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UNDERSTANDING PRESERVICE TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF
INSTRUCTIONAL COACHING DURING STUDENT TEACHING

by

John Meisner

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree

of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

In

Education

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2020

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ABSTRACT

Understanding Preservice Teachers' Perceptions of Instructional Coaching During
Student Teaching

by

John Meisner, Doctor of Philosophy

Utah State University, 2020

Major Professor: Dr. Steven P. Camicia
Department: School of Teacher Education and Leadership

This case study presents the perceptions of preservice teachers in their final semester of student teaching at a 4-year professional teacher education program (PTEP). The purpose of the study was to understand how preservice teachers perceive instructional coaching during their semester of student teaching. This study is framed by social constructivist principles, and the preservice teachers were coached following the instructional coaching principles developed by Dr. Jim Knight. Qualitative inquiry, through open-ended questioning and interviews were used to examine how the preservice teachers perceived the instructional coaching process during student teaching.

The study found that each participant uniquely found value in instructional coaching in the areas of easy access to the instructional coach, instructional advice, lesson feedback, personal support and a lack of evaluative responsibility.

(199 pages)

PUBLIC ABSTRACT

Understanding Preservice Teachers' Perceptions of Instructional Coaching During
Student Teaching

John Meisner

The purpose of this study was to understand how preservice teachers perceived instructional coaching during their semester of student teaching as they completed their teacher training and their secondary education license requirements at a 4-year university in the Western U.S. In this study, I worked within Dr. Jim Knight's instructional coaching principles in the unique setting of student teaching.

Through numerous personal interactions with my participants via informal meetings and electronic communications I arrive at the conclusion that each participant uniquely valued the instructional coaching in the areas of access, advice, feedback, support, and a lack of evaluative responsibility. Additionally, my participants offered suggestions that would improve instructional coaching in the areas of content knowledge and clearer understanding of instructional coaching at the outset of the semester.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to acknowledge and offer my most heartfelt appreciation to my committee members, Drs. Steven Camicia, Marla Robertson, Susan Turner, Joshua Marquit, and Amy Piotrowski for their guidance and encouragement through this process and the coursework that preceded it with the entire Teaching Education and Leadership faculty and staff at Utah State University for their instruction, time and efforts. My time in this doctoral program exceeded my expectations. I would also like to express my love for my cohort family; our sush-tues and nerd camps created an unexpected layer of personal enrichment and friendships that I will always cherish.

Thanks also to my amazing participants. I quite obviously could not have done this work without you. Your enthusiasm for your students and teaching have reinvigorated my own enthusiasm for this tremendous profession. I am honored to be in a field of professionals that includes you. If all of our new teachers were as committed as you, our future would be in very capable hands indeed.

I give special thanks to my children Sterling, Jake, Zoe, and Lauren, and my former wife, Amy, for their constant encouragement and belief in me as I worked my way through this rigorous process. You all accepted as fact that I would complete this work and never seemed to doubt it—even when I did.

Finally, after all the years of study and writing in locations covering over 40,000 traveled miles around the world, I wish to thank my amazing fiancé, Anthony, for his tremendous patience, support, and encouragement. Your love and belief in me throughout

this process has been a constant source of encouragement and motivation to “hurry up and finish” so that we could move on with our lives together.

John Rodari-Meisner

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION, CONTEXT, PROBLEM, AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Introduction

Anytime I wanted to ask how can I change things up in the classroom... I talked to the instructional coach, and he gave me some really good advice that made me feel more confident.... (Betty, personal communication, 2019)

This interview excerpt provides a snap shot of one of my participant's perspectives on instructional coaching during her student teaching. Throughout our numerous interactions, participants each indicated different elements of instructional coaching that they found most beneficial. This and many other examples will be provided to describe how each of the four participants in this case study perceived instructional coaching during student teaching.

Rationale for the Study

As a new teacher some 15 years ago, my student teaching in a secondary education English classroom was extremely difficult, stressful, demoralizing, and ultimately left me wondering whether I had made a very expensive mistake. I gave considerable thought to leaving the teaching profession before I even began. I decided, however, to see it through and learned that I truly did love my students and teaching in general. Over the years, I was able to work with preservice teachers assigned to my classroom and numerous new teachers as a school district new-teacher program coordinator. Ultimately, in 2004, I was trained by Dr. Jim Knight in his Partnership

Principles of instructional coaching. The power of coaching appeared to be of tremendous support and benefit to preservice teachers, yet I had never seen it used that way. I could not help but wonder whether instructional coaching might be of more utility in the teacher preparation endeavor.

Research (Bush, 1984; Cornett & Knight, 2009b; Darling-Hammond, 2014; Joyce & Showers, 1982; Showers, 1984a) has shown that instructional coaching with in-service teachers can dramatically and positively affect teacher attitudes, teacher practices, teacher efficacy, and student achievement. Instructional coaching typically includes close personal interactions between the instructional coach and a teacher. Coaching includes all aspects of teaching from planning, contextual factors of the classroom, selecting useful instructional methods and assessments (Knight, 2007).

During the spring of 2019, I worked with four preservice secondary education students who were completing their final step of their professional teacher education program at a Western U.S. accredited university. In this study I arrive at the conclusion that instructional coaching was beneficial for these participants, its flexibility helped to meet their individual needs, and I offer participant suggestions that would improve instructional coaching during student teaching.

This chapter will introduce the study and discuss how four volunteer participants perceived instructional coaching during their semester of student teaching. I begin by presenting a brief history of teacher preparation in the U.S. and how continuous efforts to reform teacher preparation led to the development of national accreditation and a variety of paths to the profession. I then describe what researchers have found that results in

improved teacher performance, increased teacher self-efficacy and the benefits of instructional coaching. I conclude the chapter with an overview of the remaining chapters in this dissertation.

Statement of Problem

Instructional coaching has been shown (Cornett & Knight, 2009b; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Joyce & Showers, 1982; Showers, 1984b) to improve the transfer of pedagogical instruction from theory to practice with in-service teachers and promotes teacher success through higher student achievement. However, instructional coaching with preservice teachers during student teaching has not been thoroughly studied though the principles of it appeared to address many of the struggles that preservice teachers encounter.

Koerner, O'Connell Rust, and Baumgartner (2002) related the variety of functions that student teaching plays in the preparation of new teachers, such as the value of mentor teachers, cooperating teachers and university supervisors during this important portion of teacher preparation. They also included Guyton and MacIntyre's (1990) findings that "Most teachers claim that the most important elements in their professional education were the school experiences found in student teaching" (p. 514). Participants in this study echoed that student teaching was critical for their preparation.

Student teaching is a difficult but rich experience. The complicated dynamics of student teaching, including unique personalities of preservice teachers, mentors, students, schools and the instructional coach made for a useful context to seek answers to my

research questions.

Purpose of the Study

Professional teacher education programs (PTEPs) are the most common method for teachers to receive necessary training to obtain a license and enter the teaching profession. However, the quality, style and expectations of these programs vary widely primarily because individual state and professional teacher education programs requirements also vary widely (Anderson & Stillman, 2013; Ashton & Crocker, 1987; Darling-Hammond, 2010b; K. Zeichner & Gore, 1990; Zeichner & Liston, 1990). This can result in unequal training depending on the preparation program one attends. Some students may experience a rich preparation program that sets them up for success, and others may complete a program that lacks sufficient depth and rigor necessary to succeed in the profession. Darling-Hammond (2006) asserted that teacher preparation programs should become more standardized with more common expectations and research-based practices much like the medical field. Without such, as Darling-Hammond (2006) stated, the best programs will be “available only to a lucky few” (p. 312). In addition, it is widely accepted that well-prepared teachers have a greater effect on student achievement than poorly-trained teachers (Marzano, 2003; Pajares, 1996; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001; Yilmaz, 2011).

A teacher shortage in the U.S. has made the variety of preparation programs even more vast. Some state legislatures and school boards have begun to reduce the necessary minimum qualifications under the premise that teaching can be learned on the job, and as

a result have developed a variety of alternative routes to licensure (Holodny, 2017) which some believe has further underprepared teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2010b).

These alternative program models come in various forms, but essentially, they place the responsibility of training on school districts and on the untrained individuals themselves. This can be problematic and compound the shortage because attrition for teachers who entered the profession without adequate training is higher, and these teachers are far more likely to quit than teachers who have completed a high-quality teacher education program (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Suell & Piotrowski, 2003).

The efforts to create alternative pathways to teaching are simultaneously occurring during calls for more rigor in professional teacher preparation programs and higher standards and accountability measures for inservice teacher performance and student achievement by educational policymakers (Darling-Hammond, 2014). Yet, research has indicated that underprepared individuals are more likely to leave the profession, and those who experience frequent failure are apt to quit. Nationally, teacher retention remains at worrisome levels. By the fifth year of teaching, approximately 50% of teachers will have left the profession (Darling-Hammond, Holtzman, Gatlin, & Heilig, 2005; Graziano, 2005; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004b), and the trend appears likely to continue. More teachers are leaving the profession than are training to enter it (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004b). Darling-Hammond dramatically predicted in 2010 that “If the political will and education conditions for strengthening teaching are substantially absent, I do not believe it is an overstatement to say we will see in our life-times the modern-day equivalent of the fall of Rome” (p. 35). Darling-Hammond (2010b) also stated that “the

bottom line is that we need highly effective, adequately resourced models of preparation for all teachers, without exception” (p. 39). Integrating instructional coaching into preparation programs, whether university-based or through an alternate route, may provide a common set of practices that afford preservice teachers the practice and support they need as they enter the profession. However, Kraft, Blazar, and Hogan (2017b), in their meta-analysis on teacher coaching found that implementation of instructional coaching can vary, and that most studies were of a small scale. This, combined with a lack of research on the costs of implementing a coaching model in a large scale indicate that there is still work to be done in this promising area.

In this study, I acted as an instructional coach and coached “light” (Killion, 2009) indicating that I acted as a critical friend who did not evaluate participants’ teaching effectiveness, but worked within the parameters of the coaching relationship, employing Knight’s (2007, 2009b) Partnership Principles to provide the individualized support that each participant requested. It was in this endeavor that I was able to identify the specific areas of instructional coaching that participants valued that answered my primary and secondary research questions.

This study did not directly attempt to correlate any benefits of instructional coaching to teacher effectiveness, or teacher retention, but the information gained from the preservice teachers offers valuable insight on aspects of instructional coaching and how it may improve the student teaching experience as well as how professional teacher education programs may be improved to better prepare new teachers for their first years in the profession. Knight’s (2007, 2009b) instructional coaching dynamic with its

Partnership Principles provided an opportunity for me to individually support the preservice teachers during student teaching as each participant needed while simultaneously learning about how preservice teachers experience the coaching itself. It is through this unique positionality as researcher and instructional coach that I gained a better understanding of how instructional coaching affects preservice teachers. This positionality was not without concern in relation to its effect on the study. I enjoyed a positive relationship with all participants prior to the beginning of the study which provided a solid foundation for the study. Without this foundational relationship, one would first need to establish such a relationship, however this step is typical in the instructional coaching dynamic.

The purpose of the study was to gain a deeper understanding how these four preservice teachers perceived being coached during their student teaching. Following social constructivist principles of “seeking to understand the world in which [one] lives and works” through subjective understanding of participant perceptions (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 23), I relied on participants’ responses to various open-ended interview questions and personal communications to arrive at a supported conclusion about how the coaching process affected them. Data were collected over the course of the semester in an attempt to answer the primary and secondary research questions about the preservice teachers’ perceptions with instructional coaching during their student teaching.

Significance of the Study

Instructional coaching has been shown to improve the transfer of instruction from

theory to practice with in-service teachers and promotes teacher success through higher student achievement (Bush, 1984; Cornett & Knight, 2009b; Darling-Hammond, 2014; Joyce & Showers, 1982; Showers, 1984a). However, instructional coaching with preservice teachers during student teaching has not been thoroughly studied though the principles of instructional coaching appear to greatly address many of the struggles that preservice teachers encounter. Although widely acknowledged as beneficial for teachers during professional development (Bandura & Schunk, 1981; Cornett & Knight, 2009a; Guskey, 1986; Knight, 2007, 2009a; Lockwood, McCombs, & Marsh, 2010; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004b; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990), little has been done to identify how instructional coaching might be of value to preservice teachers during student teaching. This case study was conducted to determine how four preservice teachers perceive instructional coaching during their student teaching placements.

This study has extended the research on instructional coaching by integrating Knight's (2007, 2009b) instructional coaching model into a preservice teacher education program. Additionally, the study included secondary, general education students (i.e., not special education or other specialty) with student teaching placements in traditional, large, middle and high schools.

This study is significant because it added to the body of research related to teacher preparation and the implementation of instructional coaching. The principles of Knight's (2007, 2009b) instructional coaching are beneficial to preservice teachers during their semester of student teaching where they often struggle to socialize into a new educational environment and juggle the rigors of teaching. It is in this domain that an instructional

coach has shown benefit.

Research Questions

The following questions were used to seek a fuller understanding of the perceptions and of instructional coaching by preservice teachers during student teaching.

Primary Question

How do preservice teachers perceive their experiences of instructional coaching during their semester of student teaching?

Secondary Research Question 1

What aspects of Knight's (2007, 2009b) instructional coaching are most valued by preservice teachers during student teaching?

Secondary Research Question 2

What do preservice teachers think would improve instructional coaching during student teaching?

Definition of Key Terms

The following terms will be used throughout this study. Their context and particular definitions as they relate are described herein.

Coaching and/or Instructional –The process in which a trained professional acts as an instructional coach by employing specific supportive measures with a teacher.

Coach and/or Instructional Coach – The individual who employs the instructional

coaching techniques while working with a teacher.

Mentor or cooperating teacher – Terms are sometime used interchangeably.

“Mentor” is preferred in this study. A mentor is typically a district or charter school teacher who is paired with the preservice teacher during student teaching.

Partnership Principles – Knight’s (2007, 2009b) Partnership Principles indicate the variety of interactions that an instructional coach may have with a teacher. They consist of seven elements:

1. Equality: the nature of the collaboration between the instructional coach and the teacher as equals wherein the instructional coach seeks to listen and understand and not persuade.
2. Choice: The instructional coach does not make choices for the teacher rather the teacher’s decisions are paramount whenever possible.
3. Voice: Teacher’s voice should be empowered to express their point of view. The instructional coach should endeavor to assist the teacher in finding that voice and not to persuade them to think in a particular way.
4. Dialogue: The goal is to assist the teacher in making contextually appropriate decisions and not to control the decisions or behavior of the teacher. To do this the instructional coach and the teacher engage in dialogue that works toward that goal.
5. Reflection: Through the process of collaboration the instructional coach encourages and guides the teacher to reflect on past work and use those experiences to inform current decisions.
6. Praxis: Teachers have full authority to enact upon and implement their decisions as they deem appropriate.
7. Reciprocity: The partnership should be one that is mutually beneficial to both the instructional coach and the teacher.

Preservice teacher – A student in a professional teacher education program working toward certification or licensure in teaching.

Professional teacher education program (PTEP) – A formalized program, usually

in a college setting in which students study a variety of aspects of education in the goal of obtaining state or local teacher certification.

Readiness – A personal understanding that one is “ready” to enter the classroom and assume the role of teaching without significant reservations or concerns.

Self-Efficacy – “People’s beliefs about their capabilities to produce effects” (Bandura, 1994, p. 2).

Student teaching and Clinical Practice – These terms are sometimes used interchangeably to refer to the semester in which preservice teachers work daily in an assigned classroom of P-12 students as a culminating experience of their PTEP. For the purpose of this study, the term will be defined as the “placement of a teacher education student in an advanced stage of preparation or a period of guided teaching in a school setting during which the student assumed increasing responsibility for directing the learning of a group or groups of students over a period of time” (Utah State Legislature, n.d.). Some programs refer to this as clinical practice, but this term will not be used unless taken directly from the literature.

Scope and Limitations of the Study

The scope of this qualitative case study included a small group of four preservice teachers (Demarrais, 2004) of secondary education students in a preservice teacher education preparation program during their student teaching in the final semester of the program. The focus was to develop a deeper understanding of how preservice teachers talked about and perceived the process of instructional coaching during student teaching.

This study did not seek to evaluate or quantify the quality of the teachers' instructional abilities.

The principles of instructional coaching are typically transferrable, but the unique context and setting of this study may prevent direct duplication in another PTEP. Many aspects of this study are replicable as the professional teacher education program is regionally and nationally accredited which requires specific program elements that other programs would also be required to meet creating parity. The college is part of a nationally and regionally accredited liberal arts state university with a student population of approximately 9,500. Institutions of comparable location and size may find this study transferrable though not generalizable due to the unique factors of this study (Lincoln & Guba, 2009). For this reason, the findings may be transferable to other programs only if the participants and their student teaching programs and placements are similar, in that they are placed in similar schools, with individual mentors and are additionally paired with a trained instructional coach.

This case study included a small group of four secondary education preservice teachers who may not be entirely representational of a larger population of preservice teachers in other settings and programs. The unique personalities of the preservice teachers, the instructional coach, the schools, students and mentors created a unique experience for all involved.

My professional relationship with participants, was built over the course of a few semesters prior to the study facilitated identification and enlistment into my study. Trust must be built at the outset of the coaching relationship, and this was established prior to

the beginning of the study. Had that positive professional relationship not already existed, necessary time would have been required to establish it.

Theoretical Framework

A constructivist approach was used to conduct this study, and specifically social constructivism framed by the work of Bandura (1977) and Vygotsky (1978). As Bandura asserted (1977, 1994), sources of accomplishment rely on experiences of the learner often in social contexts. Similarly, Vygotsky proposed that knowledge and learning are generated through social interactions. In this study, opportunities to discuss participant perceptions were structured in a way that lead preservice teachers through discussions that permitted the four preservice teachers to elaborate on their student teaching experiences and how instructional coaching affected those experiences. This approach allowed preservice teachers to generate their own, context-bound learning in cooperation with the researcher.

Chapter Structure

This dissertation contains five chapters. Each will begin with a brief introduction, and each will culminate with a brief summary of the information discussed. The nature of each chapter is distinct but will all relate to the primary and secondary research questions related to how preservice teachers experienced instructional coaching during student teaching, what elements of instructional coaching were valuable to my participants and what recommendations they had to improve that coaching. It is through the individual

discussions that I add to the body of knowledge related to effective teacher preparation.

In this chapter I have presented an overview of the tradition of teacher preparation and Knight's (2007, 2009b) instructional coaching model and its related Partnership Principles. I also provided the key terms necessary to contextualize this study and identified my particular application of those terms.

Chapters Summary

In the first chapter of this dissertation, I describe the progression of this study from the history of teacher preparation programs, the importance of student teaching and the benefits of instructional coaching and my personal rationale for undertaking this study. I also included my primary and secondary research questions and my rationale for them.

Chapter II presents a comprehensive discussion of the history and factors related to teacher preparation throughout the twentieth and twenty-first centuries in the U.S. Within that presentation, I include political efforts at reform and efforts of program accreditation to address presumed issues. Within Chapter II, I also present my conceptual framework that illustrates the connection between teacher socialization, professional teacher education preparation programs, student teaching and the connection to instructional coaching. In this chapter I establish the full context for this study.

Chapter III details the case study methodology that I used to design this particular study investigating the perceptions of my four participants. To document this investigation, I used open ended survey questions, interview transcripts, emails, field

notes, memos and participant journey maps. The study culminated in an open group interview and the inclusion of illustrated journey maps in which each participant revisited their experiences of student teaching with me as their instructional coach. To evaluate the data, I utilized both deductive and inductive thematic analysis to arrive at the findings that I present in Chapter IV.

Chapter IV presents the findings of my study by first discussing the process that I used to uncover the emergent themes related to my primary and secondary research questions. The data present how I arrived at the answers to each of my research questions. The answers to these questions detail how my participants uniquely experienced instructional coaching, what elements of the coaching they found valuable and what they believed would improve that coaching in a student teaching setting.

Chapter V includes a discussion on the significance of the answers to my research questions and the implications of those findings on critical stakeholders such as educational leaders, policy makers, professional teacher education programs, instructional coaches and student teachers. The chapter concludes with recommendations for further research on instructional coaching as a part of a teacher preparation program.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

A literature review in a qualitative study functions as a framework and context for the study to be completed. It also provides a framework for data analysis and data interpretation. In this chapter I explore the complex history of teacher preparation and certification in the U.S. and highlight the many factors related to the teaching profession, such as socialization, teacher performance, reform and best practice. Additionally, I will discuss the current state of PTEPs, their challenges and strengths, teacher self-efficacy, and the value of, and suggested changes to, student teaching by the introduction of Knight's (2007, 2009b) instructional coaching and related Partnership Principles. I present this all through constructivist frameworks of Vygotsky and Bandura that embraced the social nature of learning and mutually created knowledge. This theoretical framework is being expanded to include real-world instructional practice and instructional coaching with preservice teachers.

My study is built of the intersection of two primary constructs, (1) the complicated history of teacher preparation in the U.S., and (2) the potential benefits of instructional coaching with preservice teachers. My primary focus of this study is to determine how instructional coaching was perceived by preservice teachers in a PTEP during their semester of student teaching.

My conceptual framework (Figure 1) represents the connection of topics leading

to the purpose of this study. The chapter begins with the complicated history of teacher preparation in the U.S. and how it affects teacher socialization and leads to Professional Teacher Education Preparation Programs and program accreditation. The chapter also discusses the value and struggles of PTEPs, the process of student teaching, as well as the value of mentors and instructional coaches. The intention of this literature review is to draw a line through the history of teacher preparation to the potential value of instructional coaching on preservice teachers during student teaching.

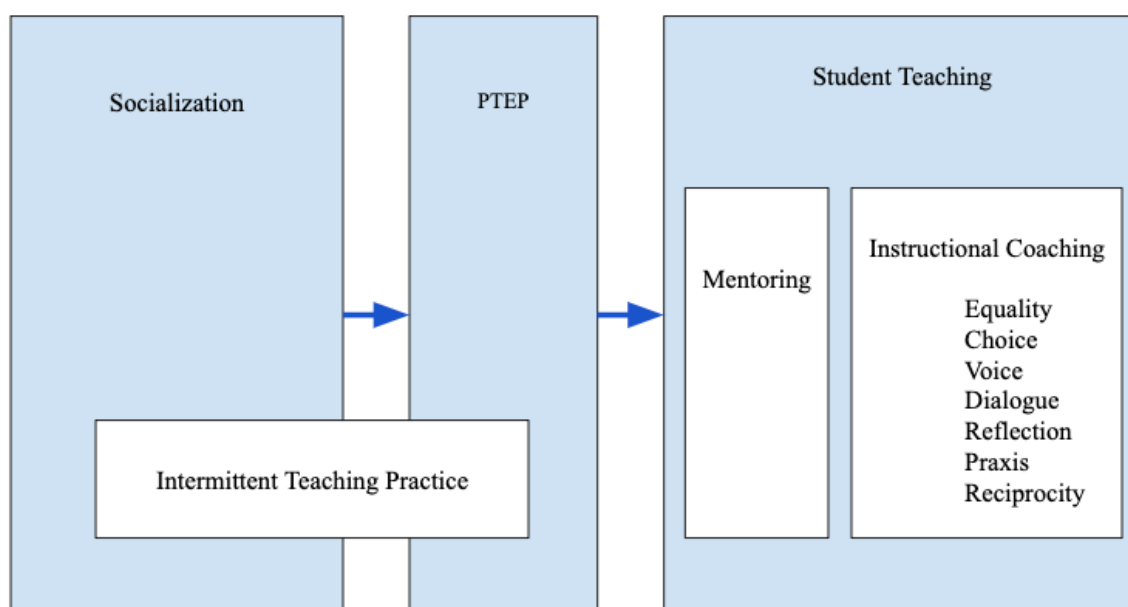


Figure 1. Study conceptual framework.

A Brief History of Teacher Certification in the U.S.

To better understand the relevance of instructional coaching in teacher preparation, one must first understand the history of teacher preparation in the U.S. and how over the course of that history we have developed the varied avenues of teacher preparation we see today. Currently, traditional university-based professional PTEPs are

experiencing intense scrutiny, and in many cases criticism, regarding the perceived quality and value of those programs in regards to the training of new teachers (Hartocollis, 2005; Russell & Wineburg, 2007; Walsh, 2013; Zeichner, 2006, 2016). This criticism spans from low admission standards, to whether any value is added by the preparation program and how the various preparation programs may influence the sense of self-efficacy by teachers and the dismal teacher retention rates we are seeing in many areas of the nation today. As a result, PTEPs find themselves in a battle to prove their worth and retain their place in the education pipeline and struggle to implement current research into their programs.

It would be difficult to assess the current state of teacher preparation and certification in the U.S. without first outlining how the current developments began long ago and how that timeline influences the practices of today. The teacher preparation debate is typically framed by the questions of who should determine whether an individual is qualified to teach and who should oversee (e.g., license) those individuals. Angus (2001) discussed this “locus of control” (p. 1) in his attempt to answer the questions of “How did America fall into the belief that state governments should “certify” teachers for our public schools? And when and why did the practice start?” (p. iii).

In the late 19th century, a shift occurred in which teacher certification was overseen by the states with New York, Rhode Island, and the territory of Arizona determining that teachers must be certified by state officials (Angus, 2001). Prior to that, teachers were often young women hired by a community to instruct the children as they

saw fit. Sometimes this was through an interview process with local clergy to prove moral character (Angus, 2001; Ravitch, 2003). As certification became the domain of the states, the primary means of gaining approval to teach was via local proficiency tests and a classical liberal arts degree (Angus, 2001; Ravitch, 2003; Zeichner & Liston, 1990). Pedagogy, as a course of study, was not yet common practice.

Over the course of ensuing years, teacher preparation programs became more common and “state control of teacher certification proceeded rapidly in the first third of the twentieth century” (Angus, 2001, p. 12). Over time, performance standards were locally developed, proficiencies defined, and programs developed. Yet, the nation, as a whole, still did not have a unified understanding or set of standards by which all teachers and preparation programs were judged (Darling-Hammond, 2010a; Hess, 2005). Some Western states ran “normal schools” as teacher preparation programs were called, borrowing the term from the French tradition of *ecole normale*. These Western programs were typically larger teacher preparation programs as compared to Eastern programs which often consisted of shorter methods courses in state normal schools or programs operated by larger school districts (Angus, 2001; Ravitch, 2003). At the close of the nineteenth century, “Teacher certification...was irregular and diverse” (Ravitch, 2003, p. 1). This irregular and diverse system in many ways endures today.

Teacher preparation programs underwent substantial changes throughout the twentieth century. Early in that era, exams were the primary means of determining professional competence, yet by the middle of the century exams were mostly supplanted by completion of undergraduate preparation programs only to revert to exams again by

the end of the century (Angus, 2001). Also, university programs that had departments of pedagogy began to transform those departments into full undergraduate teacher preparation programs as the push for professionalism by educational researchers and faculty gained momentum.

As teacher preparation programs gained power over certification, the push for professionalism also gained power. However, because rural schools struggled to find enough teachers, and combined with a belief that good teachers were born and not made, teacher institutes were opened to provide “a modicum of training to sharpen and refine their natural abilities” (Angus, 2001, p. 7). These institutes were “despised” (Angus, 2001, p. 7) by professional educators who were trying to elevate teaching into the professional ranks such as law and medicine. A primary criticism at the time, voiced by Abraham Flexner (1930), “which has been raised repeatedly by advocates of the academic tradition ever since” (Zeichner, 1993, p. 2) was that subject matter was the most important thing and only an apprenticeship in a school was needed beyond a liberal arts degree.

A central criticism of teacher education programs of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries was that there was no central body of knowledge that clearly identified the elements of quality teaching. Flexner (1930) was a forceful voice in this respect accusing the profession of intellectual superficiality and insignificant scholarship. Others, (Dow, 1999; Hartocollis, 2005; Levine, 2006; Ravitch, 2003; K. M. Zeichner & Liston, 1990; Zeichner, 1993; Zeichner, Miller, & Silvernail, 2000) have also noted the lack of a corpus of learning on which to base a preparation program. Throughout this time, advocates for

the professionalization of teaching have asserted that common standards for pedagogy and content knowledge are needed. They have also asserted that national accreditation is important to teacher education (Zeichner, 2006). These voices have been equally challenged by those who believe that deregulation of teaching and pushing alternative routes to the profession that may *not* include a degree teacher preparation program would be best (Zeichner, 2006).

Accreditation

The advent of accreditation and program standards sought to address this wide variety of performance quality from institution to institution. Accrediting bodies are among those pushing a professionalization of teaching agenda much like the medical and legal fields, and those pushing a deregulation agenda of local control directly oppose them (Zeichner, 2003). Accreditation for teacher education programs, as we are familiar with it today, emerged in the mid-20th century to address the vast variety of paths and varied qualities of teacher preparation programs extant in the nation. Ralph MacDonald, the then executive secretary of Teacher Education and Professional Standards (TEPS) in 1950, who was responsible for what it called the “professional standards movement” and whose goal was to control the entry of teachers into the profession referred to teacher preparation programs suffering from low standards as the cause for the “deterioration of teaching” (Angus, 2001, p. 23).

TEPS later evolved in various stages and iterations, and with influences by a number of bodies, into today’s Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation

(CAEP) by 2010. Though these organizations developed standards, “little research has been done to examine the kinds of learning experiences that help beginning teachers acquire the knowledge and skills that underlie learner-centered and learning-centered practice (Zeichner et al., 2000, p. v). This is important because the research is still lacking in regards to best preparation methods, and this is exacerbated by a movement of some states to move away from the requirement of national accreditation. Linda Darling-Hammond (2010a) stated,

Unlike most high-achieving nations, however, the U.S. has not yet developed a national system of supports and incentives to ensure that all teachers are well prepared and ready to teach all students effectively when they enter the profession. (p. 2)

“No one really likes accreditation, but no one knows what else to do,” stated Kevin Carey in 2015 of New America Foundation, a Washington D.C. policy think tank (Lederman, 2015, p. 1).

A system of accreditation, through approval by the Department of Education, is the closest the nation has come to a national system, yet states can independently decide whether to require national accreditation, regional accreditation, state approval, or none at all. Darling-Hammond (2010b) stated,

Unlike other professions, which manage reform through strong mandatory accreditation and licensing processes, professional accreditation of teacher education programs is not required. State approval processes are so weak that they almost never result in the closure of programs, no matter how poor, and they rarely drive improvement, (p. 38)

Because of this unevenness in programs some students enjoy rich and rigorous preparation programs and others do not. This, in turn, affects the quality of education that P-12 students experience.

Though there may be a lack of agreement about standards and accreditation, little is on the horizon to remedy it. U.S. Senator Lamar Alexander, current chair of the Senate Health, Education, Labor and Pensions Committee, has indicated that though the accreditation system is flawed, there does not seem to be a good alternative (Lederman, 2015). This type of uneven quality that affects accessibility to quality teacher preparation programs and have resulted in high-quality PTEPs being available only to the “lucky few” (Darling-Hammond, 2006, p. 312).

This lack of agreement regarding standards for teachers among the states, local education agencies, the federal government and other stakeholders, programs may be causing programs to be unfocused and lack effectiveness. As Zeichner and Gore (1990) stated “...the impact of preservice teacher education is diffused because of the segmentation that exists within teacher education programs and the mixed messages that are sent to students as a result” (p. 17).

However, there is little doubt that highly effective teachers have a greater impact on student learning. A meta-analysis by Borman and Dowling (2008) included the work of Hanushek (1992) and Sanders and Rivers (1996) work that indicate that a highly capable teacher can “translate into a full grade level of achievement in a single school year” (p. 368) and that effect can be seen two years later. They elaborate on this indicating that those effects can benefit the student as long as two years after that impactful school year. It is important that PTEPs have access to, and be willing to implement current research on effective preparation methods such as the impact of instructional coaching during preparation programs.

Professional Teacher Education Program Issues

There are a number of issues for which professional teacher education programs must accept some responsibility for the criticism they receive regarding their programs. Even with accreditation and state approval being earned, there is great latitude for programs to design themselves as they see fit. Some indicate that that there is little reason to believe that preparation programs substantially affect teacher effectiveness and that some programs may even perpetuate misconceptions of what good teaching is (Anderson & Stillman, 2013; Ashton & Crocker, 1987; Darling-Hammond, 2010b; Zeichner & Gore, 1990; Zeichner & Liston, 1990). Some allegations are downright scathing. Previous secretary of the Teacher Education and Professional Standards (TEPS), Ralph MacDonald, in 1950 stated that “the teacher education system of the U.S....is a hodgepodge of programs which are in the main a travesty upon professional education” which he based on “low standards of preparation and of admission to teaching” (Angus, 2001, p. 23).

The “hodgepodge” to which MacDonald was referring may be due to the then lack of research and an inability of educational leaders at all administrative levels to come to consensus of what high quality education should be (Darling-Hammond, 2010b). Each state is left to the system within it to navigate whatever legislative and political efforts are in action. There is no surprise, then, that this fragmentation has left a lack of uniformity in programs or even agreement of what programs should contain and will likely continue to degrade the overall education system dramatically (Darling-Hammond, 2010b).

Lack of Research

This fragmentation in programs could be a result of a void in the research on effective methods and programs. The shift from “common processes to common outcomes” (Levine, 2006, p. 17) which describes a shift in a program evaluation perspective from what students are taught and the methods used, to what students have learned has opened this gap between research and practice. This shift has been met with a lack of research that Bullough et al. (2002) referred to as a “dearth of research” (p. 68). At times this void has resulted in condemnation rather than using that reality as an opportunity to seek new understandings of how to meet the needs of preservice teachers with the new assessments in mind. In other words, rather than focusing on teacher preparation, curriculum design, instructional methods, and the like, the focus is on student performance as indicated on a few high-stakes measures. Poor performance by students on those assessments is often used to indicate poor teaching when there may be a disconnect between the two (i.e., instruction and student performance) that is unidentified. At times, that lack of research on effective methods and programs is being used to criticize preparation programs themselves. Levine (2006) states,

Unfortunately, critics of university-based teacher education often treat the absence of research as a negative finding. That is, instead of concluding that we don’t yet know about the impact of university-based teacher education on student classroom achievement, they have acted as if the absence of research is the equivalent of finding that the university-based programs have at best no impact or may actually reduce student achievement. (p. 16)

It seems reasonable, then, that the focus should be on clearly identifying elements of preparation programs that have shown to have a clear benefit on preservice teachers

and thus on P-12 students such as instructional coaching, frequent classroom practice with P-12 students tied to pedagogical theory and more. Yet, this research has not been fully embraced and implemented in a systematic way into PTEPs (Darling-Hammond, 2010b; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004a; Walsh, 2013; Woolfolk Hoy, 2000). The majority of research on teaching methods in practice in most programs was conducted during the era of common processes, which creates a disconnect between preparation and performance measures (Levine, 2006). By neglecting this, programs may be including elements in their curricula that are outdated rather than investigating and implementing best practices.

The fragmentation of programs and lack of uniformity is a primary problem that results in mixed messages being sent to preservice teachers of what quality teaching is and how to achieve it. A lack of clear standards and uniform implementation for PTEPs have created something of a vacuum that can inadvertently reinforce personal perspectives and biases that preservice teachers bring with them into a program that they have accumulated through their own socialization into education rather than generating the intended conceptual changes toward quality teaching as intended and expected (Zeichner & Gore, 1990). Zeichner and Gore also relate Crow's 1988 longitudinal case study that followed two teachers and found that even after 3 years of inservice teaching, the identities that resulted from the many years of teachers' socialization were still a driving force in their practices despite the preparation programs they completed. The power of socialization in teacher preparation is a unique influence that most other professions do not experience, and one that PTEPs must contend with.

Socialization and Social Constructivism of Preservice Teachers

Socialization of teachers, as defined by Danziger (1971), is the process of an individual becoming a member of the teaching profession (Zeichner & Gore, 1990). Socialization occurs largely unconsciously during the many years of close contact with a variety of teachers in a variety of contexts that begins “early in childhood and continues throughout life (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990, p. 284). This is a differentiating factor from other professions such as law and medicine wherein most individuals are not socialized into their profession from a young age. Lortie (1975) referred to this time as an “apprentice of observation.” This process takes place over the many years that students spend in close proximity to their teachers. They absorb the methods without knowing the inner motivations of teachers as they are not privy to the strategic decisions that teachers make on a daily basis. As such, socialization creates an incomplete model of teaching, one that the student assembles based on their own observations and preferences and dislikes. Zeichner and Gore (1990) related the finding of many others (see, Britzman, 1986; Bullough, 1989; Connell, 1985; Crow, 1987; Ginsburg & Newman, 1985; Knowles, 1988; Ross, 1987) that found that teacher education programs often fail to instill best practice and may inadvertently reinforce what the preservice teachers bring with them into the program because confronting and changing those preconceived beliefs is difficult and requires extensive instruction and authentic practice.

Professions like medicine and law, typically, have the opportunity to begin instilling their core practices and values from the first day of their respective programs. Teacher preparation programs, rather, must compete with the experiences that students

bring with them from their many years of their own education. This teacher socialization is explained through the concept of social constructionism as described by Burr (2003). She states that social constructionism is “our taken-for-granted ways of understanding the world and ourselves” (p. 2). Social constructionism indicates learners are constantly attempting to frame the new instruction within the frame of learning they’re already constructed thorough interaction with others (Burr, 2003; Gergen, 1985; Vygotsky, 1978). Burr, citing Botella (1995) and Burr and Butt (2000) in her discussion of similarities and differences of constructionism and constructivism states, “given the obvious points of agreement between constructivism and social constructionism, some writers have tried to bring them together in a synthesis. Thus, including Vygotsky’s (1978) concept of social constructivism applies in this usage. Vygotsky articulated the process of social constructivism as:

Every function in the child’s cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological). This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals. (p. 57)

Because of the power of this socially constructed knowledge, preservice teachers in training are likely to place credence on the methods “that reinforce the perspectives and dispositions that they bring to the program even when these interpretations involve a distortion of the intentions of teacher educators” from which they received them (Kagan, 1992; Zeichner & Gore, 1990, p. 17).

At issue here is the struggle for PTEPs to truly affect the mindset and skills of preservice teachers. Fragmented and unfocused programs, may include numerous courses

and practical hours in classrooms with students, but may not be aligned to program goals or certain pedagogical concepts or skills nor reinforced with sufficient practice. Linda Darling-Hammond (2014) expands on this by offering a contrast to this fragmentation; “coursework in highly successful programs is carefully sequenced, based on a strong theory of learning to teach; courses are designed to intersect with each other and are aggregated into a well-understood landscape of learning; and they are tightly interwoven with the advisement process and students’ work in schools” (p. 550). Without such structure and coherence, students are left to their own devices, or to assemble together an assortment of strategies and beliefs that fit within their existing ways of thinking. Socialization and appropriation are critical for preservice teachers to enjoy success in the classroom, but often, models to emulate are lacking (Bandura, 1977; Lortie, 1975; Woolfolk Hoy, 2000).

Woolfolk Hoy (2000) stated, “Socialization to professional norms and values continues during college preparation, an environment that stresses ideal images and practices” (p. 4) these ideal images can come in conflict with personal beliefs, and are compounded by a lack of practice, resulting in an incomplete preparation. Preservice teachers may believe that their experiences as students themselves are positive models for instruction whether they were or were not. This preconceived mindset has been inadequately challenged and replaced with what has been shown to be truly effective. Hoy and Woolfolk (1990) found in their study on teacher socialization and sense of control in the classroom that,

The process of socialization within the school seems important in reshaping the control perspectives of these neophytes as they are confronted with the harsh

realities of teaching. The ideal images of college preparation apparently give way to the instrumental necessities of maintaining order and running a smoothly functioning classroom. (p. 294)

These pre-learned norms have a strong bearing on teacher behavior. It is in this space of teacher preparation that instructional coaching offers utility by establishing a framework of performance and practice in a safe and supportive environment that helps to instill best practices and develop self-efficacy in a new teacher (Anderson & Stillman, 2013; Bandura, 1994; Guskey, 1988; Knight & Cornett, 2009).

Attrition and Induction

It is not difficult to see why extensive induction programs and “bridge” (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004a) programs are needed to fill in the gaps left from preparation. These programs, are in part, intended to ease the transition into a full-time teaching position which in turn helps to address the dramatic attrition rates. Approximately 50% of new teachers leave the profession by their fifth year (Graziano, 2005; Ronfeldt & McQueen, 2017; Utah State Board of Education, 2017). Bandura (1994) indicates that failure undermines self-efficacy and that cumulative failures will prompt one to quit. In her editorial, Graziano refers to the first years as one that is one of “relative isolation,” “frazzling” and consisting of “impossible expectations” (p. 1). Many are underprepared to meet these difficult experiences because of the many surprises that meet new teachers, situations and circumstances for which they had previously not encountered in their preparation programs and are now left to navigate often on their own.

The power of these induction programs is significant, and they warrant a closer

look when discussing professional teacher education preparation. Smith and Ingersoll (2004b) found that good mentoring can cut attrition rates of first year teachers by half, and those without an induction program were twice as likely to leave after one year on the job (2005). Walsh (2013) stated that new teachers are asked to carry “quite a heavy burden” (p. 22) in regards to filling in the gaps between their teacher preparation program and the realities of teaching. Borman and Dowling (2008) concurred that mentoring and induction programs may help lower attrition rates by providing new teachers with the supportive networks and mentoring that help them to gain the necessary skills to succeed in the classroom.

Professional Teacher Education Program Solutions

Professional teacher education programs have the opportunity to truly prepare new teachers for the reality of teaching in the U.S. Some substantial improvements and re-alignments of instruction and practice could go a long way to prepare teachers for today’s classrooms (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005). It is widely accepted that well-prepared teachers have a greater effect on student achievement than poorly-trained teachers (Marzano, 2003; Pajares, 1996; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001; Yilmaz, 2011). Additionally, new teachers with effective mentors and a quality induction program are more likely to stay in the profession (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Darling-Hammond, 2003, 2010b; Ronfeldt & McQueen, 2017). This would indicate that support in the early years is critical. Smith and Ingersoll (2004b) report on the importance of “bridge” (p. 683) induction programs that include such elements as mentoring,

collaborations, workshops and more.

To achieve the necessary quality, genuine program reforms must include high-quality instruction that blends comprehensive theoretical instruction with well-designed practical instruction (Darling-Hammond, 2010b; Fernandez, 2005). “Learning to practice *in practice*, with expert guidance, is essential to becoming a great teacher of students with a wide range of needs” (Darling-Hammond, 2010b, p. 40). Over-reliance on theoretical premises and hypothetical student scenarios are insufficient to genuinely prepare new teachers. Field experiences that properly connect the theory with actual students would reduce the scattered nature of instruction common among many preparation programs (Fernandez, 2005).

Table 1 presents a representative selection of empirical studies that focus on the complicated dynamics of mentoring, student teaching, coaching and self-efficacy. Each, through their unique studies, found that various supports and conditions during student teaching or induction programs had significant benefits on preservice or new teachers.

Practice During Student Teaching

The bridge between the two stages of teaching, preservice and inservice, must be a well-designed transition with supported, integrated authentic practice for preservice teachers in training to gain the real-world experience they need. Just adding a “dollop” (Darling-Hammond, 2010b, p. 61) of experience during student teaching is insufficient. Many see this experience as sink-or-swim or trial by fire (Darling-Hammond, 2010b; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004b; Walsh, 2013; Woolfolk Hoy, 2000). It is unfortunate and

Table 1

Empirical Studies

Publication date, author(s)	Location, year, sample N, participant type	Study type	Focus of study or study title	General findings
(1982) Showers	Oregon, $N = 17$, middle school teachers	Mixed Method	Effects of inservice coaching on teachers' transfer of training.	"Results strongly supported the power of coaching for facilitating teacher transfer of training" (p. 4)
(1984) Bush	California, 80 schools, 20 districts.	Five year longitudinal	Effect of Peer Coaching on the implementation of new teaching skills	Peer coaching resulted in 95% of coached teachers implementing new skills
(1990) Hoy & Woolfolk	Rutgers University, $N = 191$, liberal arts majors	Quantitative	Examines the influence of student teaching experience on three teacher perspectives-orientations toward control, social problem solving, and efficacy (p. 280)	Among other findings, preservice teachers experienced a decline in a sense of general teaching efficacy, but an increase in personal teaching efficacy.
(2002) Koerner, et al.	Chicago, IL, $N = 2$, Masters of Education Students,	Qualitative	Participants perspectives of "good" student teaching placements	Good cooperating teachers and supervisors are good mentors and role models
(2004b) Smith & Ingersoll	U.S., $N = 52,000$, elementary and secondary teachers	Quantitative	What are the effects of induction and mentoring on beginning teacher turnover?	Authors found that a mentor within the same field and common planning time were more effective in reducing turnover.
(2005) Aydin & Woolfolk Hoy	Eastern U.S., $N = 182$, teacher preparation preservice teachers	Quantitative - descriptive	What predicts student teacher self-efficacy?	"...prospective teachers with high teaching efficacy are more humanistic in their pupil control ideology than those with low teaching efficacy; however, the relationship exists only among prospective teachers who believe that they have the ability to make a difference in student achievement" (p. 88).

(table continues)

Publication date, author(s)	Location, year, sample N, participant type	Study type	Focus of study or study title	General findings
(2014) Moulding, Stewart, & Dunneyer	Western U.S., $N = 76$, Preservice Elementary Education students	Quantitative	Pre-service teachers' sense of efficacy: Relationship to academic ability, student teaching placement characteristics, and mentor support	Authors found that preservice teachers' perceptions of support had a moderate positive correlation to the survey scores.
(2016) Kilver	Midwest Illinois, USA, $N = 10$, elementary and secondary preservice teachers	Mixed methods	The impact of student teaching on the preservice teacher	Student teaching was viewed as a positive experience for preservice teachers and facilitated a gain in key teaching areas.
(2017) Ronfeldt & McQueen	U.S., $N = 2,340$ & 1,630, first year teachers	Quantitative	Does new teacher induction really improve retention?	Mentoring programs, beginning seminars, supportive communication from school leadership, and, to a lesser degree, collaboration / planning time appear to help retain teachers both in the profession and in specific schools.
(2017) Zhao & Zhang	China, $N = 98$, elementary preservice teachers	Mixed methods	The influence of field teaching practice on pre-service teachers' professional	Professional identity increased after student teaching. Mentor support at field school promoted the development of preservice teachers' professional identity.

avoidable. Without sufficient supported experience, the first year of teaching is daunting, and the attrition rates for new teachers who have not participated in a strong preparation program are much higher than for those who have (Darling-Hammond, 2007; Graziano, 2005). Those providing extended support during the student teaching experience can provide the necessary encouragement and feedback that can help new teachers appropriate and integrate the skills needed to become an effective teacher with a solid and beneficial sense of self-efficacy that ultimately affects teaching performance (Arsal, 2014; Bandura, 1994; Brown, Lee, & Collins, 2015; Dweck, 2015; Klassen & Tze, 2014; Knight, 2007; Lortie, 1975; Walsh, 2013).

The lack of authentic practice is a well-known issue, but its integration into preparation programs has been problematic (Darling-Hammond, 2010b; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004b; Walsh, 2013; Woolfolk Hoy, 2000). Levine (2006) reported that according to an alumni survey, more than three in five teacher education alumni did not feel adequately prepared for the classroom and primarily attributes that finding to a “retreat from practice and practitioners” (p. 31) indicating that a focus on theory rather than sufficient practice has had a negative effect on teacher preparation. For teachers to have the necessary skills to navigate the difficult situations they will encounter, they need first-hand experience (Brown et al., 2015; Darling-Hammond, 2010b; Dweck, 2015; Graziano, 2005). Knight (2007) likens this disconnect to teaching one to drive a car through lecture. Darling-Hammond (2010b) similarly stated, “It is impossible to teach recruits how to teach powerfully by asking them to imagine what they have never seen...No amount of [disconnected] coursework can, by itself, counteract the powerful

experiential lessons that shape what teachers actually do” (p. 42). Authentic experiences, supported by an expert would afford the preservice teacher the opportunity to learn through their success and failures in a safe way that will help them to build on their successes and overcome their failures. Without such, they are likely to succumb to the failures as it erodes their self-efficacy and ultimately their effectiveness in the classroom (Bandura, 1994).

Supported practice, on the other hand, has the benefit of allowing preservice teachers to receive instruction, and then try to implement the learned instructional methods. With a follow-up opportunity to reflect and troubleshoot on that experience with a qualified expert, such as a trained instructional coach, a fuller learning experience may be gained.

A teaching practice cycle that includes a number of experiences that Bandura (1977, 1994) describes as critical for developing self-efficacy are important during teacher preparation. He stated, “behavior is related to its outcomes at the level of aggregate consequences rather than momentary effects” (1977, p. 192). In other words, it takes multiple opportunities to practice various teaching components to truly master them. What we see then, is that the failure of a particular skill being attempted by a preservice teacher is not automatically seen as poor implementation, but possibly as an anomaly or something for which to blame on the students. There is a disconnect between the failure and the true cause of that failure because that skill was never mastered in the first place. Vagi, Pivovarova, and Miedel Barnd (2019) similarly found benefit in students participating in year-long placements, providing them with extended

opportunities to interact with students and learn on the job, allowed them to enter their first year of teaching with a full year of experience.

Teachers who have a strong sense of efficacy are less likely to be critical of students who have made an error. Over time, if the failures mount and hopelessness ensue, and the new teacher is likely to leave the profession. Bandura (1994) asserted that cumulative successes would inspire further attempts, but cumulative failure would result in quitting.

These concerns as related to professional teacher education programs are real, and yet they can be overcome. Common among these issues is a lack of program cohesion, support and practical application. Real practice, tied to a well-designed program in alignment to common standards is absolutely critical. Implementation of instructional coaching, with authentic practice may inspire success and properly prepare new teachers for the rigors of the classroom.

Self-Efficacy and Teacher Effectiveness

They are able who think they are able. (Virgil)

A person who doubts himself...makes his failure certain by himself being the first person to be convinced of it. (Alexandre Dumas)

Believing that one can accomplish the task at hand is perhaps most important for teachers. Klassen, Tze, Betts, & Gordon (2011) found an increase in the numbers of studies related to the impact of self-efficacy and teacher effectiveness. Pajares (1996) reported that “The connection between self-efficacy and academic performance and achievement has by now been reasonably secured” (p. 563). Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk

Hoy, and Hoy (1998) considered this body of research “on the verge of maturity” (p. 202). Additionally, Henson (2002) reported that teacher efficacy is ready to move beyond the adolescent angst it has been subject to over the last few years (p. 148). Yet, Klassen et al. (2011) indicated that the literature contains “gaps” (p. 39) and recommended further research on how self-efficacy is related to professional teacher education programs.

Personal efficacy as a teacher is at the core of teacher effectiveness. A teacher’s efficacy is their belief or level of confidence that they are able to cause certain desirable outcomes in their students (Henson, 2001). Students and teachers are willing to engage in tasks in which they feel confident, and avoid tasks they believe may result in failure (Pajares, 1996, 2002). Teaching is a complex and difficult undertaking, and those with a higher sense of self-efficacy have been found to be rated higher on performance evaluations and see greater student achievement (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990; Klassen & Tze, 2014; Zimmerman, 2000). Allinder (1994) found that “personal efficacy” (p. 92) was significantly related to many positive teacher traits such as a willingness to experiment with a variety of teaching methods, an organized demeanor and confidence and enthusiasm about teaching.

Bandura (1977, 1993, 1994) asserted that self-efficacy is developed primarily via four means: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and physiological states. Each of these directly or indirectly relates to preservice teachers experience during their training. Bandura (1994) describes physiological states as “stress reactions” and “negative emotional proclivities and misrepresentations” (p. 73). Of the four means, physiological states are often not directly addressed in the typical teacher

preparation program, however, these states are often experienced by novice teachers and should, perhaps, be addressed more directly (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010). The other three means, mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, and social persuasion are embedded in the typical teacher preparation program in which instructional coaching has the potential to reinforce these experiences.

Many PTEPs rely heavily on social (i.e., verbal) persuasion because of its traditional nature and ease of use through verbal encouragement. However, as an agent of change, social persuasion is a weak instructor because it lacks authenticity and personal experience (Arsal, 2014; Bandura, 1994; Zimmerman, 2000). Bandura (1977) states, “Efficacy expectations induced in this manner (i.e., verbal persuasion) are also likely to be weaker than those arising from one’s own accomplishments because they do not provide an authentic experiential base for them” (p. 198). Describing and elaborating is really nothing more than taking students on an imaginative journey, and when the idealized characters from their imaginations do not align with the characters in real life, a cognitive dissonance ensues leaving the teacher in a stressful and precarious situation of how to proceed (Pajares, 2002; Woolfolk Hoy, 2000). As a method for inspiring conceptual change verbal persuasion is weak, and in all likelihood it does more to affirm preservice teachers’ preconceived notions than transfer the new knowledge into practice because of the nature of socialization and the difficulty in altering the hard-set biases and preferences developed over the many years of education (Guskey, 1986; Loyens, Jones, Mikkers, & van Gog, 2015; Zeichner & Gore, 1990).

Self-efficacy changes with experiences, and more quality experiences afford the

preservice teacher with sufficient means and methods from which to draw upon.

Behavior changes through aggregate experiences (Bandura, 1977; Baum, 1973), thus it will require a series of events to effect the change in teaching practice defaults that preservice teachers may possess. The challenge is to arrange these experiences and maintain the rigor of them without letting the experiences themselves becoming demoralizing and debilitating (Bandura, 1994; Pajares, 2002).

Guskey (1988), when studying the relationship between teacher perceptions and attitudes toward new instructional practices implementation, found that teachers who already believed that they had the ability to affect their students' learning were more likely to implement a new strategy, and those who had perceived themselves to be less effective were less likely to be receptive to the new instructional method. Teachers who have participated and succeeded in high-quality training are likely to feel *more* efficacious and will thus perform better in the classroom and those that do not, will likely not. Bandura (1977) states, "Efficacy expectations determine how much effort people will expend and how long they will persist in the face of obstacles and aversive experiences" (p. 194). Instructional coaching has the potential to affect a practicing teacher's self-efficacy by supporting preservice teachers through mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, as well as social persuasion.

Mentoring and Coaching

Mentoring

The terms mentor, cooperating teacher, and coach are sometimes used

interchangeably to describe the individual with whom a student teacher is placed during student teaching. Aydin and Woolfolk Hoy (2005) developed a 22-question survey related to mentor/mentee relationships that sought information such as how mentors handled struggles and frustration, classroom management and more. Their mentor definition specifically related to the in-school classroom teacher assigned to be the primary point of contact for the student teacher. The Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) is a widely used measure of self-efficacy, and Moulding et al. (2014) for the purposes of their study, considered the roles of mentors and cooperating teacher to be the same as the one who offers in-school support during student teaching. Similarly, Smith and Ingersoll (2004b) define mentoring as "the personal guidance provided, usually by seasoned veterans, to beginning teachers in schools" (p. 683). Koerner et al. (2002) extended the understanding of the role of cooperating teachers as role models and indicated that this understanding was "axiomatic" (p. 55). Yet, the participants in their study initially saw the cooperating teachers' role as one who makes the classroom available and works with the student teacher in a collegial manner. Common among these definitions are a point of contact and implied support. However, the term "coach" extends this understanding of a mentor by adding unique roles that the typical mentor does not fill.

Coaching Research

Research (Bush, 1984; Cornett & Knight, 2009b; Darling-Hammond, 2014; Joyce & Showers, 1982; Showers, 1984a) has shown that a variety of coaching and mentoring methods can be a powerful, even critical component in the transfer of skill from

instruction to consistent implementation in teaching practice. Though the disconnect between traditional instruction in preservice teacher programs and the implementation into actual teaching practice is well understood (Wood & Turner, 2015; Zeichner, 2010), bridging that disconnect remains problematic.

Vygotsky's (1978) model for the Zone of Proximal Development is an appropriate model when discussing the transfer of new information via instructional coaching. He asserted that learning happens in the space between the student's current stage of ability and where the student can accomplish a new task with assistance. This is similar in concept and practice to Bandura's (1977) four sources of accomplishments: (1) mastery experiences, (2) vicarious experiences, (3) verbal persuasion, and (4) physiological states. Each, in part, describes the instructional coaching practice. Instructional coaching consists of relationship building, dialogue, modeling, observations and practice. In one or more ways, each addresses Bandura's four sources of accomplishments by providing the arena for preservice teachers to learn and practice in a supportive environment through individual experiences, vicarious experiences, as well as social encouragement.

Fernandez (2005) agrees that the necessary teacher socialization into the profession is accomplished through "field-based experiences and personal observations of practice..." (p. 37). Aarsal (2014) studied a micro-teaching protocol developed by Stanford University in the 1960's which included the following teaching phases: plan, teach, observe/critique, re-plan, re-teach, and re-observe. This process is conducted with the assistance of an instructor. Both Aarsal and Fernandez found significant progress in

terms of self-efficacy compared to a control group who did not participate in the micro-teaching protocol. These are an example of a variation and implementation of Bandura's (1977) four sources of performance accomplishments. This is a real-life application of Vygotsky's (1978) Zone of Proximal Development and the transfer of skill from concreteness to abstractness and ultimately to a new concreteness. It is precisely this, the transfer of new instruction into reflective practice, that university professors wish to inspire but often fall short. The side-by-side nature of instructional coaching may facilitate this transfer.

The significance of the side-by-side nature of coaching is agreed upon by Darling-Hammond (2010a), Dweck (2015), and Guskey (1986). This dynamic is best seen through the concept of productive struggle. However, Bandura (1994) indicates that too much struggle may result in a complete abandonment of the endeavor, yet struggle that leads to mastery is productive in that it builds self-efficacy and ultimately greater effectiveness in the given task. This Pygmalion effect is demonstrated through successful coaching and is the essence of Vygotsky's (1978) Zone of Proximal Development. With assistance, one can learn and become what they could not have otherwise.

The following extends this review of the literature related to instructional coaching in general and specifically describes instructional coaching and the Partnership Principles of Jim Knight (2007, 2009b).

Instructional coaching. Instructional coaching during a professional teacher education program is an example of a full self-efficacy building experience. Knight and Cornett (2009) define instructional coaches as professionals who “are onsite professional

developers who work collaboratively with teachers, empowering them to incorporate research-based instructional methods into their classrooms” (p. 2). In a small study, Cynthia Emery (2019), an instructional coach with the Literacy Network of Kansas Striving Readers Grant, found instructional coaching to be a benefit to both the teachers she coached as well as enhanced her coaching skills. The flexible and individualized nature of instructional coaching helped to support the coached teachers as well as prompted Emery to rethink her coaching approaches when the intended results were not being achieved. She adapted her coaching to be more individualized and participant-specific. Additionally, she found that the quality of the coach/teacher relationship was very important. This coincides with Knight’s (2009b) instructional coaching model and supported by Morris (2019).

Instructional coaching goes beyond mentoring in a number of areas with mentoring being included as one of the core elements of coaching. Knight (2009b) identifies ten key roles of coaches indicating that some coaches will fill all the roles, and others may fulfill only a few (see Table 2).

Research indicates that there is great potential for instructional coaching to close the gap between instruction delivered in the classroom and the practice of new teachers. Joyce and Showers (1982) and Showers (1984b) discussed the practice of instructional coaching in comparison to coaching in athletics. The problem of transfer of skill in athletics and transfer of skill in education is similar. “The fact that the new skill may have been perfected in parts, and practiced thoroughly in simulated conditions, does not prevent the transfer problem” (Joyce & Showers, 1982, p. 8). This describes a common

Table 2

Coaching Roles (Knight, 2009a)

Coaching role	Role description
Data coach	Assists individual teachers or teams of teachers in examining student achievement data and the use of data in instructional design.
Resource provider	The coach may provide material support for items that or additional resources that may not be readily available to the individual teacher or team.
Mentor	Mentoring may include all ten roles or specialize in curriculum support, encouragement, instructional designer and more.
Curriculum specialist	As a curriculum specialist, the coach focuses their efforts on what is taught more than on teaching methods.
Instructional specialist	As an instructional specialist, the coach focuses on instructional methodologies.
Classroom supporter	The coach works within the classroom, side by side with the teacher focusing on co-planning, coteaching, observing, giving feedback and engaging in thoughtful conversation.
Learning facilitator	Similar in implementation to professional development the coach facilitates or organizes learning opportunities within the school.
School leader	Coaches frequently are positioned as leaders within the school to lead reform, advocate for school or district initiative or lead committee task forces and more.
Catalyst for change	As a catalyst for change, coaches may demonstrate dissatisfaction with the status quo through observation, presenting a new perspective and challenge current practice.
Learner	As a learner, the coach also participates in personal growth and professional learning to strengthen coaching practices.

practicum experience that lacks extended practice with real-life students. “Perhaps the most striking difference in training athletics and teachers is their initial assumptions. Athletes do not believe mastery will be achieved quickly or easily” (p. 8). It is common for athletes to routinely practice elements of their sports until mastery is achieved. This is not the case in many traditional teacher education preparation programs wherein some

elements of teaching may be practiced in limited settings, but extended, wholistic practice of a whole range of teaching elements is often not included.

Knight (2009a, 2009b), and Knight and Cornett (2009) approached this conundrum in a different way. They approached coaching and its potential by demonstrating the ineffectiveness of training in the typical professional development setting. Knight (2009a) states,

[The] growing interest in coaching is likely fueled by educators' recognition that traditional one-shot approaches to professional development — where teachers hear about practices but do not receive follow-up support — are ineffective at improving teaching practices. (p. 18)

This is consistent with others who assert that instruction that does not include sufficient, connected, hands-on practice with feedback has a very limited effect on preservice teachers' practice (Bandura, 1977; Bush, 1984; Darling-Hammond, 2010b; Fernandez, 2005; Guskey, 1986; Showers, 1984a; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004; Zeichner & Gore, 1990).

In order for the training to become a part of the teacher's repertoire they must have frequent opportunities to practice and implement the skill with guidance and frequent feedback by a trained and experienced coach. Knight (2009a) stated, "When coaching was added to the staff development, however, approximately 95% of the teachers implemented the new skills in their classrooms" (p. 20). Athletes, dancers, musicians, surgeons and many other professionals understand that mastery takes practice. Mastery experiences with the assistance of a coach should become a regular part of the normal teacher preparation program as well.

A meta-analysis by Kraft et al. (2017b) sought to determine the effect of instructional coaching on teacher instructional practice and student academic

achievement. Their study included 44 studies potential of coaching as “a development tool” (p. 1), and found “large positive effects on instruction and smaller positive effects on achievement” (p. 36). However, they also expressed concerns in implementing a coaching model in a larger scale and maintaining the quality and effectiveness. Large-scale studies achieved approximately half as large effects as small-scale studies.

Quintero (2019), reporting for the Brookings Institution, found that not all agree about the value of instructional coaching. According to Quintero, instructional coaching has had a benefit on teacher instruction, yet has had limited effect on student achievement. She states that there is “currently no standard model or definition of an instructional coach’s role or license requirement across programs or states.” But that there is consensus “across instructional coaching studies by Jim Knight and Sarah Galey that instructional coaches need to combine teaching and content expertise with strong interpersonal and organizational abilities as coaches attempt to improve teachers’ practice while navigating complex relationships between policy mandates, school administrators, and wary teachers.” Galey (2016), when discussing the evolving role of instructional coaching in the U.S. related that instructional coaches operate best when the roles of the coach are well defined and “have professional and institutional support” (p. 64). This implies that a lack of role clarity can potentially thwart the coaching.

Ultimately, she concludes that “instructional coaching is more effective than the traditional ‘workshop’ PD model in improving instructional practice,” and “instructional coaching can play an important role” in helping teachers become more effective in the classroom.

Partnership approach. Knight (2007, 2009b) describes instructional coaching as a partnership between coaches and teachers. This approach is based on extensive research in the fields of adult education, cultural anthropology, leadership, organizational theory, and epistemology as well as two validated professional development studies conducted by Knight (2009).

Knight's (2007, 2009b) Partnership Principles consist of seven elements: (1) Equality: the nature of the collaboration between the instructional coach and the teacher as equals wherein the instructional coach seeks to listen and understand and not persuade. (2) Choice: The instructional coach does not make choices for the teacher, rather the teacher's decisions are paramount whenever possible. (3) Voice: Teacher's voice should be empowered to express their point of view. The instructional coach should endeavor to assist the teacher in finding that voice and not to persuade them to think in a particular way. (4) Dialogue: The goal is to assist the teacher in making contextually appropriate decisions and not to control the decisions or behavior of the teacher. To do this the instructional coach and the teacher engage in dialogue that works toward that goal. (5) Reflection: Through the process of collaboration the instructional coach encourages and guides the teacher to reflect on past work and use those experiences to inform current decisions. (6) Praxis: Teachers have full authority to enact upon and implement their decisions in their classrooms, as they deem appropriate. (7) Reciprocity: The partnership should be one that is mutually beneficial to both the instructional coach and the teacher. The instructional coach should learn along with the teacher and gain insight into themselves, teaching and other perspectives related to the teacher's practice.

In their recent blog post on *Instructional Coaching Group*, Kelly and Knight (2019b) have written to highlight the importance of teacher autonomy. In the coaching relationship, autonomy is critical and is equal to respect. These are reflected in Knight's (2007, 2009b) Partnership Principles of voice, choice, and praxis. As they state, "Top-down approaches to change are almost always doomed to fail because professionals are far less motivated when they have little autonomy."

Knight's (2009b) *Coaching: Approaches and Perspectives*, includes Killion's (2009) chapter on coaching to include a distinction between, "coaching light" and "coaching heavy" (p. 21). Coaching light describes a closer personal relationship with being voluntarily accepted into the teacher's room and practice. This style may be particularly effective for those who are reluctant to work with a coach and where avoiding challenging conversations may be needed. "From the perspective of the teacher, coaching light feels supporting" (p. 23). Coaching heavy, on the other hand, may include "high-stakes interactions between coaches and teachers" (p. 23).

This can be a difficult decision to make and difficult to implement. Teacher autonomy is built into the Partnership Principles and a failure to respect that autonomy can degrade the relationship and thwart the coaching effectiveness. In their instructional coaching blog post "Why Teacher Autonomy is Central to Coaching Success, Matthew Kelley and Jim Knight (2019b) state that teachers having control and choice in their practice is more effective than a directive approach. To still affect the teaching, the instructional coach must tread carefully. Whether coaching light, or coaching heavy, the instructional coach and teacher must be equal partners, focus on work and not on

personalities, and coaches must remain humble and nonjudgmental. Kraft, Blazar and Hogan (2017b) concur indicating that adding the responsibility of professional evaluations to the coaching duties will “undercut the trusting relationship (p.30).

A primary difference is that coaching heavy can be a more directive approach and is more concerned with improving instruction and student learning. There is greater risk, however, to damage the personal relationship with the teacher. Buckingham and Goodall (2019) report that feedback given without due concern for the relationship and the manner in which it is given, the recipient may fall into survival mode and impair growth. Another distinction of coaching heavy, is it is also expected that to include all teachers in the school, and is not limited to those who volunteer. If the goal is making a difference through long-lasting change in the teachers’ practices, Killion (2009) indicates that coaching heavy is more effective though more difficult to implement. To determine which method is appropriate for the teacher, the instructional coach must first determine the goal. Though mostly dependent on the teacher’s personality and preferences, preservice teachers are unlikely to possess the self-efficacy necessary to gain from coaching heavy. Thus, in a preservice setting, coaching light is the most appropriate and is the method utilized in this study.

Chapter Summary

The majority of extant literature found that many preservice teacher preparation programs struggle to train their students to be independently successful in a classroom. Through a long and complicated history of teacher preparation programs in the U.S.,

these preparation programs have taken many forms. However, with a lack of common standards and current and practical research, many preparation programs struggle to change the preconceived biases and preferences teachers gain over their many years of socialization. Because of their superficial implementation and lack of follow up by trained experts, typical professional development methods fall short in their expectations and do not sufficiently address the need for teachers to have a high sense of self-efficacy to truly master the skills needed to affect student performance. For these reasons, it appears that a meaningful integration of instructional coaching into preparation programs, especially during student teaching, would add value to the preparation experience. Instructional coaching has great potential to offer the support that preservice teachers often need during the rigors of student teaching and may positively affect their sense of self-efficacy.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

Introduction

The purpose of this qualitative case study (Yin, 1989b, 2014) was to create an understanding of how preservice teachers perceive instructional coaching during their semester of student teaching. In this chapter, I describe the methodology used in this case study, including the methods used to define the case, select participants, and collect and analyze data. Qualitative research provides the opportunity for a researcher to create an insight into the unique personal experiences of people and how they have been affected by those experiences (Patton, 2002).

Through my years of experience in education and new-teacher induction programs, I had developed a keen interest in the experiences of new teachers and how to best prepare them for the rigors of the classroom. Student teaching is the traditional method of creating a practical experience at the end of a professional teacher education preparation program and is often a very difficult experience for preservice teachers as they work to transition from student to teacher. Instructional coaching shows great potential in supporting preservice teachers during this time and thus creating a high-quality student teaching experience. For these reasons, I sought to gather data from a variety of sources to construct an understanding of how preservice teachers perceive instructional coaching during student teaching.

Research Questions

The following questions were used to seek a fuller understanding of the perceptions of instructional coaching by preservice teachers during student teaching.

Primary Question

How do preservice teachers perceive instructional coaching during their semester of student teaching?

Secondary Research Question 1

What aspects of Knight's (2007, 2009b) instructional coaching are most valued by preservice teachers during student teaching?

Secondary Research Question 2

What do preservice teachers think would improve instructional coaching during student teaching?

Methodological Strategy and Rationale

This qualitative case study is developed through a constructivist epistemology belief that truth is created through relationships of members of a community (Lincoln & Guba, 2005). Creswell and Poth (2018) extended this in their discussion on Social Constructivism explaining that the quest is to better understand the participants' world, and create meaning through experience. To reach the intended understandings, the bounded-case was the best vehicle. Merriam and Tisdell (2016) describe a case study as

“an in depth description and analysis of a bounded system” by setting the boundaries of what defines the case (p. 37).

In this study, the case was defined as a small group of four preservice secondary education teachers during their semester of student teaching (Demarrais, 2004; Knight, 2007; Stake, 1978, 2005; Yin, 1989b). Because the nature of this study is one that could not separate the students and their experiences from the experience of student teaching itself, it meets Yin’s (2014) criteria that a case study is appropriate for situations where the phenomenon cannot be separated from its context. The goal, then, was to obtain as much of an understanding of how preservice teachers’ perceived instructional coaching as much as was possible by leaning on the participants’ discussions and descriptions (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

With these premises, a universal truth regarding the effects of coaching on preservice teachers was not sought. Rather, a relational truth is sought as it relates to the setting, the participants, and instructional coach. Through the process of instructional coaching and comprehensive dialogue via questioning and, interview transcript analysis, email conversation analysis journey map analysis, researcher memos and field notes, a fuller understanding of how preservice teachers discuss, think about, accept or reject the coaching process was studied. As Canella and Lincoln (2011), stated, “All truths are partial and incomplete” (p. 95) and it is through this process that an understanding of how preservice teachers perceive instructional coaching was explored.

Instructional Coaching Model

The instructional coaching model for this study, “Instructional Coaching: A

Partnership Approach to Improving Instruction” and “Coaching: Approaches and Perspectives,” has been designed by Dr. Jim Knight of the University of Kansas’ Instructional Coaching Group (2007, 2009b). I attended a three-day coaching training with Dr. Knight at the University of Kansas. This coaching model centers on what Knight calls “The Partnership Principles” and states that these principles “were...validated in a study of two approaches to professional development which included a partnership approach and a traditional approach (Knight, 2007, p. 31). The coaching model includes definitions, scenarios, instructional guides and printed and video resources that are useful in the coaching process.

Partnership principles. Knight’s (2007, 2009b) Partnership Principles (described below) were used as a foundation for the instructional coaching that participants received.

Equality: Instructional coaches and teachers are equal partners.

Choice: Teachers should have choice regarding what and how they learn.

Voice: Professional learning should empower and respect the voices of teachers.

Dialog: Professional learning should enable authentic dialogue.

Reflection: Reflection is an integral part of professional learning.

Praxis: Teacher should apply their learning to their real-life practices as they are learning.

Reciprocity: Instructional coaches should expect to get as much as they give.

Researcher’s role. To fully employ the partnership principles, I worked one-on-one with each participant throughout the semester. This was conducted via in-person meetings, video conferences and email conversations. A full interaction log is included in Appendix E for reference.

For the purposes of this study, a “coaching light” (Killion, 2009) implementation of instructional coaching was utilized because of the intention to support preservice teachers in whatever ways needed, and because the coaching but was not directly intended to improve preservice teachers’ performance as that element of the study was not tracked or measured. Coaching light, in practice amounted to my role as an on-call support for my participants.

It is important to note the quality of my relationship with my participants. Before describing the elements of instructional coaching, Knight (2007) begins with methods of establishing trusting relationships between the instructional coach and the participants. This step in the study was not necessary because I enjoyed a positive relationship with my participants prior to the study as one of their former teachers in their PTEP preparation. However, my role changed substantially from one of instruction and evaluation to one of critical friend as described in the Partnership Principles. This new relationship had to be established and maintained throughout.

Coaching Sequence

The following outlines the sequence of events of the coaching process with related meetings and activities (see Figure 2). The respective data sources will be detailed later in this chapter.

Preservice teachers were assigned to a cooperating classroom and teacher by the College Field Services Director through typical College placement protocols. This was accomplished through collaboration between the College Field Services Director and school district representatives per State requirements.

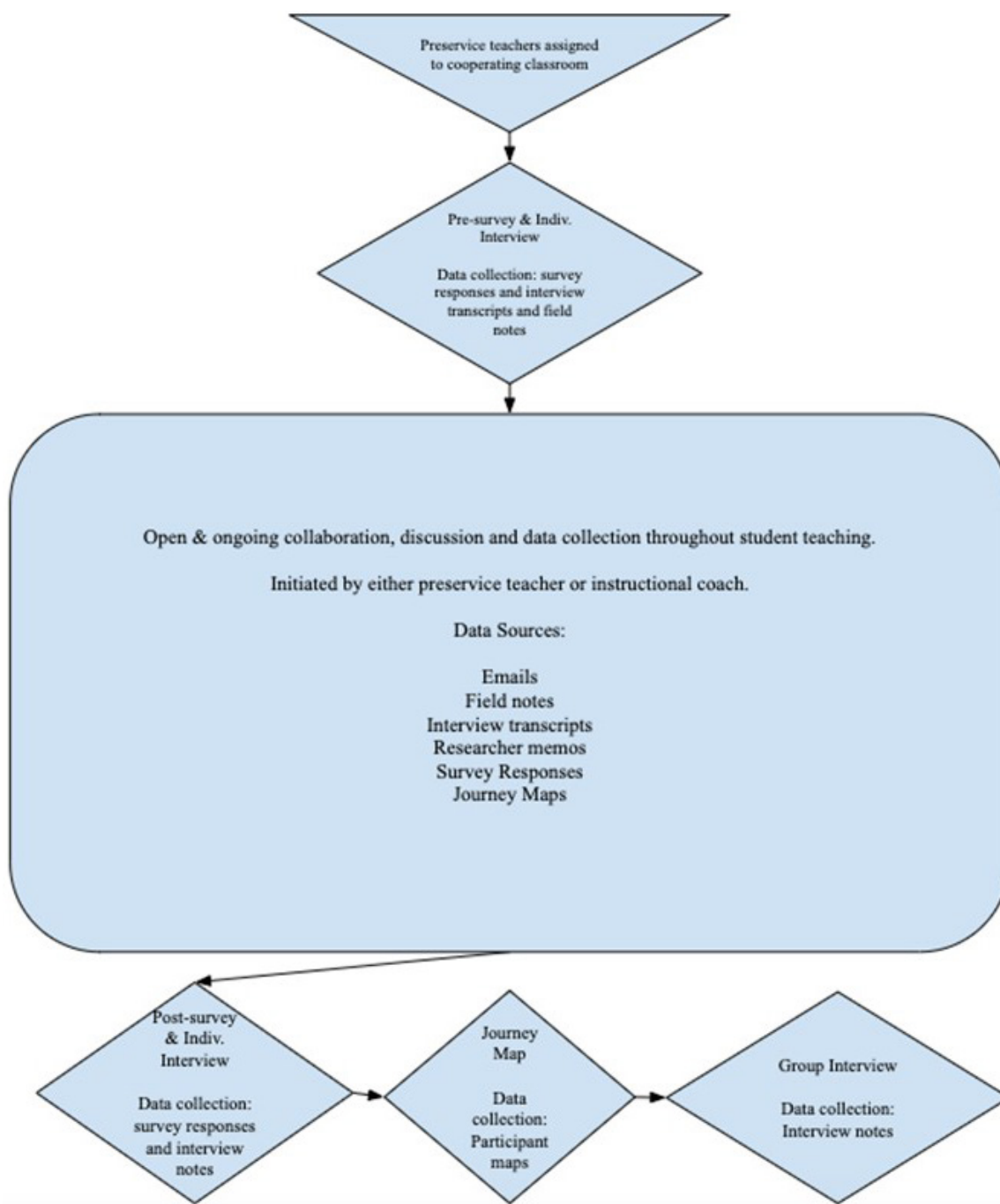


Figure 2. Sequence of coaching meetings and activities.

Once preservice teachers received their placement assignments, they completed an electronically administered pre-survey. See survey questions in Appendix A. After

participants completed the presurvey, each their responses were provided to them during individual, semi-structured interviews. During these conversations, preservice teachers were given an opportunity to elaborate on their responses in regards to students, teaching, student teaching and instructional coaching.

Once the interview was completed, each participant and I discussed their placement, thoughts regarding students, student teaching, planning needs, student contextual factors, and a plan for follow up communications.

Participants then continued in their daily work with students. All participants' mentors had a specific curriculum that they were expected to teach. For this reason, participants and I did not collaborate on initial lesson design. However, participants and I frequently discussed lesson modifications at their request via video conference, in-office meetings or via email. If there were issues or other concerns such as classroom management, the participants, and I would collaborate via video calls or email to determine the best course of action. During each interaction the Partnership Principles (Knight 2007, 2009b) were followed giving participants full autonomy. I fulfilled my role as coach by offering insight or advice as requested, but at no time was there any mandate given that the insight or advice must be enacted upon. This cycle repeated throughout the remainder of the student teaching. A log of all interactions with participants is included in Appendix E.

Description of Research Setting

Participants all attended a Western U.S. liberal arts university (University) that

includes six colleges, and currently has approximately 9,500 students. The college of education (College) is well known in the region as a quality, nationally accredited preservice teacher education preparation program. The college of education has existed for more than one hundred and fifteen years, and the university itself began as a teacher preparation “normal” college in the late nineteenth century. The College has programs specializing in elementary education, secondary education, English as a second language, instructional technology, special education, teacher leadership, educational administration and Masters of Education in a variety of areas and specializations.

The College annually recommends approximately 200 preservice teachers for licensure to its respective state school board. Embedded in its preparation program is a partner elementary school that has been co-developed with local school district and College stakeholders. This partner school was not a part of this study, as this study focused only on secondary education preservice teachers. The University is not open enrollment, and thus students must qualify through a number of factors such as standardized tests (e.g., SAT, ACT) and high school grade point average, instructor approval and in some cases, an interview process.

In recent years, University standards for admission were raised, which resulted the increase of academic performance of all students on campus. The College also has admission requirements including content knowledge tests (i.e., Praxis), grade point average, and certain courses must be successfully completed at a grade point average of 3.0 or better. Additionally, students in the program must not earn any final course grade below a “C” in any education preparation course or major content area course.

The secondary education program works closely with all content areas that are available for licensure in the state. Each content area has its own content instruction and pedagogy specialists with unique program requirements. During the last three semesters of the preparation program, secondary education students focus primarily on generalized literacy instruction, instructional technology, classroom management, lesson planning, lesson delivery and assessment. If these courses are completed according to program requirements, students are recommended to student teaching in which they work with a university supervisor and an assigned mentor teacher in a secondary education classroom for a minimum of 400 hours with at least 360 of those hours being student-contact hours as required by state rule.

Students in the professional teacher education program tend to be very well prepared and high performing. Most do not require remediation while in the program. Throughout the preparation program, preservice teachers participate in various practicum opportunities. These consist of simple observations in courses that are completed earlier in the program to weekly experiences in which preservice teachers spend half to full days working in local classrooms assisting cooperating teachers or in solo teaching. However, these experiences tend to be somewhat inconsistent in quality and expectations as not all cooperating or mentor teachers are willing to permit preservice teachers the same level of access to students as some others, which presents variation and quality in the learning experiences. In the semester prior to student teaching, secondary education students complete teaching practicums in local classrooms for a minimum of 75 hours. Additionally, prior to that semester, numerous courses include practicums, but those

hours are not tracked at the college level.

During preservice teachers' final semester in the program they are placed with a local mentor teacher who has been recommended by their respective administrators. During this time a university supervisor periodically contacts the preservice teachers to check progress through casual conversations and formal observations. During these interactions some advice may be given and problem solving may be conducted. There is no explicit expectation for these interactions. Last, preservice teachers' progress is monitored by university program advisors; there is also a procedure in place for course instructors to notify students and advisors when a student's progress or performance is cause for concern.

This study did not measure teaching effectiveness during student teaching as that was not a focus of the study and would require evaluations which would degrade the coach/teacher relationship. Kraft et al. (2017b), in their study the effects of teaching coaching on instruction and achievement that when "the same person serve as both coach and evaluator [it] can undercut the trusted relationships..." (p. 30). Student teaching was chosen as the setting for the study because student teaching is a particularly rigorous element of the teacher preparation program (Darling-Hammond, 2010b; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004b; Walsh, 2013; Woolfolk Hoy, 2000), and it is the only time in which preservice teachers spend extended time on a daily basis with the same students. Rather, the purpose of this study was to seek an understanding of how preservice teachers perceive instructional coaching during student teaching. In addition, I wanted to understand what aspects of instructional coaching were considered most beneficial to the

participants and also what the participants thought would improve instructional coaching during student teaching.

Participant Selection

Participants were selected using a criterion-based selection (Demarrais, 2004) following the criteria below. Due to the amount of time required for in-depth interviewing and the collaboration necessary to conduct quality instructional coaching, four participants were included in the study (Demarrais, 2004; Knight, 2007). For these reasons, a case study was chosen with four participants. This small case size meets Yin's (1989a) case criteria and Knight's (2009b) descriptions for instructional coaching.

Selection Criteria

The following qualifications were used to select each of the participants for this project.

- Participants must be in their final semester of a preservice teacher education preparation program.
- Participants must be willing to be coached during student teaching.
- Participants must be placed in a public middle or high school.
- Participants must not be current students of the researcher.

A survey was sent to nineteen secondary education students of the College who were beginning student teaching the following semester. See volunteer announcement in Appendix B. Students were asked to volunteer to be coached for this study, and a maximum of four would be chosen. An effort was made to achieve a balance in gender and a variety in content areas. Of the seven volunteers none were male. The seven

volunteers' names were entered into an online randomizer, and four were selected. The four selected remained willing to participate and all identified as female. Content areas represented were, English Language Arts, history, World Language (French), and mathematics. Participants were all former students of the researcher in this study, but the researcher no longer had any authority over participants' grade or program progress. My relationship with my participants was key to being able to properly function as an instructional coach. A positive relationship must be established prior to the coaching, and due to my prior relationship with these participants established that. It is important to note that the participants were frequently reminded that their perceptions were of key interest and that I would have no evaluative role of their teaching, nor would any data be shared with the college to allay any concerns that their successful completion of student teaching might be affected. Table 3 includes placement information and school population demographics.

Participants

The following introduces the participants and their student teaching placement. All identified as female and were asked to choose their own pseudonyms for this study which were Betty, Katie, Loulou, and Scout. Three participants had one mentor, and Scout had two student teaching placements and thus had two mentors.

Participant Motivation

Of the 19 respondents, ten responded to the survey indicating whether they would be willing to participate. Of the 10 respondents, 7 indicated their willingness to

Table 3

Summary of Participant Placement Demographics

Participant pseudonym	Content area(s)	School type	Total school enrollment	Enrollment by gender	Enrollment by ethnicity	Subgroup percentages
Betty	History Education	Urban High School (9-12), Western U.S.	3,160	Female: 1,540 Male: 1,620	American Indian: 19 Asian: 173 Black: 463 Hispanic: 634 Multi Race: 245 Pacific Islander: 50 White: 1480	Econ Disadv: 28.39% ELL: 3.73% Special Ed: 7.91%
Katie	Math Education	Urban Junior High (7-9), Western U.S.	1,002	Female: 467 Male: 535	American Indian: 6 Asian: 13, Black: 17 Hispanic: 146 Multi Race: 44 Pacific Islander 24 White: 752	Econ Disadv: 35.5%, ELL: 5.4%, Ethnic Minority: 25%, Special Ed: 16.4%
Loulou	French Education	Rural High School (9-12), Western U.S.	1,215	Female: 611 Male: 604	American Indian: 35 Asian 11 Black: 13 Hispanic: 83 Multi Race: 30 Pacific Islander 10 White: 1033	Econ Disadv: 33%, ELL: 1.9%, Ethnic Minority: 15%, Special Ed: 15%
Scout	English Language Arts & History	Rural High School (9-12), Western U.S.	1,215	Female: 611 Male: 604	American Indian: 35 Asian 11 Black: 13 Hispanic: 83 Multi Race: 30 Pacific Islander 10 White: 1033	Econ Disadv: 33%, ELL: 1.9%, Ethnic Minority: 15%, Special Ed: 15%

Note. Data included as reported by respective districts for SY 2017-2018

participate and 3 indicated that they would not. The majority of the seven who were willing to participate indicated that they would welcome any additional support during student teaching, with one indicating that she was simply willing to assist with the study. One of the three who indicated that he was not willing to participate indicated that he was too far away and did not believe it would be possible. One of the other two who indicated that they were not willing, indicated that she would be too busy with other school events such as planning and directing a school production, and the other respondent indicated that his mentor teacher already had rigid plans developed, and he felt that the coaching might be at odds with those plans.

Once participants were notified of their selection, they were given an open-ended survey (see Appendix A) regarding teaching, student teaching, students and instructional coaching. Their responses to these prompts were used in individual follow up interviews which were recorded and transcribed. This process was repeated at the end of the study.

Data Collection Introduction

Data Sources

For the purposes of this study, and to support a triangulation of data (Patton, 2002) I collected data in the form of written survey responses, interview recordings (audio and video) which were converted into written transcripts, field notes, researcher memos, journey maps, and participant emails. Table 4 provides a summary and description of those sources. A full Interaction Log is included in Appendix E which displays a full accounting of interactions and data gathered.

Table 4

Summary of Data Sources

Data Source	Description and use
Emails	A common form of communication during the study was via email. Emails were converted to PDF documents.
Field notes	During all interviews I simultaneously recorded specific participant comments and also my own thoughts related to those comments.
Interview transcripts	All interviews were video or audio recorded. These recordings were then converted to text.
Journey maps	Participant-created illustrations depicting their experiences through student teaching.
Researcher memos	Memos were written during the study to document events and thinking during the coding process.
Survey responses	Participants were sent open ended questions twice in the study; once at the beginning and then again at the end. Questions on both surveys were similar.

Interviews

Primary sources of data were the full transcripts of all semi-structured individual interviews and the full transcript of the group interview (Demarrais, 2004; Fontana & Frey, 2011; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Patton, 2002). In advance of the interviews, I prepared an interview guide, and during the interviews, I employed flexible questioning relevant to participant responses and conversation. I sought similar data from all participants related to their pre-survey and post-survey responses. No predetermined wording or order was designed (Demarrais, 2004; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). I acted as interviewer for all interviews.

Interview guide. Questions were a variety of experience and behavior questions, opinion and values questions, feeling questions, knowledge questions, and background/demographic questions (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The semi-structured

interviews were intended to maximize participant insight and dialogue and generate a “guided conversation” (Yin, 2014, p. 110). As Yin explained, good questioning “requires an inquiring mind during data collection” (p. 73). To facilitate dialogue and minimize bias, I sought to be a “good listener” to generate the best evidence (Yin, 2014, p. 74). I asked the interview questions as well as relevant follow-up questions to gain a deeper knowledge of the participants’ intent and not to support any preconceived notions. See interview protocol in Appendix A.

Individual interviews. Participants were invited to respond to the pre-interview and post-interview prompts via online. The second interview was conducted without providing interview prompts before the interview. because it was intended to be a follow up discussion to an email thread that spanned approximately eight days. All participants were asked the same questions during their second interview related to the context of the email thread. Once the pre-survey and post-survey responses were complete, participants were invited to attend a one-on-one meeting with me. The participants were asked follow-up questions (Demarrais, 2004; Rubin & Rubin, 2005b) in an attempt to create more complete understanding in the context and meaning as the participants intended though open dialogue with me as Fontana and Frey (2011) describe being “contextually bound and mutually created” (p. 696). In this role, my positionality as both instructional coach and researcher was carefully navigated.

I endeavored to keep the prompts as neutral as possible, realizing that no exchange is completely devoid of the power and influence of power and language. Fontana and Frey (2011) describe this form of interview as a collaborative effort between

the participant and the researcher and stated that “neutrality is not possible” (p. 696).

Because of my experience and position in education, I had an insider understanding of the process which likely colored the interviews. I attempted to be as objective as possible and endeavored to ask questions that one who is not familiar with the experiences of the participants might ask (Yin, 2014).

By using this empathic approach, I was a “partner in the study” (Fontana & Frey, 2011, p. 696). This effort was intended to benefit the quality and depth of the responses in a way that other interviewing methods may not afford, but care was taken not to skew the information to achieve a preconceived goal. This is mainly due to the fact that the research questions were designed to seek an understanding of the participants experiences as they related to coaching. Numerous times during the interviews, I stated that their comments, perceptions and opinions were the primary concern that there were no “right” answers.

Interviews were conducted three times throughout the study. The first was before the study began to determine how participants perceived coaching, student teaching and teaching in general. The prompts used to obtain their first set of responses were the same for the culminating post-survey interviews. The prompts were the same on both occasions, however the follow-up questions were not, as the context of the conversations changed, and thus relevant follow-up questions changed accordingly.

The pre-survey, post-survey and group interviews were video recorded, and the second interview was audio recorded. During all interviews I took contemporaneous notes in a common notebook. Those field notes were then used during transcription of the

video and audio files to ensure that the full context of all participant responses was captured and in the creation of memos.

Group interview. The purpose of the group discussion was to permit participants to openly discuss and compare their experiences. To begin the conversation, I asked each participant individually to discuss their journey map. During those presentations, other participants or I asked follow up questions. This culminating event was also used as an opportunity to thank participants for their hard work.

This interview was held after all individual interviews had been completed. All participants were invited to attend the group event, and all attended. Two attended face-to-face and two attended via video conference.

Follow-up questions were used to further the conversation or to seek clarity. Fontana and Frey (2011) explain that group interviews can help members of the group remember more detail, “stimulate elaboration” and also help with the triangulation of data (p. 704). Additionally, as Fontana and Frey (1994) convey Cicourel’s (1974) position, group interviews facilitate a context for “indefinite triangulation” (p. 704). The goal was to obtain as much authentic and relevant insight from the participants as possible, and the group interview was a very useful vehicle to reach that end. Triangulation, or using multiple data sources (Patton, 2002) in this sense consisted of the addition of the participants’ written responses, transcripts of verbal responses obtained during interview, journey maps and related discussion transcript plus the coach’s personal notes and memos recorded throughout the semester.

Journey Maps

In addition to the survey, participants were asked to complete an illustrated journey map at their completion of student teaching. See Appendix C for all participants' journey maps. A journey map is a graphic illustration of participants experiences (Nyquist et al., 1999).

During the final interviews, I described and requested that each complete a journey map. Nyquist et al. (1999) used the activity of illustrated journey maps drawn by graduate students to describe their experiences through graduate school. When reviewing the journey maps, the researchers asked, "What do these drawings represent? What can we learn from the personal journeys they depict? How can stories such as these inform our work with graduate students especially with those aspiring to become tomorrow's faculty members?" (Nyquist et al., 1999, p. 18). These questions sought to guide the interpretations and discussions of the journey maps to give the researchers a deeper understanding of the students' experiences. These journey maps were used in the same way to elicit participants' depictions of their experiences.

As Meyer (2015) found when studying the lack of persistence of engineering students, the approach was "comfortable for the participants and the interviewer" and it "kept the participants on track during the interview" (p. 48). Meyer was able to identify important themes regarding persistence in an engineering program that helped to explain the interviews that had been conducted.

Participants were given open instructions to design and illustrate their experiences of student teaching. This open-ended approach facilitated broader latitude for participants

to explore, discuss and convey their experiences as they saw fit. Art quality was not an important factor, as participants were instructed that their artistic skills were irrelevant and that they would have an opportunity to discuss and explain anything they had drawn that may not be obvious or intuitive.

Journey maps were shared with other participants during the group interview to prompt and allow further discussion and elaboration of their shared or contrasting experiences. Each member of the group was invited to discuss their journey maps and explain to the group how it explained their experiences. All group members were encouraged to ask clarifying questions and draw connections to their own maps or indicate how their maps and experiences were different. This conversational process added rich depth to the semi-structured interviews and added “powerful glimpses” (Nyquist et al., 1999, p. 18) into their student teaching perceptions.

Data Collection

Prior to beginning their student teaching, participants were given a written survey of open-ended questions (see Appendix A) delivered electronically via Google Forms, an online survey tool. Questions were designed to elicit responses related to coaching and student teaching, but did not prompt for participants to respond to any specific probable experiences. These main questions were intended to corral general feelings but lacked sufficient depth to answer the research questions (Rubin & Rubin, 2005b). With the goal of obtaining as much insight to the participants’ “real world,” (Yin, 2014, p. 88) a key part of this case study was individual interviews and a group interview. A data planning matrix (Appendix D) was based on my *a priori* codes and was used to guide my data

collection efforts.

The individual interviews were conducted three times. The first and last were directly related to their survey responses both before the study and after the study, to permit follow-up questioning through either continuation probes or elaboration to gather deeper insights into preservice teachers' feelings and perceptions related to various aspects of teaching (Rubin & Rubin, 2005a, p. 13).

An intervening interview was conducted approximately at the midpoint of participants' student teaching to ask questions related to self-efficacy and student teaching, classroom demographics, curriculum planning, classroom concerns, and opportunities for instructional coaching support. See Appendix A.

At the completion of the student teaching, after post-survey responses were collected and following the final individual interview, participants were asked to complete an illustrated journey map (Nyquest et al., 1999) depicting their experiences during student teaching. Elaboration on journey maps is below.

The culminating event in the project was a group interview. All participants attended either in person or via video conference. At the group interview participants were asked to share their journey maps with the group to describe their experiences.

All collected data was kept entirely confidential, and no actual names were used in any publication or retelling of the data. Participants were asked to choose a pseudonym, and all references herein use those names.

The pre-survey and post-survey were delivered and completed electronically. Responses were automatically loaded into a spreadsheet for later analysis. The pre-

interview, the post-interview and the group interview were video recorded. The second interview was conducted midway through the study and was audio recorded. These recordings permitted the truest representation and intent of the context in which the statements are made can be captured for later analysis and referral.

Participants' permission to video or audio record was requested at each interview and participants were fully aware of the recording equipment. Equipment was placed as far out of immediate sight as possible to minimize any untoward effects on the participants (Yin, 2014). Additionally, field notes were taken during the interviews to capture as much nuance as possible. I attempted to record field notes as inconspicuously as possible so that there would be little effect on the participants (Fontana & Frey, 1994).

Video and audio recordings were transcribed manually and technology such as speech-to-text services were also utilized to generate the transcripts. A careful review was done to ensure that any automatic transcriptions are accurate and any areas wherein the quality of the recordings were poor, or unavailable were noted.

Methods of Analysis

The computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software package *Dedoose* was used to organize and code the survey responses, interview transcripts, emails, and journey maps.

My initial first cycle coding (Saldaña, 2016) employed the use of my *a priori* codes as a launch pad to explore the data. After this initial coding, I began the second cycle of coding with process of inductively evaluating each code, and how it was being

interpreted within the context of the item from which it was derived. For example, initially I used the code “bad day” to identify elements of the preservice teachers’ school day that they described as being difficult, but ultimately I converted the code into “stress” because the excerpts it was connected to indicated that the stress of the situations created the bad days and that “bad day” was not a useful code to depict what the participant was actually experiencing. Similarly, “Good day” was re-coded to reflect a clearer meaning of those good days which were typically the feeling of joy or excitement. The initial code “confidence” also needed clarification and was changed to “self-efficacy” to better reflect the research and the participants experiences that depicted it. After reviewing each item that had been coded “self-efficacy,” I then decided to separate that code into “self-efficacy +” and “self-efficacy -” to indicate whether the participant comment indicated a feeling or experience that demonstrated increased (i.e., +) or decreased (i.e., -) sense of efficacy.

Originally, the code “intense” was used to describe interactions during the school day, but after additional coding and it became clear that “intense” was not useful because it did not sufficiently differentiate from “stress,” and thus, “stress” became the preferred code.

Last, the initial code “coaching” was expanded into two broad themes of “Coaching: Benefits” and “Coaching: Detriments.” Coaching: Benefits included the sub-themes of, access, advice, bias, feedback, and support. The category Coaching: Detriments included “Irrelevant advice,” and “Role clarity.”

Whenever possible, two or more codes were used to make the coding of an

excerpt clearer. For example, if the participant indicated “stress” and that feeling was related to classroom management, “classroom management” was also connected to the excerpt.

These code refinement descriptions are discussed thoroughly in Chapter IV where I detail my analysis processes and the conclusions that it provided.

Based on the literature related to student teaching, and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1994; Darling-Hammond, 2010b; Pajares, 1996; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004b; Walsh, 2013; Woolfolk Hoy, 2000), plus my previous experience as a school district professional developer and new teacher coach with both preservice teachers and new teachers, the following served as *a priori* codes and served as a launch pad for survey prompts and interview questions.

Stress: Preservice teachers typically discuss and display various levels of stress that manifest themselves as severe anxiety, self-deprecation, statements of futility, dread, etc.

Enjoyment: Based on previous experience with preservice teachers, few convey that they enjoy their student teaching experiences and look forward to it each day.

Self-efficacy: Many preservice teachers feel ill equipped to begin their student teaching and others feel extremely confident, which for some is irrespective of their actual ability to teach well, and also irrespective of their abilities to plan lessons for their classes.

Excitement to teach: Preservice teachers demonstrate varying degrees of excitement or eagerness to “get their own classroom.” As data were collected, these *a*

priori codes (Saldaña, 2016; Stuckey, 2015) served for preliminary data evaluation. As the data were analyzed, I refined my codes to reflect the themes that emerged.

A preliminary deductive analysis, based on my *a priori* codes was conducted while interviews were being held, notes were written, and memos were created (Glesne, 2011; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). This deductive approach better facilitated an, exploratory view of the case (Scholz & Tietje, 2002). Knight's Partnership Principles were used as a foundation upon which this unique coaching experience was established. However, they were not used as *a priori* codes as it was not the intent of this study to validate them.

Multiple rounds of coding were conducted. See Figure 3 for a graphic representation of this process. Once the primary data gathering was concluded, a more formal inductive analysis of it ensued. A preliminary deductive analysis was performed utilizing my *a priori* codes of stress, enjoyment, confidence, and excitement to teach. I followed this exercise with an inductive analysis of each item to determine what story the data was telling about the participants' perceptions. Memos were created throughout the coding process to document the rationale and evolution of the themes. Through this process, the themes that related to the perceptions of instructional coaching were identified.

Participants' responses to the written surveys, individual interview discussions transcripts, group interview transcripts, and journey maps were studied in an attempt to answer the research questions.

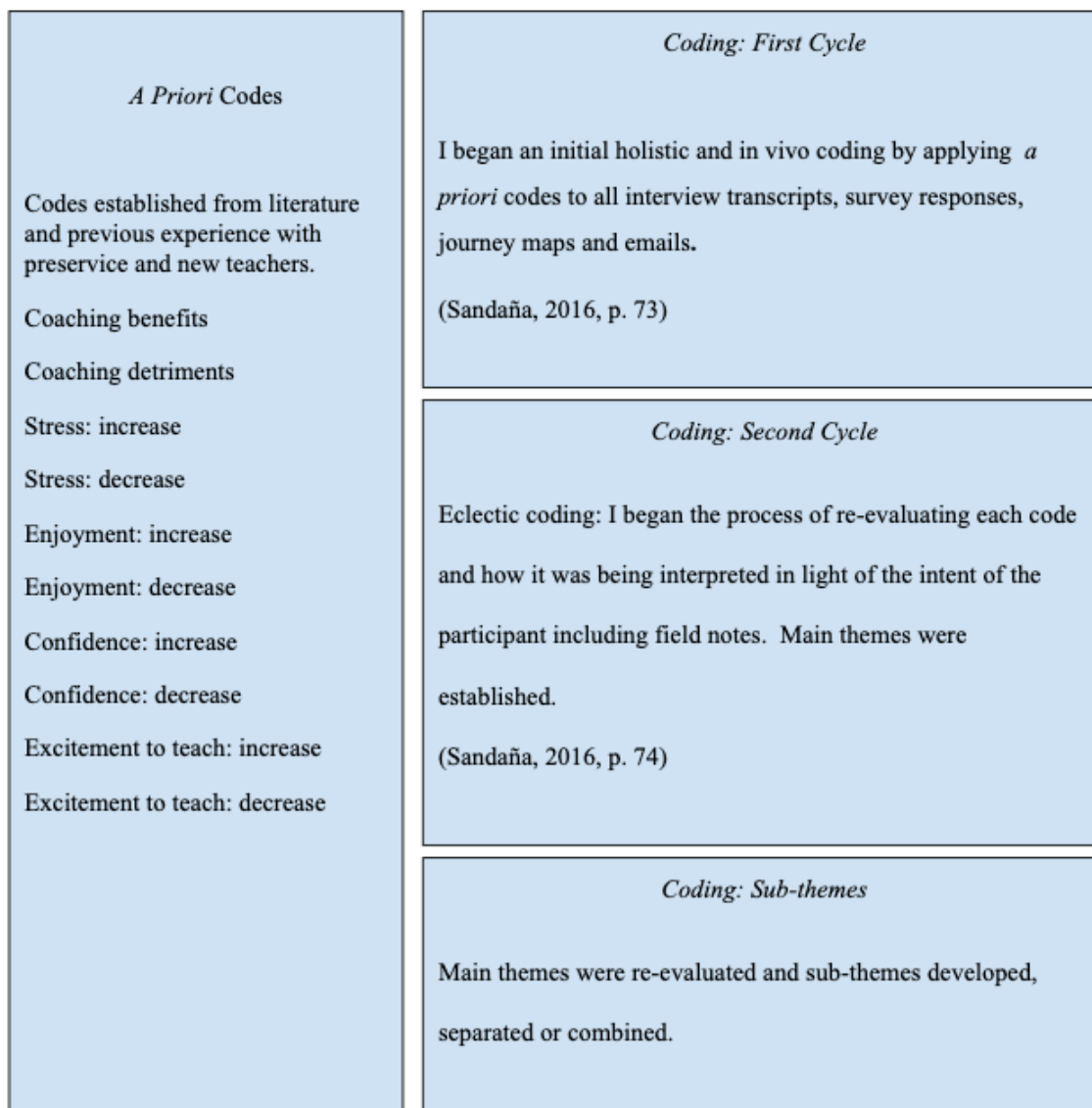


Figure 3. Coding cycles.

A complete thematic analysis (Glesne, 2011; Merriam, 2009; Saldaña, 2016) was conducted after all data were collected and organized to identify general categorical themes as related to the primary and secondary research questions. The preliminary coding table served as an initial guide to provide early, yet flexible, focus for the data and as a guide during early interactions with the data (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Saldaña,

2016; Yin, 2014). However, these were not used as boundaries for the data as other patterns, insights or promising concepts were identified (Yin, 2014). Open coding (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Glesne, 2011; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Saldaña, 2016) was utilized inductively to create the final themes and sub-themes. A complete coding table is included in Chapter IV (see Table 7).

Trustworthiness

Participants were frequently reminded that their perceptions were the focus of the study and that there was no “right” or “wrong.” As a participant in the study as the instructional coach, I remained vigilant throughout to ensure that any interactions or interview questions were not stated in a way that implied what an appropriate answer might be. If a participant remarked anything that implied that they were seeking a proper response to satisfy me, I would immediately remark that their perceptions were all that mattered.

To secure more validity of the study, I utilized multiple methods of data collection. Yin (2014) discussed six of the most common sources of evidence used in case studies. Of the six sources Yin offers (i.e., documents, archival records, interviews, direct observation, participant-observation, and physical artifacts), multiple sources of evidence were collected during the study to increase reliability and to meet the expectations of high-quality qualitative research. Sources included were emails, field notes, memos, journey maps, and interview transcripts which provided a variety of perspectives to answer the research questions.

All documents and video files were maintained in a common location and saved with appropriate file names including dates, time frame, item number and participant pseudonym.

Triangulation

Data triangulation (Patton, 2002), that is to say, survey responses, interview discussions and transcripts, field notes, memos and the journey maps were used as supporting data to reveal themes and understandings (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Yin, 2014). The goal of this process was to use the various forms of data to identify themes and sub-themes from the participants' self-described perceptions. Triangulation of many data sources helped me to add clarity and support to their perceptions and to better create an honest account of what the participants experienced (Stake, 2005).

Throughout the study I recorded contemporaneous field notes during every personal interaction with my participants. These notes were frequently referred to during analysis to ensure that the full meaning of all comments were appropriately captured. Every informal interview was audio and video were recorded and the conversations transcribed to provide a complete record of the conversations, and were frequently referred to when questions arose during analysis regarding the full intent of the comment. Transcripts were forwarded to my participants to give them the opportunity to modify or elaborate on any of their comments.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has described how the literature on research methods directed my

study design. I used that design to administer individual surveys, conduct individual and group interviews, electronic communications in the form of emails, and illustrated journey maps. Research on instructional coaching was used to underpin and direct my instructional coaching approach.

Following an open coding design, I organized and analyzed the data obtained from the various sources to arrive at supported conclusions related to my primary and secondary research questions to understand how preservice teachers experienced instructional coaching during student teaching.

The following chapter will detail my findings in respect to this design and analysis.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS: HOW PRESERVICE TEACHERS PERCEIVE INSTRUCTIONAL COACHING DURING STUDENT TEACHING

Introduction

The purpose of this case study was to examine how preservice teachers perceived instructional coaching during their semester of student teaching. The findings of this qualitative case study were based on multiple individual interviews, interview transcripts, participant emails, survey responses, researcher memos, participant illustrated journey maps and a group interview. The findings of my study are presented and analyzed in Chapters IV and V and are organized thematically and connected to the primary and secondary research questions.

This chapter will focus on analyzing data that represented how the preservice teachers in the study talked about their perceptions of instructional coaching during student teaching and what elements of instructional coaching they valued and also what they believed would improve instructional coaching in a student teaching setting.

Knight's (2007, 2009b) Partnership Principles are added as an interpretive layer at the end of the chapter. I employed the Partnership Principles through a "coaching light" (Killion, 2009) approach seeking to meet the needs of my participants in whatever way they needed. This amounted to something of an on-call, live resource for the preservice student teachers via video conferences, email and personal meetings. Conversations primarily focused on curriculum development, classroom management, and personal

support. These are detailed further in this chapter.

This chapter introduces the main findings and provides an overview of the study context and the effects of socialization as they are necessary to provide a lens for the participant perceptions of instructional coaching. The chapter concludes with a detailed discussion of participant perceptions as they answer my primary and secondary research questions. The following questions were used to seek a fuller understanding of the perceptions and of instructional coaching by preservice teachers during student teaching.

Primary Question

How do preservice teachers perceive the experience of instructional coaching during their semester of student teaching?

Secondary Research Question 1

What aspects of Knight's (2007, 2009b) instructional coaching are most valued by preservice teachers during student teaching?

Secondary Research Question 2

What do preservice teachers think would improve instructional coaching during student teaching?

Introduction of Findings

All four participants agreed that having an instructional coach was of benefit during student teaching. Through analysis of their perceptions, the themes listed in Table 5 emerged.

Table 5

Summary of Coaching Subthemes

Coaching +	Coaching -
Access	Irrelevant advice
Advice	Role clarity
Nonevaluative	
Feedback	
Self-efficacy	
Support	

Though not unanimous among all participants, there was some indication that, there was an increase in self-efficacy that was attributed to the experience of instructional coaching. Though this was not a primary finding, yet it was sufficient enough to warrant inclusion and discussion as it related to the participants perceptions and the literature presented earlier in Chapter II.

Because Knight's (2007, 2009b) Partnership Principles were employed as the framework for my instructional coaching, they are discussed as they are relevant and interconnected to the themes and coaching model. It is important to note that I did not approach the coding process utilizing the Partnership Principles as *a priori* codes. Rather, participant experiences were coded based the essence of their comments to arrive at an understanding of how they perceived the instructional coaching.

Refer to Figure 3 in Chapter III for the coding process and connection between my *a priori* codes and the final themes that emerged.

Study Context

Before delving any further into the analysis discussion, establishing a study context is warranted. As my literature review indicated, there are a number of factors affecting preservice teachers' experiences of student teaching that must be addressed. The topics included here are coaching relationship, socialization, and teacher preparation. They are included here to establish a fuller context for the data analysis to come.

Coaching Relationship

Knight (2007, 2009b) and Morris (2019) make it clear that the relationship between the instructional coach and the coached teacher is important, and offers a series to suggestions and protocols to identify and enlist teachers into the coaching dynamic. All participants in my study were former students of mine and willingly volunteered to participate in the study. My professional relationship with them, built over the course of a few semesters prior to the study facilitated this identification and enlistment into my study. Building trust at the outset of the coaching relationship is critical, and this was established prior to the beginning of the study. Had that positive professional relationship not already existed, requisite time would have been required to establish it.

Socialization

Teaching matters to me because my teachers used to be heroes to me. (Katie, personal communication, January 28, 2019)

Socialization begins before a formal teacher preparation program. Research (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990; Lortie, 1975; Zeichner & Gore, 1990) indicated that the process of teacher socialization, wherein an individual is conditioned over many years into the

teaching profession, is a strong force in a teacher's identity. Part of that socialization process is authentic experience in close proximity to teachers and students.

This study did not seek to fully understand that dynamic, yet it could not be ignored. What the participants brought with them into the program undoubtedly affected their perceptions. As such, comments that related to their own socialization were identified and presented here as a backdrop for the analysis of preservice perceptions of instructional coaching.

Primarily, comments identified as socialization related to their personal role models in their respective educational backgrounds and experiences with their students and mentors during student teaching. These factors presented themselves in a variety of ways. As the data indicated, socialization was identified uniquely thirteen times and multi-coded in ten instances.

The socialization of teaching could be seen in some occasions as methods that did not seem to work for the participants, yet because of their familiarity of it, they could not determine why, nor how to remedy the situation. As an example of this, Scout mentioned a number of times that the amount of essay grading was a heavy burden requiring excessive time and appeared to be creating unnecessary stress. The following is an excerpt of a personal conversation. She stated,

Scout: Right now, it's mostly keeping up on grading about two million essays...

Coach: That was one of the things I was thinking about...when I taught writing, because the essay grading was the thing that was just - it was it was just killer.

As a former English teacher and professional developer, I described and offered a solution that I had developed that increased the quantity of student writing, improved

student writing, and reduced the amount of grading. Following this discussion, I created and forwarded a one-page overview on how to do this. Scout did not respond directly to the information, but later when asked about my coaching input, she stated, “It was, like, yeah that’s a good idea, but I don’t know if it would work with my students because they’re coming from just different places” and seemed to disregard the potential benefit to her practice.

Scout was apprehensive to consider any other methods and appeared content to continue in the familiar manner even if it did not appear to be working for her. She did not offer a rationale for not accepting the suggestion, but it appeared that the tradition of marking papers was one she was unwilling to confront. Autonomy is explicitly included within the Partnership Principles of voice and choice. Instances such as these were coded as “irrelevant advice” but should not be seen as extraneous data. Though the advice may not have been accepted, this was fully within the participants’ prerogative because the Partnership Principles of choice, voice, and praxis intend for participant autonomy and personal application. These unique instances were considered when answering the primary and secondary research questions.

The participants also expressed the effects of socialization in other ways. In a response to the pre-survey prompt, “Describe your experiences in a classroom with students,” prior to student teaching, Betty responded, “I feel like most of my experiences with students have shaped my opinion of what student teaching means.” Similarly, Katie experienced varied classroom atmospheres that differed from her preconceived ideas of how a class should function. One class was extremely reluctant to speak, and this was an

ongoing problem for her. She found that reality very uncomfortable as she was more accustomed to a lively and vibrant class. Betty also had a very quiet class which she struggled with. Both of these examples were also coded as “Self-efficacy-” because they had the effect of undermining their beliefs that they could successfully reach those classes.

When confronted with a difficult student, Scout reverted to a method one of her own high school teachers used. As she told it, that teacher had seat in the room designated as “Siberia” which was used as a “time out” strategy for the talkative student. This was a surprising tactic as this form of classroom management was not likely taught in her professional teacher education program, but one that she quickly reverted to.

Socialization was an underlying factor that affected the instructional coaching and had to be included, however it has been added to offer context when evaluating participant statements. When necessary, excerpts were multi-coded to reflect the apparent interactions of factors to more fully describe how they influenced participants perceptions of instructional coaching.

Professional Teacher Education Programs Preparation: Context and Connection to Instructional Coaching

I feel like it prepared us as much as it could. (Scout, personal communication, April 26, 2019).

Research has shown that PTEPs often fail to adequately prepare preservice teachers for the rigors of teaching (Anderson & Stillman, 2013; Ashton & Crocker, 1987; Darling-Hammond, 2010b; Zeichner & Gore, 1990; Zeichner & Liston, 1990). It would appear, however, that these participants’ perceptions were not colored by feelings of a

lack of preparation. All four had completed all necessary components of the PTEP including state-required assessments. Additionally, in one or more ways, all participants indicated that they felt ready or even eager to begin student teaching, despite all agreeing that additional opportunities to practice teach prior to student teaching would have been valuable. In our initial conversations about their upcoming student teaching, all used the word “excited.” Katie, in particular, stated numerous times that she felt limited by the obligation of student teaching and wanted to be in her own classroom. In her response to the pre-survey question of “How do you feel about entering the teaching profession after student teaching?” She responded, “I am excited for it! I wish I was actually a teacher right now rather than a student teacher!” This enthusiasm did not diminish over the course of student teaching.

That is not to say that these participants found student teaching to be particularly easy, nor that they all entered this phase of their education with the same eagerness. In fact, two participants, Betty and Scout, though they stated that they were excited to begin student teaching, also indicated that they were filled with dread and terrified; items such as these were coded as “stress” and were included under the self-efficacy – theme.

Katie similarly stated at the mid-point of the semester when asked for one word to describe the experience emphatically and positively stated “Unbelievable.” She added, “my whole experience has just been more than I expected. I have loved every minute of it...” Loulou also had an overall positive experience, though she experienced more of a range of ups and downs than Betty, Katie and Scout. Loulou’s one-word to describe her experience at the mid-point was “assiduous,” and in her final individual interview Loulou

stated, “I mean, it’s never always fun and it’s never always exasperating; you know, it’s it goes back and forth, and it’s like every day is like that during the day; you’ll have horrible experiences, and you’ll have wonderful experiences.”

Betty summed up this concept the best when she stated,

Honestly, I don’t think anything prepares you [for student teaching]. Any kind of practicum experience doesn’t prepare you for having to actually take over a class because you go in, like, twelve times during a semester, but the kids, it’s still not the same. Like, I don’t know how to explain it. Even student teaching, it’s not the same as having your own class and being the quote-unquote real teacher... I honestly just think it’s like baptism by fire. You have to go into it.

All agreed that student teaching was a critical program component. Scout stated, “There’s no other way. “I’d be screwed without it. I can’t imagine starting out; you’re trying to teach without like having this background; I be so screwed.” Similarly, Katie added, “I think student teaching has to happen.”

At no time did any of the participants indicate that they did not feel able to successfully complete their student teaching despite their initial trepidations. In fact, as student teaching continued participants indicated that their comfort and confidence increased.

The contextual factors of the coaching relationship, participant socialization into the teaching profession and their PTEP preparation should be considered as a backdrop for participants’ perceptions as they are analyzed in the following sections. Participants had a favorable view of their preparation program and were eager to begin their student teaching. These factors combined with a positive relationship with me as their instructional coach created an environment in which the elements of coaching could be identified.

Preservice Teachers' Perceptions of Instructional Coaching

During Student Teaching

I begin by offering a cross-case discussion of the participants' perceptions of instructional coaching, and then follow that with individual case analysis organized by participant and theme.

All of the participants included in this study found instructional coaching to be of value to them. The flexible and individualized nature of Knight's (2007, 2009b) instructional coaching model met the needs of each participant and served to provide input and support that they otherwise may not have received. The unique interactions between me as the instructional coach addressing participants' needs in a personal manner through personal visits, video conferences and emails created an avenue of support that they did not experience with their assigned mentors or their university supervisor.

This section will serve to elaborate on the data as they relate to the participants' perceptions by connecting the themes and subthemes that were identified from their unique comments and data that were collected from survey responses, personal conversation transcripts, group interview transcript, journey maps, emails and my notes and memos.

I asked all participants in the pre- and post-survey how they viewed an instructional coach. Table 6 provides participant responses to demonstrate differences from the beginning of the study to the end. Their responses did not change substantially during the study, but access, support and nonevaluative were the most common themes.

Table 6

Respondents' Answers to the Survey Question, "What Does Instructional Coaching Mean to You?"

Respondent	Pre-survey response	Post-survey response
Betty	I think instructional coaching is an opportunity to gain further insights and advice on how to improve my skills and my situation. There is still so much I don't know, and getting one-on-one advice, specific to the issues or success I'm having in my classroom with the students and content, will be really beneficial in my development as a teacher.	Instructional coaching is lending advice and giving guidance in all aspects of teaching that contribute to instruction. The questions I had rarely all had to do with the actual instruction given in a class, but they all had to do with how to make my students feel cared about, safe, and how to keep them on task so the instruction was as effective as possible. An instructional coach uses prior experience to guide and suggest changes to a student teacher, and who offers a non-biased third-party observation to whatever struggle that teacher might be facing.
Katie	Instructional coaching sounds like an experienced teacher who can coach me, as a new teacher, on how to make my student teaching experience better. They are a backboard in lesson planning, on handling students, and anything else I need help with during my student teaching.	It means to have someone help me perfect the craft of teaching without having to evaluate me on my teaching. Basically, someone who is there as a backboard and not a mentor.
Loulou	A professional helping me to become my best at teaching.	Help beyond what the mentor teacher gives to a student teacher.
Scout	To me this means having someone who is watching over me, so to speak. Someone I can go to for guidance, bounce ideas off of, and generally make sure that I am not messing everything up.	It is a tool that can be used to help as needed.

Each participant indicated that they received a benefit from instructional coaching. Betty indicated during her second interview that she derived self-confidence from her interactions with me as a coach, and said she had "someone in her corner who

can guide me without judgement.” During the group interview, she similarly said,

Anytime I wanted to ask like, oh how can I change this up in the classroom? Or, how and how can I...when I totally flopped on my one lesson, when I tried to lecture... I talked to the instructional coach, and he gave me some really good advice that made me feel more confident. So, I just felt like more of my confidence came from my instructional coach than my mentor teacher.

Scout felt that the value of coaching was related to instructional ideas. Her strong mentor and general independence left space for coaching. In our group interview regarding the value of coaching, she stated,

Most times it was for history, but as far as like the instructional coach, that was more like methodology I think, like hey you want some good ideas for teaching this; I'm not just lecturing because it's so boring despite what my history mentor thinks. I hate lecture because that's what he wanted me to do, and it's his class. But. I tried to incorporate more projects and stuff.

Loulou also had a strong mentor, and did not seek much instructional coaching, but valued the extra outside opinion and source of current research for instructional methods because, as she saw it, her mentor had been out of university work for some time.

Loulou was the only participant who indicated that coaching caused her to be more thoughtful and intentional in her teaching as she knew that she would be asked questions about her experiences. In the group interview she described this.

I've been more mindful because I know that I will have to answer questions I guess. You know, I have to be more thoughtful about what I'm doing; is this effective, is that effective? I'm more aware, I guess.

Ultimately, she concluded that her mentor and instructional coach “kind of balanced out.”

Katie's mentor employed a number of instructional coaching methods that

appeared to impact her experiences during student teaching, yet she made a distinction between the two. When asked in the group interview about the difference between her mentor and instructional coach she stated,

The instructional coach helped more of like when I had questions that my mentor teacher couldn't really answer, or like I just wasn't sure if I wanted to use this advice like I just I... he was great for like an outside opinion, like a different opinion. So, I was grateful, like, my instructional coach was great for behavioral issues more than content issues. So, he helped me more with my confidence in behavioral issues than content.

Each participant found benefits in instructional coaching which are detailed below because the framework of instructional coaching allowed for frequent opportunities to discuss needs in real-time. Participants indicated that they appreciated the ease and flexibility of accessing me which reflect Knight's (2007) Partnership Principles of voice and dialogue.

They also indicated that they valued an additional line of advice outside of their mentor or university advisor. When the nature of their concerns came to lesson planning or instructional ideas, some participants stated that the feedback they were given was useful especially when the participants' lesson styles differed from their mentors. Lastly, participants' comments often related to the value of support in regards to any need they may have had whether related to pedagogy, classroom management, student relationships, or personal matters.

There were some matters that arose during student teaching that were coded as Coaching - which included "irrelevant advice" and confusion regarding the role of instructional coach. "Irrelevant advice" still falls within the scope and dynamic of instructional coaching because teachers enjoy equality, choice, voice, dialogue, reflection

and praxis which provides for the application of instructional coaching in ways that are most meaningful to the teacher. Though not substantial and not unanimous, the element of “irrelevant advice” was enough to ensure inclusion in the discussion. These instances related to issues for which the participants did not indicate that they received a benefit because of applicability in their particular setting or because of a lack of experience in a particular content area.

Table 7 shows a summary of Instructional Coaching Code Occurrence table that presents all codes as they interrelate to other codes as well as all coding totals. The coding process of reviewing my field notes, memos, emails and interview transcripts resulted in the main themes of Coaching + and Coaching -, with the sub-themes of access, advice, feedback, nonevaluative, support, irrelevant advice and role clarity. The multi-coding served to offer a fuller understanding of the context of the participants perceptions of instructional coaching. As the data shows, the majority of codes related to a positive perception of instructional coaching.

In the following section I will detail the participants’ individual perceptions of instructional coaching.

Coaching Themes and Participant Perceptions

My participants perceptions of instructional coaching will be addressed individually by theme. Table 8 summarizes the number of excerpts coded for Coaching + and Coaching - themes.

Table 7

Summary of Instructional Coaching Code Occurrence

Themes	Coaching +	Access	Advice	Bias	Feedback	Support	Coaching -	Irrelevant or rejected advice	Role clarity	Emotions	Stress	Self-efficacy	Self-efficacy +	Self-efficacy -	Student Teaching	Gaining Experience	Mentor	Problem / Solution	Time	Teaching Factor	Classroom Management	Socialization	Totals
Coaching +	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	170
Access	0	0	5	2	3	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	19
Advice	0	5	0	4	8	8	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	7	2	3	0	0	45
Nonevaluative	0	2	4	0	2	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	19
Feedback	0	3	8	2	0	10	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	3	1	0	0	0	0	30
Support	0	7	8	8	10	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	39
Coaching –	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	18
Irrelevant advice	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	1	1	1	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	1	13
Role clarity	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
Student teaching	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	2	2	1	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	4	13
Gaining experience	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	3	3	22	3	3	2	0	11	0	0	2	1	1	56
Problem/solution	0	0	7	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	11
Time	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6
Teaching factor																							
Classroom management	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	4	2	0	0	2	0	3	0	0	0	0	25
Socialization	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	4	4	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	10
Totals	2	19	45	19	30	39	6	13	5	48	0	61	31	31	13	56	43	11	6	25	10	556	

Table 8

Summary of Coaching + Code Frequency

Categories, codes and themes	Description	No. of document excerpts coded
Coaching +		96
Access	Participants positively referenced access to instructional coach (I.C.)	16
Advice	Participants positively referenced I.C. advice.	27
Nonevaluative	Participants positively referenced I.C. lack of bias.	9
Feedback	Participants positively referenced I.C. feedback.	19
Support	Participants positively referenced I.C. support.	25
Coaching –		18
Irrelevant advice	Participants found no utility in I.C. suggestion,	13
Role clarity	Participants referenced a need for a better understanding of the I.C. relationship.	5

Access. *“(Instructional coaching) is a tool that can be used to help as needed”*

(Scout, personal communication, April 12, 2019).

“Access” generally represented the freedom that all participants felt to contact me as their instructional coach and reflected the Partnership Principles of equality, and choice as the instructional coaching relationship remained open, flexible and directed by participants’ need. Betty, Katie and Loulou utilized this freedom on a number of occurrences. Loulou stated during her third interview when asked about her interpretation of instructional coaching:

Not sure I ever really took advantage of that really. I mean I did a couple emails and such but just a little step beyond because the mentor teacher is really, really busy and so sometimes I don’t want to bother her with something and especially with my own university work whereas she’s not really tied to that. It was nice to have your opinions.

Similarly, Betty referred to the fact that her mentor was busy and she did not want

to bother her with some questions, so she would contact me instead. Katie had a similar response and referred to the freedom she felt but that the needs just didn't arise.

Scout felt the freedom of access, and in response to a question of how she interpreted instructional coaching, she stated, "It is a tool that can be used to help as needed." She added that because she worked so closely with her mentor, that she did not feel the need to contact me.

Participants also noted the flexibility and openness related to their ability to contact me. It was my habit to respond to their questions as immediately as possible. Betty noted during her third interview, "I think just your super flexible, and I think that was awesome."

There were a number of participant comments that indicated that they valued easy access to me. They often contrasted this with the responsibilities or busyness of their mentors that that created a reluctance to approach them that they did not experience with me as their instructional coach.

Advice. *"I just felt like I could ask you anything that pertained to my class ..."*
(Betty, personal communication, April 17, 2019).

The Coaching + subtheme advice was used to identify the occasions or interactions in which participants sought my input with regards to a general element of teaching, such as classroom management, lesson variation, student motivation, grading, or program requirements and represented 27 individual codes. Instructional coaching in this sense could be seen as something of a living resource and met Knight's (2009a) Partnership Principles of dialogue and reflection because these interactions were open

conversations that provided opportunities to reflect on past instruction and “make their own decisions” (p. 33). This often was co-coded with “access” because participants indicated that they felt comfortable that contacting their instructional coach would be a simple task and one that would likely be beneficial. Katie referred to this dynamic as a “backboard” a number of times in her responses indicating that she viewed the instructional coach as one with whom she could discuss ideas. Both Scout in her first interview, and Betty in her third interview, referred to this as “bouncing ideas off” their coach.

As the instructional coach, I at no time suggested or presented ideas or solutions unless the participant requested such following Knight’s (2007, 2009b) Partnership Principle of choice which describes that teachers decide what and how they learn. Items coded as “advice” included requests for ideas related to university program requirement, open lesson ideas, classroom management needs and issues related to specific student behaviors. The student teaching experience is dynamic and complicated with many factors overlapping. In this analysis, I have attempted to isolate the participants’ interactions with me as their coach and their specific comments to better understand how they perceived instructional coaching.

They also indicated that they valued an additional line of advice outside of their mentor or university advisor. When the nature of their concerns came to lesson planning or instructional ideas, some participants stated that the feedback they were given was useful especially when the participants’ lesson styles differed from their mentors. Lastly, participants’ comments often related to the value of support in regards to any need they

may have had whether related to pedagogy, classroom management, student relationships, or personal matters.

Betty and Katie both had difficult students about whom they were not confident how to arrive at a solution. In each case, the difficult students consistently slept during class. The situation with the difficult student in Betty's class became one of her proudest moments of student teaching. She was able to motivate the student to complete the work and to become uncharacteristically engaged in the class.

Katie additionally had a number of students that she described in her first interview, and in the group interview, as "defiant." In these instances, I had open conversations with both preservice teachers about a multitude of factors related to the students in an attempt to arrive at a workable solution.

Betty, Loulou and Scout all sought advice on the completion of the college required capstone student teaching project. The project required a comprehensive lesson planning portfolio including assessments. All elements of the project must be contextualized for their unique placements. Advice in these occasions related to clarifying the intent of the project and ideas on how to complete it using the work they were already doing. The nature of "advice" in this study related to occasions that the participants valued the opportunities to ask for assistance or insight on classroom management, lesson ideas, grading or college program requirements.

Coaching -: Irrelevant advice. There were some matters that arose during student teaching that were coded as Coaching -: irrelevant advice. Irrelevant advice still falls within the scope and dynamic of instructional coaching because teachers enjoy

equality, choice, voice, dialogue, reflection and praxis which provides for the application of instructional coaching in ways that are most meaningful to the teacher.

It would not be appropriate to view these irrelevant advice occurrences as a failure of instructional coaching, but rather an opportunity for reflection and reciprocity of the Partnership Principles. In this respect, reflection describes opportunities I had to be mindful of where the instructional coaching had not met the teacher's needs and for opportunities to look for additional resources when the need was beyond my skillset, and reciprocity indicates mutual learning which describes the great value I received through my interactions with the participants as my skill as an instructional coach grew.

Though not substantial and not unanimous, the element of irrelevant advice was enough to ensure inclusion in the discussion. These instances related to issues for which the participants did not indicate that they received a benefit because of applicability in their particular setting or because of a lack of experience in a particular content area. Katie expressed these concerns more than any other participant. She indicated that my lack of experience and knowledge of teaching mathematics resulted in advice that was inapplicable. At the group interview she stated, "I think for me it was the content area because you're not really familiar with the math content and you're not the, I don't know; you're not...you always say that you're not the best at it."

Similar occasions that were coded as such related to instructional ideas or grading solutions given to Scout. One such occasion resulted from instructional ideas that came too late as she was teaching the lesson the next day. Another lesson idea was disregarded because she felt the context of her students would have prevented the lesson from

succeeding.

Suggestions related to improving grading efficiency were also disregarded by Scout. It appeared that these suggestions were counter to her teaching and work style and may have consumed more energy to learn and implement than to continue in the known methods. These have been attributed to Scout's strong personality and work ethic.

Feedback. *“What would be some ideas for where [my] over-planning didn't take a lot of time that I could use on the fly?”* (Katie, personal communication, February 22, 2019).

Items coded “feedback” were most often related to specific questions participants posed in person during our one-on-one meetings, via video conference or email. The portions of the discussions that focused on instructional ideas resulted in nineteen individual codes. In most cases, a participant would pose a lesson concept, and we would discuss intended goals for the lesson, troubleshoot methods that did not seem to be working as intended or look for other instructional options. These interactions fulfilled Knight's (2009b) Partnership Principles of choice, voice, dialogue, reflection, and praxis because the conversations were mutually respectful and context-based providing for opportunities for participants and myself to reflect on the work being done and to seek opportunities for improvement.

For example, Loulou was conflicted on how to include verb conjugations in her French class because her core standards do not specifically include them. Our conversation included some research on language instruction and how to structure the lessons so that conjugations were meaningfully included. Loulou referenced this during

the group interview when asked about differences between her mentor and instructional coach.

...there were a couple of times when I got more of that, shall we say, informational stuff that maybe my mentor, because she's been out of university classes so long, she doesn't know that yet, or you know she's teaching with the older methods and such.

Betty similarly asked for lesson ideas because her mentor favored a direct lecture which she tried and failed, which she described in our first interview follow up conversation as a “crash and burn.” To better fit Betty's style, we discussed collaborative groups and other interactive methods with which she later said she found success and the students enjoyed it compared to the “boring book work” they were used to.

Lesson timing was an issue for Katie. She indicated in an email that some lessons went too fast and was looking for lesson ideas that she could use “on the fly” when she unexpectedly had additional class time remaining. Katie also sought ideas for a class that was extremely non-responsive. To remedy this, we discussed some uses of technology that she later found to be very beneficial for that particular class.

Scout was more reluctant to request feedback. Only after directly asking what she had coming up that I might be able to assist with, did she give me some direction on lesson needs. However, during her third individual interview, Scout stated that she found a disconnect in my lesson suggestions because they were not useful to her particular group of students. Her comments in this regard remained consistent. Her personal style was to figure out what worked best for her by trial and error. She stated in the third individual interview, “I feel like I know my own style better. I know what works well in the classroom, at least for me because some methods of teaching work really well for one

teacher but would just crash and burn for another. She also related in that same interview, “So I feel like I figured out better now what to do in the classroom what I feel is effective, and now I have like a really good heading I know where I’m going.” This response was to the question, “How do you feel about entering the teaching profession after student teaching?”

“Feedback” typically related to specific instructional ideas connected to specific lesson plans. Typically, a participant would refer to an individual lesson objective and be seeking feedback on instructional methods that were not working as hoped. During these interactions we would troubleshoot the lesson to determine what might not be working, and often we would look for new or additional methods that might serve the lesson better.

Nonevaluative. *“The instructional coach...has no bias; they’re a third party”* (Betty, personal communication, January 28, 2019). The participants valued that I as their instructional coach, had no responsibility to evaluate their teaching performance. This reflected Knight’s (2007, 2009b) Partnership Principles of equality and choice because I did not fulfill an administrative or evaluative role. Each participant intended this perception to indicate that their assigned mentors had other concerns to balance, whereas the instructional coach’s role was to entirely support them. This provided a freedom that they often did not feel with their mentors. With me as their coach and equal partner, they were free to choose instructional methods or management strategies that they felt most comfortable with, but they did not have a similar relationship with their mentor because the mentors had a primary concern of their own students and to evaluate the performance of their student teachers.

In our final individual interview and also during the group interview, I asked Loulou what she thought the differences were between having a mentor and having an instructional coach. The fact that her mentor had responsibilities to her own class and had the responsibility to evaluate her teaching created a somewhat difficult atmosphere that she did not experience with me as her instructional coach. The other participants had similar comments, and these instances were coded as “nonevaluative,” and contextually included a lack of evaluation, a lack of knowledge or preconceived ideas about the class. This could also be interpreted as authority and was represented in many participant conversations.

Betty in her first interview described the difference as,

You kind of have the instructional coach, [who] I guess, has no bias; they’re a third-party. [They] can kind of see things with clear eyes because if I have an issue, and I’m very involved in the situation the instructional coach doesn’t have this and can give clearer advice, or more rational or something like that.

In her final survey response to the question, “What does instructional coaching mean to you?” She wrote,

Instructional coaching is lending advice and giving guidance in all aspects of teaching that contribute to instruction. The questions I had rarely all had to do with the actual instruction given in a class, but they all had to do with how to make my students feel cared about, safe, and how to keep them on task so the instruction was as effective as possible. An instructional coach uses prior experience to guide and suggest changes to a student teacher, and who offers a non-biased, third-party observation to whatever struggle that teacher might be facing.

Katie similarly responded, “It means to have someone help me perfect the craft of teaching without having to evaluate me on my teaching. Basically, someone who is there as a backboard and not a mentor.” To that same question Loulou stated, “help beyond

what the mentor teacher gives to a student teacher.” And Scout related, “[Instructional coaching] is a tool that can be used to help as needed.” During her first interview Katie stated, “...[the mentor] might not be able to give me that advice that I’m looking for, and so an instructional coach has no bias to the way I’m teaching or advice to students could actually give me some advice that could help.

Regarding my nonevaluative role, in her third interview, Betty described the relationship with me as her instructional coach as, “...I was grateful though that I had an instructional coach because I felt like, OK, this is the person, this is what he wants to do. So, if I had an issue or something, and I wanted help, you could give me an honest perspective about it, and I didn’t feel like it was going to negatively impact me in any way....” Katie and Loulou similarly responded in their third interviews that the outside opinion was of value. Katie stated during the group interview, “I just wasn’t sure if I wanted to use [mentor’s] advice, like I just I... [the instructional coach] was great for like an outside opinion, like a different opinion. Similarly, Loulou said, “It was nice to have another opinion whereas the mentor teacher is not really affiliated with that;” meaning that the mentor teacher has other, sometimes conflicting, responsibilities.

These experiences describe the “coaching light” (Killion, 2009) nature of my instructional coaching. This style of coaching has a primary focus on support and relationship building. In this study, all participants indicated that this style of coaching was of value.

Support. *Student teaching is hard; it’s been hard, and I know it’s going to continue to be hard so [it’s] about having that extra support* (Scout, personal

communication, January 24, 2019).

“Support” was used for comments or interactions in which a participant was seeking general help or encouragement. Support was coded in number second only to advice resulting in 25 individual codes. Support also related to a sense of guidance and security to the participants. In her pre-survey response to the question, “What does instructional coaching mean to you? Scout responded, “To me this means having someone who is watching over me, so to speak. Someone I can go to for guidance, bounce ideas off of, and generally make sure that I am not messing everything up.” Betty also referenced this in her response in her post-survey response. “Instructional coaching is lending advice and giving guidance in all aspects of teaching that contribute to instruction.”

An example can be seen in Betty’s third interview. She approached instructional coaching as an additional resource, but not necessarily in terms of a specific pedagogical nature. In the interview she stated, “I just felt like I could ask you anything that pertained to my class even about my own sanity outside of the class; I feel like I could ask you.” Similarly, in her post-survey response she stated,

The questions I had rarely all had to do with the actual instruction given in a class, but they all had to do with how to make my students feel cared about, safe, and how to keep them on task so the instruction was as effective as possible. An instructional coach uses prior experience to guide and suggest changes to a student teacher, and who offers a non-biased third-party observation to whatever struggle that teacher might be facing.

Support also related to general encouragement or a willing listener. Though Scout often did not seek direct assistance, interviews were often filled with open conversation about unique students, personal events, school issues, or general dialogue about student

work. She shared one humorous anecdote during the group interview. “My favorite essay moment was a kid telling me how the Great Depression was called that because people were sad. So, there were a lot of emotions, and that’s why it was called the “Great Depression” Or, [a student] telling me about how Rosa Parks fought slavery was my favorite.”

Scout and I also chatted about personal health issues that were complicating her student teaching process as well as her wedding planning. These interactions did not seem to directly impact her teaching, but did seem to fulfill Knight’s (2007) Partnership Principle of dialogue. In this respect it’s important for the instructional coach to listen, to be sensitive and meet the teacher where they are.

Betty experienced a particularly difficult situation with some students. A friend of one of her students took their own life, and Betty’s student was also grappling with those same feelings. Betty was, not surprisingly, very concerned and reached out to me to discuss ways to help but to also navigate these situations in her career. Betty’s school also had to deal with some very harmful racism issues that placed a cloud over the school. Occasions like these demonstrated Knight’s (2007) Partnership Principle of dialogue because the instructional coach should listen, think and learn with participants through authentic dialogue. These examples were included in the “support” theme because I became a personal resource for the participants for casual conversations, or personal support during difficult times. This could also be seen as a professional friend, one who cared about them as individuals as well as teachers, and one who was willing to listen to whatever they wanted to talk about even if they were not seeking a solution to a problem.

The “support” theme indicated interactions wherein participants may have sought assistance in a general or personal manner and accounted for more than a quarter of all Coaching + codes. These instances indicated that a primary value of instructional coaching to participants was seen in the area of support.

Last, the Coaching – subtheme of role clarity was only identified a total of five times. When directly asked what would improve the instructional coaching that they had received, they indicated that a better understanding of what instructional coaching is would have been valuable and would have benefited them at the outset of the project.

Three of the four participants specifically mentioned that some examples of appropriate requests would have helped them to know how to ask for assistance. During our third interview, Betty stated, “I think the worst thing was I had no idea what an instructional coach’s role was and never, you know, obviously been involved with one before. So, I just didn’t know, towards the beginning especially, how much should I be bothering him or how?”

Similarly, Loulou mentioned that a list of things that I could help with would have been helpful at the beginning of her student teaching. Scout also stated it “would have been helpful if you and I set down right at the very beginning and walk through what to expect in student teaching.”

Though I did include details of instructional coaching when seeking volunteers and individually met with each participant at the outset of the semester to discuss instructional coaching, it appears that it was insufficient once the reality of their student teaching began. They knew that I was available, but were unclear about the specifics of

that availability.

Coaching + and Coaching - Themes Summary

The Coaching + main theme included access, advice, feedback, nonevaluative and support. All were differentiated as the context of the conversations and interactions directed and resulted in a healthy view of the elements of instructional coaching that participants indicated a perceived value. The Coaching - subtheme of irrelevant advice was included to indicate how advice was received by the respective participant in occasions where they did not find utility. The Coaching - subtheme of role clarity was included to indicate confusion on behalf of the participants of the actual nature of the instructional coaching and what appropriate requests would be. Each of the Coaching + themes demonstrate an application of Knight's (2009a) Partnership Principles in one or more ways though our open discussions, collaboration and mutual learning.

Table 9 presents an overview of the identified themes with examples of the connections between my Coaching + themes and the Partnership Principles as they related to a sample of participants' statements. I add these as a summary overview of how the Partnership Principles aligned with the themes that emerged in the study.

Research (Bush, 1984; Cornett & Knight, 2009b; Darling-Hammond, 2014; Joyce & Showers, 1982; Showers, 1984a) has shown that a variety of coaching and mentoring methods can be a powerful, component in the transfer of skill from instruction to consistent implementation in teaching practice. Additionally, Darling-Hammond (2010a), Dweck (2015), and Guskey (1986) extend the concept through the idea of productive

Table 9

Overview of Partnership Principles, Coaching + Themes and Participant Excerpts

Coaching + themes	Partnership principles	Participant excerpt
Access: overall availability of their instructional coach	Choice, and equality	“[Instructional coaching] is a tool that can be used to help as needed” (Scout, personal communication, April 12, 2019).
Advice: Interactions that related to university program requirements, or unique student behaviors	Dialogue, reflection, and praxis	I just felt like I could ask you anything that pertained to my class...” (Betty, personal communication, April 17, 2019).
Nonevaluative: The instructional coach had no responsibility for evaluations or student performance. The instructional coach was seen as a personal resource.	Equality and choice	“The instructional coach...has no bias; they’re a third party” (Betty, personal communication, January 28, 2019).
Feedback: Items related to specific questions on instructional ideas	Choice, dialogue, voice, praxis, and reflection	“What would be some ideas for where [my] over-planning didn’t take a lot of time that I could use on the fly?” (Katie, personal communication, February 22, 2019).
Support: Comments or interactions in which a participant was seeking general help or encouragement	Equality, dialogue and reciprocity	Student teaching is hard; it’s been hard, and I know it’s going to continue to be hard so [it’s] about having that extra support (Scout, personal communication, January 24, 2019).

struggle. Instructional coaching during this study indicated that with assistance, one can truly benefit from the support of a more knowledgeable other (Vygotsky, 1978), and that it is important that the more knowledgeable other not have evaluative responsibilities which would erode the coaching relationship.

Self-Efficacy and Instructional Coaching

My instructional coach helped with more with my confidence in behavior issues than content. (Katie, personal conversation, 2019)

Literature (Bandura, 1977, 1993, 1994; Henson, 2001; Klassen & Tze, 2014; Pajares, 1996; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007) indicated that a strong sense of self-efficacy improves teacher performance. Based on that literature and the anticipation that instructional coaching may improve student teacher self-efficacy, I was surprised to find that participants did not attribute much of their improved sense of self-efficacy to instructional coaching, but rather to student relationships, and the gaining of additional experience in the classroom. There was some small indication by two participants that they attributed an improved sense of self-efficacy to the instructional coaching. I include the following discussion on self-efficacy to complete a connection to the literature and to present the related findings of this study.

Participants' sense of self-efficacy was represented in many forms. As the data indicates, the primary sources of a sense of positive self-efficacy stemmed from the experiences they gained in the classrooms, relationships with students and an overall sense of joy in their day-to-day work. A few connections were made between positive sense of self-efficacy gained from instructional coaching.

Conversely, the primary sources of a negative sense of self-efficacy resulted from early feelings of fear to begin student teaching, stress and nervousness related to the job. Self-efficacy + was coded approximately 2:1 to self-efficacy -. Table 10 indicates the multi-coding of self-efficacy with other factors.

Self-Efficacy: Sources

A primary source of positive self-efficacy was personal successes with students and is reflected in the frequency number of excerpts coded as "Student Relationships"

Table 10

Summary of Self-Efficacy + and Self-Efficacy - Multi-Codes

Self-efficacy	Coaching	Coaching +	Feedback	Support	Coaching -	Irrelevant or rejected advice	Emotions	Joy	Nervous	Stress/overwhelm	Student teaching	Gaining experience	Mentor	Teaching factor	Classroom management	Future profession	Practice	Preparation	Socialization	Student relationship	Totals
Self-efficacy +		1	1	2		1		11	3	3	2	22	3		4	3	1	3	0	10	70
Self-efficacy -		0	0	0		1		2	4	6	1	3	3		2	0	2	6	1	4	35

and “Joy.” These were often coded together because participants frequently connected their personal relationships with students as a source of joy. Some related overall classroom management success and others told of one-on-one success with students. These mastery experiences appeared to provide a great deal of satisfaction and confidence.

In the course of this study, comments that indicated a positive sense of efficacy were coded as Self-efficacy +, and conversely, comments that indicated a negative sense of efficacy were coded as Self-efficacy -. Often, the source or context of the positive or negative comment was also multi-coded. For example, if a participant indicated a strong sense of efficacy and that was due to classroom management, “classroom management” was also coded. Instructional coaching only appeared three times in relationship to self-efficacy indicating that the positive instances of efficacy were derived from sources other

than coaching. The data indicate that the majority of positive self-efficacy excerpts were connected to the joy of teaching, student relationships and the gaining of experience.

Participants indicated that gaining professional experience during student teaching provided the greatest source of positive self-efficacy. This was represented in the comments and illustrations on their journey maps (see Appendix C) described below. By contrast, a lack of experience during preparation contributed to the greatest source of stress and negative sense of self-efficacy.

When discussing their sense of self-efficacy during the group interview and in relationship to their start of student teaching, participants shared their fear of exposure. Scout, who admittedly struggles with anxiety in her day-to-day life, explained how she had begun having teacher nightmares prior to the beginning of student teaching. “Before I started I was having stress dreams about student teaching for, like weeks, like every single night” and that she was “terrified.” Although, she may have experienced great stress during student teaching, those terrors were never realized. Scout stated during the final group interview, “...I really, really, really love [teaching]. And it’s also really exhausting, and I always need a nap and more caffeine.”

Scout referred to her frequent “stress dreams” and pointed to her journey map as an “emotional road map” of her sense of self-efficacy. She detailed one dream: “So, it’s a weird stress thing that I showed up without my skirt on. And I just had like my slip on, and it was very stressful!”

During the same interview, Loulou had previously described one of her first experiences teaching the class as feeling “naked.” I had asked her how it felt the first few

times that she taught the class her way, and she responded, “A little like being naked. I felt a little bit... I didn’t know what I was doing, or I didn’t know if it was going to be right!” During that same comment Loulou indicated that with experience she did not feel as naked. These two participant responses indicated to me how their worry stemmed from a lack of confidence that they would be able to successfully teach and were coded as “self-efficacy-.”

Katie’s journey map was designed as a mountain profile with only one small dip. The map details her positive experiences as they climb the slope to the peak of “Got a job! Yay!, and “Truly acting like a Real Teacher!” (emphasis hers). Each step in the climb indicated successive positive experiences with the one exception of a negative experience that added a drop in the progression when she received a critique that “ruined a day for me, but learned every teacher deals with it.” The journey map detailed successive events that resulted in her belief that she was, in fact, a “real teacher.”

Referring to the beginning portion on her journey map, Scout used an icon of a small fuzzy creature standing beside a confident and proud teacher character which she described as the way she felt in comparison to her professional teacher mentor. Scout’s map is somewhat recursive showing characters moving through successes and struggles and ultimately into an image of a teacher that conveyed confidence. In her final individual interview, Scout characterized her cumulative experiences as, “I feel like I figured out better now what to do in the classroom what I feel is effective, and now I have like a really good heading I know where I’m going” indicating a sense of positive self-efficacy.

Similarly, Loulou's map illustrated her stick-figure character as somewhat perplexed and moving into frazzled character with the words "many oopses." That character gains a smile as the narrative becomes "able to recover from "oopses" easier and "planning and preparing" indicating that the time in the class afforded her experiences that improved her confidence. Stress of balancing her home and work lives appears to have been a great challenge for Loulou. In large lettering at the top and in the middle of her journey map, Loulou wrote, "Balancing home with school" and "Not letting home & school affect each other." During her first individual interview, Loulou stated,

I am really enjoying being in the classroom. It's been hard because I've been an at home mom and going to school part time. It's hard for me and my family for me not to be at home all the time; you're the laundry is not getting done; dinner is not cooked that sort of thing, so I'm a little bit apprehensive about teaching full time, but my kids are getting older so it might work out, you know? And being in the classroom just gives me another purpose in life. So yeah, I'm looking at it as a positive thing.

She referred to the stress of balancing her responsibilities a number of times over the course of the study but indicated on the latter section of her journey map, "taking over completely" and "finishing with a bang" accompanied by figures with smiles. Her last note of the journey map stated "Keeping it professional" indicating that she viewed herself more as a confident professional teacher than she did at the beginning.

Betty's journey map indicated that she was excited and "very nervous" to take over the class on the following week, and quickly included that she knew the students could ascertain how "unqualified" she was with large illustrated eyes staring out.

In a follow up question regarding the journey maps, Betty echoed others'

comments regarding the growth in self-efficacy from the learning experiences during student teaching:

... honestly, I think it was just the fact that I hadn't had a ton of exposure before, of like really running my own class, you know, in practicum we taught like three times or something like that. And so, I just wasn't sure like what my abilities really were. And so, I was really insecure just about like do I have what it takes to teach? And it took a couple of times of me like falling on my face or having a really awesome to realize what worked for me.

In her post-survey response to the prompt, "Describe your experiences in the classroom with students," Loulou stated, "I enjoy being surrounded by students. I like when we can joke and have fun but still get the lessons taught and learned." She also indicated that being able to get the class back to work when they had gotten off task was a satisfying success and contributed to her confidence.

Katie found success with some defiant students that she discussed in the group interview relating the story from her journey map. In a section of the map with a steep upslope, she wrote "Got a defiant student to do 3 problems!" She had indicated earlier that the defiant students were also difficult for the mentor teacher adding to the satisfaction of this particular success. She detailed this during the group interview.

Probably one of my proudest moments was getting a couple defiant students to do work because we had a lot of defiant students, and there are some that would just sit there all class period and be like, 'I'm not doing anything you can't make me,' but I ended up getting a defiant student to do three problems. And then from the rest of my student teaching they actually did a lot more work. So, I was proud of that.

Betty similarly had a great success that she referenced a number of times. A student who insisted on sleeping during class ultimately completed a very successful project and continued to perform for the remainder of her student teaching time. She

related the experience during the group interview as, “he (the student) did an awesome presentation, and ever since, after that day, when he presented he was engaged to my class every day, and I just felt like that was a really cool breakthrough for me as a teacher where I felt like I kind of helped out one student and then the end of the semester evaluation, he actually mentioned that specific experience. So that was a cool moment for me as a teacher. I finally started feeling like the teacher after like a month of being there.”

Scout did not detail any individual student success as the other participants had. Yet, even when she was describing silly and frustrating behavior, she did so with a smile and seemed to relish those peculiar interactions. At one point during the group interview, she laughed, “Bless their clueless, humble souls. I love them, but sometimes they’re a little special. Some of those kids, gotta love them though; you know, I love those kids, like, they’re fun.”

At other times, Scout detailed frustration with students who were difficult to motivate, but often contrasted those instances with words indicating satisfaction derived from student relationships. During her final individual interview, when asked about what teaching meant to her, she stated, “I think, with some students It can even be as simple as having, like a safe place for them to be or having like a positive adult in their life, basically, and for some students it is having these life skills and stuff like that.”

Self-Efficacy and Instructional Coaching

Most participants indicated that the majority of their increase in self-efficacy stemmed from classroom experience and student relationships. However, Betty and Katie attributed a benefit in self-efficacy to their interactions with their instructional coach.

Betty indicated that her mentor gave her confidence when dealing with behavior issues, but that I as her instructional coach was a source of positive self-efficacy when it came to instructional methods or lesson design especially following a failed attempt at lecture that left her feeling inadequate. She stated, “I definitely felt more comfortable coming to my instructional coach for advice than I did asking my mentor” (Personal communication, April, 17, 2019). Betty explained that this was primarily due to the differences in their teaching styles and the reality that her mentor has the responsibility of evaluations. These two conditions left Betty feeling uncomfortable approaching her assigned classroom mentor out of concern that her questions would create conflict and reflect poorly on her evaluations. The freedom to contact me as her instructional coach permitted her to seek input with concern.

Katie’s mentor employed a number of instructional coaching methods that appeared to impact her experiences during student teaching, yet she made a distinction between the two. When asked in the group interview about the difference between her mentor and instructional coach she stated,

The instructional coach helped more of like when I had questions that my mentor teacher couldn’t really answer, or like I just wasn’t sure if I wanted to use this advice like I just I... he was great for like an outside opinion, like a different opinion. So, I was grateful, like, my instructional coach was great for behavioral issues more than content issues. So, he helped me more with my confidence in behavioral issues than content.

These two examples (i.e., Betty and Katie) highlight the flexibility and individualized nature of instructional coaching. Where they were unable to derive the needed input from their mentors, they were able to find it from me.

All participants detailed a progressive improvement in self-efficacy over the

course of their student teaching. This was primarily derived from mastery experiences and personal relationships with students, but two indicated that experiences with their instructional coach also provided a source of self-efficacy.

Each participant experienced a mentorship that they considered to be valuable and had some key elements of the Partnership Principles. The perceptions varied considerably, but most were seen as beneficial, and they all provided space for instructional coaching. Participants' perceptions will be detailed in the following section. These contextual factors were offered to connect the literature on socialization, teacher preparation and self-efficacy as they were identified with these participants during this study. They are provided here to establish a larger lens from which to view the participants' comments and their related data.

Chapter Summary

This chapter was structured to connect the experiences of the participants during their student teaching to their instructional coaching. The chapter began with a deductive analysis of my *a priori* codes to arrive at the refined main themes and subthemes. I then detailed the inductive process used to identify important factors that related to participant perceptions. The findings were used to answer the primary and secondary research questions through coding of participants' emails, personal conversations, interview transcripts and journey maps.

The analysis of all relevant data indicated that participants' perceptions of instructional were primarily reflected in the Coaching + themes of access, advice,

feedback, nonevaluative and support. Though this analysis two themes emerged that were not included in the main theme of Coaching + and were thus included in the Coaching – main theme. These were identified as irrelevant advice and role clarity.

While not sufficient enough to be included as part of either Coaching + or Coaching -, there was evidence to indicate that two participants attributed an increase in self-efficacy to their instructional coaching.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

This chapter begins with a summary of the study and then presents the conclusions that I arrived at after analyzing the data collected from participant surveys, individual and group interviews, researcher memos and participant journey maps. The chapter then includes a discussion about instructional coaching with preservice teachers during student teaching. This chapter also includes implications for policy makers, educational leaders, professional teacher education programs (PTEPs), student teachers and instructional coaches. Finally, the chapter concludes with implications for further research that may prove to be beneficial to continue this line of investigation.

Summary of the Study

The purpose of this study was to seek an understanding of how preservice teachers perceived Knight's (2007, 2009b) instructional coaching and Partnership Principles during student teaching. PTEPs are under intense scrutiny and pressure to improve their preparation of new teachers but often find it difficult to implement meaningful improvements. Instructional coaching has shown great utility in inservice teacher professional development (Bush, 1984; Cornett & Knight, 2009b; Darling-Hammond, 2014; Joyce & Showers, 1982; Showers, 1984a), yet little has been investigated regarding its utility in professional teacher education programs. For these

reasons, this study was conducted to gain a first-hand insight into preservice teachers' perceptions of instructional coaching during student teaching.

This qualitative case study included four preservice teachers completing their student teaching in their final semester of their PTEP at a rural public university in the Western U.S. All participants volunteered to be in the study motivated by a desire for additional assistance during student teaching which is typically a difficult culminating task at the end of most professional teacher education programs.

The college of education pairs each preservice teacher with at least one mentor, and the program requires at least 360 contact hours with students. Participants were asked to respond to a variety of prompts related to student teaching, teaching in general, and instructional coaching on a presurvey and a postsurvey. Throughout the study, I performed my instructional coaching role through a variety of methods. The majority of our interactions were one-on-one, personal conversations either in-person at their school sites, or via online video conferencing. During these conversations, discussions would focus on, but were not limited to, curriculum design, student behaviors and classroom management, curriculum planning, program requirements, or other personal needs. Frequently, I would follow up these personal conversations with an email that included promised materials or ideas that related to the requests expressed. Participants also frequently emailed me with specific requests that typically centered on classroom management or instructional ideas. My coaching role amounted to something of an on-call support.

Throughout the semester, participants were individually interviewed three times

and all attended a culminating group interview. Participants were also asked to complete an illustrated journey map depicting their experiences during student teaching.

Throughout the duration of the study, I created memos based on personal communications which included emails, personal visits and video conferences.

This study built on previous research on instructional coaching by Dr. Jim Knight (2007, 2009b) and employed his Partnership Principles of Equality, Choice, Voice, Dialogue, Reflection Praxis, and Reciprocity. Killion (2009) extends and differentiates instructional coaching into coaching light and coaching heavy. Coaching light focuses on relationship building and personal support, and coaching heavy focuses on instructional quality and skill improvement. In this study, I employed coaching light and expanded the use of Knight's instructional coaching model to include preservice teachers during their student teaching practice.

My guiding primary and secondary research questions were:

Primary Question

How do preservice teachers perceive the experience of instructional coaching during their semester of student teaching?

Secondary Research Question 1

What aspects of Knight's (2007, 2009b) instructional coaching are most valued by preservice teachers during student teaching?

Secondary Research Question 2

What do preservice teachers think would improve instructional coaching during

student teaching?

Limitations of the Study

Many aspects of this study are replicable as the professional teacher education program is regionally and nationally accredited which requires specific program elements that other programs would also be required to meet creating parity. The college is part of a fully accredited liberal arts state university with a student population of approximately 9,500. Institutions of comparable location and size may find this study transferrable though not generalizable due to the unique factors of this study (Lincoln & Guba, 2009). The teacher education program is similar to many other state programs with no unusual or atypical factors. Those realities, plus the applicability of instructional coaching in a variety of teacher education settings, may also support its utility in other programs.

Though the aforementioned aspects of the study might be transferable, it did have some factors that may prevent exact duplication. This case study included a small group of four secondary education preservice teachers who may not be entirely representational of a larger population of preservice teachers in other student teaching settings. One of the preservice teachers in this study was placed in large metropolitan high schools (student population = 3,160); one preservice teacher was placed at a large metropolitan junior high school (student population = 1,002), and two were placed in the same large rural high school (student population = 1,215). The participants taught in English language arts, history, mathematics, and French language instruction. Though the participants in this study came from these listed content areas, it is reasonable to assume that the level of

proficiency for preservice teachers from other content areas would be comparable.

Other factors that should be considered are the unique personalities of the preservice teachers, the instructional coach, the schools, students and mentors. The combination of these factors worked together to create a unique experience for all involved.

The assigned mentors' influences on the preservice teachers are also factors that should be considered as each mentor in this study performed their duties in different ways while still performing their duties within the same PTEP requirements. Each had a different personal style and approach to the task of mentoring. However, this would likely be the case in most student teaching assignments and something for which an instructional coach must consider because they must tailor the coaching to the unique needs and placement of the teacher.

Last, I enjoyed a positive relationship with all participants throughout the study, and I had known them all for the majority of their time in the preparation program. This likely had a positive effect on the instructional coaching because establishing a trusting relationship is a critical primary step. There were no personality conflicts to negatively affect our interactions or cloud the conversations. Throughout the study, all participants remained engaged in the process. Should a coached teacher and the instructional coach have a strained relationship, this would undoubtedly have negatively affected their perceived value of the instructional coaching.

To mitigate the potential conflict between the dual roles of instructional coach and researcher, I frequently reminded participants that their personal perceptions of the

instructional coaching were the only focus of the study, and that none of their perceptions would be deemed either “right” or “wrong.” I also made it clear to my participants that the quality of their teaching was not a focus to help reduce any fear that my role may be misinterpreted as an evaluator.

Before discussing the specific findings regarding instructional coaching, it serves to include the element of self-efficacy because research indicated that a teacher’s sense of efficacy affects their teaching performance, and this was of interest to me with my participants during this study.

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is the confidence that one has about their ability to effect an intended change in a particular task (Bandura, 1994; Henson, 2001), thus a teacher’s belief that they are able to do the task at hand is critical for their own success. Understanding this dynamic during student teaching was not a primary goal of this study, but the data indicated that participants’ sense of self-efficacy increased throughout the study, and because of that, it warrants inclusion and discussion.

The data indicated that the majority of positive self-efficacy excerpts were connected to the joy of teaching, student relationships and the gaining of teaching experience. Instances that contributed to a negative sense of self-efficacy were typically related to negative student interactions and the overall stress and overwhelm of the job. This falls in alignment with Bandura (1977, 1994) and Pajares’ (1996) assertions regarding the sources and weight of personal experiences that contribute to a sense of

self-efficacy.

Additionally, there was an indication from Betty that her self-efficacy increased, and she specifically attributed this to the instructional coaching she received. Betty's mentor at times was somewhat strident in her evaluations and interactions with her leaving her questioning her ability to perform the job. As she told it, because of her conversations and personal support from me, she was able to rebound and reestablish her sense of self-efficacy.

All participants in the study indicated a strong sense of self-efficacy which indicated a belief that they could perform the role of teacher during student teaching and beyond. This sense was positive at the beginning of the study, and increased throughout the study, buoyed by positive interactions with their students and mostly positive relationships with their mentors and their instructional coach.

In this study, participants self-reported their feelings of efficacy, and when pushed to identify the sources of those feelings they connected them primarily to relationships with students and some to having an instructional coach. This information is useful and compares favorably to former and present research on self-efficacy (Bandura, 1994; Klassen & Tze, 2014; Pajares, 1996; Ryung Kim, 2018). However, what is lacking is a more consistent measurement of the sources of the efficacy and a clearer attribution to student achievement correlated to that efficacy which Ryung Kim and Klassen et al. (2011) identify as a gap in the literature and worthy of study.

Instructional Coaching

The instructional coaching model for this study, “Instructional Coaching: A Partnership Approach to Improving Instruction” and “Coaching: Approaches and Perspectives” has been designed by Dr. Jim Knight of the University of Kansas’ Instructional Coaching Group (Knight, 2007, 2009b). Coaching in educational applications is extensively supported by research (Bush, 1984; Gonzalez Del Castillo, 2015; Knight, 2007; Knight & Cornett, 2009; Showers, 1982, 1984b). This study focused on the practices of instructional coaching as described by Knight (2007, 2009a) and includes his Partnership Principles of equality, choice, voice, dialogue, reflection, praxis, and reciprocity. These principles were employed through a coaching light (Killion, 2009) application in my interactions with all participants.

Findings

Discussion of Findings in Relation to the Extant Literature

Findings in this study aligned with various aspects of previous studies on teacher preparation and instructional coaching (Darling-Hammond, 2010b; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Fernandez, 2005; Knight & Cornett, 2009; Marzano, 2003; Pajares, 1996; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001; Yilmaz, 2011). Student teaching is sometimes a trial-by-fire experience, one that student teachers much survive (Darling-Hammond, 2010b; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004b; Walsh, 2013; Woolfolk Hoy, 2000) because of a lack of supports and poorly designed programs. Darling-Hammond (2010b)

referred to these types of student teaching experiences as a “dollop” of practice before entering the profession which she considered an insufficient transition into the profession.

Participants in this study, expressed a sense of readiness to begin student teaching, but paired those comments with the belief that student teaching is something that just has to be experienced. These sentiments appeared to stem from an acceptance of the socialization of a traditional teacher preparation program whose program culminates in student teaching, whether good or bad. They seemed unaware that there were any options to this experience and were resigned to complete it as required. However, they indicated that their knowledge of the rigorous nature of student teaching prompted them to volunteer for this study to access additional resources, in which they ultimately found benefit.

Instructional coaching provides ongoing support that better facilitates the transfer of instruction into practice in a social constructivist (Vygotsky, 1978) form. The side-by-side benefit of coaching is found in the work of Darling-Hammond (2010a), Dweck (2015), and Guskey (1986). In my work with participants, I found that this dynamic permitted me to meet the individualized needs of my participants in a variety of ways, all of which speak to the value of personalized attention. Similarly, Morris (2019) found that not only did the individualized nature of instructional coaching support her coached teachers, but that it prompted her to improve her coaching skills when she found her work falling short. I also, discovered this. This is detailed in my Coaching – theme. I found that though I was giving my best effort, that effort was at times missing the mark which left participants without the support I was attempting to give. These resulted in two

subthemes of “irrelevant advice” and “role clarity” which prompted further reflection on my coaching practice and implementation in respect to participants’ needs. These are further detailed below.

The following findings connect my primary and secondary research questions with corresponding data. I also connect the aspects of instructional coaching as they relate to the findings to support my conclusions and to establish a full representation of the data and establish how they connect to former and present research.

Primary Research Question

The primary research question asked, “*How do preservice teachers perceive the experience of instructional coaching during their semester of student teaching*”? All participants found a benefit in instructional coaching. They agreed that having additional forms of support from me as their instructional coach was of service to them during their student teaching. This included the flexibility and ease of contacting me for any reason without fear that doing so could negatively impact their teaching evaluation. Participants also indicated an increase in their self-efficacy from the beginning of the study to the end that some attributed to the experience of instructional coaching and others to the overall experience gained during student teaching.

Betty specifically indicated during her second interview that she derived self-confidence from her interactions with me as a coach when some difficult interactions and a harsh evaluation negatively impacted her confidence.

Scout felt that the value of coaching was related to instructional ideas that she obtained from me. Her strong mentor and general independence left little room for

instructional coaching as I was able to employ with my other participants. This was not interpreted as a problem on instructional coaching. Rather, it supported the Partnership Principle choice because there was no prescribed program that she was negligent in following. Choice enables coached teachers to decide what they learn and how they learn it.

Loulou also had a strong mentor, and valued the extra outside opinion and source of research and for instructional methods because she felt that her mentor was somewhat old-fashioned in her teaching. This too was a practical example of her *choice* in her instructional coaching.

Loulou was the only participant who indicated that coaching caused her to be more thoughtful and intentional in her teaching. This was due to her awareness that I would be asking her to elaborate on her experiences which had the result of creating a mindfulness in her to determine how effective she was being with her students. This represents the reflection and reciprocity Partnership Principles, and Loulou articulated as much. This reflective nature was sought by Trautwein and Ammerman (2010) in a peer-coaching setting asserting that “these early demonstration experiences help build trust and collegiality as the mentor evaluates his/her teaching performance and encourages the students to do likewise; students learn the importance of reflective practice as a mechanism for setting continued professional growth goals.” Though Loulou was the only participant to make special note of this truth, its reality serves to demonstrate the value of a supportive coaching model in lieu of high-stakes evaluations.

Loulou, however, believed that that the instructional coaching she experienced

with me was somewhat limited because of the overall positive experiences she had during her student teaching which included students, school, mentor, and instructional coach. All worked well together, potentially eliminating the need for extensive coaching.

Katie's mentor employed a number of instructional coaching methods such as choice, voice, dialogue, equality, and praxis that appeared to positively impact her perceptions during student teaching, yet she was able to make a distinction between the value of her instructional coach and her mentor. She found value in her instructional coach when she had need of support with student behavior issues when she felt that her mentor might not be able to provide the needed insight.

The answer to my primary research question is that all participants positively experienced instructional coaching during student teaching. Instructional coaching is not intended to be a one-size-fits-all enterprise which is a stark differentiation between it and traditional professional development.

I found that this individualized nature was important because of the personality differences, variety of instructional strengths and varied placements. Typical professional development, as Galey (2016) and Knight (2006) have shown are ineffective primarily because it often lacks the personalized instruction that instructional coaching affords.

Instructional coaching allows for individualized supports as the setting and teacher require, which were demonstrated in this study and enjoyed by the participants. Key in this sense, is that the coached teacher in a "coaching-light" (Killion, 2009) model is that the teacher leads the interactions with their needs and concerns rather than the coach pushing the teacher to accept a particular concept or method. Knight (2017), and

Kelly and Knight (2019b) have recently added that teacher autonomy is central to seeing growth in the coached teachers. This would support the coaching-light concept and support the Partnership Principles which facilitate a careful relationship between coach. Though a coach may be under pressure to see desired results from a teacher, too much pressure may thwart progress. I experienced something akin to this during this study, and at times found some frustration when participants were reluctant to make changes that seemed prudent even necessary. Taking a step back, and honoring my participants' wishes was critical, and benefited my relationships with them, and facilitated trust and an open dialogue that they frequently utilized. Galey (2016) reports on the literature regarding the "important part of this equation" and that teachers "thrive in schools where people trust them..." (p. 63). I would concur.

Secondary Research Question 1

Secondary research question 1 asked, "*What aspects of Knight's (2007, 2009b) instructional coaching Partnership Principles are most valued by preservice teachers during student teaching*"?

The data indicated five areas in which participants found a benefit. These were subcoded under the main code of Coaching +. The five areas were access, advice, bias, feedback and support. Each of these codes was detailed in Chapter IV, so I will not attempt to comprehensively detail each here. Rather, I will first explain the rationale behind each of the subthemes and then summarize their benefit to the participants and how these findings align to previous and current instructional coaching literature.

Access. The Coaching + subtheme, "access," represented comments made by

participants that indicated a value in the ease of contact they experienced. It was important for participants to have this ease and flexibility to contact their instructional coach values because they must know that this resource available to them as much or as little as needed. As such, I made it very clear that I intended to be as much as a resource to them as they needed, and that I did not intend to become a burden to them during an already difficult endeavor. This is an important distinction for instructional coaches because the addition of an instruction coach can become a burden in and of itself to a new teacher that is already overwhelmed with their new duties. Loulou was the only participant who indicated that she felt somewhat guilty for not utilizing my resources more, but added she did not find the need as much as she thought she would have. The other three participants indicated that they felt the amount of contact by me was appropriate, and that they could contact further if they so desired. It is a delicate balance for the instructional coach to find between availability and forcing excessive contact.

Knight (2017) discusses the importance of teacher autonomy asserting “that autonomy is an essential and fundamental part of effective coaching” (p. 14). This permits teachers to make decisions based on their own needs and fulfills what Kelly and Knight (2019a), in a recent blog post, term “Facilitative Coaching” which presumes that the coached teacher simply needs a “sounding board to facilitate their existing knowledge into practice.” Two of my participants, Katie and Scout, used those exact words “sounding board,” when describing their desire to participate in this study.

Advice. The Coaching + subtheme “advice” was used to identify the occasions or interactions in which participants sought my input regarding any general aspect of

teaching, such as classroom management, lesson variation, student motivation, grading, or college program requirements.

Participants found value in having an outside resource who was able to handle most questions or concerns that they had. They differentiated this from their university supervisors and classroom mentors by explaining that they were not always comfortable seeking their input for fear of it having a negative impact on their student teaching evaluations. This additional support for student teachers is key and relates to the nonevaluative finding. The pressure on student teachers can be intense and having something of a professional friend is a real benefit. This is especially meaningful to them because there is no threat of evaluation.

Related to “advice” were interactions that were coded as “irrelevant advice.” These excerpts indicated that not all advice was helpful or missed the mark in some way. It is tempting to be offended in these situations, however it would be better to use them as opportunities to reflect and determine solutions or conduct further research on the particular concept being discussed or seeking outside support from a content area specialist to better support the student teacher. These findings are similar to Morris’ (2019) in her coaching improved through interactions with her participants and her reflective skills likewise improved. Though I felt confident in my instructional coaching abilities, the skill of being highly reflective and adaptable to individual styles is more significant than I imagined.

Nonevaluative. Items identified as “nonevaluative” indicated remarks in which participants noted the lack of authority over their student teaching and the lack of a stake

in the classrooms in which they were working. They indicated that there was value in knowing that my primary focus and concern was on their wellbeing and success. The participants valued a perceived lack of bias on my behalf as their instructional coach and reflected Knight's (2007) Partnership Principles of equality and choice because the relationships were premised upon all members being equal, and I did not have any additional authority over the participants. Additionally, they had choice regarding every aspect of their instructional coaching. This finding speaks to mutual respect, trust and autonomy in the professional relationship (Buckingham & Goodall, 2019; Galey, 2016; Knight, 2013; Landry, 2019). Buckingham and Goodall, in response to the "radical transparency" trend in business, assert that focusing someone on their shortcoming does not facilitate learning, rather, it impairs it. Due to the nature of my mutually respectful relationship with my participants, the data show that they were able to act without fear in a way that they did not enjoy with their assigned mentors or university supervisor.

This was a value to all of the participants because it provided a needed element of freedom and comfort. This was mentioned by all participants and warrants further investigation because the mentor and the college student teaching supervisor are intended to be lines of support, yet these participants still did not feel as free to seek their input for fear of it reflecting negatively on their program completion and thus felt more comfortable contacting me knowing there could be no negative repercussions associated with doing so. Kraft, Blazar and Hogan (2017) agree that the same person serving as coach and evaluator can "undercut the trusting relationship..." (p. 30). It is in this vein that PTEPs could make substantial changes because the fear of reprisal for simply

seeking support may be stunting growth. This will be addressed in the Implications for Professional Teacher Education Programs section below.

Feedback. Items identified as “feedback” related to specific instructional ideas connected to specific lesson plans. Typically, a participant would refer to an individual lesson objective and be seeking feedback on instructional methods that were not working as intended. During these interactions we would troubleshoot the lesson to determine what might not be working, and often we would look for new or additional methods that might serve the lesson better. These interactions fulfilled Knight’s (2007) Partnership Principles of choice, voice, dialogue, reflection, and praxis. These mutually-respectful conversations were context-based and provided opportunities for reflection on instructional goals and to seek opportunities for improvement.

This is an area of great opportunity for instructional coaches because the student teacher has initiated the dialogue, have framed the questions in the narrow conditions of a single lesson or unit and are seeking ideas. Through additional dialogue the instructional coach helps the teacher to settle on a method that best fits the lesson objective, their respective students and their personal teaching style.

These findings are similar to Morris’ (2019) study on instructional coaching in which she found that participants valued having someone to talk to about their instruction. Often times, participants simply need someone safe with whom to talk out or refine their ideas. This facilitative coaching (Kelly & Knight, 2019a) provides the space for the coached teacher to explore their own ideas in a comfortable setting with a trusted expert. Through carefully structured questioning I found that it was possible to reinforce

and support ideas that had potential and to guide participants to their own conclusions when an idea was underdeveloped.

Support. The subtheme “support” was used for comments or interactions in which a participant was seeking general help related to teaching, college program requirements or personal encouragement. “Support” could also be interpreted as a professional friend, one who cares about the preservice teachers as individuals as well as teachers. As a professional friend, I was willing to listen to whatever they wanted to talk about even if they were not seeking a solution to a problem. The instructional coach should listen, and think and learn with participants through “authentic dialogue” (Knight, 2009b, p. 32). Recent work in this area of support agrees with this finding (Knight, 2013, 2017; Landry, 2019; Morris, 2019). My participants were intent on performing their teaching duties to the best of their abilities, and at times needed nothing more from me than a trusted peer with whom to process the events in their classroom, and at times, process these stressors as they affected their personal lives.

As such, “support” was applied to interactions wherein participants may have sought assistance in a general or personal manner and accounted for more than a quarter of all Coaching + codes. These interactions indicate that preservice teachers need someone to talk to, who is familiar with the difficulties and stress of student teaching even if there are no specific problems at hand to solve. This too relates to the nonevaluative nature of instructional coaching because teachers are free to be genuine, even vulnerable without fear that their vulnerabilities may be misconstrued as weakness or inability to teach. It is in this area that PTEPs have an opportunity to reflect on their

programs to ensure that preservice teachers are fully supported, both academically and emotionally without their needs being considered during any evaluative processes.

This can be a real concern as the weight and stress of teaching must be considered when coaching. Failing to attend to the real, human needs of coached teachers would undermine the entire enterprise.

Summary

Participants in this study indicated five unique areas in which they perceived a benefit from instructional coaching and those five areas align to former and current literature on teacher preparation and instructional coaching. Critical in all five are the equal relationships that facilitated open conversations and exchange of ideas in a way that provided opportunities for participants and instructional coach to learn and apply that learning in their respective roles as either teacher or instructional coach.

Secondary research question 2, “What do preservice teachers think would improve instructional coaching during student teaching?” will be addressed in the implications section below because their suggestions align to future work by instructional coaches with student teachers.

Implications

This implications section includes aspects of this study that may have utility to those who work in the various roles referenced in this study. These implications connect the literature of Chapter II and the findings of Chapter IV to provide insight for the

various entities of this study. These entities include:

- Policy Makers and Educational Leaders
- Professional Teacher Education Programs (PTEPs)
- Instructional Coaches
- Student teachers

Implications for Policy Makers and Educational Leaders

This study did not attempt to directly address issues with teacher attrition or the difference between traditional and alternative pathways to licensure that are common. As Zeichner (2006) has indicated, educational leaders have been equally vocal with some asserting that improving PTEPs will improve teaching as well as those who believe that deregulation of teaching and pushing alternative routes to the profession would be best. These arguments were not specifically addressed in this study; however, some data were noted from my participants that may be beneficial to educational leaders forming policy for licensing requirements and educational institutional leaders forming program models and program completion requirements.

Practice with instructional coaches. All participants in this study indicated that they would have benefited from extended periods of practice before student teaching. However, intermittent opportunities were already provided to them which they valued, but felt were insufficient. For teachers to have the necessary skills to navigate the difficult situations they will encounter, they need first-hand experience (Brown et al., 2015; Darling-Hammond, 2010b; Dweck, 2015; Graziano, 2005; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990). Based on these experiences and their direct comments, what they would have enjoyed were lengthy placements throughout their PTEP, which would have given them

extended opportunities to employ the theoretical instruction they had received with a group of students with whom they had become familiar, and such experiences would have truly affected their socialization into the profession. Betty, in particular, thought something of a 50:50 ratio (theory:practice) would have been appropriate.

Other participants also similarly wished they had a better balance of theory to practice and longer periods of interaction with students. These were referred to as “gaps” by Loulou and Scout, with Loulou stating in the group interview that “there really is a very big gap.” This is a reasonable request for additional vicarious experiences (Bandura, 1994) which would permit preservice teachers extensive, authentic opportunities to interact with students that they know creating a stronger sense of self-efficacy and ability to be an effective teacher (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990; Yilmaz, 2011).- Including an instructional coaching model during these extended practice opportunities may benefit preservice teachers transition into the classroom and the application of the principles learned in the college classroom by providing the structure and support needed.

When considering alternative routes to licensure and the placing of candidates in classrooms without first completing a college preparation program, one might surmise that the aforementioned would support that model by providing extensive practice that the participants were recommending. However, that would not seem to be what these participants are asking for. They all expressed appreciation for the depth of their preparation program, with the caveat that it lacked extended practice. It would seem that alternative routes, which place candidates in their own classrooms immediately, have flipped this equation and overloaded them with practice at the cost of sufficient

theoretical preparation. This too is not ideal and is perhaps riskier, as candidates have little to fall back on when the rigors of the classroom present themselves which may create failure experiences that may result in quitting (Bandura, 1977, 1994).

Mentors as instructional coaches. Walsh (2013), among her many recommendations, stated that student teaching must be meaningful and mentors must be only selected among those who have demonstrated effectiveness (p. 24). I would extend this and add this same recommendation to include extended practice opportunities and that mentors be trained in instructional coaching.

Based on the data collected in this study, a reasonable model would include pairing preservice teachers with mentor teachers early in their preparation program. Those mentor teachers would require sufficient training in instructional coaching principles such as Knight's (2007, 2009b) Partnership Principles and be relieved of any evaluative responsibilities. This would benefit both the preservice teacher and the mentor by establishing a clear framework for their interactions and would mitigate some of the variation in mentor's performance of their duties as was evident in this study. This would be a significant shift in many PTEPs and the cost of implementing a large-scale coaching program would need to be carefully considered (Kraft et al., 2017). As the data indicated, all participants in this study were apprehensive at times to seek input from their mentors out of a concern that it would negatively impact their evaluations and this is an unfortunate by product of the mentor-as-evaluator arrangement.

When considering policies to strengthen preparation programs, whether traditional college-based programs or alternative routes, research, and this study have

indicated that supported and extended practice with trained mentors or coaches is critical to adequately prepare preservice teachers for the variety of events that they are likely to encounter.

Implications for Professional Teacher Education Programs

Participants in this study indicated that they were apprehensive, yet they were all eager to begin student teaching and unanimously felt well-prepared by their preparation program with the exception that more practice with students prior to student teaching would have been beneficial, yet they were unsure whether additional sporadic opportunities to practice would have made a meaningful difference because student teaching is such rigorous experience (Brown et al., 2015; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Kilver, 2016).

Because all participants in this study found value in instructional coaching during student teaching, it warrants consideration by traditional professional teacher education programs. All participants in this study indicated that they were reluctant to seek input from their mentors or university supervisors for fear that it might affect their completion of the program. However, at no time did any participant indicate that this concern was grounded in any explicit comment made to them. On the contrary, participants were encouraged to reach out to either, or both, of their university supervisors or mentors should the need arise, and yet this trepidation persisted.

To remedy this difficult dynamic, mentors and pedagogy experts would need a clear framework and expectations for curriculum planning (Darling-Hammond, 2014). It

would be necessary for inservice teachers and pedagogy experts to collaborate to create a clear connection and demonstration of principles and research-based methodologies which include practice for preservice teachers. Failure to do so may create yet another program iteration of what has been described as unfocused and lacking effectiveness (Zeichner & Gore, 1990).

To additionally affect the difficult dynamic between evaluator and preservice teacher, a PTEP may consider utilizing the classroom mentor as an instructional coach. The structure of evaluations and program completion would likewise need to be duly modified as it would be inappropriate for an instructional coach to also be responsible for preservice student teacher evaluations. Failure to do so, would undermine the coaching relationship and push preservice teachers into the same fears as already described above. The university supervisor could conduct the necessary evaluations which would preserve the critical relationship between preservice teacher and instructional coach.

For these reasons, a redesign of the student teaching program would need to be conducted to permit the instructional coach to be the as-needed support that the participants in this study valued. This would also require that preservice teachers demonstrate the readiness that these four participants demonstrated prior to entering student teaching. Should a preservice teacher not be as prepared, the coaching light methods of this study would likely fail.

With strong preservice teachers and a well-organized and flexible mentor program, a coaching light form of instructional coaching may be a benefit to a PTEP. Student teachers would be supported in an individualized manner that would may tailor

their student teaching program in a highly differentiated way that provided each student teacher as much or as little input as needed.

Implications for Instructional Coaches

Participants were directly asked what they thought would improve the instructional coaching during student teaching that they received, and their comments were few, represented by only five individual codes that were labeled as “role clarity.” Participants indicated that they found value in the various aspects of instructional coaching as indicated above. However, some stated that it would have been helpful at the beginning of the study to understand what instructional coaching was, how it would be administered. Some thought that examples of what types of appropriate questions or interactions would have been helpful. An overview of instructional coaching was given to all participants before the study began and in conversation during the first interviews, but it appears that these did not suffice.

The only other single comment that was useful to answer this question, was that an instructional coach should have a solid background in each teacher’s content area. This typically is not an expectation of instructional coaching, however, my personal weakness in her content area left a gap in usefulness of the instructional coaching. In retrospect, it would have been wise to conduct some research into the particular concept that Katie was teaching or to seek input from a content area specialist to better address her needs.

Some participants indicated that beginning student teaching with a clearer understanding of what instructional coaching was and what types of interactions were

appropriate would have been helpful and reduced some confusion about instructional coaching itself. Additionally, when an instructional coach lacks sufficient background in a content area, this will require that the coach perform necessary research, or seek outside input from a content area specialist.

The participants in this case study all found value in instructional coaching during their program-required student teaching. These areas aligned to Knight's (2007) Partnership Principles indicating utility of these principles in a student teaching setting with preservice teachers. The individualized nature of instructional coaching met the unique needs of each preservice teacher and provided a flexible and personal framework to add as much or as little input from the instructional coach as the preservice teachers needed. Additionally, the "coaching light" (Killion, 2009) concept facilitated organic, personal relationships that permitted the preservice teachers the freedom to seek input as needed, preventing the addition of any undue burden on them.

Of critical concern for the instructional coach is the nature of the relationship between the instructional coach and the coached teacher. Morris (2019) agrees that a positive and trusting relationship is of utmost importance in instructional coaching.

Similarly, Knight (2007) states,

At the heart of the teacher-coach collaborative relationship, as I define it, there is a deep respect for the professionalism of teaching. We base our work with teachers on the principles of equality, choice, voice, dialogue, reflection, praxis, and reciprocity. Our hope is that we will be considered to be just like any other teacher in the school. If we are viewed in such a way, and teachers come to see us as colleagues they can trust, there is a good chance that together we can make a difference in the way teachers teach and students learn in schools. (p. 52)

For this reason, any instructional coach working with preservice teachers will need to

clearly establish the boundaries and nature of the relationship and its distinction from any other program supervisor. A failure to do so may undermine the value of the coaching, and add to the already heavy burden student teachers carry by adding one more program element to manage.

The participants in this study valued the flexibility and “as needed” nature of the coaching light methods facilitated a personal connection and allowed for participants to direct the work and seek input as they deemed necessary.

Coaching Light vs. Coaching Heaving During Student Teaching

Coaching light (Killion, 2009) in this study worked for the benefit of the participants. However, the strength of the preparation program, and the overall strength of the preservice teachers worked well together to *permit* coaching light. Should those factors not be present then a “coaching heavy” method may need to be considered. In these instances, the instructional coach may need to be involved in a more frequent and structured manner including detailed collaboration during curriculum development, modeling, assessment and feedback. This model would still embody Knight’s (2007, 2009b) Partnership Principles but perhaps at the cost of some of the personal relationships. It may be reasonable to employ a coaching heavy model early in the preparation program, and as preservice teacher performance becomes sufficient, then a shift to coaching light later in the program and during student teaching. In this regard, PTEPs may consider utilizing instructional coaching during student teaching in lieu of the typical university supervisor.

Instructional coaches may find it difficult to remain flexible and responsive to the unique needs of each preservice teacher. However, as I found in this study, this flexibility was critical under the intentions of coaching light and added value to the participants experiences of student teaching without added unnecessary burden to them.

Implications for Student Teachers

The socialization of teachers is a powerful force that begins many years prior to entering a preparation program, continues throughout the program and into the profession itself (Brown et al., 2015). Because of this, typical student perceptions of schooling, such as being grade-minded, may thwart the reflective growth that many programs seek to instill. Participants in this study were, at various times, reluctant to reach out to their mentors or university supervisors out of concern that doing so may negatively impact their overall evaluation of student teaching. A few of their interactions appeared to support those concerns, however, those interactions were very few, and no negative interactions with a university supervisor supported those concerns.

Based on the experiences and comments of the participants of this study, I recommend to student teachers that they consciously seek opportunities for growth through meaningful and frank conversations with their university supervisors, mentors, other educational professionals and instructional coaches that may be available to prevent the common sink or swim model of many early teaching experiences (Darling-Hammond, 2010b; Howe, 2016; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004a; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001; Zeichner, 2006). Yet, the primary burden is on the preparation program to make clear that all parties understand that teaching is complex and that the goals of student

teaching are to gain skill and experience, and not to demonstrate absolute mastery. It is important that student teachers understand this and approach the experience with that mindset.

These implications stem from the research related to instructional coaching, mentoring, student teaching and have been supported by the data obtained through this study. This study served to identify what these participants experienced and valued during their student teaching and instructional coaching, yet there is much more to study when seeking how to better instruct and support preservice teachers through the inclusion of instructional coaching in a professional teacher education program. The following will detail some avenues of research in this regard, that should be pursued.

Recommendations for Further Research

Little research has been done regarding instructional coaching during student teaching. Because the extant research on instructional coaching with inservice teachers indicates that instructional coaching is a strong vehicle for the transfer of instruction into practice, it warrants that this form of coaching be researched in a PTEP. This may be implemented throughout the preparation program and during student teaching.

In a meta-analysis on the causal evidence of teacher coaching, Kraft et al. (2017b) offer the point of fact that many of the studies on teacher coaching are conducted under best-case circumstances with motivated participants. Often times these coaching programs are both designed and delivered by the same individuals. In this study, the circumstances were ideal as were the relationships, however, I employed Knight's

Partnership Principles (2009b). Kraft et al. raise the concern that a larger scale study, in less than ideal circumstances often find differing results. These are considerations that must be dealt with when designing a study or implementing a coaching protocol.

Participants in this study found value in a coaching light model, however, it may be worth investigating how a coaching heavy model may be valuable during the preparation program before beginning student teaching and then shifting toward a coaching light model for student teaching.

Professional education teaching programs may wish to investigate the benefits of instructional coaching during student teaching in a much larger scale, in both elementary and secondary settings.

School districts and college preparation programs may wish to seek how the use of trained instructional coaches as described in this study affect the implementation of new skills, affect self-efficacy and ultimately impact student achievement. Additionally, they may wish to investigate the experiences of mentors who were then retrained as instructional coaches for new teachers.

These recommendations for further research all relate to the difficult task of preparing new teachers for the rigors of the classroom. In this study, instructional coaching offered a level of personal connection and professional support that was seen as a benefit by these participants that may prove beneficial at other stages and levels of the teaching profession.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter I discussed the findings as detailed in Chapter IV that answered my primary and secondary research questions. I explored how preservice teachers experienced instructional coaching during student teaching, what elements of instructional coaching they found most beneficial, and finally I discussed the participant recommendations to improve instructional coaching during student teaching. I followed that discussion with implications for educational leaders, policy makers, PTEPs, instructional coaches and student teachers. Last, I make recommendations for further research on instructional coaching in PTEPs and specifically with preservice teachers in student teaching.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Pre- and Post-Survey Questions

Pre-Study Survey Questions

What does teaching mean to you?

What does student teaching mean to you?

Describe your experiences in a classroom with students.

How do you feel about entering the teaching profession after student teaching?

What does instructional coaching mean to you?

Mid-point Interview Questions

How are you feeling about your ability to do the job of student teaching?

What is the demographic make-up of your classes?

How can I as your instructional coach support you with your student teaching?

What are some classroom concerns for this upcoming week you might have?

Do you have a curriculum map for your student teaching?

Post-study Survey Questions

What does teaching mean to you?

What does student teaching mean to you?

Describe your experiences in a classroom with students.

How do you feel about entering the teaching profession after student teaching?

What does instructional coaching mean to you?

Describe the interaction between you and your mentor.

Appendix B
Recruitment Advertisement

Recruitment Advertisement

Volunteers needed to help me answer this question: *How do preservice teachers perceive the experience of instructional coaching during their semester of student teaching?*

What is instructional coaching? Instructional Coaching is the process by which a trained individual act as a coach by employing specific guiding techniques with a novice to support, and facilitate deeper learning and quality pedagogy.

What does this mean for you? At the beginning of your student teaching semester, you'll be asked to complete a brief survey about your feelings regarding teaching and student teaching. We'll then meet, one-on-one for a brief discussion about those responses. Then, during the semester we'll meet as needed to address the demands of teaching regarding, planning, delivery, assessment, classroom management, instructional strategies, or just about anything you need. At no time, will I evaluate or "judge" your teaching. As a coach, my role is to assist you in your work, as needed.

Volunteers will be randomly selected.

Participant Criteria

Participants must be in their final semester of a preservice teacher education preparation program.

Participants must be willing to be coached during student teaching.

Participants must be placed in a local public middle or high school.

Participants must be teaching in a math, science, biology, chemistry, English language arts, world language, social studies, or history placement.

Participants must not be current students of the researcher.

Participants must be willing to complete pre- and post- surveys.

Participants must be willing to attend two individual interviews and one group interview during the semester.

An effort will be made to achieve a balance in gender and a variety in content areas.

Appendix C
Journey Maps

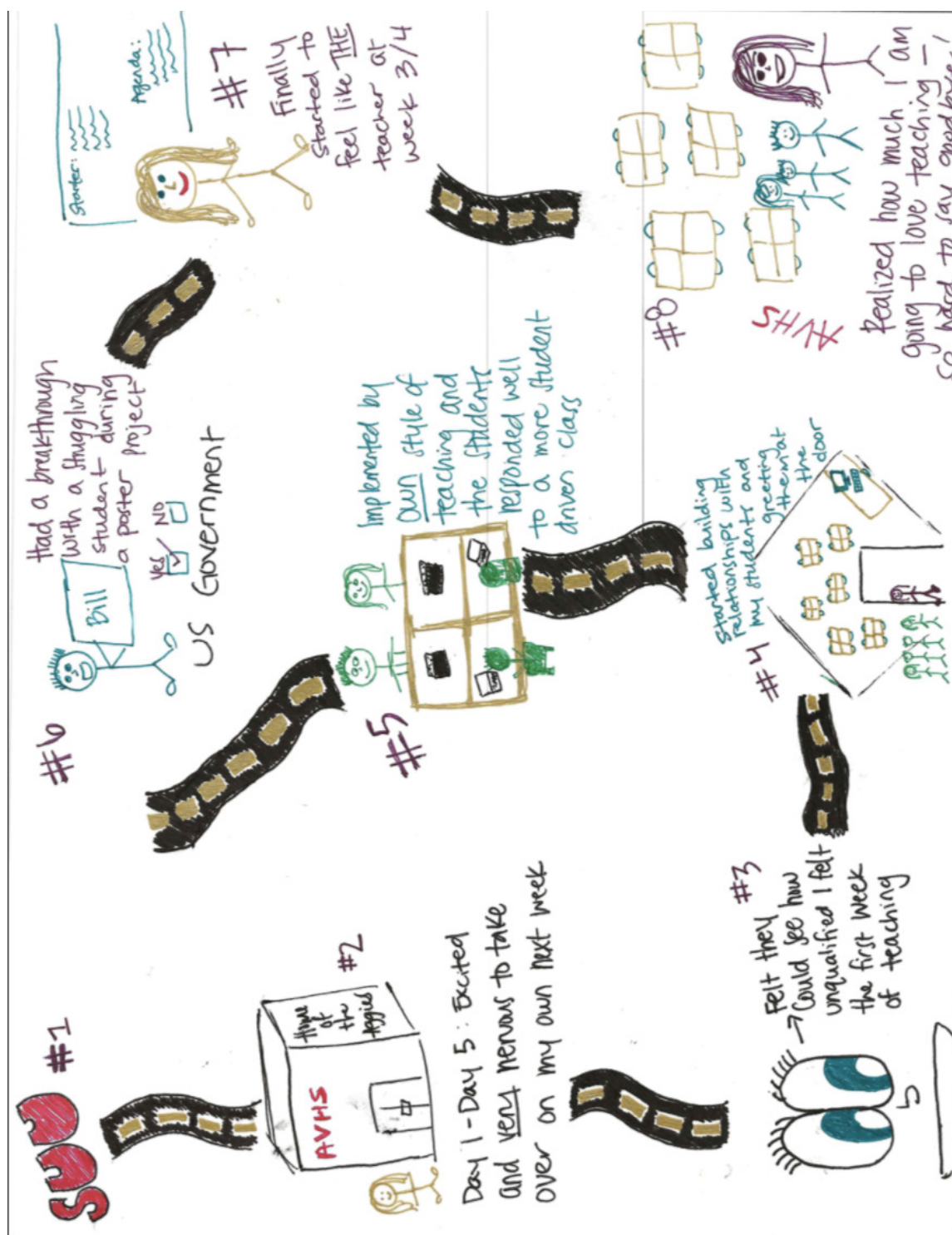


Figure C1. Betty's journey map.

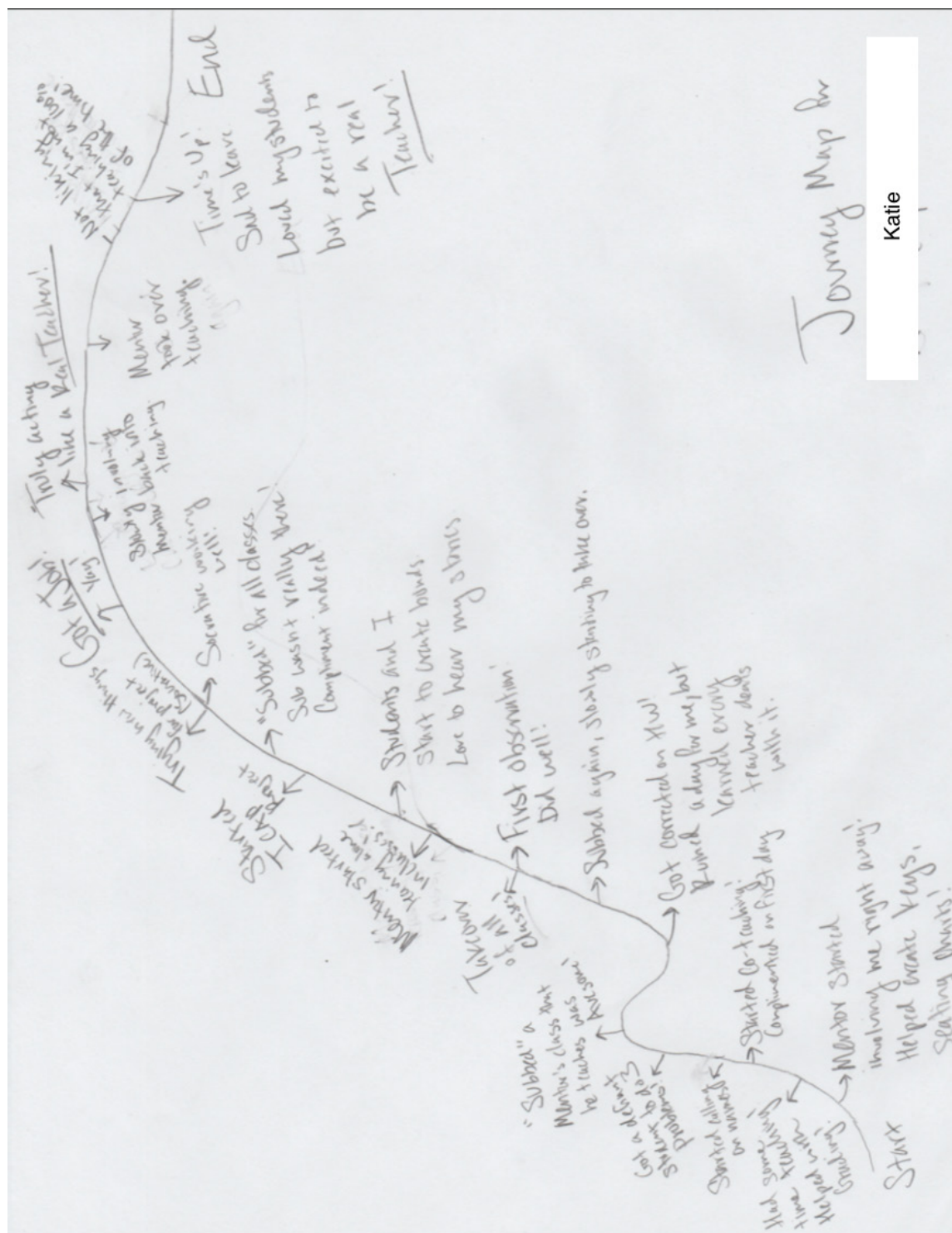


Figure C2. Katie's journey map.

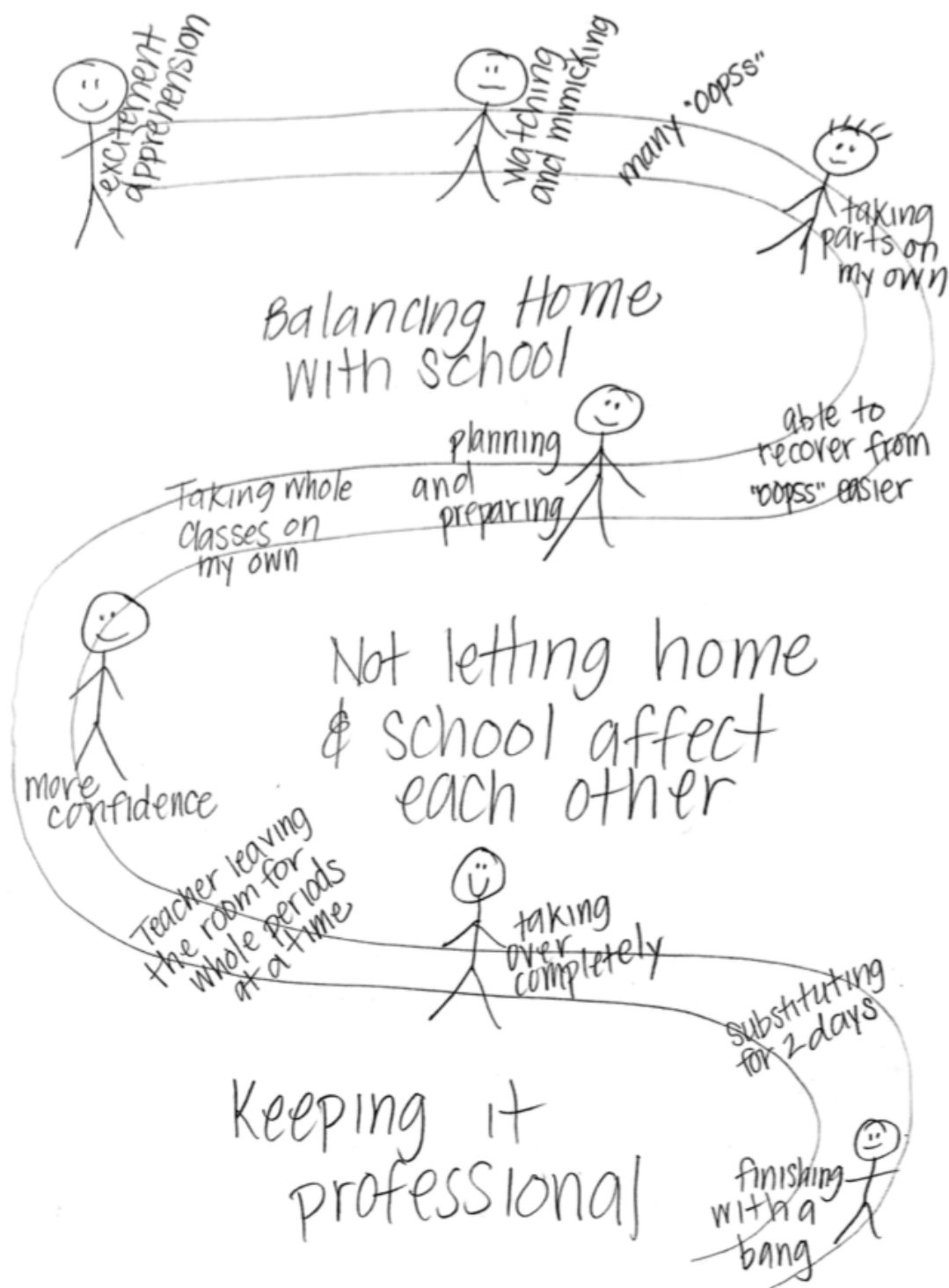


Figure C3. Loulou's journey map.

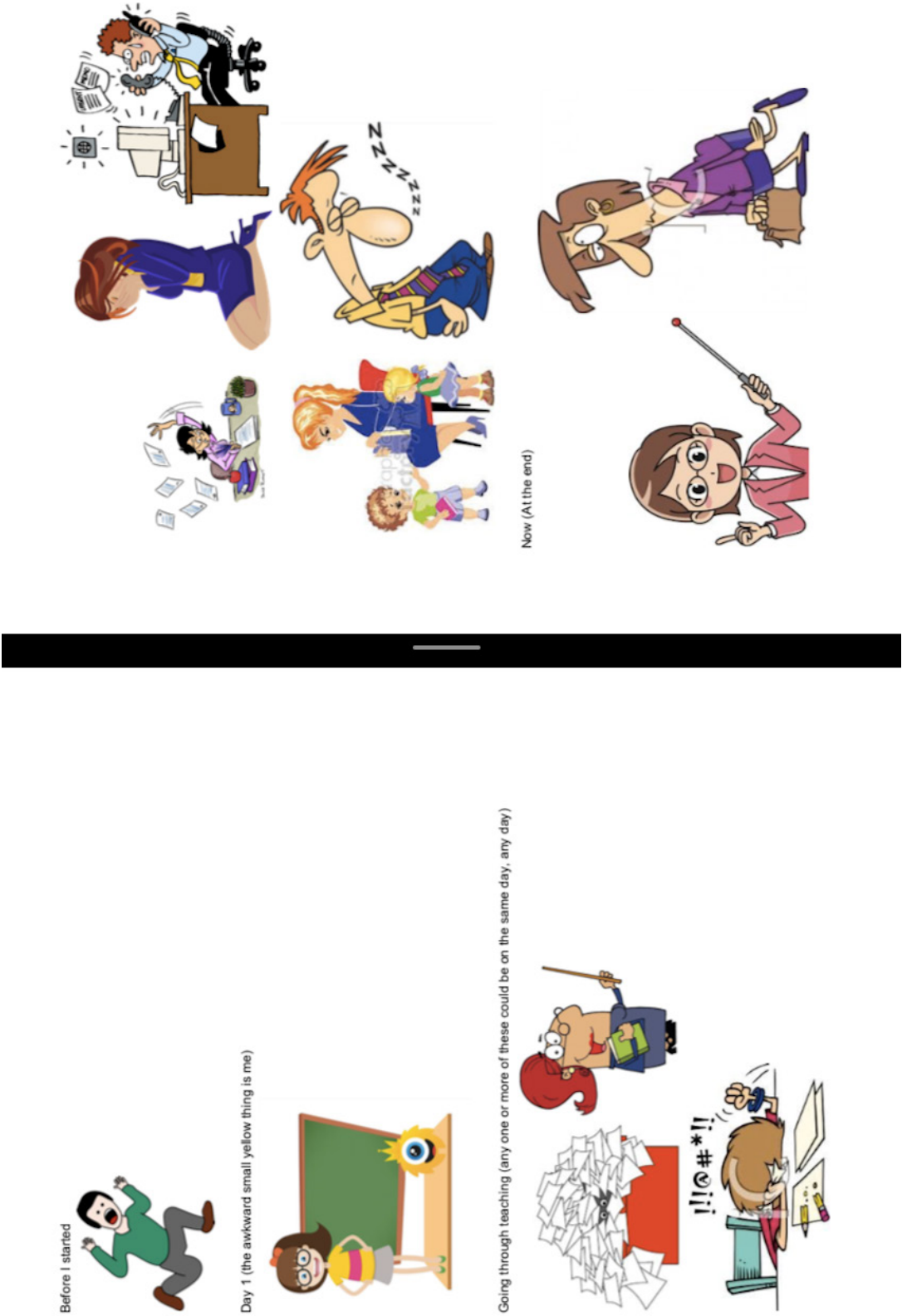


Figure C4. Scout's journey map.

Appendix D
Data Planning Matrix

Data Planning Matrix (adapted from Schram, 2006)

What do I need to know? (topical sub questions)	Why do I need to know this?	What kind of data will answer the question?	Projected timeline and procedures
How do preservice teachers feel about being coached during student teaching?	Coaching is widely used in P-12 settings, and it seems reasonable that it would be beneficial in a preservice setting as well?	Preservice teachers first-hand accounts of their thoughts through survey responses, interviews and journey maps.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Surveys will be delivered before the study begins and after student teaching has concluded. Interviews will follow each survey. Journey maps will be completed after student teaching has concluded. A group interview will be conducted at the very end of the study.
How does coaching affect preservice teachers' stress during student teaching?	Student teaching is very stressful for preservice teachers. It is possible that coaching will diminish that stress.	Preservice teachers first-hand accounts of their thoughts through survey responses, interviews and journey maps.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Surveys will be delivered before the study begins and after student teaching has concluded. Interviews will follow each survey. Journey maps will be completed after student teaching has concluded. A group interview will be conducted at the very end of the study.
How does coaching affect preservice teachers' enjoyment of teaching during student teaching?	Teaching can be a very enjoyable profession and enjoyment may lead to better retention of teachers.	Preservice teachers first-hand accounts of their thoughts through survey responses, interviews and journey maps.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Surveys will be delivered before the study begins and after student teaching has concluded. Interviews will follow each survey. Journey maps will be completed after student teaching has concluded. A group interview will be conducted at the very end of the study.
How does coaching affect preservice teachers' self-efficacy during student teaching?	Preservice teachers tend to display a lack of self-efficacy despite the years of preparation they have been undertaking. Coaching may provide a critical "bridge" between instruction and practice.	Preservice teachers first-hand accounts of their thoughts through survey responses, interviews and journey maps.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Surveys will be delivered before the study begins and after student teaching has concluded. Interviews will follow each survey. Journey maps will be completed after student teaching has concluded. A group interview will be conducted at the very end of the study.
How does coaching affect preservice teachers' excitement to begin their teaching career?	Many preservice teachers display great apprehension to begin their teaching career. Coaching may help generate a true excitement to begin their work.	Preservice teachers first-hand accounts of their thoughts through survey responses, interviews and journey maps.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Surveys will be delivered before the study begins and after student teaching has concluded. Interviews will follow each survey. Journey maps will be completed after student teaching has concluded. A group interview will be conducted at the very end of the study.

Appendix E
Interaction Log

Table E1

Interaction Log

Date	Duration	Participant	Action	Purpose	Location
12/3/2018		JM	Proposal Defense		
12/13/2018		JM	IRB Approval		SUU
1/15/2019		JM	USU Reliance Agreement Signed		USU/SUU
1/18/2019		JM	Participant Volunteers Selected		Electronic
1/22/2019		JM	Volunteers notified		Electronic
1/24/2019	60 min.	Scout	Interview 1	Discussed pre-survey responses / teaching goals, lesson planning, grading, organization	School
1/25/2019	30 min.	Loulou	Interview 1	Discussed pre-survey responses / classroom management, student relationships, curriculum mapping, lesson connections, on-call	School
1/28/2019	40 min.	Betty	Interview 1	Discussed pre-survey responses / discipline, authority & respect, lesson planning, morale, lesson ideas	Video Conf.
1/28/2019	16 min.	Katie	Interview 1	Discussed pre-survey responses / classroom management, lesson modification/accommodations	Video Conf.
2/1/2019	4 emails	Katie	Email discussion	Student participation / sleeping student	Electronic
2/5/2019	2 emails	Betty	Email discussion	Student engagement / interactive lessons	
2/11/2019	13 min.	Katie	Follow up conversation	Formative response/ technology, readers theater, lesson design, mapping	Video Conf.
2/11/2019	25 min.	Scout	Follow up conversation	Lesson design "Monster", essay grading, history delivery (PPT)	School
2/13-20/2019	5 emails	Betty	Email discussion	Lesson design/delivery / Webquest / Current event relevance	Electronic

(table continues)

Date	Duration	Participant	Action	Purpose	Location
2/22/2019	2 emails	Katie	Email discussion	Lesson pacing, classroom management, student participation	Electronic
3/4/2019	27 emails	All	Email discussion	Check in	Electronic
3/19/2019	10 min.	Katie	Interview 2	Lack of practice w/ new material. IC should have better content knowledge / sad to be nearing the end	Video Conf.
3/21/2019	2 emails	Betty	Interview 2/ Email responses	IC boosts confidence / student behavior, unit planning, project-based learning, interactive lessons, avoid PPT	Electronic
3/21/2019	15 min.	Loulou	Interview 2	Classroom management, being more mindful of instructional choices, need chocolate and trip to Paris	School
3/21/2019	15 min.	Scout	Interview 2	Students not trying (zero effort), student engagement, grading	School
4/12/2019	11 min.	Katie	Interview 3	Discussed post-survey responses / tremendous experience, IC doesn't evaluate	Video Conf.
4/17/2019	22 min.	Betty	Interview 3	Discussed post-survey responses / review semester, student relationships, nonevaluative IC, support, improve role clarity	Video Conf.
4/18/2019	11 min.	Loulou	Interview 3	Discussed post-survey responses / focus on pedagogy, role clarity	School
4/18/2019	20 min.	Scout	Interview 3	Discussed post-survey responses / IC safe contact, stress of job, life balance, flexible IC, extra contact, role clarity	School
4/26/2019	51 min.	All	Group Interview	Debrief	Researcher Ofc.

Appendix F

A Priori Codes Table

Table F1

A Priori Codes

Code	Usage	Description
Enjoyment	Emotions related to feelings of pleasure related to a given experience or task.	Preservice teachers' comments related to classroom experiences that gave them satisfaction or pleasure.
Excitement to teach	Emotions related to an eagerness to interact with students in an academic manner.	Preservice teachers' comments related to a sense of urgency or eagerness to "get their own classroom" or to quickly finish student teaching so that they can begin their work as a professional teacher.
Self-efficacy	A condition of confidence or lack of confidence.	Preservice teachers' comments related to their confidence in their abilities or their lack of confidence in their abilities of teaching.
Stress	Emotions related to pressure, anxiety, trepidation.	Preservice teachers typically discuss and display various levels of stress that manifest themselves as severe anxiety, self-deprecation, statements of futility, dread, worry.

Appendix G

Institutional Review Board (IRB) Exemption Document
and Utah State University Reliance Document



Institutional Review Board
 351 W. University Blvd., GC 308
 Cedar City, UT 84720

(435) 586-7889

Institutional Review Board

To: John Meisner (PI)

From: Michelle Grimes, SUU IRB Chair

Date: 13 December 2018

RE: IRB Exemption Consideration: *Understanding Preservice Teachers' Experiences of Instructional Coaching During Student Teaching*

Your exemption request has been reviewed by the SUU Institutional Review Board and has been approved with minor contingencies. You may begin your research once the following modifications are implemented. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to ask.

Modification

1. Please provide a copy of your informed consent. Please be sure the consent document specifies that participation in the research and coaching will not impact any graded coursework. Please specify that faculty who supervise the academic component of student teaching do not have access to the data gathered in the study.

Please notify me immediately should any unexpected risks to the participants become evident.

Full Approval	12/13/2018 Date
PROTOCOL CONTINUING REVIEW DATE:	One year from approval
IRB APPROVAL EXPIRATION DATE:	One year from approval

If data collection is not completed by the expiration date, the researcher must seek IRB approval for a continuation.

IRB APPROVAL #13-122018b



RELiance AGREEMENT

I. Purpose

This Reliance Agreement sets forth the agreement between the Utah State University and Southern Utah University/ John Meisner concerning the agreed upon arrangements between the same for the use of Southern Utah University/ John Meisner.

- Southern Utah University maintains Federal Wide Assurance Number FWA00025715 signed by OHRP.
- Utah State University maintains Federal Wide Assurance Number FWA00003308 assigned by the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP).

This agreement concerns the reliance of Utah State University on the review and approval by Southern Utah University, as specified in this agreement. This agreement sets forth respective authorities, roles and responsibilities of each party in such arrangement.

Those signing below agree that USU IRB may accept and rely on the review and approval by the Southern Utah University of research involving human subjects as specified in this agreement. USU IRB will abide by all determinations of the Southern Utah University IRB and will accept the final authority and decisions of Southern Utah University including but not limited to directives to terminate participation in designated research activities.

II. Types of Research Covered by this Agreement

This agreement is limited to the following specific protocol(s):

IRB Number:	IRB Approval# 13-122018b
Title of Study:	"Understanding Preservice Teachers' Experiences of Instructional Coaching During Student Teaching"
Principal Investigator:	Courtney Stewart, PhD / John Meisner (co-investigator)
Sponsor or Funding Agency:	Utah State University

III. Compliance with Federal Agency Guidance

This agreement meets federal requirements for designation of another institution's IRB as the reviewing IRB, as set forth in guidance issued by the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP) entitled, *Terms of the Federalwide Assurance* (current as of June 17, 2011).

IV. Compliance with Federal and State Law and Utah State University Policy

Review and approval of human subjects research under this agreement shall be conducted in compliance with the federal regulations as codified in 45 CFR 46, other pertinent federal regulations, state and local laws, and all applicable Utah State University policies pertaining to the protection of human subjects participating in research.

V. Informed Consent

Research subject to this agreement must employ a consent process, including a consent form, except when a waiver of informed consent is approved by the Southern Utah University according to 45 CFR part 46. The Southern Utah University will make available their University Consent Template for use for research specified in this agreement. Modifications will be expected as to customize the form for the external site. Modifications will be subject to approval by the Southern Utah University. USU IRB, when responsible for enrolling subjects,



will obtain, document and maintain records of informed consent for each such subject or each subjects legally authorized representative as required under 45 CFR part 46, as applicable.

VI. HIPAA Authorization or Waiver of Authorization

USU IRB defers HIPAA Privacy Board Determinations to Southern Utah University which may include a HIPAA authorization, a waiver of authorization, and/or use of a limited/de-identified data set. USU IRB must abide by HIPAA determinations made by Southern Utah University and must submit any additional forms (e.g. Notice of Privacy Practices, Information for Accounting of Disclosures, etc.) as necessary.

USU IRB may use its own form of HIPAA authorization instead of the authorization language included in the Southern Utah University HIPAA Authorization Template. In this case, USU IRB will ensure that its form of authorization explicitly permits PHI to be used and shared by and with Southern Utah University as necessary for reviewing and overseeing the research as specified in this agreement. Both Utah State University and Southern Utah University are responsible for ensuring that information is shared in a HIPAA-compliant manner.

VII. Duties and Responsibilities of Southern Utah University

a. Review and Authority

The Southern Utah University will conduct initial and continuing reviews. The Southern Utah University will approve consent forms for all sites. Southern Utah University will review amendments to approved protocols. Southern Utah University will review information which requires reporting (i.e. unanticipated problems involving risks to participants or others, non-compliance, protocol deviations, etc.) for all sites.

Southern Utah University has the authority to suspend or terminate approval of research that is not being conducted in accordance with Southern Utah University policies, is not in compliance with Federal Regulations or that has been associated with unexpected serious harm to participants.

VIII. Duties and Responsibilities of the USU IRB

a. Human Subject Research Guidance

USU IRB has reviewed:

- *The Belmont Report: Ethical Principles and Guidelines for the Protection of Human Subjects of Research* (or other internationally recognized equivalent);
- The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (HHS) regulations for the protection of human subjects at 45 CFR part 46 (or other procedural standards; see section B.3. of the Terms of the FWA for International (Non-U.S.) Institutions);
- The FWA and applicable Terms of the FWA for Southern Utah University; and
- The relevant Southern Utah University policies and procedures for the protection of human subjects.

The USU IRB understands and accepts the responsibility to comply with the standards and requirements stipulated in the above documents and to protect the rights and welfare of human subjects involved in research conducted under this agreement. No subjects may be enrolled in research under this agreement prior to the research's review and approval by Southern Utah University.

b. Facilitated Review

The USU IRB will conduct a facilitated review locally, according to their local policies. A facilitated review is the process by which the USU IRB may accept and rely on the approval issued by Southern Utah University. The results of the facilitated review should be communicated to the Southern Utah University, if the relying institution so chooses.



c. Investigator Responsibilities

Investigators conducting research subject to this agreement are responsible for reviewing the PI Responsibilities and the PI Statement of Assurance (available in Protis). Investigators must abide by the stipulations described in the Statement of Assurance. Investigators will agree to the Statement of Assurance when submitting a research protocol through Protis.

The PI is responsible for submitting the new study application and any subsequent continuing review applications. The PI is responsible for submitting amendments, report forms and the final project report, as applicable, and is responsible for communicating those items to the relying institution.

d. Authority to Audit

The USU IRB retains authority to conduct audits to ensure compliance.

e. Conflict of Interest

The USU IRB is responsible for evaluating the potential financial conflicts of interest of its investigators, research staff, and institution, according to the USU IRB policy. The USU IRB will report all financial conflicts to Southern Utah University.

IX. Duties and Responsibilities of both the USU IRB and Southern Utah University

a. Federalwide Assurance

Both Utah State University and Southern Utah University have FWAs and so agree to abide by all applicable regulations in the conduct of human subjects research at each facility.

b. Agreement on File

Both the USU IRB and Southern Utah University agree to keep this Reliance Agreement on file at the respective institution and to make it available upon request to OHRP or any U.S. federal department or agency conducting or supporting research to which the FWA applies.

c. Policies and Procedures

Both the USU IRB and Southern Utah University agree to develop or maintain standard operating procedures consistent with this agreement.

d. Communication and Cooperation

Both the USU IRB and Southern Utah University agree to maintain effective communication and cooperation mechanisms sufficient to ensure adequate protections for human research subjects. Both institutions agree to fully cooperate with the reciprocal IRB including providing relevant documentation and records as needed.

e. Event Reporting

Both the USU IRB and Southern Utah University agree to promptly inform to the reciprocal institution of reports of serious or continuing noncompliance in the conduct of the study and unanticipated problems involving risks to participants or others, encountered in research as specified in this agreement.

X. Notices and Primary Contacts

- a.** Any notices to the undersigned institutional officials or correspondence regarding IRB review and oversight must be addressed as follows:

If to USU IRB:

Laurens H. Smith, Ph.D.
Interim Vice President for Research
Utah State University
1450 Old Main Hill, Suite 159
Logan, UT 84322
Phone: 435.797.1180
Email: larry.smith@usu.edu



Nicole Vouvalis
 IRB Director
 Utah State University
 1450 Old Main Hill, Suite 155
 Logan, UT 84322
 Phone: 435.797.0567
 Email: nicole.vouvalis@usu.edu

If to SUU IRB:

James Sage, Ph.D.
 Associate Provost
 Southern Utah University
 351 W. University Blvd.
 Cedar City, Utah 84720
 Phone: 435-586-7703
 Email: jamesage@suu.edu

Michelle Grimes, Ph.D.
 IRB Chair
 Southern Utah University
 351 W. University Blvd
 Cedar City, Utah 84720
 Phone: 435-586-1958
 Email: michellegrimes@suu.edu

Signature of External Institution's Signatory Official:

Signature	1/15/2019
Date	
James Sage	Associate Provost
Print Full Name	Institutional Title
Address: 212 Old main 351 W. Univ. Blvd	Cedar City, UT 84720
Phone: 435-586-7703	

CURRICULUM VITAE

JOHN MEISNER

EDUCATION*Utah State University, Logan, UT, 2020*

Ph.D., Education

Specialization: Curriculum and Instruction with an emphasis on instructional leadership:
Dissertation: *Understanding preservice teachers' experiences of instructional coaching during student teaching.*

Doctoral Committee Chair: Steven P. Camicia, Ph.D.

Southern Utah University, Cedar City, UT, 2009

M.Ed., English as a Second Language

Capstone project:

Committee Chair: Deborah Hill, Ph.D.

Southern Utah University, Cedar City, UT, 2004

Bachelor of Arts

Areas of Concentration: English Secondary Education & Spanish Secondary Education

ASSOCIATIONS

Sigma Tau Delta - English Honor Society, 2004

Sigma Delta Pi - Spanish Honor Society, 2004

CURRENT POSITIONAssistant Professor of Education, 2015-present, Southern Utah University - suu.edu Cedar City, UT, *Southern Utah University- Beverly Taylor Sorenson College of Education and Human Development.***PUBLICATIONS**

Article proposal submission: "Understanding Preservice Teachers' Perceptions of Instructional Coaching During Student Teaching." Athens Institute for Education. October, 2019.

CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONSMeisner, J. *Teacher preparation: Moving from direct instruction to Coaching.* Presented at Athens Institute for Education, 2018. Athens, Greece.Meisner, J. *Teacher preparation: Moving from direct instruction to Coaching.* Accepted for 2018 GLOCER University of Nevada Las Vegas. Athens Institute for Education, 2018. Athens, Greece.