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Review

What can we learn from studying the coaching interactions between cooperating teachers and preservice teachers? A literature review

James V. Hoffman*, Melissa Mosley Wetzel, Beth Maloch, Erin Greeter, Laura Taylor, Samual DeJulio, Saba Khan Vlach

The University of Texas at Austin, United States

HIGHLIGHTS

- Cooperating teachers are largely underprepared for their important role in teacher preparation.
- Underprepared coaches tend to be guided by their own personal experiences being coached.
- Coaching practices are related to teaching practices.
- Preparation can lead to changes in a cooperating teacher's coaching practices.
- Building relationships appears essential to effective coaching.

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ABSTRACT

This research review focuses on studies that have examined the coaching interactions of cooperating teachers and preservice teachers around practice in teacher education programs. The review is situated inside of the practice-based turn in teacher education where the focus is on teaching as learning through practice and the crucial role that cooperating teachers play in mediating this learning. Forty-six studies were identified as meeting the criteria for inclusion. The analysis of these studies yielded a total of fourteen findings with varying levels of support. These findings are clustered in four areas: current practices and conditions; innovations in practice; relationships and tensions; and local contexts and teaching practices. The findings point to the need for stronger theoretical framing of the work of cooperating teachers in supporting teacher development and to the need for teacher education as a whole to be more proactive and responsible in the preparation of cooperating teachers.

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* Corresponding author.
E-mail address: jhoffman@austin.utexas.edu (J.V. Hoffman).

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University-based preservice teacher education is in a state of transition from a training model that emphasizes the acquisition of skills and mastering of competencies (Sandefur & Nicklas, 1981) to a practice-based model that emphasizes participation, engagement, and reflection (Grossman & McDonald, 2008; Zeichner, 2010). This transition (described by Mattesson, Eilerston, & Rorrison, 2012 as a "practicum turn" in teacher education) draws on the growing understanding of learning and teaching as experiential, social and expansive within a cognitive apprenticeship framework (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989). This practice turn is tied itself to a larger shift in theory that elevates the study of social practices from the study of repeating for automaticity to the study of all human activity (Schatzki, Cetina, & Savigny, 2001).

Following Lave's (1996) classic work, teaching is viewed as learning in practice through apprenticeship. This view situates teaching as learning in practice and through apprenticeship – experienced through increasing levels and forms of participation. Apprenticeship, for Lave, is more about learning ways to participate than it is about specific techniques. Practices are more than just what we do but are inclusive of the reflection and learning that accompanies the work of teaching. Zeichner (2015) describes the scope of this practice turn in teacher education in these terms: "Throughout the world, in various ways and to varying degrees, there has been an explosion of effort to move more of the preparation of teachers to schools." (p. 257).

This practice-based turn brings to the forefront the critical role that cooperating teachers play in teacher preparation as the primary mediators of field experiences in preservice teacher education. Research into the effects of practicum experiences and the influences of school contexts (including cooperating teachers) on the learning of preservice teachers reveals somewhat contradictory findings (Zeichner, 2002; Zeichner & Gore, 1990). There is some level of consensus, however, around the following findings: (1) practicum experiences are appearing earlier and more often in teacher education programs than in the past; (2) these experiences are typically viewed by students as the most important part of their preparation; (3) practicum experiences are sometimes (if not often) found to be in contradiction to the methods and approaches advocated in university courses; and (4) practicum experiences tend to socialize preservice teachers into the status quo for classroom teaching practices (Clark, Triggs, & Nielson, 2014). If there is to be a transformation in the ways in which teachers are being prepared then clearly there must be closer attention to the role of the cooperating teacher in mediating these practicum experiences.

Because language mediates much of the experiential learning in a practice-based context, it is important to consider not only the structure of the experiences and context for cooperating teachers and preservice teachers working together but also the interactions that occur between them. Language provides increased ability to deal with abstract concepts in representing experiences (Bruner, 1966). Talk around practice is one of the primary tools available to cooperating teachers in deconstructing their own practices for preservice teachers and engaging in conversations around the approximations (teaching events) that are observed by the cooperating teacher. The interactions and conversations between cooperating teachers and preservice teachers around practice are imbued with content, expectations, understandings, strategies and even the power and authoritative stances taken.

Cooperating teachers use talk not only to describe their own decision-making and reflection but also to nurture the learning of the preservice teachers in the context of practice. This nurturing work around practice directed toward growth has come to be referred to in terms of 'coaching.' While research focused on the coaching of inservice teachers has become quite robust (see Sailors & Shanklin, 2010 special issue of the *Elementary School Journal* devoted to coaching (Volume 111, Issue 1)), less work has considered coaching interactions that appear in the work of cooperating teachers coaching preservice teachers.

What has research revealed about the coaching interactions between cooperating teachers coaching preservice teachers around practice? This is the question that has guided this review of the literature. While there have been other research reviews that have examined the work of the cooperating teacher in relation to preservice teachers (e.g., Clark et al., 2014; Metcalf, 1991) these reviews have focused more broadly on the structures, relationships and other mentoring dimensions of teaching. This literature review is focused on studies that have examined the "coaching" interactions between cooperating teachers and preservice teachers in the context of practice.

1. Method

We limited our literature search to studies that are: (1) empirical (employing quantitative, qualitative or mixed methods research methods); (2) published in scholarly, peer-reviewed journals; (3) focused on cooperating teachers working with preservice teachers for initial certification; (4) focused on the coaching interactions between the cooperating teacher and preservice teachers around practice; (5) published in English; and (6) published since 1990 (the publication date of the first *Handbook of Research in Teacher Education*). While our review is focused on coaching, we did not restrict

our search to this term specifically; rather, we were inclusive of all studies examining the interactions of cooperating teachers and preservice teachers around practice.

We identified studies in three steps. First, we searched for studies using four databases: Education Full Text, ERIC, Web of Science and Google Scholar with combinations of terms (preservice teachers, student teachers, cooperating teacher, mentor teacher, student teaching, teacher development, reflective teaching, learning to teach, teacher education, mentorship, coaching, discourse, mentoring conversations, mentoring dialogue, supervision, post-lesson conferences, supervisory conference, feedback). As we identified studies that met our criteria, we added the keywords from the studies to our search terms for subsequent database searches. Second, we used bibliographic branching, examining the reference lists of each study that entered our database to find additional research that met our criteria. We also used any additional search terms located in these new studies, and not used in our original database, to repeat our electronic search. Third, we conducted 'hand searches,' using our selection criteria, of two sets of journals, one set drawn from the teacher education journals that were most represented in the electronic searches and second, literacy education journals published within the last five years. We repeated the bibliographic branching search strategy with the new studies identified through the hand search.

The process of identifying studies was a team effort among the authors. A central, electronic database was created where any member of the research team could enter potential studies. In order to examine trends in mentoring scholarship, we developed a review template to identify the characteristics of the studies. Context of the study, research approach, research questions, duration and location of study, level, data sources, and key findings were among the characteristics reviewed. A study entered by one member of the team was subsequently reviewed by another member of the team as meeting the criteria for inclusion in the review. Only studies that satisfied this review process were included in the database. Most commonly, studies were excluded with designs that did not collect data on the verbal dialogue between mentor and student teachers. Following these procedures, we identified a total of 46 studies as meeting our criteria. Of these, 19 studies were located from database searches, 19 studies were identified from citations, and 8 studies were found from hand searches. Some general descriptive data regarding the studies are displayed in Fig. 1. These data reflect the range of methodological approaches taken as well as detail on the participants, contexts, and measures used in these studies.

We read each of the studies that met our criteria to determine the findings that were being made regarding cooperating teachers and their coaching. This process led to the construction of a set of findings emerging out of the literature. This construction of findings was iterative and ongoing using open coding methods (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1990) as the research team worked back and forth to identify common findings across studies. We took care to identify studies that supported the finding as well as studies that appeared to offer evidence in contradiction to the finding. Our integrative synthesis across these studies yielded a set of findings that were supported to varying degrees. Once the search process was completed we grouped the findings into common topical areas with both supporting and negative cases identified. For each of the findings, a summary of the supporting evidence was compiled into a narrative. Many of the studies appeared across findings.

We struggled with terminology at all stages of our work in conducting and reporting this review. In the broadest sense we were searching for studies that focused on the verbal interactions around practice between experienced teachers and aspiring teachers during their preparation for initial certification. The terms coach, mentor, cooperating teacher, and lead teacher were used in different contexts and, at times, without specific contrasts or definitions and at other times with very specific meanings and careful distinctions. We used as many different terms in our search process as possible in order to be inclusive in the identification of studies. These same issues were encountered in reference to the verbal interactions around support. This variation in terminology was important not only in shaping our search for studies, but at the reporting level as well. We have constructed Table 1 to reflect the variation in terms used across studies.

In reporting on the studies in this review we have had to consider the word choices of the authors alongside our goal for identifying important findings across contexts. In reporting, we have attempted to use the term "mentoring" to refer to the broader construct of support offered to preservice teachers and to use the term "coaching" with reference to the patterns of talk and dialogue employed. We have used the term coaching to refer to the talk of the cooperating teacher in support of the aspiring teacher. In discussion of specific studies we have used the word choices of the researchers to reflect the context for their work.

2. Findings

Our analysis yielded a total of fourteen findings with varying levels of support. We have grouped these findings for presentation purposes around four areas. We will describe our findings within each of these areas. The findings are presented with associated studies in Table 2. In the narrative discussion of the findings that follows we cite only the studies we reference directly. The full set of studies that support or relate to the findings is presented in Table 2.

2.1. Area 1. Current practices and conditions (findings 1–4)

The findings in this area describe the conditions that exist around the work of cooperating teachers in support of preservice teachers.

2.1.1. Finding 1. Cooperating teachers are mostly unprepared for the coaching role they take on

Typically cooperating teachers receive little or no specific preparation for their role as coaches. In 42 of the 46 studies we reviewed, the cooperating teachers had not participated in training or university programs centered on coaching. The vast majority of cooperating teachers in these studies were veteran teachers and had prior experience working with preservice teachers at the time of the studies; however, few had previously engaged in formal professional development that extended beyond university orientation to cover practicalities of their student teachers' placements. Only four studies mentioned that the cooperating teachers had prior preparation for mentorship through avenues such as: university mentor program (Hawkey, 1998), workshops for mentor certification (Bradbury & Koballa, 2008), seminars on effective supervision (Koerner, 1992), and participation in research that included mentor training (Hennissen, Crasborn, Brouwer, Korthagen, & Bergen, 2010). These researchers concluded the quality of support for cooperating teachers to be mentors varies greatly and is mostly lacking.

Without preparation, researchers have found that cooperating teachers are often unsure of their role as coach (Bradbury & Koballa, 2008; Dunne & Bennett, 1997; Valencia, Martin, Place, & Grossman, 2009) and thus rely on their past experiences being coached to guide their interactions and dialogues with their preservice teachers (Bullough et al., 2002; Haggarty, 1995). Bradbury and Koballa's (2008) case study of two cooperating teacher-preservice pairs in a high school science setting across a yearlong practicum

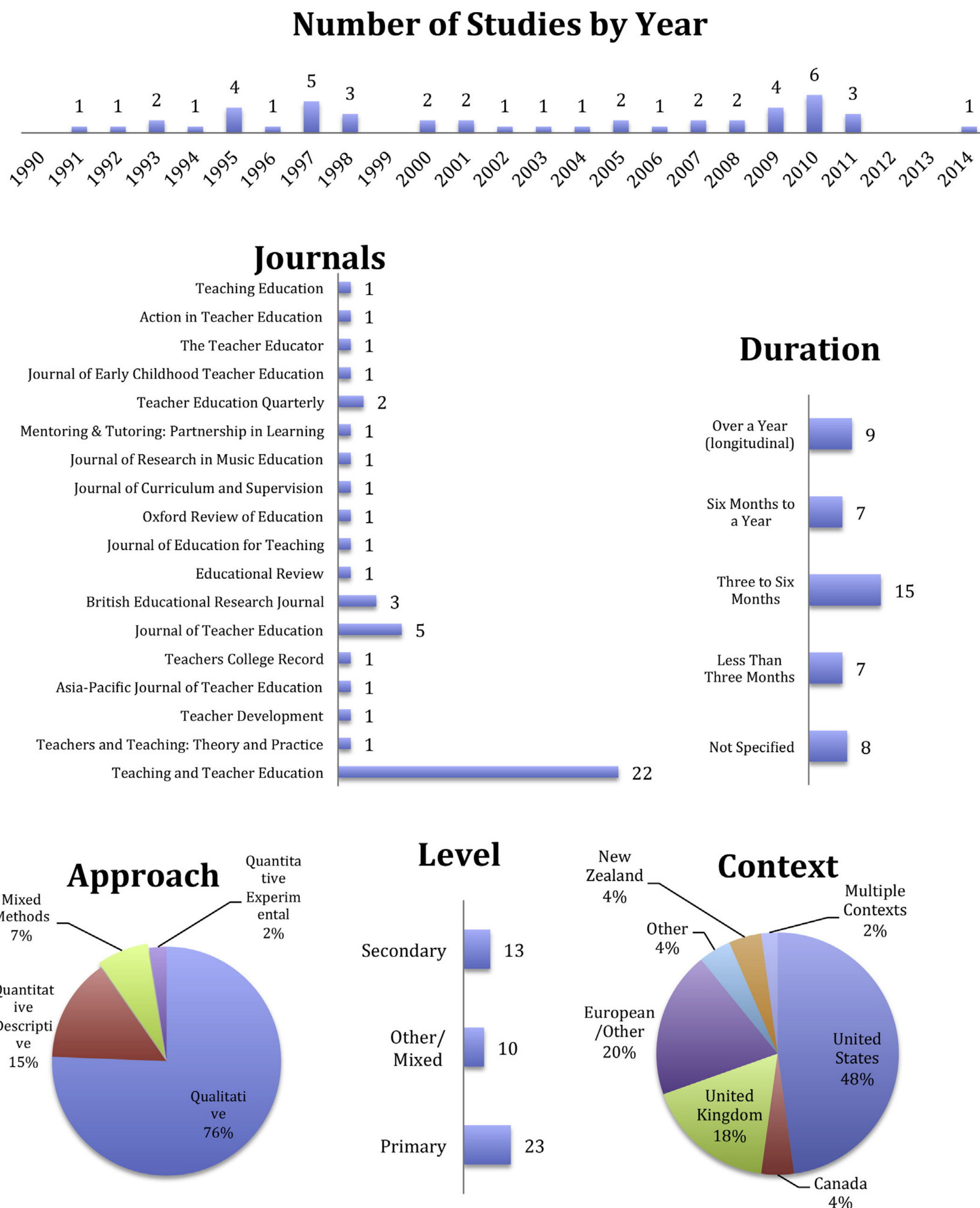

Fig. 1. Distribution and characteristics of studies.

experience revealed that the mentors and student teachers struggled to build productive partnerships. They struggled with building a relationship because the pairs had different expectations for how to mentor and be mentored around their work together. Bradbury and Koballa called for universities to prepare cooperating teachers for their roles as mentors, including helping them develop clear understandings of the role of mentors. Cooperating teachers should provide support for reflecting on practice in their conversations with preservice teachers leaving room for the interns to construct their own teacher identities.

Valencia et al. (2009) came to similar conclusions, reporting that the lack of preparation of cooperating teachers and/or university supervisors contributed to the lack of substantive support for the preservice teachers. The researchers studied the complex interactions across the triads of nine preservice teachers (four elementary and five secondary) and their assigned cooperating and university supervising teachers. Their analytical frame of activity theory led to the identification of multiple tensions across the participants such as conflicting goals (e.g., fitting in vs. trying out new things). Like other researchers (Dunne & Bennett, 1997), Valencia et al. pointed out that many cooperating teachers are unfamiliar with the content of the courses taken by their student teachers. Consequently, cooperating teachers miss out on opportunities to explore and expand on what their student teachers learn in their preparation programs.

2.1.2. Finding 2. Untrained cooperating teachers tend to rely on evaluative feedback

Research related to the dialogue between cooperating and preservice teachers indicated that untrained cooperating teachers tended to offer preservice teachers evaluative feedback about their practice. The specifics of their feedback came in different forms:

Table 1
Variation in key terms used across studies and contexts.

Citation	Term(s) used for the cooperating teacher	Term(s) used for the preservice teacher	Term(s) used for the verbal "interactions" that were studied	Use coaching and mentoring	Country setting
Akcan (2010)	Cooperating teacher; supervisor; mentor	Preservice teacher	Supervisory conferences; post-lesson conferences	Mentoring	Turkey
Ben-Peretz (1991)	Cooperating teacher; tutor	Student teacher; trainee	Supervisory conferences; conferences	Mentoring and coaching	Israel
Borko (1995)	Cooperating teacher	Student teacher	Conferences	Mentoring	US
Bradbury (2008)	Mentor	Intern	Follow-up conferences; conversations	Mentoring	US
Bullough et al. (2002)	Mentor	Preservice teacher	Planning sessions; conferences	Mentoring	US
Cameron (1997)	Teacher	Student teacher	Support roles and challenge roles in the relationship	Mentoring and coaching	UK
Carroll (2005)	Mentor teacher; collaborating teacher	Teacher intern	Planning sessions; debriefing sessions	Mentoring	US
Chaliès et al. (2010)	Cooperating teacher	Preservice teacher	Training sequence	No mentoring or coaching	France
Clarke (1995)	Sponsor teacher	Student teacher	Stimulated video recall sessions	Coaching	Canada
Crasborn et al. (2008)	Mentor teacher	Student teacher	Mentoring dialogues	Mentoring and coaching	Netherlands
Crasborn et al. (2010)	Mentor teacher	Student teacher	Mentoring dialogues	Mentoring and coaching	Netherlands
Crasborn et al. (2011)	Mentor teacher	Student teacher	Mentoring dialogues	Mentoring	Netherlands
Douglas (2011).	Mentor	Student teacher	Meetings	Mentoring	UK
Dunn (1993)	Cooperating teacher	Student teacher	Meetings	Mentoring and coaching	US
Dunne (1997)	Class teacher	Student teacher	Discussions; conferences	Mentoring	UK
Edwards (1998)	Teacher mentor; trainer	Student teacher	Mentoring conversations; mentor-student talk	Mentoring	UK
Edwards (2004)	Mentor; teacher mentor	Student teacher	Conversations; feedback conversations	Mentoring	UK
Erbilgin (2014)	Cooperating teacher	Student teacher	Post-lesson conferences	Mentoring and coaching	US
Fairbanks et al. (2000)	Mentor teacher	Student teacher	Conversations	Mentoring	US
Franke (1996)	Mentor; cooperating teacher	Student teacher	Mentoring sessions	Mentoring	Sweden
Gardiner (2009)	Mentor teacher	Preservice teacher	Meetings; conversations; cognitive coaching	Mentoring and coaching	US
Glenn (2006)	Cooperating teacher	Student teacher	Post-observation meeting	Mentoring	US
Graham (1997)	Mentor teacher	Student teacher	Face to face meetings; dialogue	Mentoring and coaching	US
Haggarty (1995)	Teacher mentor	Student teacher	Conversations; dialogue	No mentoring or coaching used	UK
Hawkey (1998)	Mentor	Student teacher	Conversations between mentors and student teachers	Mentoring	UK
Hennissen et al. (2010)	Mentor teacher	Preservice teacher	Mentoring dialogue; feedback on practice	Mentoring and coaching	Netherlands
Hennissen et al. (2011)	Mentor teacher	Preservice teacher	Mentoring dialogue; feedback on practice	Mentoring and coaching	Netherlands
Kroeger et al. (2009)	Mentor; mentoring teacher	Student teacher; teacher candidate	Dialogues; discussions among mentors and candidates	Mentoring	US
Lane et al. (2003)	Guiding teacher; cooperating teacher	Student teacher; novice, preservice teacher; mentee	Interactions; reflective interactive dialogue	"Practice of guiding teachers"	US
Lemma (1993)	Cooperating teacher; supervisor	Student teacher; novice teacher	Critical feedback; conferences	Supervising	US
Koerner (1992)	Cooperating teacher	Student teacher	Interactions	Supervising	US
Martin (1997)	Mentor	Student teacher	Coaching conversations; mentors' discourse	Mentoring and coaching	UK
Nilssen (2010)	Cooperating teacher	Student teacher	Mentoring conversations	Mentoring	Norway
Nilssen (2010)	Mentor; cooperating teacher; supervising mentor	Student teacher	Interaction; planning session	Mentoring and coaching	Sweden
Nguyen (2009).	Cooperating teacher	Student teacher; mentee; preservice teacher	Purposeful discourse; pre and post lesson conferences	Mentoring	US
Sanders et al. (2005)	Associate teacher; supervising teacher	Preservice teaching student; preservice teacher	Interactions	Mentoring and supervisory practices	Australia
Smith (2007a, 2007b)	Cooperating teacher	Student teacher	Collaborative planning conversation; discourse and interaction	Mentoring and coaching	US
Stanulis (1994)	Mentor; classroom teacher	Student teacher; novice	Interacting in conferences with prospective teachers	Mentoring	US
Stanulis (1995)	Mentor; mentor teacher	Student teacher; novice; prospective teacher	Conferences	Mentoring and coaching	US
Stanulis (2000)	Mentor	Student teacher	Conversations; dialogue	Mentoring and coaching	US
Stegman (2007)	Cooperating teacher; mentor	Student teacher	Reflective dialogue; reflection session dialogue	Coaching	US
Timperley (2001)	School based mentor; mentor	Student teacher; preservice teacher	Mentoring conversations; feedback conversations	Mentoring	New Zealand
Valencia et al. (2009)	Cooperating teacher; mentor	Student teacher; preservice teacher; intern	Debriefing sessions	Mentoring	US

(continued on next page)

Table 1 (*continued*)

Citation	Term(s) used for the cooperating teacher	Term(s) used for the preservice teacher	Term(s) used for the verbal "interactions" that were studied	Use coaching and mentoring	Country setting
Wang (2001)	Mentor teacher	Novice teacher; student teacher	Mentor-novice interactions	Mentoring	US
Wilkins-Canter's (1997)	Cooperating teacher	Student teacher	Supervisory feedback practices	Clinical supervision	US
Williams et al. (1998)	Mentor	Student	Mentor student discussions	Mentoring	UK

Table 2
Common findings in research on mentoring preservice teachers.

Area 1. Findings 1–4: Current practices and conditions	
Finding 1	Cooperating Teachers are mostly unprepared for the role they take on.
Affirming	Akcan and Tatar (2010); Ben-Peretz and Rumney (1991); Borko and Mayfield (1995); Bullough et al. (2002); Cameron-Jones and O'Hara (1997); Carroll (2005); Chaliès et al. (2010); Clarke (1995); Crasborn et al. (2008, 2010; 2011); Douglas (2011); Dunn and Taylor (1993); Dunne and Bennett (1997); Edwards and Ogden (1998); Edwards and Protheroe (2004); Erbilgin (2014); Fairbanks et al. (2000); Franke and Dahlgren (1996); Gardiner (2009); Glenn (2006); Graham (1997); Haggarty (1995); Hennissen et al. (2011); Kroeger et al. (2009); Lane et al. (2003); Lemma (1993); Martin (1997); Nilssen (2010); Nilsson and van Driel (2010; Nguyen (2009); Sanders, Dowson, and Sinclair (2005); Smith (2007a, 2007b); Stanulis (1994, 1995); Stanulis and Russell (2000); Stegman (2007); Timperley (2001); Valencia et al. (2009); Wang (2001); Wilkins-Canter (1997); Williams et al. (1998)
Finding 2	Untrained cooperating teachers tend to rely on evaluative feedback.
Affirming	Ben-Peretz and Rumney (1991); Borko and Mayfield (1995); Bradbury and Koballa (2008); Crasborn et al. (2011); Douglas (2011); Dunn and Taylor (1993); Dunne and Bennett (1997); Franke and Dahlgren (1996); Glenn (2006); Hawkey (1998); Valencia et al. (2009); Wilkins-Canter (1997); Williams et al. (1998)
Disconfirming	Stanulis (1994); Nilssen (2010)
Finding 3	Debriefing conferences between the cooperating teachers and preservice teachers focused more on planning or the instructional actions of the preservice teachers than on the reflective mentoring conversations.
Affirming	Ben-Peretz and Rumney (1991); Chaliès et al. (2010); Crasborn et al. (2011); Douglas (2011); Edwards and Ogden (1998); Lemma (1993); Sanders, Dowson, and Sinclair (2005)
Disconfirming	Clarke (1995); Franke and Dahlgren (1996); Stegman (2007)
Finding 4	Cooperating teachers used more speaking time and initiated more topics to discuss than their preservice teachers during conferences.
Affirming	Ben-Peretz and Rumney (1991); Bullough et al. (2002); Crasborn et al. (2011); Dunne and Bennett (1997); Haggarty (1995)
Area 2. Findings 5–7: Innovations in practice	
Finding 5	The types of mentoring engaged in by cooperating teachers is not fixed; training in specific models of mentoring can lead to changes in a cooperating teacher's mentoring practices.
Affirming	Crasborn et al. (2008); Erbilgin (2014); Hennissen et al. (2010); Timperley (2001)
Disconfirming	Gardiner (2009)
Finding 6	Bringing in-service teachers together to study mentoring practices had positive results on their professional development.
Affirming	Carroll (2005); Stanulis (1995)
Finding 7	Research comparing the influence of cooperating teachers and university supervisors has shown mixed results with a general finding of both as influential – but not always.
Affirming	Akcan and Tatar (2010); Borko and Mayfield (1995)
Area 3. Findings 8–11: Relationships and Tensions	
Finding 8	Relationships between mentor teacher and preservice teacher are an important consideration within a mentoring model.
Affirming	Bradbury and Koballa (2008); Cameron-Jones and O'Hara (1997); Hennissen et al. (2011); Fairbanks et al. (2000); Glenn (2006); Kroeger et al. (2009); Lane et al. (2003); Nguyen (2009); Smith (2007a, 2007b); Stanulis and Russell (2000); Timperley (2001)
Finding 9	Cooperating teachers consider their primary purpose as support to their preservice teachers. Those cooperating teachers who challenge their preservice teachers see it as a secondary objective.
Affirming	Borko and Mayfield (1995); Cameron-Jones and O'Hara (1997); Lemma (1993)
Disconfirming	Clarke (1995)
Finding 10	Cooperating teachers felt tension between their responsibilities as a teacher to their students and as a mentor to their preservice teacher.
Affirming	Edwards and Protheroe (2004); Koerner (1992); Valencia et al. (2009)
Finding 11	Preservice teachers express frustration when they don't receive direct feedback.
Affirming	Bradbury and Koballa (2008); Bullough et al. (2002); Crasborn et al. (2008; 2010); Gardiner (2009); Graham (1997); Hennissen et al. (2010, 2011); Timperley (2001)
Area 4. Findings 12–14: Local Contexts and Teaching Practices	
Finding 12	Mentor teachers' beliefs and patterns of interaction are influenced by their local and national context.
Affirming	Graham (1997); Hennissen et al. (2010); Wang (2001)
Finding 13	Finding 13. Cooperating teachers' mentoring reflects their teaching practices with students in their own classrooms.
Affirming	Graham (1997); Martin (1997); Nilssen (2010); Valencia et al. (2009)
Finding 14	The mentoring experience led to a reexamination of the cooperating teachers' own practices and beliefs.
Affirming	Bullough et al. (2002); Fairbanks et al. (2000); Glenn (2006); Koerner (1992); Kroeger et al. (2009); Lane et al. (2003); Nilsson and van Driel (2010)

praise and criticism, advice and telling preservice teachers what they should do, and correction. Directive feedback left little space for the preservice teachers, in the dialogue with their mentor teachers, to reflect on their own beliefs and practices.

Ben-Peretz and Rumney (1991) and Williams et al. (1998) found that the cooperating teachers' judgmental comments dominated the conversations with their preservice teachers. In studying the dialogue of six secondary preservice teachers with their cooperating teachers in six institutions of teacher education in Israel, Ben-Peretz and Rumney (1991) found that mentor teachers praised or criticized their student teachers 87% of the time in their post-conferences. The mentor teachers assumed the traditional positions of authority, intending to "transmit traditions of successful teaching" (p. 521). Williams et al. (1998) also found that secondary mentors in the UK typically made evaluative remarks (e.g. "That's a good idea" and "I'm not happy with…") with the intention to change the preservice teachers' future instruction. Valencia et al. (2009) were surprised to find that there was little feedback offered to preservice teachers with only infrequent and unstructured observations. Cooperating teachers tended to rely on direct

forms of feedback around management, procedures and pacing along with praise and seldom was feedback provided that was content-specific (e.g., around language arts or reading instruction).

The studies in this area reported that cooperating teachers offered suggestions and directly told their student teachers what to do to improve their teaching. The middle school mathematics teachers in Borko and Mayfield (1995) study believed in their responsibility to give explicit and concrete suggestions regardless of whether it was positive or negative. This type of feedback limited opportunities for the preservice teachers to benefit from thinking through the lessons themselves and exercising their own interpretive authority. Dunn and Taylor (1993) described that teachers in their study acted as "consultants" in their conferences, advising the preservice teachers on what they should have done differently. Although the preservice teachers found their teachers' directive feedback relevant and useful, the dialogue did not "elicit deep levels of reflectivity" from the preservice teachers (p. 414). Most of the elementary and high school cooperating teachers in Wilkins-Canter's (1997) study gave suggestions to their preservice teacher based on their knowledge and experience—"This is what I tried…" (p. 241).

Similarly, Douglas (2011) observed that the teachers in his study "outlined, discussed and displayed" skills in their conferences that they wished their preservice teachers to "copy and master," which "made it more difficult for [the preservice teachers] to consider lesson ideas afresh" (p. 98). The cooperating teachers aimed to steer preservice teachers toward 'right' ways of teaching and what they believed they were 'supposed' to learn without encouraging them to evolve in their thinking. Likewise, the teachers in Glenn's (2006) study gave dictating statements to their preservice teachers—"Focus more on…" and "I want you to…"—because they believed their preservice teachers would be "likely to flounder without direction" (p. 91). Hawkey (1998) found teachers in the UK offered information and tips to ensure that preservice teachers would "develop a repertoire of teaching skills" (p. 665).

Overall, untrained cooperating teachers assumed a directive and evaluative stance in their coaching conversations that led preservice teachers toward 'standard' interpretations without the development of their own teaching practices. Reflections were "left to the student teachers' private thoughts" (Douglas, 2011, p. 98) and as such, their experiences of being coached were reduced to accepting their teachers' feedback. The preservice teacher in Hawkey's (1998) study described her positioning in a coaching interaction context, "I sit there like a sponge" (p. 665). The positioning of preservice teachers as receivers of knowledge in dialogue with their cooperating teachers is present across much of the literature we reviewed.

Other researchers looking at coaching in teacher preparation programs found that cooperating teachers also gave feedback to preservice teachers by pointing out their mistakes. Dunne and Bennett's (1997) analysis of post-lesson discussions showed that teachers in the UK often identified the "rights and wrongs" of preservice teachers' performances (p. 231). Moreover, the teachers in Franke and Dahlgren's (1996) study believed their "function" was to "serve as a model" and "be a master who corrects" preservice teachers (p. 631). These teachers evaluated their student teachers' lessons in relation to their own beliefs of "good" teaching. Akcan and Tatar (2010) found that the teachers who focused on pointing out mistakes to their preservice teachers in Istanbul, Turkey did not facilitate the student teachers' understanding of the rationale behind their decisions around practice. Crasborn, Hennissen, Brouwer, Korthagen, and Bergen (2011) utilized the MERID model (MEntor (teacher) Roles in Dialogues) to understand how primary teachers in the Netherlands interacted with their student teachers. They confirmed the finding that most teachers took up the "imperator" role, bringing the "right and wrong" moments of their preservice teachers' performance to the forefront of their discussions (p. 327). Correction pushed these preservice teachers toward adopting perspectives of teaching that aligned with their teachers instead of taking up the preservice teachers' existing understandings and concerns seriously.

There is far less research about how teachers supported preservice teachers to self-direct their learning through critical reflection around teaching. We found two clear exceptions in the studies reviewed. Stanulis (1994) identified the ways in which a teacher created opportunities in post-lesson conferences for a preservice teacher to raise questions and lead the conversation. Stanulis concluded that what made this cooperating teacher effective in fostering critical reflection was watching the videos of her coaching interactions in practice. Through stimulated recall, the teacher realized that giving directive feedback did not allow her preservice teacher to draw on her own knowledge and build her own voice. In response to watching videos of her coaching in action, the cooperating teacher refrained from telling answers in the subsequent conferences and guided her preservice teacher to ask herself questions about her own teaching.

Nilssen's (2010) case study of a teacher (Sara) working as a cooperating teacher with several student teachers revealed a teacher who approached coaching from a constructivist perspective. Sara's efforts revolved around helping her student teachers develop a mindset where "seeing the kids" (p. 592) is the focus. Using practice experiences as the basis for discussion, Sara helped these student teachers to develop this mindset. Sara's coaching moved from initial stages of asking student teachers to observe her (Sara) teach, to carefully watching how kids share knowledge, to having pre-teaching conversations that prepared the student teachers for seeing through "developing aims" (p. 594). Finally, the post teaching conversations were used as a context for reflecting on the kids' participation in ways that reflect the aims of the teaching.

2.1.3. Finding 3. Debriefing conferences between cooperating teachers and preservice teachers focused more on planning or instructional actions of the preservice teachers than on reflective coaching conversations

Examining the content of the talk during post conferences between the cooperating teacher and the preservice teacher sheds light on what is valued in the cooperating teacher/preservice teacher relationship. Our review of literature indicated that often debriefing conferences between the cooperating and preservice teachers focused more on planning or the instructional actions of the preservice teachers than on the reflections behind their actions or the students in the classrooms. Ben-Peretz and Rumney (1991) concluded that in 93% of the cases they observed, the cooperating teachers directed the post conferences and "more time was devoted to issues of content than issues of students" (p. 508). Of 112 topics discussed between the cooperating teachers and preservice teachers during post conferences, Crasborn et al. (2011) found that 50% fell in the category of instruction and organization. The teachers' focus was "less on student teachers as learners than on the pace at which student teachers cover the prescribed the curriculum" (p. 328). Similarly, cooperating teachers in the Sanders, Dowson, and Sinclair's (2005) study assumed the role of modelers and planners. They concluded that 40% of their interactions with preservice teachers revolved around decisions about what content to teach.

Douglas (2011) also observed cooperating teachers' emphasis "on planning lessons rather than reflecting on work done" with their student teachers (p. 98). The cooperating teachers used verbal feedback to evaluate the preservice teachers' teaching rather than eliciting the student teachers' thinking. Similarly, the cooperating teachers in Chaliès, Bruno-Méard, Méard, and Bertone (2010) focused on their perspectives of "singular situations" from preservice teachers' lessons, which did not allow the preservice teachers

to construct meaning of their practices and extend their experiences to broader classroom contexts. The three topics that dominated the discourse between cooperating and preservice teachers in Edwards and Ogden (1998) study were instructional actions, content knowledge, and descriptions or retellings of the lesson events. Lemma (1993) also found planning as the recurring theme during post-lesson conferences. The cooperating teacher shared her methods for considering the content, the resources, and the students in lesson planning and rarely asked questions calling for justification of purpose on part by the student teacher.

Alternatively, some scholars looking at conferences between teachers and preservice teachers found their debriefings centered on their preservice teachers' reflections. Clarke (1995) and Nilsson and van Driel (2010) used stimulated recall as a powerful tool for cooperating teachers and preservice teachers to focus on reflection. The cooperating teachers used stimulated recall to ask their preservice teachers about they learned from planning and teaching lessons with questions of "why" and "for whom" (p. 1312). As a result of examining their practice through stimulated recall, the preservice teachers experienced ownership of making changes to their practice. The teachers in Stegman's (2007) study also drew on preservice teachers' reflections as the starting point to their dialogues. The mentor teachers asked their preservice teachers to identify successful moments, as well as "problem" moments in their lessons, to discuss together. The preservice teachers' reflections "became more content specific" and their "concern for their students' learning and achievement more prevalent" as they engaged in reflective post-conferences (p. 70).

2.1.4. *Finding 4. Cooperating teachers used more speaking time and initiated more topics than their preservice teachers during conferences*

The literature suggests that cooperating teachers often initiate and sustain discussions with their preservice teachers. Ben-Peretz and Rumney (1991) observed that conferences were "one-directional" with the cooperating teacher making evaluative comments, such as "This was quite a good lesson," and "transmitting traditions of 'successful' teaching modes" (p. 521). Similarly, the cooperating teachers in Dunne and Bennett's (1997) study "contributed the greater part of the verbal interaction in discussions" as they felt it was important as coaches "to support and encourage, pick up issues, and offer their own interpretations" (p. 231). Bullough et al. (2002) also found that cooperating teachers do most of the talking and directing in conferences with preservice teachers. The teachers in their study presented topics, provided ideas for teaching, and gave a plan for future lessons while the preservice teachers "listened and responded" (p. 72). The researchers concluded there was "little evidence of teaming" in dialogue between preservice and teachers (p. 72). Crasborn et al.'s (2011) analysis of their MERID model indicated that cooperating teachers introduced 73% of the 112 topics discussed in conferences (p. 326). In addition, they found that the "model's dimension input correlates significantly with cooperating teacher's speaking time," suggesting "an increase in the number of topics introduced by the teacher goes hand in hand with an increase of the teachers' speaking time and/or vice versa" (p. 326). Haggarty's (1995) analysis indicated that cooperating teachers in the United Kingdom spent a significant amount of time dominating the conversation with their own experiences and ideas.

2.2. *Area 2. Innovations in practice (findings 5–7)*

The three findings in this area look at innovations in practice around the work of cooperating teachers.

2.2.1. *Finding 5. The types of coaching engaged in by cooperating teachers is not fixed; training in specific models of coaching can lead to changes in a cooperating teacher's coaching practices*

A number of studies have found that training in a specific model of coaching leads teachers to adopt aspects of that model in their own work with preservice teachers. Timperley (2001) identified a shift in cooperating teachers' dialogue with their student teachers after completing a training program on coaching. Before training, the coaches avoided discussing their concerns from observed lessons, seeking to sustain a positive relationship with their student teacher. During the training, the coaches practiced asking their preservice teachers to take shared responsibility in leading the conversations and asking them to identify strengths and growth areas in their teaching. After the training, the cooperating teachers were more likely to clearly state their concerns and to develop an action plan collaboratively with their student teachers. Erbilgin (2014) examined the experiences of high school teachers participating in a semester-long mentoring program, which focused on learner-centered and reflective supervision practices. Erbilgin's analysis showed that the length of the conferences increased over time, and the percentage of talk done by teachers decreased over time. In addition, the teachers moved from giving evaluative feedback towards asking their preservice teachers open-ended questions that prompted reflection.

In a series of studies of their SMART (Supervision skill for the Mentor teachers to Activate Reflection in pre-service Teachers) training program, Crasborn, Hennissen, Brouwer, Korthagen, and Bergen (2008, 2010) and Hennissen et al. (2010) also found that training in a specific mentoring model led mentor teachers to change their practices to be more aligned with that model. Over the course of three months, cooperating teachers moved from an advisor/instructor role as a mentor to an encourager role. Comparing dialogues before and after training, the researchers found that the cooperating teacher talked in a way that indicated an advisor/instructor role less (this type of talk decreased from 69% to 30% of the dialogue), while instances characterized as taking an encourager role increased. In addition to these findings, Crasborn et al. (2010) used stimulated recall to determine the frequency of reflective moments in coaching dialogues before and after their training. This study found that reflective moments in dialogue increased from one-seventh of the conversational turns to one-fourth of conversations turns after the training. Shifts in coaching teachers' practices were not only recognized by researchers, but also by preservice teachers. Hennissen, Crasborn, Brouwer, Korthagen, and Bergen (2011) asked preservice teachers to comment on the coaching skills they perceived in dialogues before and after their cooperating teachers went through training. The researchers found that the preservice teachers noted significant increases in the use of summarizing similar to the findings of the independent raters.

In contrast, Gardiner (2009) demonstrated that not all training significantly affects coaching practices. Teachers who participated in a one-week training course on cognitive coaching did not feel adequately prepared by the end to enact reflective coaching. The teachers found they lacked the necessary tools and theoretical understandings to support their development through the model.

2.2.2. *Finding 6. Bringing inservice teachers together to study coaching practices had positive results on their professional development*

Cooperating teachers, a school principal, and a university supervisor participated in a mentoring study group over nine weeks in Carroll's (2005) study. A primary finding was that through their interactive talk, the teachers "engaged each other in new thinking and joint knowledge construction" around their practices for

coaching (p. 464). Cooperating teachers and university faculty in Stanulis's (1995) study also collaborated to "grapple with questions which arise out of practice, and experiment with new approaches" to teaching, learning, and mentorship (p. 332). The cooperating teachers took what they learned from their collaboration and shared their thinking with their preservice teachers. They grew professionally as reflective teachers and mentors as a result of their collaboration and joint commitment to help their interns similarly to learn to teach through reflection. Sharing and discussing experiences of mentoring in partnership with others influenced their practices of teaching and mentoring preservice teachers.

2.2.3. Finding 7. Research comparing the influence of cooperating teachers and university supervisors has shown mixed results with a general finding of both as influential – but not always

Research indicates that the university supervisor can be less influential than the cooperating teacher or equally influential as the cooperating teacher. Borko and Mayfield (1995) explored "guided teaching" relationships between the preservice teachers, cooperating teachers, and university facilitators and found the preservice teachers to be "consistent in reporting little influence by the university supervisors" (p. 514). The preservice teachers felt frustrated by their supervisors' time constraints, their lack of content area knowledge, and their "surface level" relationships (p. 512). The preservice teachers described their dialogue with their supervisors as "superficial conferences" in which the university supervisors primarily praised student teachers (p. 515). Whereas the university supervisor is often seen as an overseer or manager of preservice teachers' field experiences, Nguyen (2009) found that the university supervisor was an equally influential member of the triad among Vietnamese cooperating and preservice teachers. Each member of the triad in this study brought his or her own perspectives to their conversations about teaching and "worked hard at honoring each other's voice and broadening their cultural, social, and political repertoire" (p. 295). All members of the triad "were in agreement that teamwork, flexibility, dedication, and mutual respect were essential to the team's success" (p. 661). Valencia et al. (2009) found that preservice teachers perceived university supervisors as more supportive than their cooperating teachers and valued their relationship with their university supervisors over their cooperating teachers. The authors concluded that this was in part because the cooperating teachers and university supervisors operated as separate entities and did not work together in support of their preservice teachers' development.

Akcan and Tatar (2010) found that the university supervisors were a quite positive influence on preservice teachers when they "created a context in which the student teachers analyzed their actions" and "retrospectively reflected on the lessons they taught" (p. 159). The supervisors consistently asked their student teachers how they felt about the lesson and what changes they would make in their teaching. These types of questions helped their student teachers to become aware of their teaching practices and think about the rationale behind their pedagogical decisions.

2.3. Area 3. Relationships and tensions (findings 8–11)

The findings in this area relate to relationships and the tensions that can surface in the context of the work of the cooperating teacher.

2.3.1. Finding 8. The relationship between cooperating teacher and preservice teacher is an important consideration within a mentoring model

Nguyen (2009), in her study of the mentor teacher, preservice teacher, and university supervisor triad, found these learning communities provided spaces for purposeful discussions and shared learning. All members of the triad "were explicit in their expectations of selves and of one another, kept the lines of communication open, [and] grappled with taken-for-granted issues by refraining from offering simple answers to complex questions" (p. 659). These aspects created the conditions for the development of a supportive learning community that allowed for reflective mentoring to take place.

Stanulis and Russell (2000) found that the key aspect of the beginning of the field placement was the building of a relationship between the mentor teacher and preservice teacher. It was because of their trusting and communicative relationship that preservice teachers felt encouraged to take risks in their teaching that led to greater learning, a concept the researchers termed "jumping in" (p. 67). This "jumping in" was viewed as an important part of effective mentoring by both mentor teachers and preservice teachers, with positive relationships providing the necessary space from which to engage in these practices.

In their study of the role of mentor teachers in student teacher learning, Fairbanks, Freedman, and Kahn (2000) found that the relationship between mentor teacher and student teacher was an ongoing development critical to the student teacher's learning. Mentor teachers tended to position their student teachers as co-teachers in the classroom and encouraged them to see themselves as members of the school faculty.

The research we reviewed suggests that relationships are important not only to the preservice teacher's development, but to the mentor teacher as well. Lane, Lacefield-Parachini, and Isken (2003) explored the relationship between preservice teachers who sought to teach "against the grain" and mentor teachers who did not share this stance. Disrupting the notion of an expert-novice relationship between mentor teacher and preservice teacher, the researchers found that "the relationship between the student teachers and guiding teacher was, in fact, bi-directional and recursive. Each one's behavior affected the behavior and interactions of the other" (p. 62). Thus, when considering the development of relationships between mentor teachers and preservice teachers, researchers understood the influence and agency of both parties within that relationship. Confirming the findings in Lane et al. (2003), Kroeger, Pech, and Cope (2009) found that a preservice teacher affected both physical and interpersonal aspects of the classroom climate. The collaborative conversations with preservice teachers about challenging situations in the classroom were particularly valued by mentor teachers, who viewed these conversations as having a positive effect on the experiences of students in that classroom as well.

In exploring the tensions between mentor teachers and preservice teachers, Bradbury and Koballa (2008) found the key challenge that emerged was a lack of relationship between them. One mentor teacher believed the lack of relationship led to ineffective communication, while the student teacher felt it negatively affected her teaching in the classroom. Another mentor teacher in the study, however, did not have a close relationship with her preservice teacher, but she did not believe this impacted her ability to mentor. Glenn (2006) also suggested that preservice and cooperating teachers have different attitudes towards the role of relationships in mentorship. The preservice teachers in this study noted that having a personal and professional connection with their mentors was essential to their development. However, maintaining a close relationship did not seem as important to one of the cooperating teachers as her preservice teacher. Distance in their relationship did not bother this mentor teacher, as she believed, "We are colleagues, but not true colleagues. There is still a feeling of student teacher there" (p. 91).

A desire to maintain a positive relationship with preservice

teachers can lead mentor teachers to change the ways in which they approach mentoring conversations. Timperley (2001) found that mentor teachers withheld the concerns they had about the preservice teacher's practice, in part because they believed that sharing these concerns could interfere with their positive relationships with the preservice teachers. Similarly, Smith (2007a, 2007b) found the desire to maintain a relationship could impact the kinds of conversations that occurred between mentor and preservice teachers. In this study, the power differential between the mentor and mentee prevented the preservice teacher from presenting her ideas about instruction. The relationship between mentor teacher and preservice teacher is an important component of mentoring, but it can also be a space for tension.

2.3.2. Finding 9. Cooperating teachers consider their primary purpose as support to their preservice teachers. Those cooperating teachers who challenge their preservice teachers see it as a secondary objective

Cooperating teachers in research acted primarily as support systems for their preservice teachers in order to make them comfortable in their field experience and treat them as colleagues. In Borko and Mayfield (1995) study, the cooperating teachers placed a "high priority on being positive in their interactions with student teachers, in order to build their confidence" (p. 516). Furthermore, the cooperating teachers "shared the desire to maximize comfort and minimize risks during the student teaching experience" (p. 516). This shared attitude from the cooperating teachers resulted in limited feedback during conferences and "rarely included in-depth exploration of issues of teaching and learning" (p. 515). Borko and Mayfield concluded that one reason the cooperating teachers limited conferences to a surface level may have been because they did not perceive themselves as teacher educators. Based on these findings, Borko and Mayfield suggested providing cooperating teachers support on being active mentors to preservice teachers, which could help them move beyond the role of supporter.

The preservice and cooperating teachers in Cameron-Jones and O'Hara's (1997) study rated each role the cooperating teacher played in their mentoring relationship (friend, model, assessor, supporter, coach intermediary, standard-prodder and door opener). They found the cooperating teachers rated themselves the highest in their role as supporter and door-opener just as their preservice teachers did. However, the cooperating teachers rated themselves higher in the challenge role than did their interns. The authors concluded that the preservice teachers seemed "unaware of the amount of challenge" offered by their cooperating teachers (p. 20). Lemma (1993) also found that cooperating teachers are "reluctant to provide critical feedback and to challenge the thinking" of their preservice teachers" (p. 340). The findings from this study indicated that the cooperating teacher did not challenge her preservice teachers because she found the intern "competent" and assumed her "job of supervisor" to be "more or less done." The research implied a much needed shift in the role of the cooperating teacher working as an active participant in teacher education—a role that challenges and supports the preservice teacher and requires them to think deeply and critically about their work with children.

2.3.3. Finding 10. Cooperating teachers feel tension between their responsibilities as a teacher to their students and as a mentor to their preservice teacher

Due to the pressure to produce outcomes of student learning, cooperating teachers may find it difficult to pay as much attention to the development of their preservice teachers as they do their students. To understand the effects of hosting a preservice teacher on a cooperating teacher, Koerner (1992) reviewed journals that were written by experienced cooperating teachers during their teaching experiences. The researcher found that mentor teachers struggled the most with releasing responsibility of teaching to their preservice teachers. Analysis revealed, "all the cooperating teachers expressed strong feelings about the direct effects of the student teacher's instruction on their pupils' learning" (p. 48). These teachers felt that their students' learning was less supported when being taught by the preservice teacher than when they were responsible for their students' instruction. This difference in support concerned mentor teachers because they felt that it was themselves, rather than the preservice teachers, who would ultimately be held accountable to administrators for their students' progress. Because of this accountability, cooperating teachers felt more comfortable when they were fully responsible for instruction in the classroom. As the year progressed, "the cooperating teachers began to feel a commitment toward the student teachers" (p. 49), and in some classrooms the mentor and student teachers were able to work together in supporting student learning. However, despite these shifts, the tension between mentoring and teaching was not fully resolved.

Edwards and Protheroe (2004) also found that cooperating teachers tended not to focus on their preservice teachers as learners, but rather on how the preservice teachers supported the students as learners. The teachers in this study centered conversations around "the pupils' performances and the pace at which pupils need to move through the curriculum" (p. 189). As such, the conversations and feedback between teacher and preservice teachers focused on instruction with respect to the learning development of students, instead of on the actions of the preservice teacher. Edwards and Protheroe theorized that preservice teachers were acting as "proxy teachers" (p. 195) being carefully watched by the mentor teacher, which did not foster the development of preservice teachers as responsive teachers. Likewise, the cooperating teachers in Valencia et al.'s (2009) study struggled in giving up control over their classes as a result of concerns over student achievement and compliance with curriculum mandates.

2.3.4. Finding 11. Preservice teachers express frustration when they don't receive direct feedback

Several studies found that preservice teachers express frustration when they do not receive direct feedback from their cooperating teachers. Bradbury and Koballa (2008) found that cooperating teachers and student teachers often come to the relationship with different conceptions of mentoring. One cooperating teacher did not provide direct feedback, but instead modeled the teaching practices he thought would be useful for his student teacher. His student teacher was frustrated with this model of mentoring, feeling that she did not receive enough feedback or advice on her own teaching. Since the cooperating teacher and the preservice teacher did not openly discuss their expectations for their work together, there was a tension between the model of mentoring that the mentor teacher used and the model that preservice teacher desired.

In her study of the cooperating teacher-student teacher relationship within a secondary English teacher education program focused on collaborative inquiry, Graham (1997) found that one of the major points of tension in that relationship was related to each individual's "tolerance for uncertainty." In her study, one student teacher expressed frustration with the mentoring relationship when his cooperating teacher did not provide "more direct advice and answers to the teaching dilemmas he identified" (p. 522). However, Graham noted that this tension, along with others, served as "powerful potential for engaging and animating the participants in self-reflexive thought because the tensions create such dissonance" (p. 517), which forced preservice teachers to examine their own assumptions and beliefs around teaching and learning. Thus,

she argued that this tension prepared preservice teachers to become more reflective on their own practices.

Preservice teachers in the single-placement setting of Bullough et al.'s (2002) study expressed frustration with the lack of feedback they received from their mentor teachers about their teaching experiences. Only one of the preservice teachers in this group "felt she had received substantial and helpful advice and criticism" (p. 72), whereas the other preservice teachers viewed their teachers as disengaged from their teaching because of the lack of more direct feedback. In contrast, preservice teachers placed with other preservice teachers in the same classroom context expressed less frustration in this area, noting that they often gave and received feedback with one another. This suggests that the frustration with the lack of direct feedback stems from a desire for feedback more generally, rather than a specific desire for feedback from the cooperating teacher.

2.4. Area 4. Local contexts and teaching practices (findings 12–14)

The three findings in this final area relate to the cooperating teachers' own practices and working contexts.

2.4.1. Finding 12. Cooperating teachers' beliefs and patterns of interaction are influenced by their local and national context

When considering the beliefs of cooperating teachers and the way they interact with preservice teachers, two studies point to the important influence of the sociocultural context on those beliefs and interactions. Wang (2001) explored cooperating teachers' and novice teachers' beliefs about mentoring in three different countries (the United States, the United Kingdom, and China), as well as the patterns of interaction between cooperating teachers and novice teachers in each of these contexts. In this study, novice teachers included both preservice teachers and novice inservice teachers who were in mentoring relationships with experienced teachers. Wang found that cooperating teachers had different beliefs about which areas of teaching were most important for all novice teachers to learn. While there was variation within each country between cooperating teachers, those cooperating teachers within each country did share certain beliefs, and beliefs that were common to cooperating teachers in one country were often missing from the beliefs of cooperating teachers in other countries. For example, coaching interactions in the United States often focused on issues of individual student learning, while pairs in China and the United Kingdom did not pay substantial attention to these topics. However, even when certain beliefs were shared across contexts, mentor teachers gave different reasons for these shared beliefs. In addition, context also shaped the types of interactions between mentor teachers and novice teachers, with pairs in different countries focusing their conversations on different topics. Wang argued that based on these findings mentoring and coaching interaction patterns are influenced by the broader social context, and these differences in context must be taken into account when designing mentoring programs.

It is not only the broad national context that can influence beliefs and enactment of coaching strategies. Graham (1997) explored the ways in which school and district contexts can also influence mentoring. Particularly for one of the mentor/mentee pairs studied, the school context influenced the way the teacher approached the relationship. In this case, the school district had been involved in political battles that had created tensions between faculty regarding different philosophies of teaching and learning. These existing tensions served to increase the tensions between the mentor teacher and student teacher with respect to their own philosophical differences on this issue, eventually inhibiting effective communication between mentor teacher and preservice teacher. Although Graham does not suggest this tension between mentor teacher and preservice teacher would have been absent in any context, she found that the existing political battle within the school district influenced the ways in which both teachers reacted to the tension between them. In a different context without this existing battle, the teachers might have worked with their tension in a different way.

2.4.2. Finding 13. Cooperating teachers' coaching reflects their teaching practices with students in their own classrooms

Untrained cooperating teachers often draw on their beliefs about teaching to guide their coaching of preservice teachers. Martin's (1997) ethnography of coaching conversations in two primary classrooms revealed that the cooperating teachers' mentoring practices coincided with their teaching practices. One of the two cooperating teachers in this study allowed her student teacher to "choose whatever content she wanted to teach" and "refrained from prescribing ways of doing it" (p. 189). She encouraged her student teacher to "try things out" in the same way that she nurtured her first grade students to direct their own learning (p. 189). In contrast, the other cooperating teacher in this study demonstrated a "tight control" over her classroom that carried over into her "tight contingent" ways of mentoring (p. 188). This cooperating teacher felt she "had something to teach" her student teachers and as such, mentored "as close as possible from what she perceived were her mentees' needs" (p. 195). Although the two cooperating teachers differed in their approaches to mentoring, the researchers emphasized the connection of their approaches to their teaching practices. The findings from this study furthered understanding of the content and the contexts of mentoring in preservice teachers' field experiences and suggested that cooperating teachers' mentoring was closely tied to their teaching—"as they taught, so they mentored" (p. 192).

Graham's (1997) study provided insight into how cooperating teachers' philosophy of teaching influenced their mentoring. She focused on the mentor/student teacher discourse to illustrate her findings. For example, one mentor teacher refrained from directly telling her student teacher what and how to teach because she did not believe in a banking or transmission model of teaching. The mentor teacher's "constructionist philosophy of learning" guided her decisions to ask reflective questions and position the student teacher "to construct a foundation for learning from his own practice" (p. 523). The researchers found her mentoring style was "deeply rooted in an outlook on learning about teaching which privileged a teacher's ability to reflect deeply" (p. 523). Nilssen's (2010) case study of one cooperating teacher, Sara, focused on mentoring from a constructivist perspective that focused on helping student teachers "see" their students and to keep them in mind throughout their teaching. Sara's understanding of "seeing" as an important focus in mentoring grew out of her understanding of her own teaching as driven by seeing how students construct mathematical understandings and strategies.

Valencia et al. (2009) observed only one case where the experience of the student teacher thrived in the context of a teacher who was using many of the practices that were advocated within the teacher education program. In all of the other cases, where there was a distinct absence of alignment between the program and the teacher practices, there was little application or growth. Mostly the interactions remained content free and not helpful in connecting the preservice teachers to some of the approaches and strategies they wanted to try out and could not.

2.4.3. Finding 14. Coaching experiences can lead to reexamination of cooperating teachers' own practices and beliefs

A number of studies have shown that mentoring experiences

can lead to the reexamination of a cooperating teacher's own practices and beliefs. Some of the ways cooperating teachers are influenced include: reflecting on their own practice, learning new techniques, and recognizing and honoring cultural differences. The cooperating teachers positioned themselves as co-learners with their preservice teachers, which encouraged a reflective discourse between them and opened the space for a more collaborative relationship between mentor and mentee.

Bullough et al. (2002) found that all the cooperating teachers “found value in having preservice teachers in the classroom and reported gaining from the experience” (p. 77). The cooperating teachers in this study were open to the preservice teachers' suggestions and were willing to adjust their own lesson plans based on the ideas presented by their interns. They reported that the preservice teachers brought “fresh ideas” toward improving their classroom practice. An unanticipated finding in Glenn's (2006) study was that the cooperating teachers felt they evolved in their teaching from learning from the practices modeled by their preservice teachers. One mentor teacher reported, “The most rewarding aspects of the mentoring experience has been the professional knowledge (e.g. lesson plans, workshop model) [the preservice teacher] has imparted” (p. 93). Kroeger et al. (2009) also found cooperating teachers in their study enjoyed trying out teaching strategies modeled by their preservice teachers. Furthermore, the cooperating teachers felt that the experience of mentoring helped them to “reevaluate their professional identity” and re-energize their teaching (p. 340).

Cooperating teachers in Fairbanks et al. (2000) study also “recognized their capacity to learn” from preservice teachers through the Effective Mentoring in English Education project (EMEE) (p. 109). As a result of their mentoring partnerships, the cooperating teachers learned from their preservice teachers by asking questions and inviting their feedback and suggestions. Similarly, the cooperating teachers in Koerner's (1992) study found the experience of mentoring preservice teachers provided a “mirror” for reflecting on and reviewing their own teaching. Even experienced cooperating teachers found much to learn from their preservice teachers. Nilsson and van Driel (2010) found preservice teachers supported their mentors in teaching “new ways” of teaching science, which made them feel like novices (p. 1313). The cooperating teachers felt more secure about the science content after observing the preservice teacher's lessons, planning experiments together, and rehearsing language for scientific explanations. In their study of novice teachers as “transformative” urban educators in a primary school setting, Lane et al. (2003) found preservice teachers strongly influenced the pedagogy of the cooperating teachers. The preservice teachers in this study “had such strong beliefs that they did not waver even when confronted by guiding teachers with differing conceptual orientations” (p. 62). As a result, the cooperating teachers adopted new thinking that challenged the status quo at their urban schools.

3. Discussion

There are at least three areas we believe are worthy of discussion in that they offer some direction for the future. First, there is evidence in this body of research that direct support for cooperating teachers around coaching can lead to change. There is an opportunity here, for teacher education programs in transition from a competency perspective toward a more practice based perspective on teacher learning, to draw on cooperating teachers as a resource in making programs more powerful. However, programs must engage directly with cooperating teachers around coaching practices aligned with program goals and a vision for teaching. Programs that are directed toward principles of situated/experiential learning, thoughtfully adaptive teaching, and reflection for learning and critical pedagogy can build models of coaching that support teachers to resist the forces of socialization into the status quo and lead to real changes in schooling.

Second, there is an indication of a close relationship between a teacher's classroom practices and coaching practices. Classroom teachers who engage with their own students in instruction that is focused on principles of experiential learning, who are themselves thoughtfully adaptive in their teaching, and who take an appreciative/scaffolding stance toward their students' learning can adapt these practices to the mentoring and coaching of preservice teachers. There are obvious implications here for the careful selection of cooperating teachers, but there are also implications that working with cooperating teachers may be directed simultaneously toward their own classroom practices as well as their coaching. These are assertions that clearly need more investigation through future research in this area.

A third finding relates to the breadth of scholarship represented in studies conducted across different countries and regions of the world. Not only does this finding suggest that work with cooperating teachers is broadly viewed as significant and important, it also provides an opportunity for us to examine strategies for working with cooperating teachers across culturally, politically, and institutionally contexts that vary. The slight increase in publications since 2009 on the topic of coaching with preservice teachers seems largely attributable to the growth in international work. Nine of the most recent studies we identified were conducted outside of the United States. While few of these studies directly examine their political and structural contexts in contrast with other settings, there is the potential for future work to help the field think outside of the institutional and political norms in one location and consider alternate possibilities. This could become a promising path for contrastive studies of the conditions of teaching on preservice teacher preparation (e.g., examining the impact of intense accountability contexts as contrasted to contexts with greater school level autonomy). This path for research in various countries would be responsive to Zeichner's (2015) observation that “… efforts to make teacher education more school-based are closely connected to the various ideological and political agendas for reform that exist in different countries.” (P 257).

Having shared the positives, we must return to discuss the disturbing data from this review suggesting that cooperating teachers tend to receive little preparation or guidance in how to coach and support their preservice teachers. Further, in the absence of any support or guidance, that cooperating teachers tend to coach the way they have been coached. Cooperating teachers assume an evaluative stance and rely heavily on praise and correction as their primary tools. Cooperating teachers seem to be more concerned with helping the preservice teachers fit in and feel successful than they are in challenging their student teachers to grow. Without preparation for their role as cooperating teachers, it seems fair to conclude that the practice turn in teacher education will fail in its goal to improve teacher preparation.

We are left, instead, with the worry that the practice-based turn (more, broader, deeper experiences in schools working with students) will only lead preservice teachers further down the path of conforming and confirming the status quo. The apprenticeship of practice so richly described by Lave (1996) and dependent on participation will be replaced by the “apprenticeship of observation” described by Lortie (1975) where students come to learning to teach with data on what teachers do ingrained through 10,000 (+) hours of sitting in classrooms. Britzman's (1991; 2003) cautions around an emphasis on practice in preservice programs without an accompanying critical lens on these practices holds true today. The practice-based turn in teacher education is about more than just

providing more field experiences, it is about uncovering and bringing to the foreground how we think about what we do and why and how we grow from our experiences. As Britzman (2003) argues learning to teach is "… a social process of negotiation rather than an individual problem of behavior." (p. 31). The practice-based turn will fall short of its promise without cooperating teachers – the principle mediators of practice – taking on a critical voice in the negotiation of meaning and reflective processes in the company of their preservice teachers. The practiced-based movement is not about improving just the technical knowledge of teachers through training. The practice-based turn is toward negotiating meaning through dialogue that nurtures a professional stance toward our work (Britzman, Dippo, Searle, & Pitt, 2010).

4. Conclusion

In the first *Handbook of Research in Teacher Education*, Corrigan and Haberman (1990) referred to cooperating teachers as "junior partners" in preservice teacher education (p. 204). There is little to indicate from our research review that raising the status of cooperating teachers in terms of the critical role they play has been addressed beyond the exploratory level. To continue to ignore these teacher educators is to put at risk an already fragile commitment to university based teacher education. It was perhaps by no coincidence that the first *Handbook* was published at about the same time as "alternative" certification programs first emerged as an option for teacher education (Walsh and Jacobs, 2007). These alternative programs offer apprenticeship into the status quo in a much cheaper and more efficient manner than traditional programs. In twenty-five years we have seen an exponential growth of beginning teachers certified outside of traditional teacher preparation programs. In the state of Texas, for example, over half of teachers being certified are completing alternative routes. Perhaps attention to and preparation of the cooperating teacher as mentor *and* teacher educator is one way to re-envision the role of university preparation programs in light of its diminishing role in preparing teachers.

University-based programs cannot wait for districts, states and/or the federal government to take on this task of working with cooperating teachers, but rather take this task on as their own work and responsibility. It is no doubt daunting to consider working with all of the cooperating teachers across contexts for field experiences, from internship and observation experiences to student teaching. In tight times, it is difficult to argue for the redirection of resources but there is good theory and research to guide this effort. The alternative is the status quo—mentors guiding teachers without a shared model of practice-based, responsive learning. The positive for this kind of investment, based on the findings from this review, is the improvement in quality teacher preparation beyond levels possible under the current conditions. Under these new conditions, university based preservice teacher education will thrive and perhaps open doors into new partnerships that reach into the induction phase and beyond.

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