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UNIVERSITY-BASED TEACHER RESIDENCIES IN TEXAS: ADVANCED CLINICAL TRAINING FOR PRESERVICE CANDIDATES

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Abstract

Teacher education residencies are an innovative but underutilized clinical teaching practice. Perhaps the reason that university-based teacher preparation programs (TPPs) do not employ residencies more broadly may be due to the lack of clarity about what they are and how they add value to the clinical teaching experience. To address this issue, we begin this article with a brief history of teacher residencies. Second, a typology is offered to help demystify the teacher residency as a type of advanced field experience. We demonstrate the similarities and differences between traditional clinical teaching and a residency for TPP, and then frame the two foremost residency models: conventional and urban. Third, we highlight the Aggie Teacher Education Residency Model (aggieTERM) as an example of an aspirant urban residency model in action. Lastly, the overarching motivation for the use of residencies by TPPs cannot be mislaid, as teaching quality for high-need schools remains the foremost rationale for any innovation that seeks to improve field experiences for preservice teachers.

Keywords: teacher preparation, supervision, residencies, clinical teaching

Student or clinical teaching for preservice teachers, the essential capstone experience in teacher training (Gurl, 2019; Smalley et al., 2015; Steadman & Brown, 2011; Valencia et al., 2009), is in need of transformation (American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education [AACTE], 2018). Teacher residency models may represent one of the most significant reforms in clinical teaching (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Guha et al., 2017a; LiBetti, & Trinidad, 2018; Mourlam et al., 2019; National Center for Teacher Residencies [NCTR], 2018), and signal a powerful response to the enduring challenges of how to select, prepare, and retain highly qualified teachers (Guha et al., 2017b) for Texas schools. Teacher residency programs are, by definition, district-serving teacher education programs that pair a rigorous full-year classroom apprenticeship with masters-level education content. “Residency programs are partnerships among school districts, universities, and other stakeholders to prepare and retain effective teachers” (NCTR, 2018, p. 3). Teacher residencies are opportunities for preservice teachers to be authentically active in the classroom for an extended period and to “experiment with

specific and concrete strategies under realistic conditions” (Pankowski & Walker, 2016, p. 4). This is typically rare in traditional university-based teacher preparation programs (TPPs).

Some scholars argue that the reason traditional university based TPPs are failing to adequately prepare teachers for today’s classrooms is that colleges and universities are still preparing preservice teachers the way they did 50 years ago (Stein & Stein, 2016). Guha et al. (2017b) purport, “Although many teacher preparation programs have evolved substantially, traditional university-based programs have often been critiqued for being academically and theoretically focused, with limited and disconnected opportunities for clinical experience” (p. 31). If America is serious about improving public schools, its colleges and universities need to “make a significant improvement in selecting and preparing the teachers of tomorrow” (p. 191). The perceived stagnation in how teachers are prepared for the classroom has created concern among district leaders and administrators who worry about relying on traditional programs for the preparation of

teachers for their schools (Hammerness et al., 2016). Schools and universities share a symbiotic relationship so that each benefit from the shared training of beginning teachers. For these school-university partnerships, school districts receive short- or long-term human resource capital from student teachers (Ryan & Jones, 2014; Waitoller & Artiles, 2016), while the university-based TPPs receive training sites for their beginning teachers (Stricklin & Tingle, 2016).

The thesis of this article makes the case that residencies are an innovative but underutilized clinical teaching practice. Part of the reason TPPs do not employ residencies more broadly may be due to a lack of clarity about what residencies are and how they add value to the clinical teaching experience. To address this issue, we begin this article with a brief history of teacher residencies. Second, a typology is provided to help demystify the teacher residency as a type of advanced field experience. We demonstrate the similarities and differences between traditional clinical teaching practice and a residency for TPPs and then frame two overarching residency models: conventional and urban. Third, we highlight the Aggie Teacher Education Residency Model (aggieTERM) as an example of an urban residency in action. And lastly, the significance of residencies cannot be lost as teaching quality remains the foremost rationale for any innovation that seeks to improve field experiences for preservice teachers.

A Brief History of Teacher Residencies

The history of the teacher education residency has a circuitous timeline (See Figure 1). Unwittingly, all residencies can trace their genealogy to the training of Black teachers in Black communities during the 19th century. At its core, a teacher residency is a homegrown teacher training approach in which teachers from the community are recruited to teach in their community. In the early 19th century, the Normal School Movement drew, from near and far, the White female teacher to teach across the new nation (Hall, 1829; Meriam, 1905); she often taught in communities from which she was not reared. By contrast, the Black Normal School Movement trained, out of necessity, its teachers for its Black communities. Teaching was one of the few professionals accessible to Black women in the 19th through the mid-20th century (Foster, 1997; Hill-Jackson, 2017; College of Education and Human Development at Texas A&M University, 2019). Gist, Bianco, and Lynn (2019) surmised that for Black teachers:

Often times they are community-teachers-in-the-making with longtime dedicated service as parents, school aides, and activists. The notion of the

community teacher is grounded within the sociopolitical and historical context of communities of color (Murrell, 2001)...And as W. E. B. DuBois (1902) noted more than a century ago, “If the Negro was to learn, he must teach himself, and the most effective help that could be given him was the establishment of schools to train Negro teachers” (p. 1) who were from the communities of the children they served. (cited in Gist, Bianco, & Lynn, 2019, p. 13)

The training of Black teachers transpired in Black communities and Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs). While limited at their inception, schools of education located at HBCUs have been around since the 1850s. Hill-Jackson (2017) explained that members of the former slave communities formed alliances to begin the work of educating their children and neighbors in homes and churches; slowly one-room schoolhouses sprang up around the South for freed slaves, and:

By the late 1860s the National Land Grant Act of 1862, or the Morrill Act, distributed funds to institutions that emphasized agriculture and mechanical arts; but HBCUs received little to none of this funding. As a response, emancipationists urged Congress to authorize the Second Morrill Act of 1890 that ordered states with apartheid systems of higher education (the restriction of Negroes) to provide land-grant funding support for both systems (Redd, 1998, p. 33). Ultimately, “nineteen Black colleges were established under this provision of the Second Morrill Act...Despite their disparate origins all HBCUs addressed, in some form or fashion, three primary goals: (a) the education of Black youth, (b) the training of teachers, and (c) the continuation of the “missionary tradition by educated Blacks”. (Ogden et al., 1905, cited in Allen & Jewell, 2002, p. 244)

Further, Prairie View A&M University (PVAMU) was established by “the Sixteenth Legislature April 19, 1879, as Prairie View State Normal School in Waller County for the Training of Colored Teachers” (“College History: PVAMU Home”, n.d., para. 3). Therefore, PVAMU has the under-celebrated distinction as founding the first teacher preparation in the state of Texas. PVAMU program, like many HBCUs, was established to train Black teachers to engender “ ‘community cultural wealth’ that imbues them with and array of knowledge, skills, and abilities to effectively teach Black and Brown youth” (Gist et al., 2019, p. 14).

At the turn of the 20th century, the internship experience was taking root with a similar approach to teacher training. In 1909, Brown University began the first recognized internship in teacher education. “Graduates of

the university were placed in the Providence Public Schools for one full year as half-time salaried teachers under the supervision of a professor of education and supervising teacher” (Klecka et al., 2009, p. 10). For many decades in teacher education, internships operated in marginalized spaces—primarily used in alternate route programs (Boggan et al., 2016)—and did not a widely-utilized practice in university-based TPPs.

Gillam (2019) charted that the 1960s and 1970s gave rise to the pre-residency model comprised of federally-funded the Master of Arts in Teaching programs that started in the 1960s and 1970s at exclusive institutions of higher education. For example, “Columbia, Harvard, Stanford, and the University of Chicago launched yearlong postgraduate programs that traditionally placed teacher candidates in schools for year-long student-teaching internships in the classrooms with expert veteran teachers, while the candidates also took coursework from the university” (p. 20). Fast-forward a decade later, internships were redefined with the advent of professional development schools (PDSs), established out of a philosophy of shared responsibility for teacher preparation between universities and schools (Darling-Hammond, 1994; Teitel 2004) to prepare teachers for hard-to-staff school districts. McKinney et al. (2008) trace the history to reveal that PDSs:

evolved in the mid-1980s to focus on urban school reform while igniting public schools and university partnerships. The partnerships would assume greater responsibility for the preparation and retention of new teachers for urban districts when compared to traditional teacher preparation programs. (p.70)

According to Hallman (1998), the theory-to-practice ideas of internships were used extensively in PDSs in the state of Texas.

In 1991, the Texas Legislature passed legislation and authorized funding for the Centers for Professional Development of Teachers originally called Centers for Professional Development and Technology (CPDTs). The CPDTs are designed to support collaboration among public schools, universities, regional education service centers, and other organizations to improve teacher preparation and professional development...[By 1998] the CPDTs comprised 43 universities, 15 regional education service centers, and 113 school districts. (p. 3)

The best practices of PDSs have evolved into what are now referred to as grow-your-own programs (Skinner et al., 2011). Grow-your-own is a phrase used to define homegrown teacher training pathways for high school students (Goings et al., 2018) and paraprofessionals

(Bianco & Marin-Paris, 2019). For the TPP pathway, grow-your-own initiatives involve the preparation of preservice teachers through the shared governance of school-university partnerships (Schmitz et al., 2012).

The 1990s was a looming time of experimentation with the PDS model as internships were in operation in urban contexts (Haberman, 1991). By the beginning of the 21st century, an amalgamation of the PDS model and the internship evolved into the residency model by urban education scholars (Cantor, 1998; Groulx, 2001; Guha et al., 2017a; Guha et al., 2017b; Ng, 2003; Shakespear et al., 2003). Building on the medical education residency model, teacher preparation programs provide residents with both effective teaching theory and a year-long, in-school “residency”. This allows preservice teachers to practice and hone their skills and knowledge alongside an effective teacher-mentor in high-needs classrooms that are context-specific. Launched in 1999, the Urban Teacher Training Collaborative (UTTC) is one of the early university-based residency initiatives with a focus on community with a culturally relevant curriculum (Shakespear et al., 2003). The UTTC offered curriculum modules to familiarize its interns with the diverse communities and cultures from which their students come. “This effort is based on the belief that teacher preparation courses do a great job of focusing on students and content but not on communities or building relationships with adults in schools” (p. 3). Darling-Hammond (2008) also outlined the earliest teaching residency work such as Chicago’s Academy for Urban School Leadership (AUSL), the Boston Teacher Residency Program, and the Boettcher Teachers Program in Denver that were launched in a number of urban centers around the country at the start of the century.

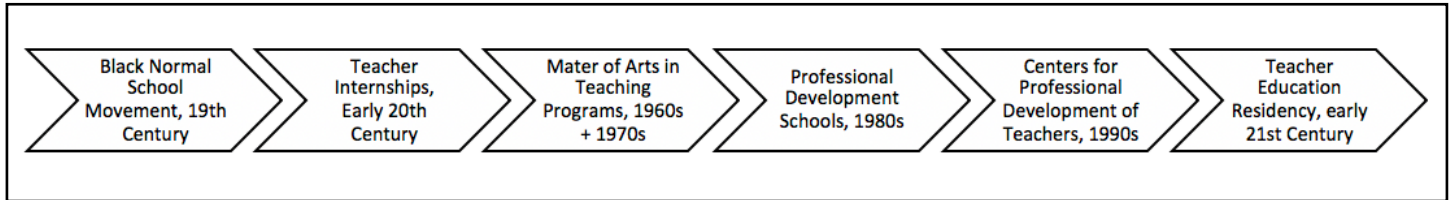
These programs carefully screen and recruit talented college graduates who are interested in a long-term career in urban teaching, offering them a yearlong paid residency under the tutelage of master teachers. During the year, while they learn to teach in the classroom of an expert teacher, recruits take carefully constructed coursework from partner universities who work closely with the residency sponsor. (p. 732)

The pioneering work of these programs collectively became known as the NCTR in 2007 (Gillam, 2019) and help launch national and state-wide calls for teacher preparation to move from generic field-based approaches to innovative residencies for preservice teachers. For example, in 2016, the Texas Education Agency (TEA), with the support of Commissioner Morath, set forth a Strategic Plan in which Goal 1 of 6 proposed that the “agency will improve educator preservice and in-service training, and implement systems of educator improvement” (p.4). A specific action item of the Strategic Plan sought to

“incentivize and support clinical residency models in teacher preservice programs” (Texas Education Agency [TEA], 2016, p. 4).

Figure 1

Timeline of University-Based Teacher Education Residencies



As a means to attend to the growing attrition and teacher-student diversity gap (Ingersoll, 2004; Zhang & Zeller, 2016) and inspire unique clinical experiences across the state, TEA started The Grow Your Own (GYO) Grant program. GYO is a competitive grant program, made up of pathway 1 (high school students), pathway 2 (paraprofessionals), and pathway 3 (university-based residencies for preservice teachers); intended to accelerate increased entry of qualified, diverse candidates into the teaching profession, particularly in rural and small school settings. In 2018, three university-based TPPs for pathway three received this grant award (Stephen F. Austin University, Texas Tech University, Texas Women’s University). In 2019, five TPPs received a Pathway 3 GYO grant (Texas Tech University, Texas Women’s University, Texas A&M University, Texas A&M University-Commerce, and Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi). In 2020, four TPPs received a TEA GYO - Pathway 3 grant (Texas Tech University, Texas Women’s University, Texas A&M University, and Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi). The total number of teacher education students enrolled in year-long Pathway 3 residencies is 192; 23 for Cycle 1, 109 for Cycle 2, and 60 for Cycle 3 (R. Coleman, personal communication, March 18, 2020). TEA reports over 41,000 first-time teachers in Texas classrooms for 2018 (TEA, 2019a). Therefore residencies—as a novel and widely applied field experience—have yet to make the types of inroads needed to transform the clinical experiences of preservice teachers. A shift to residency models compels a change in the quantity and quality of required clinical practices. These models vary in their locale, intensity, and application of clinical experiences.

(Re)Defining Field Experiences: Preclinical and Clinical Phases of Teaching

The backbone of any teacher preparation program is fieldwork (Kirk, 2019; Shelton et al., 2020). While field experiences have always been a part of teacher education, there is no disagreement among teacher education professionals that field experiences a critical feature of teacher preparation. McKinney et al. (2008) affirm there is an obvious “need for teacher preparation programs to develop a strong field experience that unites professional practice and pedagogical coursework” (p. 73). Field experiences reflect a practical orientation to teacher preparation (Hodges & Baum, 2019) and “commonly touted as the most meaningful part of preservice teacher preparation” (Knowles & Cole, 1996, p. 648). The fieldwork for traditional TPPs broadly embodies three major features:

1. *coursework and foundational courses* during the first two years of the program;
2. *methods courses specific to content area* focus or one’s certification area during the third year;
3. *clinical teaching experience (field experience)* during the culminating year.

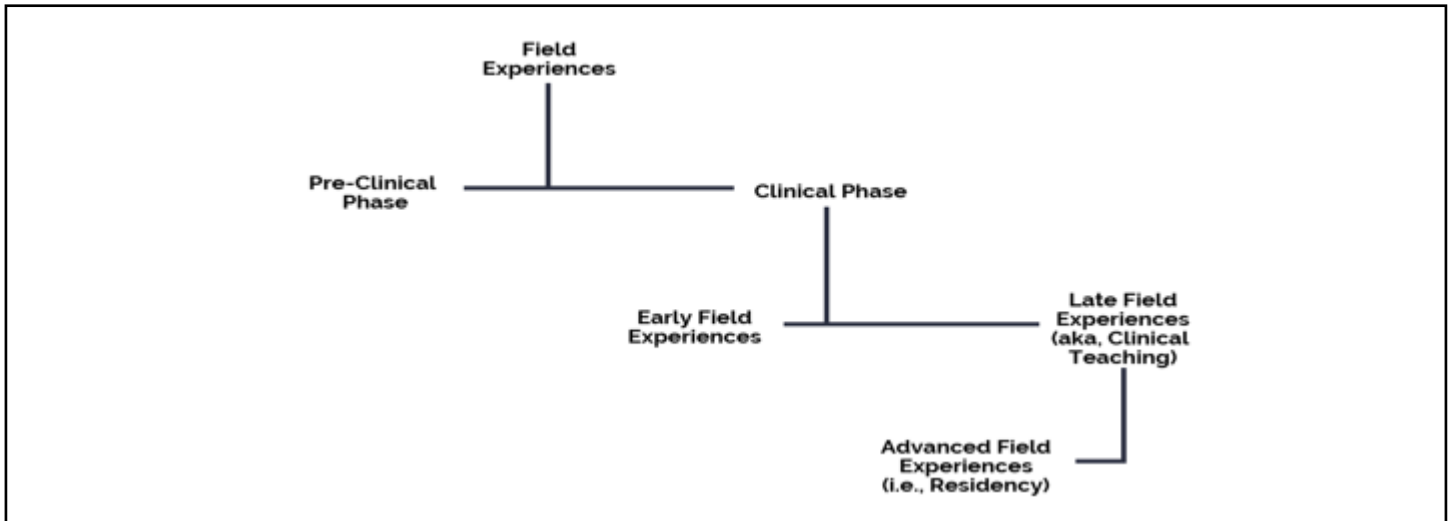
Field experiences intend to provide preservice teachers with “active involvement in school contexts so that the application of teaching approaches and methods can be experienced” (Dorel et al., 2016, p. 41). New teachers commonly report their TPP fieldwork to be the most useful component of their developing self-efficacy (Goodwin et al., 2016), and most of these teachers receive minimal support in developing a strong understanding of classroom dynamics before entering the field full-time (Pankowski & Walker, 2016). Additionally, field experience is critical not

only to bridge the gap between theory and practice, but also to “shaping preservice teacher’s beliefs and knowledge base” (Dorel et al., 2016, p. 42). The two phases of fieldwork at university-based TPPs are characterized by

their types of experiences: out-of-classroom experiences, or *preclinical phase*, and in-classroom experiences or *clinical phase* (see Figure 2).

Figure 2

A Typology of Field Experiences for University-Based Teacher Preparation Programs



Pre-Clinical Phase

As teacher candidates engage in field-related work such as volunteering and microteaching—in community and non-profit spaces where families and children are served—these types of experiences are determined to be preclinical. There are broad studies that propose every teacher should see himself or herself as a community teacher (Boyle-Baise, 2005; Boyle-Baise & McIntyre (2008); Burant & Kirby, 2002; McDonald et al., 2011; Murrell Jr, 2001; Zeichner et al., 2015), who spends time learning from, and valuing, families and the knowledge they bring to bear (González et al., 2006). These types of preclinical field experiences, such as working in museums (Hamilton & Margot, 2019; Hill-Jackson & Lewis, 2011; Nichols, 2014), should be littered throughout coursework before the clinical phase of teaching as they prime teacher candidates’ attitudes for diverse learners and families. While some restrict field experiences as hands-on experiences during the sheltered student teaching semester, scholars like McDonald et al. (2011) expand the idea of field experiences for candidates to include “intensive immersion experiences in communities” (p. 1672) prior to the clinical phase of teaching. Hallman (2019) proposes that the integration of community-based field experiences into teacher education programs as promising sites for teachers’ learning.

Clinical Phase

Once the teacher candidate transitions into school and classroom-related experiences, then the preservice student has officially entered the clinical phase of teaching. The clinical phase is comprised of early field experiences (such as observations, small group discussion, assisting the mentor or cooperating teacher, and mini-teaching) as well as late clinical teaching in which preservice teachers are placed in the classrooms alongside fully certified teachers.

Early field experiences. According to the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (2018), nearly nine out of ten teacher preparation programs in elementary and secondary education require teacher education candidates to participate in early teaching field experiences (i.e., observations, tutoring, and small group lessons). Per TEA requirements, preservice students are required to spend a minimum of 40 hours in early field experiences. Usually designated in early entry and methods courses, these experiences typically take place once or twice a week toward the beginning of the preparation program (Darling-Hammond & Cobb, 1995).

Late field experiences. These clinical experiences at the latter portion of teacher candidates’ training are designed to provide opportunities for students to observe, plan, implement, and evaluate instructional materials and

techniques to meet the varied learning needs of students. Being able to bridge theory to practice is essential to the development of effective, well-prepared, quality teachers (Hill-Jackson et al., 2019; McKinney et al., 2008; Select Committee of HSI-Serving Deans and Educators, 2016). Traditional clinical or student teaching typically takes place in the last semester and is part of the latter segment of the clinical phase for most TPPs in Texas. It requires one to display the knowledge, skills, and attitudes about teaching and learning that have accrued through the undergraduate experience. The clinical teaching semester is a valuable professional experience in teacher preparation since it represents the bridge between professional preparation and professional practice. TPPs at universities in Texas usually encompass a clinical or student teaching experience in which preservice teachers assigned to a campus receive 72 days of observation, modeling, and practice lessons.

Teacher residencies as advanced clinical teaching.

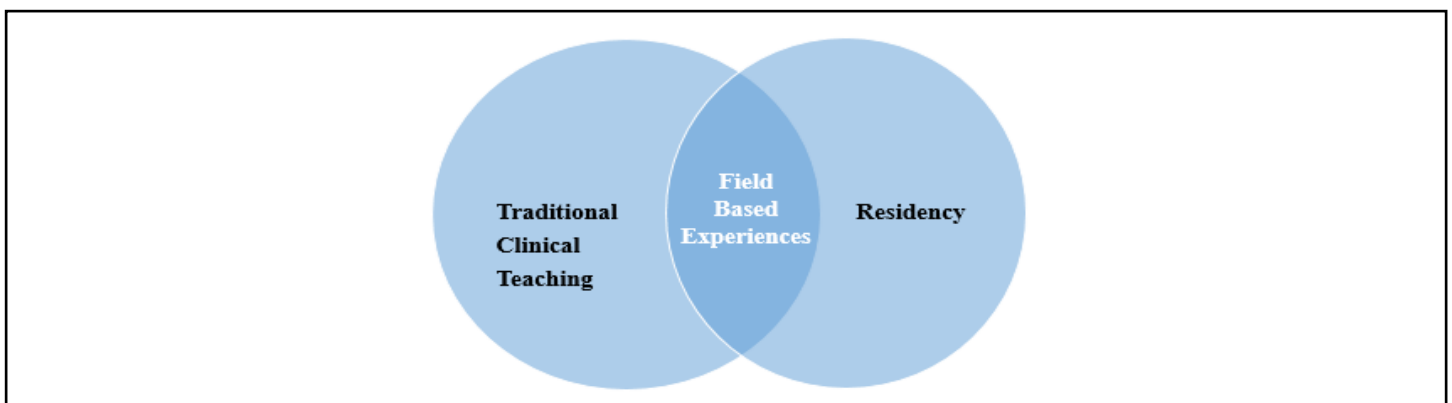
Some universities across the nation and Texas are shifting to a student teacher residency model. In this model, preservice teachers spend much longer than one semester at a school. Rather than being placed in a school for 12-16 weeks in the second semester of an academic year, the residency model provides college seniors access and immersion throughout an entire academic year. While all teacher residencies are clinical practice, not every clinical practice is a residency.

Teacher candidates have an extended opportunity to practice their craft under the close guidance of an experienced and effective PK-12 teacher who is licensed in the area that the candidate is preparing to teach. These extended residencies also include supervision and mentoring by a representative of the preparation program who, along with the PK-12 teacher, ensures the candidate is ready for program completion and recommendation for licensure. Typically, student/clinical teacher residencies allow college seniors to spend an entire academic year in a high-needs school. The intent of field experiences for residencies and clinical teaching experiences are intentionally similar, but they fundamentally differ in the preparation of the residents (see Figure 3).

- In traditional clinical teaching, the teacher candidate has experiences that are aligned with the university calendar; comprised of one semester (i.e. seventy-two days); carried out alongside one cooperating teacher and faculty supervisor, and are university driven.
- In residencies, the teacher candidate has experiences that are aligned with the school district’s calendar, comprised of an entire school year, and carried out alongside one cooperating teacher and faculty supervisor. Further, opportunities to examine various classroom contexts are included, and all clinical decisions are school-university driven.

Figure 3

Differences and Similarities Between Traditional Clinical Teaching and a Teaching Residency



Residency programs meet the needs of their partner districts by creating a robust talent pipeline that provides and prepares teachers committed to closing achievement gaps. Furthermore, residency programs are widely recognized by key stakeholders for their positive impact on school climate and student achievement (NCTR, 2018, p. 13). A review of the literature on teacher education

residencies reveals that there are mainly two types of teacher residencies: conventional and urban.

Conventional residency model. This type of residency program is the most common and found in various types of school districts (e.g., rural, suburban, or urban) and initiated by traditional colleges of education around

programs that are considered high-need (i.e., STEM, special education, bilingual education, etc.). College students begin their senior year with master teachers in high-need schools. Rather than spend their final months as a student on their university campus, they begin working in the school districts as residency students, putting to practice the pedagogical theories they have studied at the university. The crucial elements of a conventional teaching residency include more one-year clinical experience (Darling-Hammond, 2010), increased opportunities to connect practice to theory (Cuenca et al., 2011; Retallick & Miller, 2010; Zeichner, 2010), enhanced induction (Wang et al., 2008), stipend (Stein, 2019, para. 6-7), and effective mentors (Darling-Hammond, 2014; Dorel et al., 2016; Goodwin et al., 2016).

Urban residency model (URM). The crucial features of an urban residency model encompass all the elements of a conventional model, but also include additional qualities that are unique to the urban experience. The URM is comprised of best practices in field experiences located in urban or high-needs environments for a one-year term. URM train preservice teachers alongside effective mentors, leverage the support of a site-specific instructional coach (Podsen & Denmark, 2013; Gardiner, 2011; Hobson et al., 2009), follow the school district's academic calendar, offer graduate credit, are implemented at any year in the teacher preparation program, focus on culturally relevant teaching, and are driven by mutually beneficial school-university partnerships (see Table 1).

The term “urban” as it applies to school systems, has been loosely defined as well as debated. For this article, we will use the definitions provided by Milner (2012), who offers three descriptions for different types of urban environments. *Urban intensive* encompasses large, dense urban centers with greater than one million residences like Dallas and Houston. *Urban emergent* defines those centers with less than one million residents, often near urban intensive school districts, and experiencing similar educational challenges. Finally, *urban characteristic* refers to districts in suburban or even rural schools that are beginning to take on characteristics of districts in other urban areas. Obstacles associated with changing demographics, students with low socioeconomic status, and increasing immigrant populations establish rural and suburban districts' urban characteristics. Many scholars of urban and multicultural education propose that teaching internships and residencies must be reoriented to propel equity pedagogy for underserved learners and:

Social reconstructivist teacher education programs add a substantive agenda, connecting pedagogy with social justice. They seek to develop a teaching force with the skills and dispositions, not only to teach in these

schools of greatest need, but also to be change agent social justice educators dedicated to challenging deeply held notions of schooling and society. (Shakespear et al., 2003, p. 5)

Urban education scholars believe that offering teacher residencies that prepare teachers for targeted settings with urban characteristics will support increased teacher quality by providing authentic clinical experiences where the teacher candidates will likely be hired (Gaikhorst et al., 2015; Hammerness et al., 2016; McKinney et al., 2008) and where their training to teach diverse learners can be enhanced. Traditional clinical teaching experiences and conventional residencies continue to neglect culturally sustaining approaches in the field experiences of preservice teachers and

programmatic approaches to multicultural concerns, culturally relevant teaching, or social justice issues typically remain isolated from the core teacher education curriculum. In part and as a result, the overall impact of such efforts on preservice teachers' beliefs and practices is limited and often shorter. In the context of the increasing demand to prepare teachers for schools with diverse students, teacher education programs dissatisfied with the limitation of current approaches continue to search for structural, curricular, and pedagogical solutions. (McDonald et al., 2011, p. 1670)

Since two out of three P-12 learners in the state of Texas are diverse learners (TEA, 2019b), TPPs that offer teacher residencies must give special attention to the shifting demographics in Texas.

The Aggie Teacher Education Residency Model (aggieTERM)

In response to the pressing need to support teachers in becoming agents of change for diverse student bodies, the Aggie Teacher Education Residency Model (aggieTERM), housed in the College of Education and Human Development at Texas A&M University, began in 2019 as a selective residency program for prospective teachers to teach in high-need school districts (Department of Teaching, Learning and Culture [TLAC], n.d., para. 2; Katz, 2019). Based on Bryan ISD's employment needs, the aggieTERM program's first cohort finished in spring 2020. It produced and supported 11 early childhood through grade six bilingual teacher candidates, with English as a second language endorsement, in a year-long clinical teaching experience for Bryan ISD. Although partnered with a rural-suburban school district, the aggieTERM residency embraces the best practices of a URM. Bryan ISD's student body includes approximately 16,000 students - nearly 70% are at-risk students, 26% speak English as a

second language, and 76.8% hail from economically disadvantaged households (Texas Tribune, n.d.).

The aggieTERM program leverages a 5-point Comprehensive Community Induction Framework[®] (CCIF). There is an impressive body of research on the aspects of teacher preparation that have the most impact on quality teachers. The CCIF[®] (see Figure 3) is informed by a review of the current research on residencies and induction and illustrates key considerations for a robust and meaningful comprehensive induction program. The CCIF[®] is driven by five fundamental attributes that researchers link to quality residencies:

1. *A coherent vision of teaching between school and university partners.* The preparation of future classroom teachers must prepare them for culturally diverse classrooms. The aggieTERM program serves as the laboratory in which residents have opportunities to implement a variety of instructional strategies, materials, and technologies for working with diverse populations in high-need schools. Residents placed in high need schools have frequent and supported opportunities to apply evidence-based theories of child development and high leverage teaching practices in real school settings—driven by culturally relevant pedagogy (CRP). CRP is a pedagogical mindset and set of teaching approaches to empower students socially, intellectually, and politically (Ladson-Billings, 2014). As residents gain in the knowledge, skills, and dispositions of an equity pedagogue, they concurrently gain a sound understanding of their role as agents of change. Residents learn how to abandon a deficit perspective of students' cultures (Ford et al., 2001), and to use instruction to validate P-12 students' cultures to elevate interests and thereby improve academic performance (Borrero, & Sanchez, 2017; Brown et al., 2019; Christ & Sharma, 2018).
2. *Comprehensive strategies that enhance clinical experiences.* Comprehensive approaches to support preservice teacher programs accelerate the professional growth of new teachers, reduce the rate of new teacher attrition, decrease human resources costs for school districts, and increase student learning (Ingersoll et al., 2016). Residents receive closely supervised interaction with faculty, experienced teachers, principals, other administrators, and school leaders. Beginning teachers who receive multiple supports are less likely to leave the profession after the first year (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004). A comprehensive approach to onboarding beginning teachers can nurture the growth of teaching quality of beginning teachers (Davis & Higdon, 2008; Mitchell et al., 2019). The aggieTERM program
3. *Shared governance.* The key to a successful school-university partnership is authentic alliances between each entity whereby the mutual benefits drive the relationship, vision, goals, and outcomes. The nature of the collaboration dictates a shared commitment for selecting residents, professional learning, the collection and analyses of data, and retention of residents to positively impact P-12 students' academic and emotional achievement (Burns et al., 2016; McCall et al., 2017).
4. *Developmental induction training for clinical teachers and mentors.* The teaching profession has a retention problem. New teachers leave the suburbs at an average rate of 35% after five years (Ingersoll et al., 2016). In most high-need schools, new teachers are departing at alarming rates; some estimate upwards of 50% are gone by year five (Blake 2017; Hill-Jackson et al., 2019; Hill-Jackson & Stafford, 2017). Breaux and Wong (2003) advise that an induction process is the best way to send a message to your teachers that you value them and want them to succeed and stay. Induction activities for aggieTERM include orientation to the workplace, but then continues to be a planned and systemic approach to supporting the beginning teacher into the profession (Kozikoğlu, 2018; Mitchell et al., 2019) and features socialization, mentoring, and guidance through beginning teacher practice. Induction works (Carver & Feiman-Nemser, 2009; Ingersoll & Smith, 2004; Johnson & Birkeland, 2003; Mitchell et al., 2019; Weiss & Weiss, 1999) but it must be more than the guidance provided to new teachers in the first weeks of their teaching assignment. Beginning teachers and their mentors need a prolonged set of learning experiences that utilize job-embedded induction activities (Bolen, 2018), sustained over the first two to three years of their career (Kearney, 2019), utilizes professional learning communities (De Neve & Devos, 2017), promotes a growth not evaluative model (Amrein-Beardsley & Collins, 2018). The aggieTERM program that our instructional mentors also receive training that is growth-oriented (Luet, Morettini, & Vernon-Dotson, 2018; Weisling & Gardiner, 2018) through the We Teach Texas P12 Mentoring and Coaching Academy; learn more at <https://education.tamu.edu/mca/>.
5. *Anchored in the community.* This attribute is based on the belief that good teachers know the school, while exemplary teachers understand their learners'

community. The aggieTERM program utilizes mentors, a site coordinator/coach, university supervisors, community mentor, and a school-university leadership team to provide a ‘culture of community’ for the aggieTERM teacher candidates. We do this with community service, community tours, and professional gatherings at sporting events, game nights, book clubs, cultural field trips, and holiday gatherings. All stakeholders engage to form a sense of belonging for the resident and are willing to “go off script to build connections, letting the candidates know that we care about them professionally and personally” (Coburn, 2020, para. 6). Teacher education experiences that are embedded in the community (Hill-Jackson, 2017) positively impact candidates’ perceptions of diverse learners (Murrell, 2001).

aggieTERM: A Three-Pronged Residency Scheme

The general themes of aggieTERM’s CCIF[®] can be organized into two overarching goals: To provide an orientation and activities to familiarize the inductee with high-need ISDs and to cultivate the professional knowledge, skills, and dispositions of the inductee. The residency scheme for supporting novice teachers in the CCIF[®] is cemented in evidence-based approaches that are *comprehensive, coherent, and sustainable* (Wong, 2005).

Comprehensive. The aggieTERM program structure consists of many activities, components, strategies, and stakeholders. Comprehensive induction programs accelerate the professional growth of new teachers, reduce

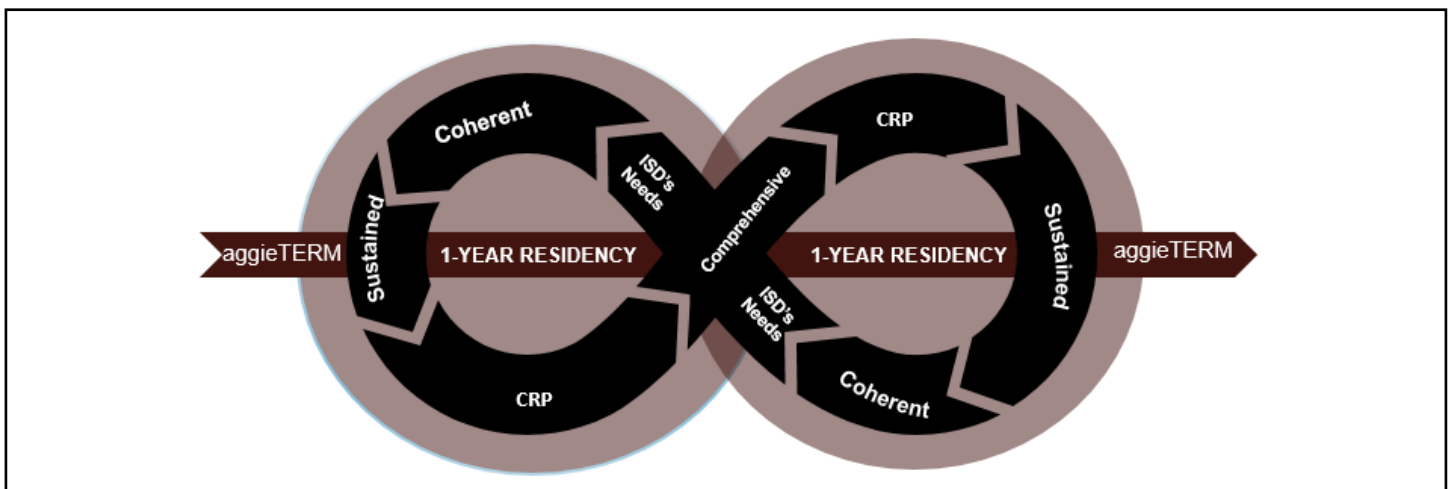
the rate of new teacher attrition, decrease human resources costs for school districts, and increase student learning (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). aggieTERM utilizes mentors, a site coordinator/coach, university supervisors, program leaders, community mentor, and an ISD-CEHD leadership team to provide a ‘culture of community’ for the aggieTERM teacher candidates.

Coherent. The various factors, program endeavors, and priorities are linked to each other and undergirded by the 10 Teacher Induction Standards (New Teacher Center [NTC], 2018). Leveraging clinical teaching structures at the university, alongside district-level programs and processes for beginning teachers, aggieTERM can adapt to integrate processes to connect a community of support for logically teaching residents.

Sustained. The ideal form of induction is well-articulated and sustained for many years. Following best practices, aggieTERM will include support to its teachers beyond the first year of the residency. Novice teachers need ongoing emotional (Dickee et al., 2015; Hill-Jackson, 2018; Ripski et al., 2011) and instructional (Dunne & Villani, 2007) support for the first three years of their practice. Meaningful induction may improve the efficacy of new teachers (NTC, n.d.), and it helps them forge deep connections with the school district and the community (Wang et al., 2008). Figure 4 exhibits the CCIF[®], which continuously embeds the requisites of high-need ISDs and CRP in ways that are comprehensive, coherent, and sustained.

Figure 4

aggieTERM’s Comprehensive Community Induction Framework[®] (CCIF)



The aggieTERM program is embedded in a rural-suburban environment but leverages the sensibilities of a URM. The aggieTERM trains teachers that have a unique cultural match to the district that they serve. In addition,

the preservice teachers are selected because they embody a disposition for diversity and are willing and eager to receive additional professional development to enhance their cultural sensitivity for underserved learners.

Table 1

Program Indicators of a Traditional Clinical Teaching, Conventional Residency, and an Urban Residency

Program Indicators	Traditional Clinical Teaching	Conventional Residency	Urban Residency
Candidates are required to complete TEA’s 72 days or 1-semester of classroom experience	X	X	X
Candidates receive training alongside a mentor and university supervisor	X	X	X
Candidates are in the field for two semesters, year-long experience		X	X
Candidates are training alongside an instructional coach/site supervisor		O	O
The program follows the school district’s academic calendar		X	X
Candidates take graduate credit courses or are enrolled in a graduate program.		O	X
Implemented any year in the preclinical or clinical phase of teacher education.			X
Candidates have a disposition for culturally responsive teaching.		O	X
The school and university leaders share governance of the program		X	X

Note. X=indicator present; O=indicator may be present

The relational-cultural knowledge and CRP that residents gain through urban-minded residencies further enhance their prospective as well-rounded, amply prepared future educators. Preservice teachers who have a positive mindset toward working in urban school environments with students from diverse backgrounds, are characterized as more capable of meeting the needs of these underserved schools (Hill-Jackson et al., 2019; Pankowski & Walker, 2016). Teacher education scholars report that teacher residencies produce classroom-ready teachers who are committed to teaching in high-need school districts (Dorel et al., 2016; Hammerness et al., 2016).

Implications for Teaching Quality

“A clear definition as to what constitutes teacher quality has become a national debate, [and] teacher education programs have borne harsh criticism for not producing quality teachers” (Tracz et al., 2017, p. 8). Teaching quality is the most important school-based factor associated with student achievement (Goldhaber et al., 2017). Empirical studies even show that “one standard deviation increase in teacher quality raises student achievement in reading and math between 10% and 25% of a standard deviation” (p. 354). Through the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2002, the federal government

required each state to define “highly qualified teacher” and develop a method for producing teachers who fit the definition (Miller-Levy et al., 2014). Many scholars agree that teaching quality can be dramatically improved if states and districts work together to connect coursework and clinical experiences that enhance teachers’ capacities, effectiveness, and cultural responsiveness.

Rethinking Teaching Quality

There is substantial variation in what counts as a “highly qualified” teacher, as measured by various education agencies and academic scholars (No Child Left Behind, 2002). Past definitions focus on moral character, personality, and subject competence. In contrast, contemporary definitions emphasize the value added to cultural responsiveness, teachers’ academic credentials, and “teachers’ ability to engage students in rigorous, meaningful activities that foster academic learning for all students” (Mitchell, 2001, p. 22).

While it may be challenging to identify a single designation of teaching quality, a brief review of current literature reveals four themes regarding ways to increase the general quality and overall effectiveness of today’s U.S. teacher population: 1) selective recruitment (McMahon et al., 2015; Stein & Stein, 2016); 2) improved teacher preparation programs (Guha et al., 2017a; Stricklin & Tingle, 2016); 3) effective mentoring during preservice and early career teaching (Darling-Hammond, 2014; National Council on Teacher Quality, 2018); and 4) extensive practice (Dorel et al., 2016; Pankowski & Walker, 2016). Developing the skills needed to be successful in school settings means utilizing a residency model that places preservice teachers in programs with these indicators of effective practice.

The quantity of fieldwork experience for preservice teachers in a residency is challenging. Furthermore, while more advanced clinical teaching opportunities can positively influence student outcomes, it has also been found to be a predictor of the length of time the novice teacher will spend in the teaching profession (Dorel et al., 2016). Teacher candidates must be provided with maximum exposure to the day-to-day reality of their chosen profession. Traditionally trained teachers in the U.S. only receive an average of 177 hours of supervised classroom teaching experience before becoming the teacher of record, and 75% of this time is accumulated in the final semester of student teaching (Pankowski & Walker, 2016). Most residencies, on the other hand, offer a significantly higher number of preservice clinical preparation hours (Guha et al., 2017a), and the time is most often accrued over the final year of the TPP, not just the last semester.

Further, evidence confirms that teaching quality is one of the few characteristics that significantly affect student performance (Coleman et al., 1966; Darling-Hammond, 2009; Goldhaber, 2015; Goldhaber et al., 2017; McKinney et al., 2008; McMahon et al. 2015; Select Committee of HSI-Serving Deans and Educators, 2016; Stein & Stein, 2016). Extended time in the classroom through participation in residencies is important because “the longer preservice teachers practice in the actual classroom setting, the more likely they are to increase their sense of efficacy, which in turn can positively affect student outcomes” (Dorel et al., 2016, p. 49). Darling-Hammond (2008) affirmed that the most pressing rationale for teaching residency is because it:

provides an important vehicle for the nation to begin working on the critical problem of teaching quality for our most underserved students. In the long run, this idea may be a stepping stone to a system that ultimately provides the stable, high-quality learning environments children need and deserve. (p. 730)

Those who seek to develop teacher residencies are encouraged to provide authentic training for candidates whose demographic profile mirror the high-need community. Further, residencies have a history in social justice and committed to a community curriculum that uplifts, inspires, and prepares future teachers to connect with and understand the community they serve (Murrell, 2001; Shakespear et al., 2003). “This approach seeks to disrupt the status quo, and therefore is a minority view, sometimes seen as subversive. It is not hard to imagine the many obstacles which stand in the way of bringing social reconstructivist teacher education theory into practice (Shakespear et al., 2003, p. 5)

To develop residencies that are devoid of a critical lens for community and justice is to produce residencies that will surely rise (Guha et al., 2017a; Guha et al., 2017b; Darling-Hammond, 2008), but destined to fall (Gist et al., 2019). The failure to adopt this fundamental philosophy of social justice is to commit to developing a residency in name only; repackaged traditional clinical experiences with the same old university-based TPP ways of thinking.

Conclusion

The field of teacher education is primed for teacher residencies; a new paradigm in field experiences to modernize clinical practices. We began this paper by sketching over 150 years of the teacher residency in its many iterations—from community training of teachers in the Black community to today’s TEA-funded GYO programs. Since 2018, a very small number of university-based TPPs in Texas, just 0.005%, have risen to the charge

and have implemented as year-long residencies for preservice teachers.

Second, using a typology, we attempt to unpack field experiences by outlining two phases and proposing that practices by preservice teachers should occur in the community and represent the preclinical phase. The clinical phase of field experiences is further explained by early (observations, tutoring, and small group lessons) and late (observations, mini-lessons, and full classroom responsibility) field experiences. Residencies are a form of late field experiences that impact just 0.005% of clinical teachers in university-prepared TPPs in the state of Texas. We delve deeper and separate residencies into conventional residency models and URMs—both are advanced late field experiences, support preservice teachers in a one-year term, include training alongside an effective mentor, are driven by mutually beneficial school-university partnerships, and follow the school district’s academic calendar. In addition to these residency features, URMs often occur in urban settings and are further buoyed by a site-specific instructional coach, offer the potential for graduate credit, tender implementation at any year in the teacher preparation program, and advance integration of culturally responsive teaching practices.

Third, we operationalize a URM by sharing the aggieTERM program with the CCIF[®]—a structure that centers culture and community in a structure that provides: (1) a coherent vision of teaching, (2) comprehensive clinical experiences, (3) shared governance, (4) developmental induction for clinical teaches and mentors, and (5) anchored in the community. As rural and suburban Texas school districts become increasingly diverse, it may be appropriate for residencies to adopt models that mimic urban residencies by integrating cultural competence curricula, thereby allowing preservice students to develop deep connections to the communities they serve.

Finally, we propose that teacher residency programs are worthy of expansion and offer an innovative approach to preparing and retaining highly qualified teachers—especially for new educators who will teach in underserved communities. In Texas, clinical practices are undergoing a transformation with the advent of residencies. However, they are still investigational and require promotion to become ubiquitous and scaled as they focus on providing teachers who are community-minded and dedicated to ensuring justice for learners in high-need schools.

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