to the future; what will the effort today help in my life goals?

7.) Achieving. They take academic achievement seriously. Classroom activities should be integrated with technology (pp. 18 – 22).

Understanding the core traits makes it easy to accept Walker's (2009) conclusion that beginning educators may come to the profession the victim of helicopter parents and unable to think on their own. Thinking on their own does not mean they are not capable academically; it is a qualifier regarding their ability to live independently as adults. This is not just a 21st century phenomenon. An early example of this kind of over-protective parenting was General Douglas McArthur's mother. When he went to West Point Academy in 1899, she moved to New York State and rented an apartment so she could handle any problems he might have at school (Gibbs, 2009).

The Millennial generation is different from the Baby-Boomer generation. Baby-Boomers were usually the first in their families to go to college, inclined to work hard without asking for favors, and were born after World War II through the mid-century. As college students Millennials may have expected faculty and staff to shelter, protect, and nurture them as their parents did – and to resolve their conflicts for them. Millennials bring high expectations for themselves and their students into the classrooms. According to the Chronicle of Higher Education (2007) a majority of Millennials entering college believe they will succeed in American society. Those expectations come with a real need for nurturing to ensure success. Nurturing for a millennial is vital because Walker (2009) asserts average means failure and with perceived failure may come a quit decision. Walker maintained their expectations as preservice and novice teachers may continue to presume a lifetime of problem-solving expectations by others.

Tang (2003) reported on the influence of support and challenge in the professional growth of new teachers. She found when novices experience too much challenge without sufficient support, they are unable to have productive learning experiences; instead, their identity as a teacher is threatened. On the other hand, when they experience a reasonable amount of challenge along with an appropriate level of support, their opportunities for learning are maximized. Seen as successful the Millennial would invest more rigor to achieve yet greater satisfaction and hence a lower quit rate. A case in point was demonstrated by Carroll (NCTAF, 2007) who discovered that when today's young digital minded teachers find themselves working alone in self-contained classrooms where they may be subject to teaching practices of the past they opt to leave the profession at an alarming rate. Carroll's studies led him to conclude that when Millennials leave the profession it was because they were "looking for a more rewarding personal or professional opportunity" (p. 47). Hawkey (1997) warned that an early quit decision could be the result of a novice's unrealized expectations.

Millennials were used to formulating answers together and receiving top grades. Walker (2009) related that beginning or novice educators tend to be optimistic and want to make valuable contributions while having quality time with people. Used to working as a group, Ingersoll and Kralik (2004) report many Millennials experience feelings of isolation and loneliness when working separate from colleagues in a traditional school setting. Conversely, Nugent and Faucette (2004) found the Professional Development School model provided a nurturing community of "collaboration, cooperation, collegiality, team brainstorming, and problem solving" (p. 61).

According to Walker (2009) this generation of novice teachers is not interested in how school was conducted in the past but in retooling schools to meet their current belief set. This

current belief set includes technology driven classrooms, group instead of individual work, and project-oriented assessment. They also believe that college will increase their earning power, and that they will constructively contribute to their communities, nation, and world. Walker (2009) indicated that each generation has unique or distinctive qualities because of major events and inventions that occurred during their formative years. The greatest generation lived through the great depression and had a tendency to be frugal while Baby Boomers attended college in great numbers and earned significant salaries. Technology was a new concept to Baby Boomers. I took a typing class in high school; technology was the invention of white-out ribbon. As a Baby Boomer, I remember the first calculator I bought as a freshman at the University of Tennessee in Knoxville. It cost \$59.00 and could add, subtract, multiply, divide, and do percentages. It was fascinating.

Millennials, however, do not remember a time before technology. Unlike generations before them, the Millennial Generation is likely the first generational cohort to view learning with constructivist-like expectations (Carter, 2009). Werth and Werth (2011) argued that “great benefits could be obtained by de-emphasizing lecture for Millennial learners and integrating technology” (p. 13). Constructivist learning emphasizes the learner’s contribution to learning as both an individual and a social activity (Hoy & Miskel, 2008). They found that completion of authentic tasks and activities while expressing those applications in real-world problems has major importance for Millennials. Carter (2009) confirmed those findings as he reported that Millennials expect diversity in their pursuit and acquisition of knowledge. Millennials seek authentic learning strategies for each core standard. He added that because of their mind set students who ask, “Why do we have to learn this” will get a very different answer from a millennial teacher than from a Baby Boomer teacher.

Millennials want to know that what they do is significant and not that anyone with a teacher's text could do it (Carter, 2009). Millennials believe technological tools give them an advantage to succeed. They describe themselves as technologically perceptive and global in perspective with holistic thinking (Carter, 2009). Their perspectives may be affected by where they spend their time and give their attention. Walker (2009) claimed Millennials spend 16 hours on the Internet a week. My Millennial daughter spends upwards of 50 hours a week on the Internet. Some of the things she has done on the Internet included Googling for instruction on how to potty train her Maltese Howie, preparing food, shopping, posting homework at her university, and communicating via social networks.

Facebook, Pinterest, and Twitter have altered the way Millennials communicate. When my mother contracted pneumonia, my daughter went on-line and posted an entry. Within minutes all who needed to know knew. Walker (2009) asserted that these young educators were used to communicating on Facebook; commenting or creating blogs; making Wikis for fun, lesson planning, or group activities; using Twitter and texting. They want technology and Web 2.0 tools in their classrooms. Millennials want iPads or Xooms in their classrooms with Wi-Fi or Bluetooth enabling the syncing of lessons from TeacherTube or some educational website. While Baby Boomers wait on an e-mail or fax, Millennials will be apprised via social media. Even with all their hopes for a technology-rich classroom transforming the lives of their students, Millennials must cope with the reality of the school of today. Some teachers in my school still have overhead projectors and enjoy using them every day.

That reality, unfortunately, includes some principals' expectations for workload and faculty duties for novice teachers. Many principals assign the same duties to both seasoned and novice teachers (Arnold-Rogers et al., 2008). The realities of inclusion, discipline, necessities

of parental contacts along with bus duty may be too heavy a workload for many novice millennial teachers. Millennials do not hesitate to speak up when they believe they are overworked (Stewart, 2009). As teachers are more than often busy, this insight into millennial thinking may be another one reason for the early quit rate and one worthy of further questioning. Thus, Millennials could leave the profession to seek opportunities where they think they can contribute in a meaningful way and not have their time taken up with duties unrelated to student learning. Leaving the profession may happen especially if they believe their assigned work is not meaningful or is not contributing to the educations of their students. Pomaki et al. (2010) discovered “social support from colleagues is a key factor in new teachers’ intention to turnover.” (p. 1345). They listed three indicators for consideration.

- 1). Teachers may wish to leave the school when they do not receive adequate support and do not feel respected by their colleagues.
- 2.) Teachers who perceived their colleagues to be unsupportive were more likely to be dissatisfied with their job which led them to think about leaving.
- 3). Teachers who did not feel supported were also more likely to contemplate quitting when working under higher levels of workload, compared with teachers who found their colleagues more supportive. (p. 1345).

Benoit (2004) argued that this generation’s central problem in staying with the profession of education is that they have failed to develop frustration tolerance in their own lives. This lack of tolerance should be seen as important because as Walker (2009) remarked, if a Millennial finds himself or herself in a professional situation that is not ideal (in his or her opinion), he or she might decide to seek another career. Millennials have enjoyed instant responses from the microwave, self-gratification with credit cards, Googling answers on the Internet, parental

provisions of wants and needs that combined to create a young person unused to waiting for anything (Benoit, 2004). Teams played on as children may have had winners and losers but everyone got a trophy.

Millennials have been taught to think outside the box but if the box does not have an escape hatch, they may not tolerate the created reality. Walker (2009) concluded that if they could not see themselves as a winner, or because they just did not have the wherewithal to understand or comprehend their growth as an educator in that position, they will look for a situation in which they could win. This lack of comprehension echoes the discussion of frustration tolerance mentioned before. Millennials may lack the acceptance of hard work and the maturity levels of Baby Boomer educators as seen in their lack of tolerance for the never-ending reality of the day-to-day classroom mentality (Benoit, 2004). Justice and Espinoza (2007) said that preservice students needed assistance in areas such as intrapersonal development and self-management skills. Intrapersonal development was defined in the study as self-esteem and stress management issues while self-management skills were drive strength, time management, and commitment ethic. They used the Emotional Skills Assessment Process (ESAP) in their study to identify skills necessary for success in academia and in their potential careers.

In order to keep Millennials in the classroom Carroll (NCTAF, 2007) found administrators must be mindful of their distinctive qualities and respond accordingly. Hoy and Miskel (2008) proffered that how we monitor and regulate our cognitive processes affected our own educational process. Whether in the collegiate realm or later learning with the co-operating teacher, the Millennial preservice educator needed definite skills in order to ameliorate some of the obvious stress points. Those stress points were even more apparent for today's novice or

beginning educators because of their expectations. Could a different kind of pedagogical preparation improve Millennials' emotional, adaptive, and scholastic well-being for the classroom?

Apparent Disconnect Between Collegiate and Classroom Reality

Hargreaves and Fullan (2000) suggested that after decades of assuming that teachers get better through their own trial and error, more researchers have increasingly realized young teachers are more effective when supported by a strong community of colleagues. Silva and Dana (2001) cited historic studies in supervision dissatisfied with traditional forms models of supervision citing need for new approaches to enhance teacher professional growth. Costigan (2005) found a link between new teachers' experiences of an accountability-driven curriculum and the way they predicted possibilities for their professional growth as teachers.

In fact, the lack of support for young teachers has led to frustration, as they have been unable to implement practices learned at their universities. "How can they be prepared to teach when curriculum standards are not always supported by their existing school cultures" (Puk & Haines, 1999; Sykes & Bird as cited in Wang, Odell, & Schwille, 2008)? Most teacher preparation programs were insufficient in training future educators to handle many of these experiences (Seeman as cited in Pellegrino, 2010). "Cooperating teachers traditionally assumed little responsibility for intern development other than providing a context for the intern to practice her teaching. Historically, university faculty engaged in substantive reflection and inquiry and, in isolation, designed the course tasks to be completed by the intern" (Silva & Tom, 2001, p. 40).

Therefore, in order to strengthen the link between preservice and classroom realities, an intervention is needed to close the gap between the classroom of the university and the classroom

Millennials lead in their future. The introduction of technology as a learning management system such as Moodle (Werth & Werth, 2011) was found to “capture the attention” of Millennials and satisfy expectations for integration of classwork and technology. Grossman and McDonald (2008) declared that, “the field of teaching lacks a framework with well-defined common terms for describing and analyzing teaching” (p. 186). This recognized lack limits the ability of novices and researchers to access a common technical language and preexisting body of knowledge. They went on to say, “A framework could identify the key components of teaching and describe those components common to both direct and more inquiry-based instruction” (p. 185). Without this commonality difficulties have arisen as teacher education programs focused on easily identifiable teacher behaviors like decision-making, knowledge, reflection, and dispositions (Grossman & McDonald, 2008). They proposed teacher education programs should focus on practices that encompass cognition, craft, and practice.

Jordan et al. (2004) mentioned in their study of supervisors that interns believed they did not have the proper skills and abilities to properly evaluate their own personal effort. Washburn-Moses (2010) documented the failure of preservice training to prepare them to deal with stresses faced by novices. She discovered a frequent pitfall of many student teachers and interns. She reported that novices tended to “jettison” views of teaching and learning acquired in college in favor of methods, practices and views observed at school. Fayne and Ortquist-Ahrens (2006) also cited multiple studies in which preservice teachers were open-minded and progressive when they began their practicum but lost those qualities as they tried to survive the day-to-day classroom reality. These findings make it even more important that teaching colleges, interns or student teachers, and co-operating mentor teachers build a working collaboration if novices are to remain engaged in the classroom.

As Walsdorf and Lynn (2002) noted too often novices have difficult teaching assignments with a multitude of preparations as easier assignments go to more seasoned, tenured teachers. Where do student teachers or interns get the wherewithal for the “great more than subject matter knowledge” that is so vital to their success in the classroom? NCTAF (2007) commissioned a study regarding just that question and found that teacher education programs were inadequate in providing the preparation needed. Providing pedagogical reasons for why something should or should not work in a classroom or how to present American History as thematic did not generate as much interest with preservice educators as novices being able to acclimate themselves to the school environment in a manner in which they could be successful in the classroom.

Lortie (1975) identified three major norms with his preservice and novice teachers indicating the need for induction programs. He listed these commonalities or norms as:

- (1) When teachers do interact, they rarely discuss or request assistance with significant problems.
- (2) Teachers are discouraged from telling a peer to do something different in the classroom.
- (3) Teachers avoid talking about instructional practices (p.72-73).

It was his determination that finishing the coursework necessary to secure licensure did not mean novices were ready to be an employed, successful teacher. Lortie’s (1975) work emphasized that novices were learning their craft while performing the full complement of teaching duties.

Thirty-one years later Fayne and Ortquist-Ahrens (2006) found that not much had changed for novices. They discovered that novice teachers had legitimate learning needs important enough for consideration on-site and not at their college of education.

Pellegrino's (2010) study of five social studies interns found that four of the five "Claimed the college classes they took, which included content related to classroom management, were not very useful in the real classroom experience" (p. 74). Jordan, Phillips and Brown (2004) said the lack of actual teaching skills was reflective of a bigger problem than subject matter knowledge concerning teacher failure. Their hypothesis illustrated the gaps in preservice educators' preparation they felt necessary to excel in the profession. In today's classroom a novice must successfully negotiate interrelated teaching and learning while having excellent classroom management. Those are complex tasks.

It may be easy to for many novices to believe that because they were students and observed teaching for 16 plus years that they instinctively know how to teach but the reality has been found to be much different for preservice educators. Britzman (2003) found that many student teachers and veteran teachers surveyed believed that preservice teachers emerged from their student teaching completely ready to be educators. Ingersoll and Kralik (2004) repeated the often-heard tradition in the world of education that educators should be able to handle classroom problems themselves called the "sink or swim" mentality. Sink or swim in the context of education means that a young teacher should do what it takes to succeed or get out of the profession. If the object is to lower quit rates, adherence to that old attitude will not advance the retention of novices. Colleges and universities must address the need for preservice supervision in order to increase the number of students who succeed in the profession (Lasley et al., 2002).

Combining teaching, learning, and executing classroom management simultaneously are learned behaviors of experienced educators. Asking colleges of education to transform students into expert teachers in the time colleges have students in the classroom may be unrealistic. Preservice educators must learn pedagogy but also practice a craft to perfect it. Cornell (2003)

discovered that preservice educators felt there were too many busy work assignments from their university that took time away from the real job of learning how to teach.

Darling-Hammond (2008) lamented the lack of “strategies for producing a strong supply of well-prepared and effective teachers” (p.218). She added that teacher preparation must be reinvented so that beginning educators can develop sophisticated pedagogical skills. Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005) also cited the weaknesses of collaborative efforts between higher education and K-12 schools as a continual problem. Silva and Dana (2001) noted dissatisfaction with traditional methods in the field of supervision by calling for new approaches to enhance teacher professional growth. Their new methodology consisted of collaboration between the college, the intern, and the cooperating teacher. This approach acknowledged similarities to the Professional Development School model and the Ready2Teach model in Tennessee.

Pedagogical classes can be easily forgotten if not practiced and seen as potentially successful in the classroom by the novice educator. As an example in one documented case, the collegiate supervisor came to class, taught lessons with the novice, and worked with individual students modeling specific strategies for the intern. According to Gimbert and Nolan (2003) he became an accepted member of the class, able to assist the intern on a real-time, real-life basis and was greatly valued by the intern. Changes such as this real world illustration supervisor could provide Millennials the opportunity to succeed in the classroom while creating a pedagogical base cemented by the connection of the collegiate and the classroom.

Grisham et al. (2000) enumerated surveys that indicated the increased collaboration between university and field-based educators were producing better teachers. Darling-Hammond (2008) offered this advice for teacher education programs. She said, “Teacher

education programs should attempt to balance the competing goals of preparing students both for the current world of practice and to be agents of change in the field of education.” For Darling-Hammond, the current world included a dependence on technology, team based objectives and goals, and reliance on a seasoned professional. Providing a seasoned educator to mentor the change process of a preservice teacher would be the first step in that process.

Defining Mentoring

There are as many definitions of mentoring as there are mentors. The following researchers defined and related the importance of mentors. Mullen (2009) distinguished mentoring as leading, teaching, and supervising and, notably, teacher evaluation. Katayama (2001) defined a mentor as someone who inspires, helps, and shows the ropes of your surroundings in a new working environment. Schlichte et al. (2005) referred to the effective mentor as one who nurtures and acts as a role model while reflecting on the five mentoring functions of teaching, sponsoring, encouraging, counseling, and befriending. Grossman and Davis (2012) declared that the “mere presence of a mentor was not enough” (p. 55). To have effective mentoring Grossman and Davis (2012) listed three vital components:

- 1) A mentor must be trained so that teacher learning increases.
- 2) Support for the mentee must be focused on the teaching and learning of content.
- 3) There must be sufficient time for mentoring.

Giebelhaus and Bowman (2002) defined mentoring as a “relationship in which a person of greater rank or expertise teaches, guides, and develops a novice” (p. 246). Functions of mentoring also listed in their study of undergraduate students were a role model, a consultant-advisor, and a sponsor. The results of their study underscored the importance of a mentor understanding the function and the process of mentoring as fundamental to its success. Mullen

(2011) worked in North Carolina with mandated mentoring. She listed the State of North Carolina's Board of Education 2009 definition as follows: a mentor is, "a person that has demonstrated mastery of the critical competencies for a job role. Their job as public school mentors is to assist initially certified persons toward mastery of specific educational competencies" (p. 64).

Finally, the central role of the mentor was to support the efforts of the mentee. Mentors accomplish this in a myriad of methods. Mentors model teaching, they instruct, they listen to mentees' concerns, they provide direction and evaluation, and they provide an ear for listening. In all professions there is someone designated as an expert. An expert is knowledgeable in a particular skill or has training in an activity that provided him or her with expertise. Mentors in the field of education should be considered as more than an expert because they have multi-tasking roles in their care of the mentee. An expert usually has experience in only one particular skill or activity. Realizing the true value of mentoring is integral to the greater acceptance and embodiment of the professional status of teaching. Feiman-Nemser (2001) cited Little's research in which he argued that many saw mentoring "as a sort of temporary support" as she determined that "situated in practice and with an experienced educator, mentoring has the potential to foster powerful teaching and to develop the dispositions and skills of continuous improvement" (p. 1).

The Role of Mentoring in Education

Anderson and Shannon (1988) applied an analogy of Homer's Odyssey to explain the concept of mentoring. In the ancient story of the Odyssey, Homer wrote that Odysseus entrusted his son Telemachus to his friend Mentor while he fought in Troy. Anderson and Shannon (1998) applied liberal suppositions regarding mentoring in education to Mentor, the character in the epic. As a mentor, Mentor persisted in deliberate, purposeful, and intentional

actions towards his charge. He visited, nurtured, and cultivated the boy's friendship during his growing years. When there were lessons to be learned, Mentor modeled lessons and taught through example while still keeping a protective control over his charge. This kind of action is exactly how a mentor should and would act for and with the mentee.

The relationship depicted in the epic story of Odyssey demonstrates how Mentor's actions made a difference in the life of the boy as it would in the professional life of the mentee. Without Mentor Telemachus would have grown up without a father figure in his life to love, give advice, and to correct him when needed. The same would be true for a novice. Without a mentor to care, instruct, and correct the novice could find pitfalls he or she would be unable to cross. Darling-Hammond (1997, 1998, 2001) along with Nugent and Faucette (2004) reinforced the need for systematic inquiry through induction programs or mentoring experiences.

Alhija and Fresko (2010) stressed the "important mission of the mentor to help the new teacher assimilate in all facets of a specific school culture." (p. 1596). Further, they said that mentors as official representatives of the school whose task it was to develop new teachers into "active members of the staff and the community of education." (p. 1596). Encouraging the befriending and aiding of novice teachers also aided in their socialization and integration into school life according to Schlichte et al. (2005). Hawkey (1997) cited the interpersonal aspects of the mentoring relationship as crucial to the success of the mentee. Those varied, interpersonal relationships Hawkey cited involved psychosocial, career, socialization, and educational development. Even with the mentor as evaluator, Cornell (2003) found that 85% of the mentors in her study believed their role essential to the success of their preservice student. Traditional mentoring roles included the mentor as evaluator and the student teacher or intern as being evaluated (Jaipal, 2009). According to Jordan et al. (2004) knowledgeable supervision and

mentoring were key elements in developing new teachers. The mentor provided instruction, modeling, and practice.

Bradbury (2010) asserted that, “providing emotional support and technical advice may be important components of a mentoring relationship but focusing on only that narrow view limits the possibility for widespread reform (p. 1053). Having a knowledgeable and supportive partner with an interest in helping novices match classroom practice with reform-based views of teaching, including an emphasis on inquiry, has the potential to change the long-term practices of that novice. One explanation for the significance that novices assign to experiences with mentor teachers is the importance of school-based learning in professional growth and development. Mentees require models that allow them not only to observe but also to frame that observation as developmental – to provide formative feedback (Giebelhaus & Bowman, 2002).

In an example from science education, a mentor and novice teacher were able to collaborate to incorporate the novice’s skills with technology with the mentor’s knowledge of student understanding to develop lessons that were developmentally appropriate (Bradbury & Koballa, 2007). The goal of mentoring challenged novices to develop practical and usable strategies grounded in research-based understandings. The above reference demonstrated how novices could apply theoretically based knowledge of how people learn and have those ideas supported by firsthand experience with the mentor (Bradbury, 2010).

Brooks (2000) posited that through modeling, listening, and guiding, a master teacher could shape the thinking and teaching practice of the student teacher. She called that modeling cognitive coaching. Crucial to the success of the program was trust building. Over time beginning educators must develop trust in their mentor or co-operating teacher and trust in the process for it to work as it should. This mentoring process puts novices in charge of the

coaching or educating process, with the goal being a change in thinking leading to change in behavior or teaching. Central to the design and success of this program included a dedicated time for the novice and the mentor to reflect and discuss on a consistent basis. When difficult situations arose in the classroom or at school, those question and answer sessions afforded the novice the opportunity to talk through any critical juncture in his or her experience in a safe, non-threatening manner. As a result Feiman-Nemser (2001) argued that the promise of mentors lies not in the easing of novices' entry into teaching but in assisting novices confront difficult problems by practicing. Mentors also allow novices a site for learning Feiman-Nemser (2001).

Mentoring did not frequently take place until 1980 (Estrada & Menchaca-Ochoa, 2006). At that time, only Florida had a mandated induction program for beginning teachers. They found that 30 states had implemented induction programs for novice teachers by 1999. As the novice practices and adds adjustment strategies to his or her repertoire they add an air of confidence which Le Cornu (2009) called resilience. Because of the importance of adaptation, Le Cornu (2009) found that co-operating teachers and clinical supervisors should build resilience into preservice teachers. Resilience has been suggested to enhance teaching effectiveness, heighten career satisfaction, and better prepare teachers to adjust to education's ever-changing conditions according to Le Cornu (2009). She detailed the vital nature of resilience in preservice teachers. She stated that resilience is "the process of, capacity of, or outcome of successful adaptation despite challenging or threatening circumstances" (p. 717). Resilience, however, could be a difficult concept for a Millennial with a low tolerance or frustration level. Seeing it modeled, though, may entice novices to continue the journey. Darling-Hammond's (1988, 1992, 1994, 1999, 2005, 2009) body of research validated the idea of resilience stating new teachers must first see expert practices modeled and then have copious practice with on-going support from

teacher coaches. She asserted that teaching improved when teachers had time to collaborate, share their best practices, review student work, and plan curriculum and lessons together.

Novice mentoring can be divided into three categories. Those categories are (1) preservice, (2) in-service, and (3) informal. Preservice mentoring distinguished itself as mentoring accomplished during the period of time called a practicum. During that time the student would be engaged as either a student teacher or an intern facilitated by a university professor, someone engaged by the college or university to mentor novices, or school personnel assigned to the task by their supervisor. In-service mentoring would be the official or mandated mentoring achieved and received during the first 5 years of service as an educator that satisfied state or local requirements. This structured mentoring would be documented either with a direct assignment by a school administrator or by a district. Informal mentoring would be the unofficial assistance given to a colleague from a colleague or other school personnel that carried no requirement of time, place, or potential for continual recompense. While all categories will be discussed, the focus of this effort is preservice mentoring.

Categories of Mentoring Explained

Preservice Mentoring

The student teaching culminating experience plays a primary role in shaping preservice teachers' values, beliefs, and teaching skills (Darden, Scott, Darden, & Westfall, 2001). Colleges and universities set practicums according to their own curricular requirements. The reasons for a practicum are many. The practicum may have been truncated if the alternative certification was satisfied. Pellegrino (2010) posed, "preservice teachers are often not adequately prepared to engage in the complexities that make up the learning environment" (p.

76). He continued, “All who are successful in student teaching must employ some skills to establish a learning environment in which students can learn” (Pellegrino, 2010, p. 67).

As early as 1938 Dewey identified the need for practice teaching opportunities for preservice teachers. While considered a progressive thinker for his time, Dewey planned time for his teachers to reflect on their planned lessons so they could act deliberately and intentionally rather than spontaneously and routinely (Woods & Weasmer, 2002). Frequently though, many preservice teachers are given a classroom where neither seniority nor need has necessitated their inclusion. An example of this kind of isolation and reaction by a Millennial emerged when a novice at my school received a classroom but found the location of the room left him located in a flat top classroom far from other teachers. He resigned his teaching position in short order.

The rapid changes in K-12 teaching practices including Tennessee’s TEAM evaluations, reliance on state-wide, and system-wide testing have become problematic for teacher education according to Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005). They argued that preservice teacher preparation and professional development programs have faced much criticism because the novices have inadequate content area instruction, insufficient field supervision by colleges of education, and a lack of follow-up once on the job as teachers. Developing methods of teaching is vitally important. Fayne and Ortquist-Ahrens (2006) said most of these novices have learning needs not realized in academia and those methods must be acquired while practicing the art of teaching. In other words, novices may not know what they do not know before they begin teaching. Realizing dependent needs are indicative upon educative mentors exhibiting “specific behaviors that promote novices’ learning” is essential (Bradbury, 2010, p. 1054). As with any skill, beginners need practice, and many novices start the school year with little more than a

teacher's edition of their textbook for guidance. That textbook cannot provide the specific skill set necessary for quality teaching and learning.

Preservice teachers and interns have long observed teachers and teaching and may have made generalized and often erroneous conclusions regarding the kinds of teaching they believe to work best. Sims and Walsh (2009) noted that preservice teachers have seen only the external trappings that preceded lessons and activities. Perhaps student teachers and interns themselves relished the opportunity to gain the classroom. Britzman (2003) postulated that novices bring with them ideas of exactly what a teacher is and what their classroom should look and sound like. He said student teachers carve out their own territory and try to make sense of the differences between university coursework and the realities of daily classroom life. Lortie (1975) found that once in a school student teachers or interns may be afraid to ask another intern, student teacher or their mentor questions. He reported them as thinking they will be seen as weak and indecisive if they acknowledge need.

In addition, Hawkey (1997) emphasized the need for student teachers to reflect on their own beliefs of what teaching should be and how those beliefs may influence their professional life as educators. Dewey (1938) discussed this needed reflection some 60 years before Hawkey's research. Purposeful reflection distinguishes the practice of teaching. Many novices create a reality of what they believe will happen in their classroom and how learning will occur (Nuthall, 2005). Unfortunately, that dream may not be situated in truth or good educational practice. Britzman (2003) declared that student teachers bring with them cultural myths. He added that learning to teach is a social process of negotiation as beginning teachers come to terms with their own intentions, myths, and values as regards their future profession. Those myths were products of their own making.

The philosopher Joseph Campbell studied the meaning of life through the myths each person and society created. In his studies, he found that people have fears about the unknown from the collective unconscious. Campbell postulated that we cope with those fears by creating a new reality or a kinder, gentler worldview. Facing them as a novice educator may require a thorough reflection-in-action (Schön, 1986, 1983) or discussion to set those aside. Those fears of whether they may succeed or fail may be the ultimate reason for a mentor for a preservice or novice educator.

Inadequate collegiate preparation may also have made it difficult for many novices to consider individual student learning as part of their instructional goal (Bradbury, 2010). Not only do they have difficulty with meeting instructional goals, Pellegrino (2010) recorded that while pre-service teachers attempt to emulate their mentors' classroom management many "fluctuate in their management and authority style" (p. 63). He continued with a maxim that when classroom management had a lack of focus teacher frustration and minimal student achievement would follow. This lack of focus could translate into dissatisfaction from his or her mentor teacher and university supervisor as teachers' instructional methods can directly affect the management of a classroom (Opdenakker & Damme, 2006). Darling-Hammond (1997) verified the strengthening of the relationship between preservice and classroom realities through the application of mentoring and induction programs. Induction programs can provide a "professional incubating system" that encourages those same novices with support and advice (Gschwend & Moir, 2006, p. 20). Once preservice teachers accept a teaching position, the scope of their learning curve becomes even more apparent and the need for mentoring accelerates.

In-Service Mentoring

In Tennessee in-service mentoring has been mandated through Race to the Top legislation and the 2009 revised Framework for Evaluation and Growth. Mandated mentoring can be defined as the assignment of a mentor for novice educators with required meeting times along with accompanying official paperwork. Tennessee's First to the Top program set the time frame for official mentoring of novices and the kinds of activities and in-services demanded for both the mentor and the mentee.

In Unruh and Holt's (2009) study of mentoring and certification first year teachers were asked to indicate the extent to which beginning teacher supports provided to them enhanced their teaching practices and increased the likelihood of their continuing in the teaching career, as well as their overall satisfaction with the support received. Ninety-five percent of alternative-entry teachers and 83% of traditional-entry teachers indicated that the support they received enhanced their teaching practices. More studies have shown that support programs like induction or mandated mentoring resulted in higher student achievement levels, higher quality teaching, and stronger connections among the teaching staff (Brewster & Railsback, 2001; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2000).

Novices require assistance for success in the classroom and "mentoring is designed to pick up where preservice training left off" (Ingersoll & Perda, 2007, p. 110). Core principles of mentoring included "cultivating a disposition of inquiry, focusing attention on student thinking and understanding, and fostering disciplined talk about problems of practice" (Feiman-Nemser, 2001, p. 28). Through such programs, teachers learned effective teaching strategies and developed stronger classroom-management skills, often resulting in increased job satisfaction (Brewster & Railsback, 2001). Bradley (2010) asserted, "The conceptions of mentoring that

novice and mentor brought to the relationship strongly influenced the type of continued learning that occurred for the novice” (p. 1064).

Brewster and Railsback (2001) determined that much of the open-mindedness and progressiveness learned by novices from their collegiate preparation might not translate to the school setting once young educators become familiar with their increasingly divergent student population and community. Because of that, novices sometimes fail to make connections between their teaching and students’ learning because of concern with their own performance (Fayne & Ortquist-Ahrens, 2006). Roehrig and Luft (2006) found that novice science teachers were more likely to implement standards-based practices, such as student-centered activities, when they had science specific induction support. Bradbury (2010) also commented on the vitality of specific support by saying, “Mentors who had recent experience in graduate courses that emphasized reform-based teaching practices helped novices realign their beliefs to more student-centered ideas” (p. 1054).

Those findings corresponded with Feiman-Nemser’s (2001) work. She observed that new teachers really have two jobs to do – they have to teach and they have to learn to teach. Britzman (2003) declared that learning to teach is always a process of becoming. He stated that education is a not profession in stasis. Fayne and Ortquist-Ahrens (2006) argued that professional growth becomes evident when the newcomers understand themselves in the context of the workplace along with accepting limits to their power. That acceptance comes when novices let go of the life they believed they would have in the classroom or the myths they created, in order to accept changes and teach the children of the future. Studies completed by Maynard and Furlong, Martin, and Daloz (as cited in Hawkey, 1997) led her to believe student

teachers must recognize those previously conceived images and beliefs about teaching and examine the impact they have on their professional development.

The give and take of teaching the authentic tasks of teacher are sometimes foreign to mentors who believe their primary job is to nurture. If induction programs focus only on providing emotional support and giving advice, they can be helpful in the short run but may fail to affect teaching efficacy in the long run according to Faynes and Ortquist-Ahrens (2006). Effective mentors have to be prepared for the time commitment and willing to work at their continued professional development (Danielson, 2002). “Understanding that judgments about instructional effectiveness and decisions about how to change come from teachers themselves makes mentoring an effective strategy for achieving this goal” (Onchwari & Keengwe, 2008, p. 21). Lasley et al. (2002) cited studies by Wilson, Floden, Ferrini-Mundy, Darling-Hammond, Berry, and Thoreson when they concluded, “teachers need a great more than subject-matter knowledge to be effective in the classroom” (p. 23). The task of evaluator, planner, listener, coordinator, and sometimes parent may be too complex and time-consuming for many teachers. Therefore, many seasoned educators may find informal mentoring comfortable.

Informal Mentoring

Informal mentoring happens when professionals share the good happening in their classrooms and provide opportunities for others to reproduce their strategy or activity or to learn something different. This could be couched under the terms of a professional learning community (PLC) or a shared plan time. (As part of First to the Top, Knox County is requiring professional learning communities meet once a week during the contract day). Informal mentoring does not require a mental, emotional, or time commitment of any educator. This kind of mentoring can happen in the mail room, the copy room, in the hallway to a classroom, or even

at a faculty meeting. It could even happen when one teacher asked another teacher, “How did you do that?”

Informal mentoring could be as simple as the willingness to model a practice, an action, or a lesson. Other professions have shared their good deeds in order to advance their profession via a patent, a published article, or a new technique. Knox County has made use of its Intranet system to encourage informal mentoring with space for subject area teachers to publish plans, ideas, and strategies. So far, the social studies site has not had much activity. Traditionally, teachers have been notorious for keeping their best practices. For instance, a colleague from another high school informed me her PowerPoint presentations would not be published on the school website because she considered them proprietary. She was astonished when I said mine were available and I would be flattered if others made use of my work. She replied that real teachers make their own lesson materials. Millennials, however, “put less value on privacy and autonomy” (Feiman-Nemser, 2012, p. 16).

Many times teachers hesitate to “step on another teacher’s toes” by offering suggestions or opinions but informal mentoring can provide an invitation into another’s classroom and that invitation removes any suggestion of one teacher attempting to evaluate another teacher. The “How did you do that” removed any worries of that nature. While not as effective as structured or mandated mentoring due to its very informality, mentoring of this kind could lead to feelings of camaraderie and joined purpose that may lead to future opportunities for collaboration and mentoring. Potential mentors need not be afraid they would not be good enough a model for their fellow educators. LEAs have brought educational speakers to their districts to demonstrate techniques and strategies. Many of my colleagues are extraordinary educators and have

techniques and strategies that should be given note. Whether in medicine, in plumbing, or in education the craft of a profession should be perfected.

Informal mentoring may also close any gap that novices feel because of differing strengths and weaknesses among teachers. Interns and student teachers may find themselves drawn to an educator because of an outside interest and that interest compels the two to discuss and find ways to improve their classroom situations. Because learning to teach is such a complex process, it may be unreasonable to expect one mentor teacher to bear the responsibility for the continued professional growth of a novice (Brennan, 2003; Britton & Raizen, 2003; Harrison et al., 2006). “Such findings challenge the theoretical assumption that contrived relationships among teachers destroy trust among teachers, which is necessary for the development of professional collaboration” (Hargreaves & Dawe, as cited in Wang et al., 2008 p. 140). Informal mentoring may afford many people who work in close proximity to the novice teacher who can and should collaborate to provide models of reform-based teaching and help the novice adopt an analytic stance toward his or her work” (as cited in Bradbury, 2010, p. 1066). Finally, what does mentoring look like when it goes beyond collegiate lessons, giving and sharing a classroom, and showing concern for difficulties?

Theories of Mentoring Explained

Educative Mentoring

One specific theory of mentoring finds itself perfectly positioned to take on the role of educator to the novice educator. That mentor is an educative mentor. Feiman-Nemser’s (2001) portrait of the benefits of a mentor incorporates these ideas. Educative mentoring is a term coined by Feiman-Nemser (1998) to distinguish the mentoring of novice teachers from the traditional or conventional supervisory approach student teachers normally receive from their

colleges. It was based on the theory that the learner must cogitate through reflection, dialogue, and inquiry (Fayne & Ortquist-Ahrens, 2006; Schwille, 2008). In order for learners to be an active participant novices must be engaged in authentic tasks of teaching. Those authentic tasks must be provided by the mentor; for the mentee to experiment with the intellectual and interactive tasks of teaching under the care of their mentor. Because educative mentoring involves an open dialogue about teaching, both the mentor and novice can be exposed to new thoughts and solutions to classroom problems (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). Trust between mentor and mentee is vital at this juncture. Feiman-Remser (2001) said this type of reflective trust must begin with listening.

According to Feiman-Remser (2001) the inexperienced teacher learns his or her craft as he or she listens. The mentor listens to the concerns of the intern and the intern listens as the mentor encourages the intern or student teacher through the lesson or the day. The encouragement serves as direction and instruction. So unlike more traditional forms of mentoring, educative mentoring seeks to meet the immediate needs of novice teachers while also focusing on long-term goals for growth (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Norman & Feiman-Nemser, 2005). Feiman-Nemser (2001) applied the imagery of a map to describe how these professional educators lead the new teachers. She said, “Experienced teachers have extensive cognitive maps while the beginning teachers’ maps are less elaborated” (p. 10). Therefore, experienced teachers are able to demonstrate through cognitive coaching, demonstrating, and mentoring enabling strategies the novices can use to visualize practices and values. Novices’ less elaborated map may lead to what Lortie (1975) called under-conceptualizing of teaching by novices. Without it novices may not be able to elucidate their content and its importance to parents, children, and, most importantly, themselves.

Working Feiman-Nemser's (2001) guided imagery of a map allowed mentors to open their secret teacher knowledge, translate it for the novice, later demonstrate its effectiveness and even produce testing results to prove their clues were correct. The novice fills in the blanks after the mentor provided the clues. The novice gains confidence both in seeing his or her mentor's advice work in the classroom and in his or her ability to also make it work in the future.

Branyon (2008) saw mentors as go-betweens, mediating conflict with other teachers, or even as an early warning system of sorts to alert faculty of any potential problems. In this manner mentors provide feedback by role-playing through problem areas just as coaches provide opportunities for their athletes to build self-confidence by first developing strength and endurance before going out on the field. As the novice teacher develops more skill, the teacher coach provides practices that are more complex. With each "practice" the intern or student teacher builds and maintains a more complex map at his or her disposal.

Fayne and Ortquist-Ahrens's (2006) ascertained that beginning teachers have legitimate learning needs that cannot be understood in advance or outside the context of teaching. This need was legitimized when many Millennials reported culture shock as they came to grips with the reality of a school day and the need to manage the classroom (Rajuan, Beijaard, & Verloop, 2008). Greiner and Smith (2009) documented a reduction of problems normally experienced by Texas novices in direct proportion to sufficient teacher preparation. Daloz's work concentrated on how different amounts of support affected the progress of the novice teacher. Schwille (2008) found that mentors "help novices develop the skills and dispositions to continue learning in and from their practice" (p. 139). She asserted, "Learning to teach can only be accomplished by engaging the novice teacher in authentic tasks of teaching" and that "through cognitive

apprenticeship novice teachers learn to know, think, and act like their more experienced models and mentors” (p. 141).

Therefore, educative mentors assist novices by “reinforcing theoretical ideas in context” (Feiman-Nemser, 2003, p. 24). While the traditional role of a mentor was as an evaluator, “The role of educative mentors is not to force novices to adopt the view of the mentor, but rather to reflect on alternative strategies and their implications for the novice teacher’s practice” (Bradbury, 2010, p. 1055). Mentoring as a process looks to outcomes like good test scores according to Norman and Ganser (2004), but those mentoring opportunities “should make allowances for the novice teacher’s developing self and professional identity” (p. 132). With educative mentoring, the novice gains not just content and skill for the classroom but much confidence and self-esteem by the end of the intern or student teaching year. Her models of teacher induction (2012) showed the difference in possible outcomes when novices were nurtured either temporarily, individualized through professional development, or encompassed in an integrated school community (p. 15). While her research indicated increased levels of teacher retention with temporary support, the rewards for an integrated school community transcended the novice to include reduced workload, greater satisfaction for veteran teachers, and increased student achievement.

Humanistic Mentoring

Varney (2009) reported that demonstrating a professional level of caring may motivate a young educator to persist and improve as much as do discussions about curriculum and instruction. In order to keep young teachers in the profession he proffered their self-efficacy must be improved. Mentoring, in his opinion, through modeling and social persuasion provides motivation for them to remain in the profession. With humanistic mentoring, the mentor begins his or her first step by listening. Even though educative mentoring begins with listening it is

different than humanistic mentoring as its strategies require the mentee must first listen to the mentor.

Because the novice learned the mentor was willing to listen without judging, they form a bond. According to Varney (2009) much of the fear of failing subsides with the creation of this bond. He called this bonding humanistic mentoring. Mentors should “suspend their expectations regarding what they should see or expect from the mentee” (Norman & Ganser, p. 133). They cite Palmer’s, *The Courage to Teach* where he described teaching as a “daily exercise in vulnerability...always done at the dangerous intersection of personal and public life” (Norman & Ganser, p. 133). They go on to say, “Hearing about the mentee’s struggles with performance can help the mentor relieve the mentee’s strain” (p. 134).

Gratch (1998) found that novice educators believed the mentoring relationship had the potential to provide support and guidance to influence teaching practice and beliefs. As a result, novice teachers look to their own lockbox of ideas, maps, or journal of dissonances for fertile information that leads them to solve dilemmas successfully in the future. Consequently, the more the lockbox, map, or journal can be employed, the better and more freely will the novice feel about reaching into that experience and manipulating it for a resolution to his or her existing dilemma. Schlichte et al. (2005) discussed an example of just how important the caring, listening relationship of mentoring is in their study, *Pathways to Burnout: Case Studies in Teacher Isolation and Alienation*. One of their study participants, a teacher for only 7 months, deliberated a quit decision on a daily basis because she felt she had no support. She told the researchers she needed, “a mentor, a true mentor who cared about me” (p. 36). The mentor assigned to the participant only spoke to her three times during her first school year while she desired to be involved in a relationship that would provide leadership and direction. The

participant said that not having a mentor she could count on for support added to her stress. The participant also had feelings of doom and commented that she could see no way “to fix it now” (p. 37).

Gold (1996) reviewed mentoring programs that addressed both psychological and professional needs of teachers and found those decreased dissatisfaction and attrition rates. The mentor provided a safe place to be accepted and to understand concerns of a novice thereby making that teacher feel comfortable about sharing those concerns and fears. Later, Norman and Ganser (2004) saw this as a new trend in mentor programs. They cited the numbers of older, 2nd career teachers as a primary reason for some of those differences. Those trends included the “many types of beginning teachers entering the field of education, an expansion of the routes to licensure, the role of the mentor in recruitment and retaining, and linking mentoring to licensure and standards” (p. 130). They stressed “the role of a mentor in assisting experienced teachers who are “new” as a result of migration requires different kinds of knowledge and skills than those required for mentoring novices who are at the beginning of their career” (p. 131). According to Onchwari and Keengwe (2008), it is through this caring, supportive relationship that change or maturation takes place.

Mentoring Through Critical Junctures

McCann and Johannessen (2008) found certain critical junctures that create moments of decision for novice educators as determined in their survey. A critical juncture mentoring theory was defined as a time when novices meet situations for which they are not prepared. These situations could be curricula related, discipline related, a social communication difficulty, or even a parent problem. How those young teachers matriculate through those junctures influenced their own sense of efficacy and affected their retention in the profession. This statement was supported by Nieto’s (2009) findings in that the values, dispositions, and beliefs of

the teacher fueled their determination to remain in the profession. McCann and Johannessen (2008) were careful to distinguish critical junctures from a typical survival guide listing. Whereas the longstanding survival guide of advice like not smiling at your students until Thanksgiving may posture success from a procedural standpoint for novice educators, critical junctures deal with substantive issues. Procedural issues such as attendance rosters, home rooms, book inventories, and bookkeeping were easily explained to novices, and were accepted and understood by them. Substantively, however, the researchers posited that a novice's ability to form a relationship with students and bounce back from mistakes gave important clues as to the future longevity of the educator.

According to Brooks (2000) working through those critical junctures allowed the mentor or co-operating teacher to guide the thinking of the intern or student teacher instead of just showing or telling him or her what to do in a situation. Rajuan et al. (2008) cited the advantages of dissonance gained through the mentoring process as providing a proofing or a layering of skill affording those student teachers resources necessary for times of greater need later. For example, the mentor and the mentee might role-play the action for insight; the mentee might recount the actions of the event to the mentor, or even journal the action for a response by the mentor. Reenactments of lessons, classroom management difficulties, and modeling of improved actions by the novices were also components of working through critical junctures. This critical thinking exercise expanded the repertoire of the beginning teacher by developing a skill set on which the novice can rely. The reflections of the novice prepare him or her for future critical junctures because he or she has worked through classroom controversies privately with his or her mentor or co-operating teacher. Adherence to this type of mentoring would provide a

level of confidence for the novice enabling him or her to face future critical junctures successfully.

Reflective Journaling

Reflection journaling contains in its name a major element of any mentoring process. For interns or student teachers not quite ready for the direct approach, reflective journaling could be a viable option. According to Etscheidt et al. (2012) reflection can be defined as a teacher recalling the teaching and learning experience, reconstructing the event, generating alternatives, and considering the ethical implications of the teaching event. Silva (2003) said the use of journaling as a means for mentor support, a tool for solving problems, and was redirecting emphasis in the classroom. This mode of mentoring can serve as the first kind of interaction between mentor and mentee designed to build a trust relationship. Silva (2003) said this kind of collaboration could lead to heightened interaction between mentor and mentee. He called the mentor a partner in the classroom.

In this view, the beginning teacher actively participates while learning instructional and professional skills. The mentor or co-operating teacher makes use of the journal by scripting or jotting comments as a vehicle for suggestions, prompts, and other necessary information for the student teacher or intern. The mentee responds to those suggestions through the journal. Ferraro (2000) speculated that teachers who have practiced reflective teaching have a deeper understanding of their own teaching style. He documented journaling as leading to greater effectiveness in the classroom. Over time the relationship between mentor and mentee would deepen and become mutually beneficial with the process of give and take.

Garmston (2001) proffered that developing craft knowledge without reflecting ultimately limits both teachers. The after learning reflection enhanced the deliberateness of future planning for the intern or student teacher, allowed for the implementation of strategies suggested and

discussed, and created ideas for assessment. Reflection as a practice separates the profession of teaching from a form of skilled labor to a profession. Relating with the mentee through the journal could lead to the symbiotic relationship cited by both Cornell (2003) and Coburn (2003). The journaling provided a safe environment for the intern or student teacher to practice his or her craft. This kind of non-threatening mentoring echoes the kinds of relationships that professionals have long experienced with those they saw as students of the professions - apprentices, journeymen, and interns.

Schön's (1983, 1987) theories on reflective learners have been widely used in educational research to explore ways in which teachers learn through experience. Schön called those teachers "reflective practitioners". There are two types of reflective practitioners. The first type of practitioner looks back on his or her actions and analyses why something happened in order to influence future actions. That type is reflection-on-action. The second type of practitioner would change or adjust the learning experience as the experience happens. If the lesson did not go well, the practitioner would adjust and modify it. That type is reflection-in-action.

Those are both well suited for mentoring as they are situated in the classroom setting. The mentor would aid in the development of both types of reflective practices but would be especially vital as a novice attempted to practice reflection-on-action. Immediately after a lesson, concrete feedback with examples would be available through a recording of how a lesson did go, could have gone, and should have gone through the journal. Those kinds of interactions were vital for the professional growth of the novice teacher. Le Cornu (2009) found that induction programs should surpass an emphasis on caring and seek answers that will support the preservice teacher for the length of his or her career.

Teacher Learning

Another example of mentoring is teacher learning. Coburn (2004) delineated this as an on-going process where novice teachers take in messages about how to teach and actively work through them to construct their practice. It works through two interwoven parts. The first part provides messages for teachers in multiple means through print, e-mail, text, or orally in groups. The second integral part consisted of peer observations. Peer observations can assist as a valuable tool for removing fears concerning evaluations both by collegiate personnel and the mentoring teachers. As an example, my school also practices peer observations as a team building and fear reducing exercise for evaluations. Every teacher, novice and veteran alike, participated.

Coburn's (2004) concept was a perfect marriage for a strong mentoring relationship. Novice teachers would receive messages from their mentor in those varied means and have examples modeled or explained through either teaching with an experienced educator, observations, or role-playing for their own growth and the growth of the other novices or preservice educators. Finally, the cohort experienced a reduction in their fear from evaluation or other practices.

Summary

Historically, education in America began with a one room school house with the teachers alone responsible for curricular issues, and today teachers are essentially alone in a classroom. Researchers have determined that many schools of teacher education have not provided the skill sets necessary for educator success in the classroom. The literature remonstrated that up to 50% of novices quit the profession before their fifth year of teaching.

Induction programs, educative mentoring, and collaborative relationships all aid in the development of pedagogical practices and belief systems. The literature also offered tools,

methods, and strategies to enhance success especially through changes in pedagogical preparation. Frustration from overwork or too many extra jobs may dismay many Millennials but having a skill set of teacher experience maps, practice with critical junctures, or journaling may preclude that quit decision and exact a young professional in place for the future.

CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

Chapter 3 provides an introduction, a description of the design method used to conduct the investigation into mentoring, and its relationship with retention. The chapter also contains an explanation regarding the selection or determination of the sample size, participant selection, data collection techniques, and data analysis. Within the confines of this effort, the subjects of the case study were identified; details were given pertaining to data gathering instruments, and the process of gathering information through the interviews and document review were explained.

In order to examine the efficacy novice teachers placed on the support provided by a mentoring teacher an overarching question guided the research effort. It was: of what value do novice teachers place on the mentoring process as a method for success in the classroom leading to potential retention as an educator?

Specific research questions were:

1. Do novice teachers feel well prepared for teaching?
2. What do new teachers perceive the influences their co-operating teachers had during their student teaching or internships that have stayed with them as they became practicing teachers?
3. How does the former intern or student teacher describe the experience of collegiate preparation as training for classroom responsibilities?

Research Design

This research project was a qualitative case study designed to acquire data in the form of words and descriptive phrases that represented the meaning participants assigned to their pedagogical preparation and teaching experiences. Creswell (2007) opined that “a case study is a good approach when the inquirer has clearly identifiable cases with boundaries and seeks to provide an in-depth understanding of the cases or a comparison of several cases” (p. 74). Merriam (1998) said that qualitative research is an umbrella concept covering several forms of inquiry that “helps explain the meaning of social phenomena with as little disruption of the natural setting as possible” (p. 5). She identified interviewing, observing, and analyzing as the primary data collecting tools in qualitative research.

Characteristics of qualitative design included a natural setting, the researcher as the instrument collecting data, multiple sources of data, and an inductive data analysis protocol with an emergent design while being interpretive in nature and presenting a holistic account of the question studied (Creswell, 2009). Merriam (1998) and Creswell (2009) disclosed that qualitative research relies on inductive data analysis because “although categories and variables initially guide the study, others are allowed and expected to emerge throughout the study” (Merriam, p. 160). Neuman (2006) said this was because the qualitative researcher was likely to collect, analyze, and interpret data simultaneously. Corbin and Strauss (2008) stressed that qualitative research allows “researchers to get at the inner experience of participants, to determine how meanings are formed through and in culture and to discover rather than test variables” (p. 12). They remarked that qualitative researchers have a natural curiosity that leads them to study relationships that interest them. The relationship between mentors and mentees interested me.

Taylor and Bogdan (1998) acknowledged the importance of being concerned with the meanings people attach to the things in their lives. Creswell (2009) further clarified that importance by stating, “qualitative research procedures rely on text and image data, have unique steps in data analysis, and draw on diverse strategies of inquiry” (p. 173). Bernard (2000) added that inductive analysis allowed “understanding to emerge from close study” (p. 444). In fact, Neuman (2006) declared that while qualitative researchers test hypotheses they also “build” new theory during the research steps (p. 15). When referring to “building” new theory it was meant that something of import emerged from the collected data. Glaser and Strauss (1967) fashioned grounded theory to refer to the inductive theorizing or “building” involved in qualitative research. Grounded, as referred to by Glaser and Strauss (1967), necessitates that research is based on the data collected. It is important to note that qualitative researchers observed settings and people holistically – so that people, settings, or groups were not reduced to variables but were viewed as a whole (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998).

Because I was interested in these particular participants referring to the same phenomenon differently (in their own words), a naturalistic qualitative case study seemed best suited for this investigation (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998). Researchers get to know their participants and experience what they experienced in their daily lives through adoption of strategies that create parallels on how those participants acted in the course of their lives through a natural but unobtrusive manner. A natural setting means that the researcher would be inclined to collect data where the participants experienced the phenomenon. Creswell (2009) called the employment of the natural setting a major characteristic of qualitative research as the researcher would be able to see participants “behave and act” within their comfort zone. This comfort zone

assisted in the researcher's goal to "encourage them to talk about what they normally talk about so they would eventually confide in the researcher" (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992, p. 79).

Trust was a necessary component because, unlike quantitative researchers, qualitative researchers do not rely on surveys or questionnaires for their facts; they ask participants for their opinions in face-to-face interviews. If participants do not feel free to relate their answers honestly and completely to the researcher, the study would be negatively impacted. The negative impact would have been reflected in less than complete answers for the research questions or in no answers for the interviewer. Accordingly, this would have presented a less than complete picture of the phenomenon.

Qualitative researchers desire a complete saturation of the subject matter. They look for meaning through individual personal experiences while producing an end product of descriptive words and pictures. "What detail of life researchers are unable to see for themselves they obtain by interviewing people who did see it or by finding documents recording it" (Stake, 2000, p. 445). Inductive research has been found effective for "creating a feeling for the whole, grasping subtle shades of meaning, and for pulling together divergent information" (Newman, 2006, p. 152). Hence qualitative analysis provided me with the ability to complete tasks of gaining meaning, understanding, and knowledge concerning the phenomenon of novice educators' preservice mentoring experiences (Creswell, 2009). That is because as Bogdan and Biklen (1992) explained "the data collected is soft, that is, rich in description of people, places, and conversations, and not easily handled by statistical procedures" (p. 2).

Thick description was defined by Anthropologist Clifford Geertz (as cited in Neuman, 2006) as "qualitative data in which a researcher attempts to capture all the details of a social setting in an extremely detailed description and convey an intimate feel for the setting and the

inner lives of people in it” (p. 382). Creswell (2009) enhanced Geertz’s definition by describing data as having “rich, thick description” of the event or circumstance so that all questions would be answered and the openness of the participants to the research itself is an integral part of the process (pp. 191-192).

Because of the need to conduct valid and reliable research, the following strategies were used; keeping the sampling number small to provide prolonged time in the field for the researcher (Merriam, 1998), triangulation of different types of information, use of a proxy interviewer, and outlining the bias of the researcher. The participants in this case study were novice educators from Knox County in East Tennessee. The novices, while working as teachers of record for Knox County, had different preservice training and different mentoring experiences.

The choice of case study was appropriate for this research as it was bounded by time and place. Stake (2000) called a case study “both a process of inquiry about the case and the product of the inquiry” (p.436). According to Creswell (2009) case studies are “a strategy of inquiry in which the research explores in depth a program, event, activity, process, or one or more individuals” (p. 13). In this case study I sought to examine the role of mentoring for novice teachers in Knox County. As an educator who mentored interns and who wanted to know the importance of mentoring for others this was an important issue.

Purposeful Sampling

According to Merriam (1998) “in qualitative research, the most appropriate sampling is non-probability sampling” (p. 61). She called this kind of sampling - purposeful sampling. Merriam argued that “to begin purposeful sampling, you must first determine what selection criteria are essential in choosing the people to be studied” (p. 61). Neuman (2006) expounded

on the problem of purposeful selection by declaring, “The sampling’s purpose was to collect cases, events, or actions that can clarify and deepen understanding in a specialized population” (pp. 219 and 222). Qualitative research focuses on relatively small samples “selected purposefully to permit inquiry into an understanding of a phenomenon in depth” (Patton, 2002, p. 46).

Patton (1990) relayed that “qualitative inquiry typically focuses in depth on relatively small samples, even single cases (n=1), selected purposefully” (p. 169). Marshall’s research (1996) found there is usually little to be gained from studying very large samples. Denzin and Lincoln (2000) addressed the purposeful sample as the size where there is the opportunity to learn. Neuman (2006) posited that a large sample size alone does not guarantee a representative sample. Creswell (2009) indicated that individuals selected for inclusion in the sample have experienced the central phenomenon. As he asserted in Research Design “the idea behind qualitative research is to purposefully select participants that will best help the researcher understand the problem and the research question” (p. 178). Vital to the case study was, of course, determining how many participants would constitute a sample of the affected population being studied.

Hence, choosing the precise sample for the case study was of major importance. Neuman (2006) proffered that multiple points of view was what qualitative researchers examined in order to explain phenomenon or how people construct their identities. For that reason the investigator sought to glean the widest range of recollections, impressions, and feedback from this group of participants. This kind of purposeful sampling is called maximum variation sampling. A maximum variation sample as coined by Glaser and Strauss (as cited in Merriam, 1998) is a

purposefully selected sample of persons or settings that represent a wide range of experiences related to the same phenomenon of interest.

While participants were selected from the same school district, many had different collegiate preparation experiences and different experiences with mentoring. Therefore, the participants had a common pedagogical understanding but at the same time had multiple points of view regarding the value of a mentoring relationship. Because of the diversity of the sample, the size of the sample can be small as many interests and viewpoints are represented. In order to be part of the population (population being a novice educator) in this case study, a participant would have to have been a teacher with 5 or fewer years of teaching experience.

How many novices should be interviewed? Kvale (1996) declared that researchers should “interview as many subjects as necessary to find out what you need to know” (p. 101). Seidman (2006) identified two criteria vital to the question of how many participants are enough. The first was sufficiency and the second was saturation of information. Sufficiency for Seidman (2006) was a number that allowed “others outside the sample to have a chance to connect to the experience of those in it” while saturation of information meant that there would be “a point in the study when the interviewer began to hear the same information reported” (p. 55).

In order to obtain this sample it was necessary to preliminarily include and exclude participants. This involved purposefully addressing a wide range of educators with varying experience and preparation. Because the hopeful outcome of this sampling would be comparable to a population of what novice educators might have had to say, having all participants who were PDS interns, for example, would not have provided a representative sample of novice teachers. Therefore, the participants were chosen from educators in Knox County and the group of

participants were comprised of former PDS interns, nonPDS interns, alternatively prepared teachers, and traditional student teachers all with 5 or fewer years of service.

Participant Selection

A novice teacher has been defined in the literature as an educator with 5 or fewer years of teaching experience. In order that this research effort append to the accepted literature and add to that base of knowledge novices interviewed for this study comported to that definition. Therefore, the first criterion in choosing participants for this case study was that all participants must be within their first 5 years of classroom teaching.

The next stage was to identify the participants themselves. In order to find the participants for this case study I determined that ease of access to participants should be a determining factor in their recruitment. Therefore, I decided to seek participants from the school district where I teach. It also afforded the possibility of illumination regarding mentoring's role in my school district. Having the participants come from the same school district allowed for some commonality of work experience while still presenting opportunities for disparity of experience. Those disparities added to the scaffolding of emergent themes in the case study. I was able to locate novice educators with a wide range of preparation and experience in my district with the assistance of various principals of schools in Knox County.

The procedure for acquiring the participants was as follows. It was necessary to contact the head of statistics in the central office in Knox County before any study could be conducted. All studies regarding teaching personnel completed are approved by his office. The county has a research committee that reviews all research efforts conducted in the county. They required a prospectus or an executive summary for review. I submitted the executive summary and asked permission to interview ten novice teachers, of which I hoped to interview two to three PDS

urban trained novices from the University of Tennessee, two to three interns from the University of Tennessee, one or two alternatively trained novices, and two or three traditional trained student teachers.

My county has 13 high schools and 14 middle schools. Of the 13 high schools in Knox County, only 3 offered the urban PDS option for interns. There are no middle schools offering urban PDS options for interns in my district at the time of this writing. That exclusivity limited the choice of urban PDS participants. After the committee met and reviewed my case study, they agreed to make names available for inclusion in the case study.

However, this agreement hit a snag when the research and statistics director learned human resources had no ability to populate a listing of educators by years of service. As a result, the he referred me to the lead professional development arm of my county. That office had previously conducted an after school mentoring class for novices and that office agreed to furnish names of novice educators from that mentoring class for consideration in the study. That list proved to be just as elusive because of the retirement of the staff member who kept the records. No person in the office knew of the location of the records. For that reason the head of research and statistics suggested I contact individual principals for names of novices in their schools. He offered to write an e-mail for me supporting the study if needed. Subsequently, I wrote principals introducing myself and my study asking for assistance while indicating my county approval for the study. Principals disseminated the information to their teachers. Teachers who were interested in participating contacted me.

Initial contact with potential participants was by e-mail and then, if necessary, by telephone. I sent two attachments to every potential participant. One explained the study and the other indicated county approval for the study. I requested their participation and explained the

interview process. Participants responded either with an either yes or no via e-mail. Next, e-mails were sent with a copy of the informed consent document explaining its purpose and arranging the time and place for the interview. Confirmation for the interview was made the day before the interview by e-mail or telephone.

The Interviews

Merriam (1998) defined person-to-person interviews as “a conversation with a purpose” (p. 71). Further, she maintained that “we interview people to find out from them those things we cannot directly observe... we cannot observe feelings, thoughts and intentions” (p. 72), Lindlof and Taylor (2002) related that “at its best, the qualitative interview is an event in which one person encourages others to freely articulate their interests and experiences” (p. 170). They saw the purpose of face-to-face interviews as how participants related experiential knowledge, explanations of behavior, and understandings of concepts to researchers. In a qualitative interview “respondents are usually asked to express themselves on an issue or situation or to explain what they think or how they feel about their social world” (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002, p. 178). Neuman (2006) described the field interview as less balanced than a friendly conversation because it has specific purpose. Consequently, respondent interviewing techniques elicit open-ended responses that allow researchers opportunities to continue asking questions until they are satisfied or the area of interest has been saturated. For this research effort respondent interviewing occurred.

“The interviewer should ask questions in an effective, nonthreatening way” suggested Lindlof and Taylor (2002, p. 183). Further, they expressed “the interviewer should present a positive, nonjudgmental, eager-to-learn face” (p. 190). Merriam (1998) added that the key to getting good data from interviewing is to ask good questions. Interviewers can have an

inadvertent influence over the manner of which interview questions are asked and in their answers. Conversely, a researcher may hear a response he or she may not agree with and be affected. “An interviewer should assume neutrality with regard to the respondent’s knowledge; that is, regardless of how antithetical to the interviewer’s beliefs or values the respondent’s position might be, it is crucial for the success of the interview to avoid arguing debating, or otherwise letting personal views be known” (Merriam, 1998, p. 84). An interviewee could seek to either mollify or engage the interviewer if aware of any bias. Kvale (1996) found those issues could skew the findings and thus reduce the reliability and validity of the study (p. 235-256). He also reported reliability issues at three major areas. Those areas were interviewing, transcribing, and analysis.

Patton (1990) addressed the quality of the information obtained during an interview by saying it was “largely dependent on the interviewer” (p. 279). Kvale’s (1996) research led him to opine that “repeated observations of the same phenomenon by different observers should give the same data” (p. 64-65). He continued, “although a single interview can hardly be replicated, different interviewers may, when following similar procedures in a common interview guide, come up with closely similar interviews from their subjects” (p. 65). Although there has been some study of other communication forms as collectors of data, the face-to-face interview has remained dominant in the field of qualitative research. Opdenakker (2006) found interviews by telephone, via the Internet using instant messaging, or e-mail workable solutions for situations when the social cues were not vital as observation tools for the researcher or when note taking was impossible as e-mail would automatically provide a permanent record of the question and answer.

The significance of an unbiased interviewer cannot be understated. The interviewer needs to know the many ways that they can inadvertently bias the results. Acceptability of the results of the study is dependent upon the transparency of the researcher interviewer (Merriam, 1998). As a consequence the objectivity of the researcher must be apparent to ensure reliability. And so, for this effort, a proxy was employed to lessen the likelihood of a breach in neutrality. The proxy interviewer was a graduate student familiar with interview techniques and practices. Explanations were made regarding the vitality of the interview questions. Discussions with the proxy concerned the necessity for absolute reliance on the exact question being asked of each interviewee. Rehearsal time was spent discussing research questions, reasons for the research, and the interview questions along with such basics as how to operate the audio-recorder. The proxy and I conducted a pilot interview practicing starting and stopping the recorder so as to assess format, timing, and other possible questions. Finally, the proxy and I reviewed the practice interview with an eye toward focus, time management, and clarity of voice for sound purposes.

Data Collection

Qualitative researchers find value in a variety of data and collect it to form an enriched portrait of the phenomenon being studied. Four basic types of data have been identified as important to a qualitative case study. They are (1) observations, (2) interviews, (3) documents, and (4) audio-visual materials (Creswell, 2009). Patton (as cited in Merriam, 1998) described qualitative data as consisting of “direct quotations from people about their experiences, opinions, feelings, and knowledge obtained through interviews; detailed descriptions of people’s activities, behaviors, actions recorded in observations; and excerpts, quotations, or entire passages extracted from various types of documents” (p. 69).

Qualitative interviews may be cultural or topical in their design. Topical interviews are planned to seek explanations and descriptions of a “particular event or process and were concerned with what happened, when, and why” (Rubin & Rubin, 1995, pp. 28 and 196). Because this case study regarded a phenomenon topical, interviews were employed. According to Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) the qualitative interview is the “production site of knowledge” in qualitative research (p. 54). In qualitative research words instead of numbers convey qualitative data (Merriam, 1998). Vital to the conveyance of those words are interviews that make the most of open-ended focus questions. Data collection focuses on the individuals who help explain the phenomenon (Franklin, 2007).

For this case study the interviews were structured. The aim of structured interviewing is to capture precise data of a codeable nature so that behavior can be explained within pre-established categories (Denzin & Lincoln, eds., 2000, p. 653). The questions developed for interviews were called focus questions. In Kvale and Brinkman’s (2009) tome Interviews, they instructed the researcher regarding focus questions in the following manner.

The interview is focused on particular themes; it is neither strictly structured with standard questions, nor entirely “nondirective”. Through open questions the interview focuses on the topic of research. It is then up to the subject to bring forth the dimensions he or she finds important in the theme of inquiry. The interviewer leads the subject toward certain themes (in the research), but not to specific opinions about those themes (p. 31).

The questions enabled the researcher to ask other subsequent questions and discover topics of interest to the participants. The focus questions are located in Appendix D. The subquestions along with other pertinent hypotheses became questions for the interviews (Creswell, 2009). Open-ended questions were prepared before the interviews. Open-ended questions lead to open-ended answers and for opportunities in follow-up questions with the participants. This kind of questioning can be crucial in a qualitative study because as Rubin and

Rubin (1995) stated, “qualitative interviewing requires intense listening, a respect and curiosity about what people say, and a systematic effort to really hear and understand what people tell you” (p. 17). Further, they declared that “to understand complicated problems you have to let them (the participants) describe their experiences in their own terms” (p. 17).

Corbin and Strauss (2008) related that interview questions must be broad enough to afford flexibility and freedom to explore the topic in depth. The specific type of questions asked allowed for some individuality as to experience, recollection, and impressions of the participants. This is because “the qualitative interviewer encourages the subjects to describe as precisely as possible what they experienced and felt, and how they act” (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009, p. 30). Insofar as time was concerned, interviews were to last as long as it was necessary to include all the questions and answers required for the purposes of the case study. However, the interviewer must remain cognizant of the value the participants place on their time and not waste or extend the interview to the point of what Seidman (1991) called a “point of diminishing returns sets in” (p. 14).

In fact, Creswell (2009) posed, “what is the broadest question that I can ask in the study” to convey that freedom to explore the topic with the participants (p. 129). Creswell’s comment was important for me as a qualitative researcher because Padgett (1998) related that in “in-depth interviewing, the objective is to become saturated with information on the topic” (p. 52). Broad questions allowed participants to share specific experiences and for me to completely understand their responses when reading the transcription of the audio-tapes made of the interviews. Rubin and Rubin (1995) said broad questions would allow for the interlacing of opinions, ideas, and positions expressed by the interviewees. In this way the questions and the answers provided by the participants would contribute to the validity of the research. Rubin and Rubin’s (1995) work

reminded the researcher that the myriad of views presented through the interviews must coalesce to form a “single narrative” (p. 31). Taylor and Bogdan (1998) remarked that researchers should not “force the participants to respond to the observer’s interests, concerns, or preconceptions” (p. 61). In fact, Seidman (2006) warned researchers that the “purpose of an in-depth interview study was to understand the experience of those who were interviewed, not to predict or to control the experience” (pp. 50-51).

The research questions for this study were developed for these particular interviews and for these participants. They were reflective of my interest with the understanding that good interview questions “should contribute thematically to knowledge production and dynamically to promoting a good interview interaction” (Kvale, 1996, p. 129). He defined thematically as questions that “relate to the topic of the interview, to the theoretical conceptions at the root of an investigation, and to the subsequent analysis (p. 129). Consequently, an imperative for understanding the open-ended answers were the notes taken at the interviews by the proxy interviewer. Merriam (1998) reported that the qualitative researcher constantly makes notes about the process in order that something vital is not lost or forgotten. Not only is the researcher asking the questions but also continually questions the work and the process in order to produce a product rich in dissemination. In this case the questioning relied on the professionalism of the proxy.

Central to the acceptance of the case study results were the observations. Especially because “many times a field researcher does not know the relevance of what he or she is observing until later” as Neuman (2006) noted (p. 397). Lindlof and Taylor (2002) declared that “the validity of participant observation derives from the researcher having been there” (p. 135). Researchers may be marginalized by identifying with the subjects under study and must guard

against what Lindlof and Taylor (2002) called “slippage” (p. 136). They cautioned that researchers should almost “mimic” the behavior of a camera so as to remain neutral in voice and action. At the same time researchers develop a talent for observing “what is relevant and what is not” with continuous reflection as a researcher may never see or notice any particular event again (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002, p. 139). This could be especially difficult as the researcher gains information regarding the phenomenon from one participant and is equipped with that knowledge going into the next interview and so on throughout the interview process. I found that the proxy felt more comfortable with the subject as she progressed through the interview process. Caution had to be exerted that the proxy did not exert tone into the interviews. Management of the proxy and the interview process was vital to the integrity of the case study.

At the same time Taylor and Bogdan (1998) proffered that interviewers should “act as if they already know about something to get people to talk about it in depth” (p. 64). Researchers should “listen to participants in order to climb into their skin or to walk in their shoes” according to (Neuman, 2006, p. 401). He cited three methods for doing just that through the interview process (1) listen without applying analytical categories; (2) compare what is heard to what was heard at other times and to what others say; and (3) apply your own interpretation to infer or figure out what it means (Neuman, 2006, p. 401). In the end, however, the validity of observation as a data collection method for this case study was dependent upon the depth, quality, and multitude of notes taken by the proxy during the interview process.

Yin (1994) related that documents serve as support for the front line of empirical evidence of interviews, observation (both direct and participant), and physical artifacts. Documents could include the following items: personal items, like awards, photographs or certificates; newspaper and e-mail ads for alternative certification opportunities; official records,

like collegiate records and evaluation forms along with popular media like the newspaper or magazine articles, the Internet, and television (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998). They pronounced documents as materials that “lend insight into the perspectives, assumptions, concerns and activities of those who produce them” (p. 129). Therefore, cogent documents added depth and complexity to the themes and patterns of this case study.

Triangulation

The interviews, observations, and documents contributed to the manner in which the phenomenon was seen by the participants and the researcher (Stake, 2000). The researcher takes those methods and looks for reliability in a process called triangulation. There are many types of triangulation. Neuman (2006) recounted the types as: triangulation of measures, triangulation of observers, triangulation of theory, and triangulation of method. Triangulation of measures means that researchers take multiple measures of the same phenomenon. In triangulation of observers the employment of multiple observers increases the validity of the study as the results would not be bound to the interpretation of one researcher’s impressions. Triangulation of theory occurs when a multiplicity of methods has been employed for data analysis. Integral to those multiplicities is the understanding that qualitative researchers find truth where what is learned “resonates or feels right to those being studied” (Neuman, 2006, p. 105).

Triangulation, according to Merriam (1998), provided multiple sources of data or multiple methods to confirm emerging findings. Lindlof and Taylor (1995) explained triangulation in this manner, “Triangulation involves the comparison of two or more forms of evidence with respect to an object of research interest. If data from one or more methods seemed to converge on a common explanation, the biases of the individual methods are thought to ‘cancel out’ and validation of the claim is enhanced” (p. 240). To Stake (2000) triangulation was

“generally considered a process of using multiple perceptions to clarify meaning, verifying the repeatability of an observation or interpretation” (p. 443).

Triangulation provided a reduction of the likelihood of misinterpretation of data and challenges to any procedures (Stake, 2000). Taylor and Bogdan (1998) found that triangulation was “often thought of as a way of checking out insights gleaned from different informants or different sources of data” (p. 80). Neuman (2006) declared that triangulation added “authenticity” to interpretations of phenomenon (p. 151). This case study benefitted from multiple measures of triangulation. Those measures included review of the extant literature, observations of participants, comparisons of transcribed interviews, and document review.

Unlike quantitative research, there are few statistical figures found to ensure the validity of the claims. For qualitative researchers, validity and reliability are, by definition, the constructing measures (Neuman, 2006). Validity, as defined in this study, means whether the data collection possesses truth, certainty, and accuracy. Creswell (2009) called validity one of the “strengths of qualitative research” (p. 191). He said it was based on determining “whether the findings are accurate from the standpoint of the researcher, the participant, or the readers of an account” (p. 191). When reviewed by others in the field, validity could be seen as internal, external, or conceptual (Lindlof & Taylor, 1995).

“Internal validity deals with the question of how research findings match the reality of the phenomenon while external validity is concerned with the extent to which the findings of one study can be applied to other situations” (Merriam, 1998, p. 201, 207). Therefore, it was essential to crosscheck the research for internal and external validity. Researchers must guard to certify validity so that others accept the results. Lindlof and Taylor (1995) commented that “a threat to internal validity included the maturation of the participants” (p. 239).

The practice of audio-taping each interview session and having those audio-tapes transcribed provided the last vestige of security in the data collection process. Because the “goal was to have the participant reconstruct his or her experience within the topic under study” (Seidman, 1991, p. 9), it would have been hopelessly difficult to discover and illuminate emergent themes if the interviews were not recorded for later perusal especially when a proxy was employed as an interviewer. The researcher must, by necessity, be dependent upon those transcripts.

Kvale (1996) described transcription as an interpretative process. He said audio-tapes make the interview conversations “accessible to analysis”. That procedure was delineated as taping the oral interview interaction, transcribing the tapes into written texts, and the use of computer programs to assist the analysis of the interviews” (p. 160). Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) reminded us in their study that interviews were the “production site of knowledge” in qualitative research (p. 54). Without that production site up and running the case study would not be completed.

Consequently, I had to concern myself about the quality of the building. As interviews formed the base for the responses to the case study the integrity of the answers was paramount. Kvale and Brinkman (2009) stressed the importance and magnitude of validity in the interview transcriptions. Discrepancies can occur in audio-taped sessions when poor recording quality makes voices seem garbled or indistinct or even perhaps if the transcriber guessed meanings or only wrote what was clear. They cautioned, “Even the exact same written words in a transcript can convey two quite different meanings, depending on how the transcriber chooses to insert periods and commas” (p. 185).

Therefore it was necessary to listen, compare, and listen again to taped interviews along with the transcriptions. The researcher and proxy also discussed transcriptions in an effort to clarify interviewee responses for later reporting. Because of Kvale and Brinkman's (2009) concerns regarding validity and reliability and my own doubts regarding one interview, I believed it was appropriate to employ a new transcriptionist for a comparison view. Thankfully, the second transcription mimicked the first with intent and quality. This real life comparison verified the reliability of my transcribed interviews. Consequently, my transcribed interviews were consistent with acceptable research standards for reliability in oral interviews. This real life comparison of transcriptionists and their transcriptions provided a measurable system of achieving reliability and authenticity in the interview phase of the case study. Remindful of Creswell (2009), qualitative case studies need at least two instances of reliability. Triangulation and a comparison review of the transcriptions provided such instances.

Ethical Protocol

In order to conduct research it was necessary to obtain permission from the Institution Review Board (IRB) of East Tennessee State University. Appendix E contains a copy of the IRB approval letter attesting to my right to conduct research. Stake (2000) called qualitative researchers "guests in the private spaces of the world" (p. 447) and I believe that was a fair description of what this qualitative researcher's role was throughout the effort. With the IRB granted permission letter in hand, the next step was a prepared informed consent form for participants to sign. The informed consent form describing the role of the participant and the researcher can be found as Appendix C. Schwandt wrote (as cited in Stake, 2000) that there exists a "sort of moral obligation" (p. 447) between the researcher and the researched to protect

and not disclose the lives and impressions of the participants. Developing an informed consent form that protects both parties to a study was of great importance.

Christians (2000) argued that social science “insists research subjects have the right to be informed about the nature and consequences of experiments in which they are involved” (p. 138). He went on to say there were two necessary conditions for their compliance. “Subjects must agree voluntarily to participate and their agreement must be based on full and open information” (pp. 138-139). Kvale (1996) related that the informed consent form should have “information about confidentiality and who will have access to the interview; the researcher’s right to publish the whole interview or parts of it; and the interviewee’s possible right to see the transcription and the interpretations” (pp. 153-154). For those reasons, I provided all participants an informed consent form stating the purpose, duration, procedures, and possible risks of the study. A copy of this form can be found as Appendix C. It was also my intention to protect the participants’ identities at all times. Therefore, each participant created a name of his or her own choosing by which he or she was called during the interview and in the study’s published results.

Christians (2000) reminded researchers that “professional etiquette uniformly concurs that, no one deserves harm or embarrassment as a result of insensitive research practices” (p. 139). The pursuit of ethics through the study was of primary concern to this researcher. Lindlof and Taylor (2002) articulated procedures for researchers to follow in anticipation of this concern. They proposed that “researchers should act in an open, warm, and unpretentious manner giving people the benefit of the doubt, getting along by going along, and not being overly contentious” (pp. 140-141). Once the participants signed the informed consent form and agreed to participate, the interviews occurred. Because of the voluntary nature of the case study

participants could discontinue participation in the research at any time. The interviews took place at a variety of places including classrooms that were convenient for the participants. The interviews took place after school or on the weekends depending upon the schedules of the participants and the researcher.

At the outset, participants met with me and the proxy interviewer. I made introductions and presented the informed consent forms. They signed informed consent forms that gave written permission to the researcher to audiotape their answers. Included in that agreement was that participants agreed their direct quotes would be available for inclusion in the final written study as they signed the informed consent form. At that point, I left the interview site. The proxy was equipped with a digital audio recorder, the observation guide, water for both, and a writing implement. Audio-taping of interviews provided another layer of reliability. Another layer occurred as a professional transcriber typed the responses from the audio-tapes.

The proxy interviewer took observation or field notes (see an example of the page at Appendix F) during the interviews and later transcribed those notes as companion to the participants' answers to the research questions. These observation or field notes aided remembrance of the description of the setting, direct quotations or key words in people's remarks, and researcher comments (Merriam, 1998) and provided hints of the patterns of information for the study. All materials relevant to the interviews and any follow-up questions have stayed secure at my home. The audio-tapes are digital and are stored on drop-box, an electronic storing facility under password protection.

A Proxy Interviewer

Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) said the "interviewer should be curious, sensitive to what is said – as well as what is not said – and critical of his or her own presuppositions" (p. 31). They

called this sensitivity a ‘deliberate naiveté’. The naiveté allows the interviewer to accept or be open to “new and unexpected phenomena” from his or her participants (p. 30). Approaching interviews with naiveté was especially important in their view because “the interviewer and the subject act in relation to each other and reciprocally influence each other” (p. 30). The authors advised that interviewers must take care as “the interaction may be also anxiety provoking and evoke defense mechanisms in the interviewee as well as in the interviewer” and that “the interviewer should also be aware of potential ethical transgressions and be able to address those interpersonal dynamics within the interview” (Kvale & Brinkman, 2009, p. 32).

Because Kvale (1996) and Neuman (2006) noted the interview must have objectivity, “undistorted by personal bias and prejudice” (Kvale, 1996, p. 64) my tendency to employ facial expressions, body language, and tone of voice rendered me incapable of remaining an impartial observer and interviewer. The interviews could have been corrupted and any attempt to achieve the naiveté necessary to accept whatever responses the participants deem to reply virtually impossible. Therefore, it was necessary to seek another researcher to conduct the interviews. The choice of interviewer was significant as Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) opined that the researcher must have “knowledge of the topic of the interview for the art of posing the second question for follow-up as the quality of the data produced in a qualitative interview depends on the quality of the interviewer’s skills and subject matter knowledge” (p. 82). The selected interviewer was a graduate student familiar with methods of research and interested in the topic.

Kvale and Brinkman (2009) added that while language is the “medium of the interview, there are other skills, like the art of patient listening” that are more difficult to acquire (p. 87). Important skill sets for the craft they included were learning the exact phrasing of questions, the intended intonation of questions, stretching of pauses, sensitive listening, and the establishment

of good rapport in the interview situation (p. 89). Bogdan and Biklen (1992) enumerated the attributes of a good interviewer:

A good interviewer communicated personal interest and attention to the subject by being attentive, nodding his or her head, and using appropriate facial expressions to communicate. The interviewer may ask for clarification and probes the respondent to be specific, asking for examples of points that are made. When asking the respondent about the past, for example, the interviewer suggests that he or she think back to that time and try to relive it (p. 97-98).

In order to prepare the proxy for the interviews, we discussed the reasons for the research and what I had discovered through a review of the literature, and I showed her some educational articles and other tomes. We practiced interviewing by discussing the questions, how long to wait for responses by watching a clock for seconds, and what indicators might be apparent that the participant might have more to say to her. We talked about body language or other indicators that might indicate the participant could have more to say. I wanted her to have eye contact with the participant as much as possible so that the interviews felt more like conversations than information gathering sessions. It was vital to remain informal as much as possible so the participant was at ease both with the proxy and the questions being asked.

As the interview process continued, the proxy and I discussed her field notes, the responses, and the interviews. These discussions were crucial because as Rubin and Rubin (1995) reminded us that “when the interviewer is clearly informed about an issue, the interviewee is less likely to distort information” (p. 198). Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) proffered that interviewing is not a skill but a “craft” (p. 89). Crafts take time, practice, and effort to learn. In order to feel comfortable with a setting and a role such as this one they suggested learning interviewing by watching other interviews with an eye to participation and interviewing each other. A “good” interviewer was described by Kvale (1996) as one “who makes quick choices about what to ask and how; which aspects of a subject’s answer to follow up and which

not; which answers to interpret and which not” (p. 147). So the decision to practice was vital as the proxy would be obliged to ascertain when those “quick choices” were needed to change the flow, vigor or thrust of the interview.

Reliability and Validity

Creswell (2009) maintained that reliability could be enhanced “if the researcher obtains detailed field notes by employing a good-quality tape for recording and by transcribing the tape” (p. 209). The tape should be transcribed indicating the pauses and overlaps that may indicate something for the coding process. Dey (1993) listed techniques such as the openness of the researcher, triangulation of the research, and an audit trail as creating reliability. Creswell (2007) and Kvale (1996) cited Lincoln and Guba’s practice of seeking “unique terms such as credibility, authenticity, and confirmability” for reliability (p. 202). Creswell (2007) presented eight validation strategies for use in qualitative research. They were “prolonged engagement and persistent observation in the field; multiple sources, methods, investigators, and theories; peer review; refining the working hypothesis; clarifying researcher bias; soliciting participants’ views; rich, thick description; and external audits” (pp. 208-209).

Creswell’s (2009) recommendation was that “qualitative researchers should engage in at least two validation strategies in any given study” and called for documentation of the steps and procedures of the case study to increase its reliability (p. 209). Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) proffered that when interviews were conducted with “precision in description and stringency in meaning interpretation in qualitative interviews corresponded to the exactness in quantitative measurements” (p. 30). Creswell (2009) suggested reliability procedures like checking transcripts, comparing data with codes, writing memos about codes, and crosschecking codes. While reliability is a word most often applied to quantitative research, Lincoln (1994) said it was

extendable to qualitative research. His questions for reliability inclusion were the following: are the results transferable, dependable, and credible? If they were, then he would conclude they were reliable results. Therefore, if results make sense, then reliability rests with the consistency of the data collected.

Data Analysis

The purpose of this study was to discuss the role of mentoring in the preservice preparation of novice educators. In fact, the intent was to satisfy my own curiosity regarding the influence a mentor may have on a novice's longevity. Many teachers leave the profession long before retirement age and cite high-stakes testing and stress as reasons (Brooks, 2000). Fantilli and McDougall (2009) found in their study that even with support "almost half of their respondents thought of leaving the profession" (p. 818). Several studies cite reasons for teachers leaving the profession before retirement age (Greiner & Smith, 2009; Ingersoll, 2004; Ingersoll & Kralik, 2004; Woods & Weasmer, 2002). This study addressed my interest in only one of those reasons; the preparation that novice educators received from their mentors. When asked, many teachers list being unprepared or overwhelmed for their position as a reason for leaving the profession.

The steps for the completion of this qualitative case study research were many. First, the researcher describes and then attempts to categorize or develop themes while always looking for meaning for the case study. The process of taking raw data to interpreting the meaning of it consists of many steps. Yin (cited in Creswell, 2009) "suggested that qualitative researchers needed to document as many of the steps of the procedures as possible" (p. 190). Creswell (2009) called case study research "an ongoing process involving continual reflection about the data, asking analytic questions, and writing memos throughout the study" (p.184). It is in the

process of data analysis where researchers make sense of the information compiled (Merriam, 1998).

“Qualitative data are in the form of text, written words, phrases, or symbols describing or representing people, actions, and events in social life” (Neuman, 2006, p. 457). Creswell listed the steps for completion of data analysis as the following: (1) organizing and preparing the data for analysis, (2) reading the data, (3) coding the data, (4) validating the accuracy of the information, (5) describing the themes, (6) relating those themes, and (7) interpreting the meaning of the themes. Kvale (1996) declared that “the theoretical basis of an investigation provided the context for making decisions as to how interviews were analyzed (p. 206). I analyzed the interview data so that the central elements relative to the research question clustered and became patterned.

That kind of data analysis is called coding. Miles and Huberman defined codes as “tags or labels for assigning units of meaning to the description or inferential information compiled during a study” (as cited in Neuman, 2006, p. 460). Denzin and Lincoln (2000) declared that coding helps researchers gain a new perspective on information and serves as a focus for further data collection. They opined that coding starts the chain of theory development. The transcripts of the interviews afforded the opportunity to code the data so that the process of data analysis was started. Coding provides the actual pathway towards recognizable and reviewable results for the qualitative researcher. This is the point where answers became themes and themes became propositions. Because answers become apparent even as the research emerges, Creswell (2009) commented, “Qualitative data analysis is conducted concurrently with gathering data, making interpretations, and writing reports” (p. 184).

Summary

This chapter introduced the research design, participants, and proxy interviewer. The plan for establishing reliability for the study was restated and explained in this chapter. The researcher interviewed 10 novice educators as to their experiences with preservice mentoring during their educational preparation. Each of the research questions was listed and analyzed with careful discussion for the kinds of preservice mentoring received by the novices as well as reasons why these novices have not left the field of education. Determinations as to how data were gathered via the interviews, the audio-taping of the interviews, a meticulous study of the observation notes, and the actual transcriptions of the interviews were discussed in this chapter. All data were analyzed to provide descriptive evidence for this qualitative case study.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the role of preservice mentoring for novice educators in their educational preparation. Many issues face novice educators every class day in Tennessee including classroom discipline, inclusion, class size, and the potential loss of tenure. Those topics can and were discussed by the participants of this study but were not the thrust of the study. From the salient literature, document review, and perceptions of novices gleaned from interviews this study emerged as an amalgamation of novice educators' personal decision making histories and the real, if unhappy notion, of a hierarchy maintained by both veteran teachers and classroom assignments. Much data regarding novice educators and their choices are available at the Baccalaureate and Longitudinal study completed by the Department of Education in Washington, DC. Within the confines of this chapter I will seek to illuminate behavior, attitudes, and policies that shed light on the issue of mentoring and its effects on the retention of novice educators.

The process of how to find those illuminations has been complex. As McMillian and Schumacher (2006) noted, there is "no set of standard procedures for data analysis or for keeping track of analytical strategies" (p. 364). Accordingly, in the same way that a scientist poses questions to form a hypothesis qualitative researchers pursue reasonable answers to their questions through multiple sources. Those multiple sources were read and sorted into patterns by developing categories so that patterns of behavior, attitudes, and policies could be developed into theory. The understanding of who typically leaves the profession and why they chose to do

so could help policy makers invest in initiatives that target the teachers most at risk for quitting (Borman & Dowling, 2008).

Teacher mentoring and longevity has been a subject long under discussion and one that has interested me. The lack of and the inclusion of mentoring for preservice and novice educators is of such a prime concern to the State of Tennessee that First to the Top monies have been set aside to provide for mandatory mentoring for novices in Tennessee school districts. Participants in this study may live and teach in Tennessee but the recounting of their personal experiences will add to awareness of significant needs, mentoring issues, and the problem of retention on a larger scale. The National Center for Education, the research department of the United States Department of Education, has determined that most novices received their certification in a traditionally prepared manner with only a small percentage of future educators seeking alternative certification. My research found that inference to be valid as regarding the novices involved in this study.

The participants were novice educators with four noticeably different preservice preparations. All novice participants had 5 or fewer years of experience in the classroom with the mean being 3.2 years. The first group was comprised of novices who completed traditional student teaching as part of a 4-year undergraduate degree. The second group of participants were graduate students at the University of Tennessee enrolled in the urban specialty school program through the Professional Development School as year-long interns. Novices from the third preservice distinction were also graduate students as interns but did not have the kind of course work and extra after-school activity at their home school as required of the urban specialty students through the PDS with the University of Tennessee. The last group was an alternatively

trained college educated professional who sought certification in a content-specific truncated program.

Both the second and third type of participants graduated from the Professional Development School at the University of Tennessee. Their PDS was composed of a mentoring model that required interns follow both the cooperating teacher and the cooperating professor's mentoring direction, preparation, and instructions. UTK's PDS program has developed mentoring as a triad approach with each mentor delving into separated areas of the interns' experiences and meeting to assist the intern with planning, teaching, and reflecting. The preservice intern could act as a kind of liaison between the two mentors learning and enacting pedagogical instruction, direction, and practical instruction from both.

The last type of preservice participant was alternatively trained through a postbaccalaureate program attached to a university that began his on-the-job training without the apprentice teaching license the other nine participants received from the State of Tennessee. However, unlike the rest of the participants a major difference occurred with this participant. He, unlike the others, earned an educator's income his first real year of service because he was working with a provisional license as he learned the craft of teaching.

Introduction of The Participants

All participant names were changed to protect the participants and the integrity of the research effort. The first group of novices consisted of Rachel, Remington, Jill, and Stephanie. They were traditionally trained in a 4-year program. The second group of novices consisted of Barbara and Ginger. These novices participated in the urban school program specialty with the PDS program at the University of Tennessee. They both interned for an entire school year and earned masters of science degrees at its conclusion. The third group of novices consisted of

Luna, Diego, and Eleanor. They were interns through the PDS program at the University of Tennessee. They also earned masters of science degrees at the end of their year-long classroom experience. The fourth group consisted of Jim. Jim matriculated through an alternative program. He had a bachelor's degree in business and received certification to teach. He later received his master's.

Some characteristics of the participants have been included as they were integral to the kind of responses received during the interview phase of the case study. Because Knox County has many thousands of teachers, identification of years of service and of their academic degrees was not considered as tantamount to identifying the participants to any readers or to breach the confidentiality of the study. To reiterate, no real names or schools were used in the study and all participants picked the names they wished to have represent them in the study. An introduction to the participants follows. I begin with the participants as grouped above.

Rachel is a third year novice educator working at a rural school. She had a traditional student teaching experience as an undergraduate in a 4-year program at a regional college. Rachel is in her mid-20s. Rachel is employed at her second school because of an earlier interim position. Rachel has grown up amidst the teaching profession because her mother and her uncle were educators. After graduation with her certification, she opted to continue her education by completing a master's degree before seeking employment as an educator.

Remington is a fourth-year novice teaching and coaching at a suburban school. He graduated from a traditional undergraduate teaching program at a small private college where he had a student teaching experience of 10 weeks in the classroom. Remington recently married and also has the added duties of coach at his school. Those activities take up most of his free time. He also noted, "The last thing I want to think about when I get home is school".

Remington is in his mid-20s. Remington has a Bachelor of Science degree and has no plans at this time to continue his studies unless he decides to seek an administrative position. Remington noted, “I like helping kids. I don’t necessarily love the subject matter or the curriculum”. He added that seeing someone succeed in something with his help “is kind of the point of it all for me...but I don’t know if I’ll do that in teaching in 5 years, or that’ll be something else”.

Jill is a second-year novice whose preservice preparation was a traditional one. She went to a liberal arts college and obtained her teaching license with an undergraduate major. Jill is in her mid-20s. Her student teaching happened in her last semester at college and that also included coursework. She has a Bachelor of Arts Degree. She is teaching in the same school where she obtained her first position. Jill stays very busy at school and is not sure if or when she will continue her education.

Stephanie is a third-year educator with a traditional preparatory experience. She went to a teacher’s college in the northeast and moved to this area with her fiancé. She has been working as a teacher at the same suburban school for the length of her teaching experience. Stephanie is in her mid-20s. Stephanie has a Bachelor of Science degree. She has taken on a club at her school and is finding much satisfaction from the personal connections made in the club. Any plans for further education are on hold as she recently married and wants to enjoy that stage of her life.

Barbara is a traditional educator with 4 years of experience. Like Ginger, she matriculated through the urban coursework at the University of Tennessee’s professional development school’s year-long internship program. Barbara is in her mid-20s. She interned at an inner city school and is employed at different inner city school. Barbara noted that she could have taken a position at a suburban school but decided to accept a position at an inner city school

because she felt “needed” there. Barbara graduated from a high school in the same city where she went to college. She enjoyed the extra-curricular work of the urban program presented by the University of Tennessee and believed that coursework has aided her success in the urban classroom. She completed her Master of Science degree through the internship and is contemplating further studies in the field of counseling.

Ginger is a third-year educator teaching in a suburban school. She was a not a traditional student, meaning that she came from a position in industry to the field of education. Ginger is in her mid-40s. Her preservice training was a year-long one through the urban experience developed by the professional development school (PDS) at University of Tennessee. She completed her internship year at a high school classified as inner city and participated in classes and extra activities through the university designed to prepare potential educators for urban students. When she completed her studies, she decided to accept a position at the suburban school. Ginger was able to graduate with her Master’s degree as part of the year-long internship program.

Luna is a fifth year educator also a graduate of the University of Tennessee’s professional development school year-long internship program. She is employed at the same school where she completed her internship. Luna is in her late 20s. Luna worked as a waitress in a family Italian restaurant during her collegiate days. If they are short of help, they still call her to wait tables and she goes to work. While she changed her undergraduate major from the one she believed would be her original plan, she says she always “wanted” to be a teacher. She has also completed her Master of Science degree. At this time, she has no plans to continue with any more education.

Diego, too, is a not a traditional student. He was a finance manager for a large banking concern before entering the professional development school's year-long internship program at the University of Tennessee. Diego is in his late 40s. His company had personnel cuts and he found himself downsized. He is in his fourth year of teaching. He interned at a suburban high school but is now teaching at a rural high school in the same county. Diego was also able to complete his Master of Science degree after the completion of his internship year. He says he loves teaching.

Eleanor is a traditional novice educator with 2 years of experience. She completed her undergraduate degree and entered the year-long professional development school internship program at the University of Tennessee. She is a highly driven perfectionist who enjoys the art and craft of facilitating learning. Eleanor is in her middle 20s. She interned at a suburban school only to move to another city when she married. Eleanor has a Master of Science degree and enjoys teaching Advanced Placement classes as they challenge her.

Jim is not a traditional educator even though he is in his middle 20s. He graduated from college with a business degree only to discover he wanted to teach. He grew up in a family that gave back as a manner of life and he determined teaching would be the primary method in which he would do so. A program at a local college near his first position in business after college prepared him for a high-school math position by taking pedagogical coursework in the summer, teaching summer school for 3 weeks, and completing coursework towards certification during his first school year at night. He was able to obtain alternative certification and is now teaching and coaching at an inner city high school. He has 4 years of experience in the classroom. Jim obtained a master's degree through his program.

Data Analysis

Data were gathered from the perceptions, memories, and antidotal remarks of novice educators as related to their mentoring experiences as preservice educators. The data for this study were gathered from open-ended interviews with 10 novice educators. The participants were willing to share their feelings and antidotal experiences with my proxy. Their desire to participate was a demonstration of what they believed was worthwhile to the study. Because of the relatively small size of the sample, projections, ideas, and suppositions from the participants cannot be translated to a larger stage and must remain indicative of this scholastic effort only. The sample size consisted of 10 second-year novices to fifth-year novices all teaching in the same county in East Tennessee.

All participants were volunteers who were told they could cease the interview at any time and that no record would be made of the discussion. In order to sustain the viability of the interviews the proxy used a digital recording device. All interviewees acquiesced to the use of the recorder. They understood its particular importance specifically because of the use of the proxy interviewer. The participants are to be considered “experts” at being novice educators because of their years of experience in the classroom. Kvale and Brinkman (2009) call those experts natives.

In a qualitative study the researcher must search for the “native’s” point of view in gaining reliability for the study because the native has experienced the phenomena (Kvale & Brinkman, 2009, p. 236). The authors also posed the following question, “How do you know you get to know what the interviewees really mean” as notice that interviewing must be sensitive to the phenomenon in order to elicit a “finely tuned and valid method” (2009, p. 228). All participants who began the interviews successfully completed the interviews. The interviews

were transcribed by an IRB certified and licensed transcriber and were later coded by me for emergent themes, similarities, and differences among the participants.

Of the participants, two novices had 2 years of teaching experience, three novices had 3 years of teaching experience, four novices had 4 years of teaching experience, and one novice had 5 years of experience at the time of the interviews. These participants' multifarious experiences with teacher preparation were reflective of available national statistics regarding novice educators as seen from the extant literature. They were also the novice educators who agreed to be part of the case study.

Coding

The interviews were first read by me for interest. Later, the interviews were read for meaning and content and coded to identify patterns and schemes. Subsequently, portions, segments, and sections of the interviews were separated by a coding process. The concept of coding means that a researcher has assigned a designation to a particular aspect of data so that it may be retrieved when needed (Merriam, 1998). This process was repeated for each interview. Because of the nature of the experiences shared by the interviewees, the actions of the interviewees were similar, yet many of the individual experiences were disparate. Merriam (1998) considered that dividing the data aids in the identifying of information and any interpretative constructs of the data (p. 164). Emergent themes were illuminated differentiating specific kinds of preservice preparation along with responsibility in the classroom.

Kvale and Brinkman (2009) cited the relevance of coding in a grounded theory approach. According to them, codes, or subject areas, gain in importance because of their relationship to other identified codes or subject areas. That means that once identified, these codes allow relationships, differences, and similarities to be seen. Once identified in such a manner to

record, distinguish and separate similarities and differences among interviewees' sundry responses, their responses were analyzed. Charmaz (as cited in Kvale & Brinkman, 2009) proffered that codes define actions described by the interviewee.

Participants in this study had preservice teaching and mentoring experiences that varied from a 3-week induction in a summer school to a year-long immersion in an inner city school with a specialized curriculum designed for the urban educator. Once examined, however, interviews provided for the following categories or themes. They allowed for comparison of experience and definition. Categories or themes included (a) mentoring experience for an alternatively trained educator, (b) mentoring experience for a traditionally trained student teacher, (c) mentoring experiences for year-long interns and (d) differences in the amount of time and responsibility in the classroom.

Findings

Question #1

According to the National Center for Education Information's 2010 national survey (chart 18) 9 out of 10 teachers believe their teacher certification programs prepared them well and they would recommend them to others. Novice teachers are educators with 5 or fewer years of experience in the classroom. All participants in the study were novice educators. The concept of being well-prepared for teaching, however, is defined by each participant in the study. When Luna was asked whether she felt well-prepared for the classroom she replied, "I don't feel like it (collegiate training) prepared me at all for classroom management, even though they try to tell you, you just can't explain some of that stuff, I think". When asked for further clarification, she added, "it really prepared me for all the paperwork we have to fill out, and we had to do that during our internship, too. So I feel like it prepared me in that way, but ... I know when I first

started, I felt like it was pointless that I had taken a bunch of those classes”. She continued, “I mean it’s like throwing you in the deep end, you just have no idea what to expect”. Rachel commented, “I realized during my student teaching that there were a lot of things that just didn’t get taught in college”. She continued, “It did prepare me but there were still some areas that were left out”.

Both Barbara and Eleanor indicated they were prepared for the classroom. Both were year-long interns and had the time to practice and learn the craft of teaching. While Eleanor was situated at a suburban setting where she learned her craft, Barbara said her year as an urban specialist intern “gave her a leg up” on other teachers coming into the urban school where she was hired. Her internship and the extra coursework required for it prepared her for urban students. Evidence of this preparation was apparent when she began giving advice to other first-year teachers in the building who had not experienced the same preparation. She said, “I was ready for the first day but even the interns who had a year-long training in a school were hesitant in the classroom...and wanted to go out for a drink and talk after school”. Barbara said her confidence level was such that many of the other new teachers (she said there were many) thought she was a veteran teacher. Barbara found she could “speak the same language, understand issues, and sympathize with both students and teachers”.

Stephanie related that the internship was the thing that had really prepared her for the classroom by saying, “I’m really glad it was a year-long because I had strategies and when it was time to dive in, I could”. Diego agreed with Stephanie’s assessment of the internship year. He said, “I don’t know if I would have been as confident as a teacher if I hadn’t had those two semesters”. He went on to say, “I taught half a semester pretty much independently and in the second semester I had two full classes I taught pretty independently so that was quite a bit of

classroom time”. Diego had three mentoring teachers during his year of internship. The mentors were very different and demanded concentration in varying classroom duties. One mentor, he said, “was interested in classroom discipline, one mentor was interested in building a rapport with the students, and one mentor left him alone”. He said the biggest thing he had to learn his internship year was to think on his feet. He said,

Collegiate training through books and role-playing with lesson planning was all well and good but it didn’t provide for situations when there is a fire drill, when the principal wants several people out of your room, or when lunch is extended thirty minutes into your period. There didn’t seem to be preparation especially for when there are so many different demands on your time.

Ginger said that her age had much to do with her preparedness. She had worked as a supervisor in a research lab setting for many years. She related that, “I had been in industry and was used to working independently. So when I became an intern and had decisions to make, I made them. I also had the benefit of friends who were educators. They were very helpful to answer any question I had regarding specific curriculum or classroom management”. Eleanor said, “I felt very prepared to go into the classroom. I minored in secondary education at the University of Tennessee. That minor helped with ideas and planning and things like that”. Conversely, Remington said he didn’t know if he was as confident coming into the classroom as University of Tennessee interns as he had “just one semester in the schools”. He student taught in a middle school for half the time and a high school for the rest of the student teaching experience.

Jim was in a summer school program for 3 weeks where one of the other teachers was a traditional student teacher. There were several preservice teachers from his program at his school and they would sit in the back of the classroom until it was their time to teach. They watched each other and other teachers. Of his experience, he said, “I tried to get into as many

classrooms as I could and just observe good teachers to collaborate more with my colleagues and just other teachers in the school”. When asked if he felt prepared for the classroom, he answered, “not necessarily, no”. The teacher of record would model one lesson and then he and his colleagues would teach. He began by teaching only small segments of a lesson with other students also teaching the lesson. During the school year after his summer preparation, he was a full-time teacher. He said, “I had no help in the school system while attending class at night. I really didn’t have the support in place in the fall”. Jim remarked, though, “I could take what I learned in my collegiate classes at night and apply them directly to my classes”. He said that ability was valuable to him but would have enjoyed more help during the day.

Question #2

Stephanie said her two mentors were her important influences. She said they were opposites. One mentor was kind, supportive, and possessed a very positive attitude while the other mentor was very different – almost hands off. Stephanie was able to choose her first mentor upon a visit to the school. She chose her because she seemed “really unique and caring”. Regarding that mentor, Stephanie recounted, “She wanted me to master the basics first...so I did what she did”. Stephanie added, “I am the kind of person who needs reassurance...I need somebody to tell me that what I’m doing is okay”. She needed a mentor to listen and her mentor did that for her. As a future mentor, Stephanie would want to listen to her intern, too.

Rachel related her vital experience during college as being taught how to organize a lesson and a class day. She had a professor who required the class to plan a class day minute by minute. This professor insinuated events such as library day, recess, a surprise fire drill, and a class disturbance and required the students to accommodate those events in their planning. During her student teaching she had a mentor who helped her realize the importance of TCAP

and how to employ data to discover where she needed to assist her students in preparing for the state test. Rachel also said that her mentor “encouraged me to only teach what I was supposed to be teaching”. The mentor also instructed Rachel how to transition from one topic to another without a lot of interruptions. Rachel found this very helpful in her own classroom when she began to teach.

Jim said he doesn’t have much of a lasting influence in his teaching today from his summer mentorship and student teaching. His experience was that one day he would teach a standard and another student in his program would teach the next standard. He remembers his mentor “spending most of the time writing papers instead of helping me grow as a teacher”. As far as his experience actually teaching went, “I felt like there were gaps there because I never actually instructed them through the entire unit and gave quizzes and tests in all my student teaching experience”. One positive was that he and the students connected when he was teaching. This confused him somewhat because he recalled,

I still have not figured that out because it was obvious that she (the teacher of record) would throw a lot of time and planning into her lessons not that I didn’t but I think I was just able to connect with the students better almost like they didn’t take her seriously or something or it was just too hard to explain.

While Luna’s professors introduced paperwork and “teacherwork” she would complete when hired, she felt unprepared. However, she did not blame her preparation. She stated “you just can’t explain some of that stuff”. Luna found the most important function of her internship was the length of time she was allowed to team-teach and then to teach on her own. She also related a time during a parent conference when the parent addressed the mentoring teacher with the following question, “When is the intern going to be done”? The parent believed it was Luna’s fault her child was failing the class and Luna’s mentor said nothing in support of Luna. She said, “I was like, ‘I can hear you’”.

Eleanor said her collegiate supervisor had a major impact on her teaching style and growth as she was insistent upon Eleanor following the prescribed curriculum, pacing her instruction, and listening to her mentor. Eleanor observed other teachers in her department and discovered they had valuable information, advice, and approaches she could take for her own classroom. Her mentor taught her to how to write in the subject area, take notes, and providing feedback to the students. Eleanor said she has adopted those standards in her own classroom to good advantage. She said that something she learned that was especially important was to “document anything that happens to students, document behavior, good things, contact with parents...all that sort of stuff helps you if there is ever a problem”. Documentation was a really important, according to Eleanor, because “there is always one other thing you have to think about and now you realize you do it automatically”.

Eleanor indicated she was grateful for the “team” approach her school followed with interns. While she was paired with a mentor, she was encouraged to seek out, to watch and to glean from others in the department. That encouragement “afforded her the freedom to learn from many veteran teachers”. Though the basics of running a classroom, etc. came from her assigned mentor, Eleanor was definite in her evaluation of the internship year. For her, watching others, gleaning strategies, and employing policies taught by her university and her mentor, she was able to interject some of her ideas and personality into the classroom giving her a solid base for the upcoming year.

Diego said he found the experience and help of the university mentor helpful. He said she was always willing to do whatever was needed to aid him and make sure he was successful in his internship year. According to Gimbert and Nolan (2003) the university mentor can enhance the internship experience by developing a relationship not entirely built on evaluative

standards. In fact, they declared that “because the relationship offered extended time for interns to develop individually, the supervision process was not focused on how well the interns met performance standards until far later in the process” (p. 374). The university, school, and intern triad relationship factored greatly for Diego in his opinion of a lasting influence. Diego said that “the most important thing for me was that they teach you a lot of things about classroom management but you have to think on your feet”. “You have to handle problems immediately and not ignore them”. He lamented the loss of a paycheck for a year even though he commented that “it was a very well-thought out, well-planned use of a school year”.

Question #3

Luna recounted her time at the rural high school where her first mentor’s idea of technology (her words) was an overhead projector, kept regimental order in the classroom, and was reticent to allow her free rein in the classroom by remarking that “it really affected the way I teach now. I make sure that everybody is comfortable and that nobody feels like they’re about to explode their brains up or something”. She related a story regarding an intern who was sharing her room just this year. She said, “I just think it’s important to let people learn by themselves instead of trying to force your own teaching strategy and style on someone, because it does not work...it just forces people to do something they’re not comfortable with in the first place”.

Eleanor described her internship as a year that went pretty well but said she didn’t get enough background from the university regarding the necessary paperwork every teacher must complete. She said, “I was a little bit surprised when I became an official teacher at the responsibility of being a teacher of record”. Diego related that “the university prepared me but the internship itself prepared me for practical teaching”. He also mentioned that the university never mentioned Marzano’s methods and his school demanded he employ his strategies in his

classroom. “Since the university and the school system work together, I think there should have been a course that reflected more of the teaching strategies encouraged by the schools”.

While many of the interns lamented paperwork and teaching strategies, Remington, who was a traditional student teacher, discussed his lack of time in the classroom. He said, “of the 10 weeks that I student taught, I was in a middle school for half the time and a high school for the other half”. He added, “It was different than UT”. The positive was that, unlike UT, he was able to get in the classroom a great deal quicker even if it was for less time. His mentors were fair and made it clear to the students that he should be regarded as the teacher but because of the short time spent in two different schools, he thinks UT interns have it better. He taught for a total of about 5 weeks before he began his educational career.

Luna’s described her preparation and practice teaching as follows:

I don’t feel like it prepared me at all for classroom management, even though they try to tell you, you just can’t explain some of that stuff, I think. I didn’t and there were certain things like pacing and just knowing how long things take and what kinds of things you’ll need to review – that stuff, not at all. But it did really prepare me for all of the paperwork I would have to do, because we have all of these evaluations and paper we have to fill out, and we had to do that during our internship too.

So I feel like it prepared me in that way, but when we first started I felt like it was pointless that I had taken a bunch of those classes. But later on I started seeing the value in some of them, I think.

Barbara sought an urban preservice experience because she believed, even before she began the internship, that this would be the area where she would teach. Therefore, she applied and obtained a placement at an urban school. Barbara said “I knew it would be tough but this was what I wanted”. The urban specialty with the University of Tennessee requires an extra after-school activity, on-site classes, and multiple mentors. Ginger, too, sought an urban placement because of an inner feeling of “that was where she was supposed to be”. Once she was there, students learned she had asked to be at that school which was a plus with them. She

found she genuinely liked working with them and they found her accessible. That successful relationship of accessibility made her attractive to another inner city school when she completed her internship.

Rachel declared, “I don’t think there is anything that really fully prepares you for being a first year teacher...so any type of mentor relationship could be helpful”. In college she said she learned content and there were some courses dealing with the science of teaching but nothing came close to the real experience of being in a classroom. Jim’s collegiate experience occurred simultaneously with student teaching. Because his mentor was a teacher in a different subject area, he relied on the professors in his program to lend advice, answer questions, and ultimately mentor him.

Overview of the Chapter

Chapter 4 featured the results of the study. The chapter introduced the participants. It contained a discussion of the demographics of the participants and the collegiate preparations of the participants. Later, the interview responses to the research questions were elucidated as warranted. Finally, the data analysis, coding, and emergent themes were presented with a summary of the data. Chapter 5 included discussion on the findings. It also included a summary, conclusions, findings, recommendations for implementing induction programs, and recommendations for further study and research.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to discuss the role of preservice mentoring in the educational preparation of novice educators. This study is significant because novices enter the classroom with different and diverse expectations and often leave the classroom when those expectations are not satisfied. This qualitative case study was accomplished by interviewing novice educators in the Knox County School System. Data were gathered describing preservice educators' perceptions, feelings, and remembrances regarding their mentoring experience during their preservice experience. The data for this study were gathered from open-ended interviews with 10 novice educators. This heterogeneous purposeful sampling (Merriam, 1998) consisted of four traditionally trained novice educators, three professional development year-long program school trained novice educators, two urban concentrated and professional development school year-long internship trained novice educators, and one alternatively trained novice educator.

Permission to conduct the study was obtained through the Knox County Schools Research Office. The authorizing letter can be seen as Appendix A. All participants were employed as educators in Knox County Schools for the years of 2010 - 2012. When a random search of novices was unavailable due to population issues in the Human Resources Department, the Director of Research of Knox County authorized contacting local administrators seeking potential members. A subsequent e-mail to all principals in Knox County informed them of the study and asked for cooperation. These e-mails yielded results. Novices responded through the school e-mail system. Once initial contact had been made, participants and I discussed how and when the interviews would occur.

To negate any potential bias a proxy interviewer was employed. Arranging for a proxy lessened the predisposition of any ethical issues arising throughout the study. Kvale (2009) opined, “Ethical issues arise because of the complexities of researching private lives and placing accounts in the public arena” (p. 62). One participant did express concern regarding the presence of the proxy and inquired as to my absence at the interview. However, with explanation, this concern dissipated.

Respondents read and signed an Informed Consent Form (Appendix C) giving written authorization before the interviews. Because interviews were conducted by means of a proxy, all interviews were audio-taped with the written permission of the interviewees. Every member of the study and the proxy agreed as to the time when the taping machine was turned on and when it was turned off in each interview session. After the interviews the audio-files were electronically uploaded to a certified transcriptionist. Once transcribed, the complete interviews were available for reading, contemplation, and coding. As an added bonus, the proxy put into service the Interview Guide (Appendix B) that served as a major focus feature in posting demonstrations or action of the participant and any notes made by the proxy during the interview process.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine the role of mentoring in preservice teachers’ experiences. All states have experienced teacher shortages and according to Secretary of Education Arne Duncan (2009) the shortages will be remarkable by the year of 2014. There are approximately 4,100 graduates of colleges of education in Tennessee each year but Tennessee loses around 2,800 teachers according to the Beginning Teacher Longitudinal Study. Results from a 2009 study indicated the State of Tennessee’s shortages. The State Board of Education recorded the state as losing almost half of its novice teachers within their first 5 years of service.

In 2007 Tennessee estimated the costs of replacements were \$87,000,000 for local educational authorities. Many of the 21st century young teachers, of an age group called Millennials, may require a more exhaustive support system than their Baby Boomer predecessors in the classroom. Several studies have demonstrated that Millennials do not persevere when presented with a schedule full of demanding classes, isolation from colleagues, and a lack of team work.

Discussion

Attrition rates could be affected by the development of professional learning communities as quit decisions are greatly influenced by a teacher's level of dissatisfaction with lack of control over their classroom. Successful schools attract educators, students, their parents, and the community to join in the learning process. Conversely, unsuccessful schools also send messages. Everyone wants to be part of something that is happening (in the vernacular of today). Successful schools devote resources to what is needed. A learning community is built there because it was needed. Part of that community effort is learning something you don't know from someone else. This would include everyone from the principal to the lunch ladies. Showing, modeling, and teaching are all functions of mentors.

This professional learning community, once developed, invites persistent practitioners eager and interested in enquiring akin to other professionals to join according to Nugent and Faucette (2004). The creation of a learning community could translate into many areas of learning so that not just one novice or teacher could participate but grade levels, entire schools and even communities could search for meaning and cognitive advantage. Nugent and Faucette cited the hallmarks of a true learning community as one ingrained with cooperation, collegiality, team building, and democratic dialogue. From the literature the inclusion of equality from

administration, teacher participation in decision-making, and induction programs throughout schools appeared to have credence as alternative ways to retaining teachers.

In my opinion, educators especially should be life-long learners. In fact, my district lists building life-long learners as one of its goals. The high school where I teach promotes a book every year for the entire staff, students, and other employed personnel to read and expects incorporation of that book in some lessons throughout the year. Britzman (2003) declared that education was not a field in stasis; therefore, it stands to reason that learning must continue for all involved in the educational process. Feistritzer's (2011) latest study reported:

That what has been most valuable to them in developing competence to teach are their actual teaching experiences, their work with other teachers and colleagues, and life experiences in that general order. Courses in education methods, college faculty, and professional-development activities are far down the list.

When learning is integral, natural, and vibrant those who need to learn cease their passively resistance of the teacher and the classroom and become partners with him or her in the journey. Barbara and Jill's experience was tailored to prepare them for a specific audience and even though Jill did not ultimately choose that audience in which to teach, she said she found the experience to be broad and rewarding. Barbara said she was comfortable and secure as a first-year teacher in an urban setting due to her collegiate and preservice preparation. In fact, Secretary of Education Arne Duncan (2009) referred to this preparation in his speech to preservice educators at Columbia Teachers College when he said,

Our best programs are coherent, up-to-date, research-based, and provide students with subject mastery. They have a strong and substantial field-based program in local public schools that drives much of the course work in classroom management and student learning and prepares students to teach diverse pupils in high-needs settings. And these programs have a shared vision of what constitutes good teaching and best practices—including a single-minded focus on improving student learning and using data to inform instruction.

The question is, of course, how to frame learning in such a manner. Li and Guy (2006) proposed that we stop learning from technology and instead learn with technology. His research discovered that preservice teachers had greater success in classrooms when technology was employed mainly because of the motivating presence of technology. Both mentors and preservice teachers found that “the technology created more authentic learning situations” (Li & Guy, 2006, p. 397). One of the participants discussed the desire of her mentor to hang on to the past by employing the overhead projector even though there was more advanced equipment available because that was “what the mentor was accustomed to having”. That rigidity caused friction as Luna yearned to experiment with techniques and strategies learned in college. Jim experienced frustration with technology, too, as the calculators assigned to him were too old to accomplish calculations in the textbook or complete assignments.

Feiman-Nemser (2003) stated, “New teachers need to learn how to think on their feet, size up situations and decide what to do, study the effects of their practice, and use what they learn to inform their planning and teaching” (p. 26). In fact, *LeMaistre* and *Paré* (2010) determined that novices must find a way to “satisfice” themselves should they aspire to remain in the teaching profession. To quote *LeMaistre* and *Paré* (2010) “the problem solver must be able to live with a less than perfect solution (p. 562)”. For Millennials, this may be very difficult to accept. Mentors in *LeMaistre* and *Paré*’s (2010) study repeatedly mentioned their mentees needed “accept their limitations”. While Jim, the alternatively trained educator, was able to work his way through a truncated program with an eye towards a long future in the classroom, many future educators may not be as lucky. Many of the participants told of being placed with people who were “just in the right department” according to Luna and not according to their abilities as a mentor.

Mentoring is not just for novices. Everyone in a school can learn something and can learn every day. Anderson and Shannon (1988) surmised that experienced teachers found mentoring as life changing for them as for the novices. Many issues face novice educators every class day in Tennessee including classroom discipline, inclusion, class size, and the potential loss of tenure. As the salient literature established, up to 50% of novice educators do not survive their first 5 years in the classroom. Debate also surrounds the unrealized and unrealistic expectations of Millennials as a mitigating factor in the quit rate.

Conclusions

Conclusions regarding mentoring and its value seem to fall along specific lines of preservice preparation. Those who were mentored through the year-long PDS program accepted it as matter of fact, understanding its importance, but still desirous of a more integrated experience. PDS interns expressed their wish for a more systemic program. One former intern spoke about the efforts of the collegiate supervisor to integrate their practice with those of teachers of record during the interview. That collegiate supervisor made an effort to involve the school based teacher in decision making regarding the placement of the intern, the duties and responsibilities, and the evaluative process.

Of those interviewed, the role of mentoring in their experiences was very mixed. The specific training of the urban specialist interns in the PDS program at the University of Tennessee reported the most positive reactions to the influences of mentoring, while the alternatively trained educator found mentoring to be virtually nonexistent. Those who were student teachers related mentoring as just a part of the 10-week experience and not a process of its own. Both Rachel and Remington said their mentors were affable, but better assistance for classroom questions were oftentimes located elsewhere during their time in the schools with

informal mentor experiences. The year-long interns also had differing view of the value of mentoring.

Some mentors were selected because of being in the same department, some were selected because they taught the same course, and some were selected because they were the department chairperson. Participants as a whole relished the opportunity to discuss their opinions, hopes, and plans with a seasoned veteran, but many found their assigned mentor had no real preparation or interest in that duty. PDS schools had the most satisfied mentees, as their schools had in-place support programs for the interns. Interns met with members of the mentoring team and had opportunities to discuss issues, blow off steam, and bond together, whereas the a traditional student like Remington spent half a day in the middle school and half a day in the high school. In the end he had only 2 weeks to teach by himself in a high school classroom.

Of those interviewed, I cannot say with any certainty that mentoring has or will in the future make any difference in the retention decision of those particular novice educators. When asked about their longevity in the education field, answers from the novices varied from “I plan to work my whole life as a teacher, I hope to become a principal, and Stephanie’s response of ‘I don’t know what else I would do if I quit teaching.’” Consequently, there are no conclusions that can be scientifically supported regarding the role of mentoring and retention for those 10 novice educators interviewed for this study. All seemed to feel a “call” to teaching much separate from any thought of quitting and believe difficulties such as isolation, inclusion of differing students and subjects, and mandatory state testing as only designed to test their mettle. Interns who were placed in schools without meeting their mentors before school began also had less satisfaction than those who had an opportunity to interview, like the urban specialist interns.

Limitations and Delimitations

This qualitative study was limited to the responses shared by the participants and to the degree to which participants were comfortable expressing their thoughts and opinions with the proxy interviewer. Also of importance is the passage of time from preservice to teacher of record. Participant memory may be a legitimate concern. Mentoring in this study only applies to preservice experience for novice educators. The findings of this study were delimited to a small group of Millennials and novice educators. Therefore, any generalization regarding their responses may be made only by the reader.

Recommendations for Further Research

It is clear that the loss of novice educators has tremendous cost both for the local school district and for the individual novice. Support via mentoring, while mandated through First to the Top, can easily be facilitated for personnel through common planning periods, professional learning communities, moving a new teacher in close proximity to a seasoned professional who would be available for a quick question or suggestion, and assigning all novices to veterans at the school as the resource for quick questions regarding procedures and rituals. Another suggestion would be to have the principal develop a congenial relationship with novice educators so that questions or concerns prove not so frightening for them. On the district level, each LEA could provide time during district-wide in-services for novice areas of concern, not just subject area or grade-level meetings. Schools could shorten the school day one day a week by an hour for collaboration among subject area teachers as my school does and reward those collaborations so that more teachers are inclined to indulge. If mentoring is to be informal, then educators meet each other on an even playing field, one professional to another. Once a “community of learning” was established in the school through the above methods, I would be interested in

finding out if the inclusion of mentoring and cohorts translated into increased job satisfaction through a case study.

Jordan et al. (2004) discovered that student teachers tried to improve their own work if left to their own devices but have an inability to properly evaluate their own personal effort. Accordingly, teaching colleges and universities must take purposeful and continuous action designed to enhance both their teaching skills and the value of their demonstrations. Understanding who typically leaves the profession and why they chose to do so could help policy makers invest in initiatives that target the teachers most at risk for quitting (Borman & Dowling, 2008). Colleges of education must transform their preparation to more of a practicum process than a pedagogical process lest alternative programs become the standard bearer in preservice preparation. A study of teachers trained through a hands-on approach in a college of education verses a traditional approach would be noteworthy.

Another topic for consideration might be the role of teacher duties outside normal instruction and whether those roles had an impact on teacher effectiveness. Studying the many competing interests for the time of an educator in comparison with effectiveness could transform the field as we know it depending upon the results. Many participants in my study lamented loss of time for the classroom while fulfilling duties such as bus duty, M-Teams, S-Teams, bathroom duty, and teacher meetings.

Finally, the bottom line of all issues in governments is money. There are studies that discuss the cost of educator loss, studies that provide the mathematic formula for ascertaining that loss, and studies that discuss the effect of the reliance on novice educators for mandated tests. I cannot think of a study more important than one linking the loss of educators to the “crowding out” of other programs of note in the schools.

Summary of the Chapter

This study focused on 10 novice educators and their views of the importance of mentoring in their preservice experience. While time and experiences varied, all wished for a mentor who understood their desire for someone to coach, supply, and boost their classroom performance and methods. The interviews reflected the participants' desire to be "classroom ready" when they became teachers of record, and many said the work done for their college of education took time away from that goal.

Ultimately, the upcoming national teacher shortage makes the issue of mentoring and support for novice educators very timely. The costs of losing these novices for local educational authorities are astronomical and can be ameliorated with actions like professional learning communities, informal mentoring, and district support. Tennessee's commitment to mandated mentoring through the First to the Top legislation is a first step toward the goal of an increased awareness of the professionalism of teaching.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Permission Letter from School District

KNOX COUNTY SCHOOLS
ANDREW JOHNSON BUILDING

Dr. James P. McIntyre, Jr., Superintendent



June 27, 2011

Gloria McElroy
3238 Mountain Spring Way
Knoxville, TN 37917

Ms. McElroy:

You are granted permission to contact appropriate building-level administrators concerning the conduct of your proposed research study: *Perceptions of the efficacy of mentoring as a means for retention of novice teachers*. Final approval of any research study taking place within the Knox County School system is contingent upon acceptance by the principal(s) at the site(s) where the study will be conducted. Include a copy of this permission form when seeking approval from the principal(s).

In all research studies names of individuals, groups, or schools may not appear in the text of the study unless specific permission has been granted through this office. The principal researcher is required to furnish this office with one copy of the completed research document.

Good luck with your studies. Do not hesitate to contact me at 865-594-1735 if you need further assistance or clarification of the research policies of Knox County Schools.

Yours truly,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "John Beckett".

John Beckett
Supervisor
Research and Evaluation

Project Number: 1011048

/pl

APPENDIX B: Interview Guide

1. How would you describe your collegiate training and preparation for your student teaching or internship experience?
2. If you had experience with the PDS model of mentoring while an intern; can you report your experience today? (If you had experience with the traditional student teaching mentoring model, can you report your experience today?)
3. What kinds of influence did your co-operating (mentoring) teacher have in your student teaching or intern experience?
4. Can we explore the process your mentoring teacher functioned as part of the planning, executing and delivery of your teaching experience?
5. Professionally, emotionally, socially and in any other way you can imagine – what were the best benefits of your student teaching (or interning)?
6. What have you discovered about the preparation you received as an intern or student teacher as training for your own classroom responsibilities?
7. What were some things learned from your cooperating teacher or mentor that helped you in the classroom?
8. Can the effects of mentoring continue from preservice to teacher status?
9. Do you feel prepared to be a classroom teacher?
10. What kinds of mentoring do you receive as a novice teacher?
11. How much time do you spend with a mentor in a week?
12. In your opinion, what intervention would help you become the best teacher you can be?
13. Will you be a teacher five years from now?
14. What could the school (other teachers, mentor, school district, community) do to make you change your mind?

APPENDIX C: Informed Letter of Consent

Principal Investigator: Gloria Freels McElroy
Title of Project: Perceptions of the Efficacy of Mentoring as a Means
for Retention of Novice Teachers

East Tennessee State University

Informed Consent Document (ICD)

This Informed Consent will explain about being a participant in a research study. It is important that you read this material carefully and then decide if you wish to be a volunteer. You may leave at any time, refuse to answer any question, or ask to have your data removed from the research without penalty or prejudice.

PURPOSE: The purpose of this case study is to take a glimpse at the relationship between mentoring and retention issues of novice educators in a mid-size southern Appalachian city.

DURATION: The participant will be asked to share information through an interview process that should last no more than one hour and a half with the researcher. This process will occur at a time convenient to the participant and the researcher.

PROCEDURES: The procedure, which involves you as a research subject, includes a face-to-face interview with a researcher and a participant. The interview will be conducted by the researcher asking questions but will be audio taped. Direct quotes from the interview may be used in the final written study. All information learned will be synthesized in order to garner findings or trends. Participants will be asked to verify the transcript from the interview. That verification may be face-to-face or electronic.

POSSIBLE RISKS: There is minimal to no physical, psychological, economic, social or legal risks to any individual participating in this study. Participants may withdraw from the study at any time and are under no obligation to continue the study to fruition.

POSSIBLE BENEFITS: Participants will be given the opportunity to review the study in its entirety once it is completed. They may read the dissertation once accepted by the university and comment on their participation to others if they wish or remain anonymous. Participants may feel a sense of community in sharing their views regarding this case study. Participants may also enjoy being part of an educational process and research effort.

Ver: 07/28/11

APPROVED
By the ETSU IRB

Page 1 of 3

Subject Initials _____

DOCUMENT VERSION EXPIRES

JUL 28 2011

JUL 27 2012

By 
Chair/IRB Coordinator

ETSU IRB

Principal Investigator: Gloria Freels McElroy
Title of Project: Perceptions of the Efficacy of Mentoring as a Means
for Retention of Novice Teachers

East Tennessee State University

Informed Consent Document (ICD)

CONTACT FOR QUESTIONS: If you have any questions, problems or research-related medical problems at any time, you may call Gloria Freels McElroy at (865/310-4863) or Dr. Pamela Scott at (423/439-4430). You may call the Chairman of the Institutional Review Board at 423/439-6054 for any questions you may have about your rights as a research subject. If you have any questions or concerns about the research and want to talk to someone independent of the research team or you cannot reach the study staff, you may call an IRB Coordinator at 423/439-6055 or 423/439-6002.

CONFIDENTIALITY: Every attempt will be made to see that your study results are kept confidential. A copy of the records from this study will be stored at 3238 Mountain Spring Way Knoxville, TN 37917 for at least 5 years after the end of this research. The results of this study may be published and/or presented at meetings without naming you as a subject. Although your rights and privacy will be maintained, the Secretary of the Department of Health and Human Services of ETSU IRB, and personnel particular to this research (Gloria Freels McElroy and the Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis department of ETSU) have access to the study records. Your records will be kept confidential according to the current legal requirements. They will not be revealed unless required by law, or as noted above.

VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION: Participation in this research experiment is voluntary. You may refuse to participate. You can quit at any time. If you quit or refuse to participate, the benefits or treatment to which you are otherwise entitled will not be affected. You may quit by calling Gloria Freels McElroy, whose phone number is 865/310-4863. You will be told immediately if any of the results of the study should reasonably be expected to make you change your mind about staying in the study.

Ver:07/28/11

Page 2 of 3

Subject Initials _____

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DOCUMENT VERSION EXPIRES

JUL 27 2012

ETSU IRB

Principal Investigator: Gloria Freels McElroy
Title of Project: Perceptions of the Efficacy of Mentoring as a Means
for Retention of Novice Teachers

By signing below, you confirm that you have read or had this document read to you. You will be given a signed copy of this Informed Consent Document (ICD). You have been given the chance to ask questions and to discuss your participation with the investigator. You freely and voluntarily choose to be in this research project.

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT DATE

PRINTED NAME OF PARTICIPANT DATE

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR DATE

SIGNATURE OF WITNESS (if applicable) DATE

Ver: 07/28/11

APPROVED
By the ETSU IRB
JUL 28 2011
By
Chair/IRB Coordinator

Page 3 of 3 DOCUMENT VERSION EXPIRES Subject Initials _____

JUL 27 2012
ETSU IRB

APPENDIX D: Observation Guide

| | |
|--------------------------|--------------|
| Location of Observation: | |
| Event: | |
| Date Of Observation: | |
| Beginning Time: | Ending Time: |

APPENDIX E: Document Review Guide

Document Title: _____
Date of Document: _____
Date Retrieved: _____
Location of Document: _____

Intent of Study:

The intent of this study is to examine the role of mentoring on the retention of novice educators.

Document Review Questions:

1. What information does this document provide insofar as the training or experience the novice educator had?
2. What differences does this document show as regards the intern and the student teacher?
3. How does this document make available information not known before?
4. Why is this document important to the research?
5. Who would be the best person to provide supplementary documentation about this document?

APPENDIX F: Institutional Review Board Approval Letter



East Tennessee State University
Office for the Protection of Human Research Subjects • Box 70565 • Johnson City, Tennessee 37614-1707
Phone: (423) 439-6053 Fax: (423) 439-6060

IRB APPROVAL – Initial Expedited Review

July 28, 2011

Gloria McElroy
3238 Mountain Spring Way
Knoxville, TN 37917-1024

Re: Perceptions of the Efficacy of Mentoring as a Means for Retention of Novice Teachers
IRB#: c0711.14s
ORSPA #: N/A

The following items were reviewed and approved by an expedited process:

- New Protocol Submission (no conflict identified); CV; Interview Questions; Informed Consent (ver. 07/28/11 stamped approved 07/28/11)*; Permission from Knox. County

The item(s) with an asterisk(*) above noted changes requested by the expedited reviewers.

On **July 28, 2011**, a final approval was granted for a period not to exceed 12 months and will expire on **July 27, 2012**. The expedited approval of the study *and* requested changes will be reported to the convened board on the next agenda.

The following **enclosed stamped, approved Informed Consent Documents** have been stamped with the approval and expiration date and these documents must be copied and provided to each participant prior to participant enrollment:

- Informed Consent Document (Ver: 07/28/11 stamped approved 07/28/11)

Federal regulations require that the original copy of the participant's consent be maintained in the principal investigator's files and that a copy is given to the subject at the time of consent.

Unanticipated Problems Involving Risks to Subjects or Others must be reported to the IRB (and VA R&D if applicable) within 10 working days.

Proposed changes in approved research cannot be initiated without IRB review and approval. The only exception to this rule is that a change can be made prior to IRB approval when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the research subjects [21 CFR 56.108 (a)(4)]. In such a



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case, the IRB must be promptly informed of the change following its implementation (within 10 working days) on Form 109 (www.etsu.edu/irb). The IRB will review the change to determine that it is consistent with ensuring the subject's continued welfare.

Sincerely,
Chris Ayres, Chair
ETSU Campus IRB

cc: Dr. Pamela Scott

VITA

GLORIA FREELS MCELROY

Personal Data: Date of Birth: October 6, 1955
Place of Birth: Harriman, Tennessee

Education: Gaston County North Carolina and Knox County Schools

 The University of Tennessee
 Political Science, B.A.
 1976

 The University of Tennessee
 Public Administration, B.S.
 1979

 The University of Tennessee
 Curriculum and Instruction, Social Studies Concentration, M.S.
 1991

 The University of Tennessee
 Curriculum and Instruction, Social Studies Concentration, EdS.
 1998

 East Tennessee State University; Johnson City, Tennessee
 Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis, Ed.D.
 2012

Professional
Experience: Intern, Vine Middle School
 Knoxville, Tennessee
 1991 - 1992

 Teacher, Vine Middle School
 Knoxville, Tennessee
 1992 - 1996

 Teacher, Fulton High School
 Knoxville, Tennessee
 1996 – 2008

 Teacher, Bearden High School
 Knoxville, Tennessee
 2008 – present

Distinctions and Honors: Preserve America Tennessee History Teacher of the Year, 2006
Goethe Institut: TOP Program participant in Germany, 2010
Annenberg Placement at U.S. Supreme Court for State of Tennessee, 2007
Knox County Promethean Points of Light Technology Grant, 2006
College Board Scholar, 2006
AP Reader, U.S. Government & Politics, 2006, 2007, 2008
Gilder Lehrman Institute, Interpreting the Constitution, 2005
National Endowment for the Humanities Summer Institute, 2004
Gilder Lehrman Institute, The Great Depression/World War II, 2002
State of Tennessee Technology Grant, 2001
TCSS Civil Rights Lesson Plan Winner, 2000
Choices Fellowship, Brown University, 1998
East Tennessee Education Foundation Grant, 1996
Arnstein Teaching Improvement Fellowship, 1995 and 1996
Tennessee Governor's Academy of Teachers of Writing, 1995
Alcoa Foundation Merit Scholarship, 1992
J. Clayton Arnold Scholarship, 1991

Professional Development: President, Tennessee Council for the Social Studies, 2010 - 2012
Treasurer, Tennessee Council for the Social Studies, 2005 – 2009, 2012
TCSS Board of Directors Member, 2002 – 2012
Presenter of original material at sessions during the National Council for the Social Studies Annual Conference: 1996, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2005, 2007, 2008, 2009, and 2011
Presenter of original material at sessions during the Tennessee Council for the Social Studies Annual Conference: 1999, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010, and 2012
Member, National Council for the Social Studies appointed Committees: Teacher Education and Professional Development, 1999 – 2001; Conference Committee, 2003 - 2006
Member, National Council for the Social Studies elected Committees: Steering Committee, 2010 – 2012; Assignment Committee, 2006 – 2008, chairman 2007 – 2008
NCSS House of Delegates Member, 2002 – 2012

Professional Associations: National Council for the Social Studies
Tennessee Council for the Social Studies
Foothills Council for the Social Studies
Kappa Delta Pi Educational Honor Society