

JULY 2018

Trading Coursework for Classroom

Realizing the Potential of Teacher Residencies



Ashley LiBetti and Justin Trinidad



Table of Contents

Click on each title below to jump directly to the corresponding section.

Background and Context	4
Current Landscape of Teacher Preparation	7
What Is a Teacher Residency?	10
The Appeal of the Residency Model	12
Challenges to Expanding Teaching Residencies	16
Recommendations	22
Realizing the Potential of Teacher Residencies	27
Appendix	28
Case Studies:	
AppleTree Early Learning Teacher Residency	30
Kern Rural Teacher Residency	33
Newark-Montclair Urban Teacher Residency	36
Nashville Teacher Residency	40
Concordia University-Saint Paul's Southeast Asian Teachers Licensure Program	44
Endnotes	48
Acknowledgments	52
About the Authors	53
About Bellwether Education Partners	53

Background and Context

Most professions can be separated into two categories: Those where people have some foundational skills but largely build the skills they need on the job and gain responsibility as they do so (e.g., in business, consulting, journalism) and those where people complete extensive clinical preparation prior to becoming a professional, and continue their education throughout their careers (e.g., doctors, nurses, electricians).

Historically, teachers haven't fit neatly into either category. Instead, the traditional teacher preparation experience consists primarily of coursework, where teacher candidates learn abstract concepts via lecture in postsecondary classrooms. Student teaching, or when a candidate spends time in a pre-k through 12 classroom to better understand their future role, to date has been a relatively minor component of most traditional preparation programs. Teaching is one of very few professions that expects people to be masters of their craft — where they handle all the responsibilities of long-serving veterans — on their first day.

But the status quo of teacher preparation is changing. Over the past 15 years, preparation programs — both programs based in institutions of higher education (IHE) and independent organizations — have shifted more toward the clinical model common to medical professions. In some cases, programs have simply extended the duration of candidates' clinical experience. More promising, though, are the programs that have dramatically restructured the way they train teachers — specifically, teacher residency programs.

Teaching is one of very few professions that expects people to be masters of their craft — where they handle all the responsibilities of long-serving veterans — on their first day.

In a teacher residency, candidates receive almost all of their training in their future job site: They spend at least a year in a pre-k through 12 classroom under the guidance of a highly effective mentor teacher. This on-the-job experience is complemented by coursework that is tightly linked to and builds upon their experiences in the classroom. At the end of the residency, residents have deep theoretical and practical knowledge that equips them to become the teacher of record in their own classroom.

Early research on residencies is promising. Residency graduates, on average, come from more diverse backgrounds, are more likely to teach in shortage subject areas, have higher retention rates, and receive higher marks on principal satisfaction than teachers from traditional preparation programs. And the evidence on program effectiveness is complicated but encouraging: Some studies suggest that residency graduates are as effective as traditional program completers, while other evidence suggests that residency graduates are more effective than other teachers. (For a more complete discussion of these findings, including research citations, see section on *The Appeal of the Residency Model*.)

There's also practical appeal for prospective employers *and* teachers: In hosting a resident, schools can observe and measure the potential of the candidate before formally hiring them. And residencies allow teacher candidates to experience life as a teacher with less risk — specifically, before they invest the hundreds of hours and thousands of dollars required of traditional teacher training.¹

Residencies allow teacher candidates to experience life as a teacher with less risk — specifically, before they invest the hundreds of hours and thousands of dollars required of traditional teacher training.

Yet residencies have proliferated relatively slowly, and today make up only a small percentage of teacher preparation providers nationally. The primary barrier limiting residencies' growth — whether that's the expansion of existing residencies or the development of new ones — is cost. But as discussed in more detail later in this paper, residency programs are perceived to be more expensive than they are, and there are external factors, both policy and practical, that limit their scale and impact and exaggerate their cost.

From a policy perspective, the key barrier that exacerbates the cost of residencies is the set of systems intended to ensure the quality of teacher preparation programs: state approval and institutional accreditation. Whether or not these processes guarantee a preparation program is “high quality” is an open question; existing evidence suggests they don't.²

State approval and institutional accreditation processes create a particularly painful, and costly, reality for residency programs. These systems require programs to comply with a set of standards that define a program's design and structure — standards that were designed to govern a traditional preparation program model. As a result, the quality of a preparation program is defined by how well the program fits the traditional preparation program model.

Residency programs are intentionally designed to *not* follow the traditional model. Residency programs, for example, often want to hire high-performing mentor teachers to serve as course instructors. But many accreditors require that master's-level preparation

programs only employ faculty with terminal degrees (e.g., Ph.D. or Ed.D.), so a residency program can't hire that mentor teacher unless they're one of the 9 percent of teachers who have a doctoral degree.³ Similarly, state approval processes generally require preparation programs to design and abide by a defined curriculum scope and sequence that covers specific content, measured in course credit hours, which creates challenges for residency programs that want to individualize candidates' curriculum based on their classroom experience.

The policies and systems governing teacher preparation do not necessarily prevent residency programs from operating or expanding. But they force residencies to make an unenviable choice.

To be clear, the policies and systems governing teacher preparation do not necessarily prevent residency programs from operating or expanding. But they force residencies to make an unenviable choice: Allow the residency program to more closely resemble the traditional model and sacrifice some of the program's authenticity in the process, or go through the burdensome and expensive process of translating the existing standards into ones that residencies can meet, and contorting the program to do so. IHE-based and independent residencies alike are forced to make this choice.

To realize the potential of residency programs, these systems must better accommodate them. To that end, the field needs a system-wide shift in how we approach the quality of teacher preparation. Specifically:

- Accreditation and approval processes must make space for new preparation program models and innovations within current models
- Quality standards must be based in research
- Residencies must hold themselves accountable for quality

Taken together, these recommendations seek to create an environment that is more hospitable to residencies, but is designed to similarly benefit all teacher preparation programs, including traditional models.

Current Landscape of Teacher Preparation

Teacher preparation as it currently exists doesn't produce enough high-quality, diverse teachers, with the right subject expertise, to meet the needs of schools.

To understand why teacher residencies are appealing, it's necessary to first understand the current teacher preparation landscape more broadly. Teacher preparation as it currently exists doesn't produce enough high-quality, diverse teachers, with the right subject expertise, to meet the needs of schools.

- **Traditional teacher preparation programs do not supply teachers in the subject areas that schools need.** Claims about national teacher shortages are often overblown, but research suggests that schools struggle with teacher shortages in specific subject areas. In Illinois, for example, between 2002 and 2014 preparation programs in the state consistently underproduced bilingual and special education teachers and overproduced social science teachers.⁴ Nationally, schools struggle to fill special education and STEM teaching positions, and have done so for several decades. Shortages are felt even more acutely in urban and rural schools, and schools with higher percentages of students of color.⁵
- **Traditional teacher preparation program completers do not reflect the diversity of the student population.** In the 2012–13 school year, 25 percent of individuals enrolled in a teacher preparation program based in an IHE were individuals of color,⁶ compared to 52 percent of public school students.⁷
- **Traditional preparation programs cannot guarantee that a teacher will be effective in the classroom.** As one 2011 study put it, “education majors are no more or less productive than teachers whose initial bachelor’s degree was in another discipline.”⁸ Similarly, a 2010 evaluation conducted by researchers at the Institute of Education

Sciences, the research arm of the U.S. Department of Education, found that there is no statistically significant difference in student achievement from a teacher prepared by an alternative certification program versus a traditionally prepared teacher.⁹

Past efforts to improve the quality of teacher preparation have typically involved layering additional requirements onto existing ones, as opposed to rethinking requirements entirely.

Traditionally, efforts to improve the quality of teacher preparation have focused on adjusting specific elements of a program — like increasing the number of content courses candidates must take or encouraging teachers to complete master’s degrees.¹⁰ But these approaches have typically involved layering additional requirements onto existing ones, as opposed to rethinking the requirements entirely. Doing so creates costs that are often not acknowledged, while leaving the quality of teacher preparation largely unchanged. Research shows, for example, that acquiring a master’s degree doesn’t necessarily improve teachers’ effectiveness with students;¹¹ similarly, with the exception of secondary math and science teachers, additional content courses have no impact on teacher effectiveness.¹²

More recently, efforts have focused on program selection criteria qualifications, like increasing the minimum GPA and SAT or ACT score for incoming teacher candidates. There is some research that suggests teacher candidates with higher SAT or ACT scores or who attended more selective institutions are more likely to become effective teachers.¹³ This research has led to a push to recruit “the best and the brightest”¹⁴ to teaching and raise the bar for entry into teacher preparation programs.¹⁵ But other research disputes the relationship between a teacher’s academic background and effectiveness,¹⁶ and even when studies show a positive relationship, the effect sizes are small.¹⁷

To ensure quality teaching at scale, teacher preparation improvement efforts need to stop assuming that all teachers can be fully ready on their first day and instead focus on how to restructure teacher training and initial employment so that a wider range of candidates can become effective teachers.

Further, there are 4 million teachers across the U.S. and nearly 200,000 new teachers completing preparation programs every year. The sheer volume of teachers needed at a given time means that students can’t wait for the “superhero teacher” — the best-and-brightest teacher who meets restrictive selection criteria — to save the day. And there’s a very real danger of Type II errors: Even if teachers with these qualifications are more effective *on average*, requiring these qualifications as a matter of policy will screen out people who may not score as highly but still have the potential to be effective teachers. Minimum requirements on SAT and Praxis exams, for example, disproportionately screen out candidates of color,¹⁸ but at the same time, there is ample evidence that teachers of color are particularly effective in the classroom.¹⁹

To ensure quality teaching at scale, teacher preparation improvement efforts need to stop assuming that all teachers can be fully ready on their first day and instead focus on how to restructure teacher training and initial employment so that a wider range of candidates can become effective teachers. Teacher residencies are one possible solution — a promising one.

What Is the Traditional Teacher Preparation Model?

This paper frequently refers to traditional teacher preparation models. Traditional preparation programs compose 70 percent of all teacher preparation providers nationally.ⁱ The exact content, design, and quality of a traditional preparation program varies by program, but there are some similarities. These programs are almost always based in institutions of higher education, and the program structure generally includes:

- Three semesters of coursework, split up between general content coursework (which allows candidates to develop content knowledge and includes mandatory requirements of an undergraduate degree, if applicable) and professional coursework that is specific to becoming a teacher (e.g., child development, assessment, classroom management, pedagogy, etc.)
- One semester of field experience, which includes 10 to 15 weeks of “student teaching” where the candidate takes on increasing levels of instructional responsibility in a pre-k through 12 classroom under the guidance of a partner teacher (field experience may also include tutoring sessions or observations earlier in the preparation program)

Throughout this paper residency programs are compared to traditional preparation models, but it is crucial to note that the two are neither adversarial nor mutually exclusive.

i US Department of Education, Office of Postsecondary Education, “Issue Brief: Alternative Teacher Preparation Programs,” Higher Education Act Title II Reporting System, 2015, https://title2.ed.gov/Public/44110_Title_II_Issue_Brief_Altn_TPP.pdf.

What Is a Teacher Residency?

This paper defines three key components as the foundation of the residency model:

- Candidates receive the bulk of their training while working in pre-k through 12 classrooms under the guidance of an effective, experienced mentor teacher
- Residents simultaneously complete course content that is tightly linked to and supports their everyday practice in the classroom
- The program itself is operated through a deep partnership between the residency operator (whether an IHE, independent organization, or both) and the school where the resident is placed

Most residency programs have adopted these three components, at least in theory. (A longer list of common program elements is in Sidebar 2.) In practice, however, there is wide variation in the goals, structure, and quality of residency programs, despite all having the same name. Each program operator makes myriad decisions about program design. Those decisions aren't binary — they are decisions that exist on a spectrum, so the matrix of possible outcomes is massive. In the majority of residencies, for example, candidates receive a degree and teaching certification upon completion of the program, but some offer a bachelor's degree, while others offer a master's degree, while others offer no degree at all. Similarly, some residencies offer candidates a living stipend, some have arrangements with partner districts to employ candidates as substitutes or paraprofessionals while they complete the residency, and others do nothing to offset the financial burden for candidates.

Crucially, the research doesn't point to a "right" residency model — there is only best practice. The list of "must have" components of teacher residencies varies depending on

There is wide variation in the goals, structure, and quality of residency programs, despite all having the same name.

Residency programs are ripe for research and analysis, and are best governed by a flexible policy regime that allows for strategic innovation.

who is writing the list. The National Center for Teacher Residencies,²⁰ Bank Street College's Prepared to Teach initiative,²¹ and the Learning Policy Institute,²² for example, each have different definitions.

In other words, there is wide variation in the design of residency programs and, at the same time, no clear, evidence-based consensus about what a residency program should look like. This reality is a key part of the promise of residency programs: They are ripe for research and analysis, and are best governed by a flexible policy regime that allows for strategic innovation.

Sidebar 2

Who Operates Residencies?

Residencies are operated by some combination of three entities:

- 1 A traditional public school district or charter school/charter management organization
- 2 An institute of higher education (IHE)
- 3 An independent preparation organization

For the sake of simplicity, throughout this paper we refer to the school partner as a local education agency, or LEA, whether it is a charter school or a district.

Residencies may be operated by a coalition of all three entities, or by a partnership between the institute of higher education and the local education agency. The value proposition of residencies — that candidates have the opportunity to be in a classroom prior to becoming a teacher of record — means that the only entity necessary to operate a residency is the school placement site, or the local education agency. Even so, currently the vast majority of residencies are operated through an IHE/LEA partnership. The role of the independent preparation organization, when it exists, depends on the specific residency program.

Common Components of a Residency Program

- Residencies have a **close-knit partnership** between the residency operator and placement local education agency (LEA). The LEA may comprise either district or charter schools. In some cases, the residency operator and the LEA are one and the same.
- Residency operators control candidate **recruitment and selection** process and criteria.
- Teacher candidates in a residency program go through a lengthy (at least one year) **clinical experience** under the supervision of an effective **mentor teacher**. Over the course of the residency, teacher candidates gain increasing levels of responsibility in the classroom.
- Education **coursework** is tightly linked to the teacher candidate's teaching experience in the classroom.
- Teacher candidates receive **support** from the residency operator and LEA through coaching, mentoring, and induction.
- Teacher candidates commit, if hired, to **working in their placement LEA** for a predefined period of time after completing the residency program.

The Appeal of the Residency Model

The arguments in favor of residencies can be grouped into two categories: appeal for teacher candidates and appeal for employers.

Teacher residencies gained popularity in the past 15 years as a response to urban teacher shortages. The first teacher residencies were master’s-level programs in Chicago, Denver, and Boston. Together, they formed an organization that later became the National Center for Teacher Residencies (NCTR). Today, NCTR partners with 29 teacher residency programs across the country, and there are more than 50 teacher residency programs operating nationally. Most programs – both within and outside of the NCTR network – focus on urban centers, but residencies continue to expand to other regions (see, for example, the accompanying case study on California’s Kern Rural Teacher Residency).

The arguments in favor of residencies can be grouped into two categories: appeal for teacher candidates and appeal for employers.

Appeal for Teacher Candidates

- **Teacher candidates are trained in supportive classroom-based environments that are tightly linked to their education coursework.** Often, conversations about residencies focus on the length of the residency’s clinical experience as the feature that distinguishes them from traditional preparation programs. And that’s understandable, as the yearlong residency is much longer than the 12–15 weeks common in traditional programs.

Residencies also stand out against other pathways because candidates participate in a cycle of continuous learning. Candidates learn new skills in their classroom placement and in their coursework, test them out in the classroom context under the supervision of a mentor teacher, receive feedback, deepen their understanding through coursework and/or in the classroom, and then test the skills out again.

Finally, residents receive intensive coaching and support during their yearlong residency. When teacher residents enter the classroom, they initially have few responsibilities; they co-teach or observe their mentor teacher, but most of the responsibility stays with the mentor teacher. Throughout the year, teacher residents gradually earn more and more responsibility until they demonstrate their ability to be teacher of record.

- **Residencies mitigate some of the risks involved in the current teacher preparation model.** Residencies appeal to a wider range of candidates because they lower some of the risks inherent in the current preparation model. In the traditional model, candidates must invest more than \$24,000 and 1,500 hours²³ to become a teacher, often without ever leading their own classroom. This upfront financial and opportunity cost limits the pool of candidates to those who can afford the risk, effectively cutting out nontraditional candidates, low- and lower-middle-income candidates, and career-changers. Residencies allow candidates to practice teaching from the beginning of their training, granting them a view into their potential profession *before* investing thousands of dollars and hundreds of hours.
- **Residencies appeal to a wider pool of potential candidates.** Residencies appeal to more diverse candidates, including candidates who may have never previously considered teaching as a career. More than 45 percent of residents in NCTR Network residencies identified as people of color,²⁴ compared to 18 percent of all new teachers nationally.²⁵ In Boston, nearly 50 percent of Boston Teacher Residency (BTR) candidates are teachers of color,²⁶ compared to 38 percent of all teachers in Boston Public Schools.²⁷ The relatively lower risks associated with residency programs, mentioned above, may be one of the reasons that residencies appeal to a more diverse group of potential candidates.

Appeal for Employers

- **Local education agencies have more control over their teacher pipeline.** Most state program approval processes require preparation programs to have some kind of partnership with the LEA where candidates do student teaching, but in practice these two entities commonly operate in wholly separate spheres. Every year, programs prepare teachers and LEAs hire them, but the two processes aren't widely integrated, so surpluses and shortages are common: Programs produce too many elementary education teachers, for example, while LEAs can't fill high school physics teaching positions.

Residencies give partner LEAs more control over their teacher pipeline. In a residency structure, the preparation program can't exist without a deep partnership with the LEA, which means that, by definition, residency programs are set up to be more responsive to LEAs and LEAs have more responsibility to shape their teacher pipeline. The best residency programs have the structures and systems in place — like data-sharing agreements, regular feedback loops, and shared expectations for residents — to ensure that programs prepare the type of teachers that LEAs need. This type of work is already happening in Boston, Denver, and Fresno, Calif., where school districts regularly share data about their talent needs with local preparation programs.²⁸

And many residencies fill common hiring gaps. BTR, for example, provides more math and science teachers than other preparation routes,²⁹ and a study of two residencies found that over 50 percent of graduates teach in secondary mathematics, science, linguistically diverse, or special education classrooms, all of which are common shortage areas for LEAs across the country.³⁰

- **Residents are more likely to stay in their position once hired.** Approximately 39 percent of teachers leave their district within the first five years.³¹ Comparatively, graduates from BTR, Academy for Urban School Leadership, and New Visions/Hunter College Urban Teacher Residency all have annual retention rates above 90 percent.³² In San Francisco, the five-year retention rate of teacher residency graduates is 80 percent, compared to 50 percent of SFUSD nonresident teachers and 28 percent of novice teachers overall.³³ That's a crucial benefit for LEAs.
- **Principals are more satisfied with teacher residents than with new teachers from other pathways.** In a 2015 survey of Denver principals conducted by the National Center for Teacher Residencies, 91 percent of respondents said the Denver Teacher Residency graduates they hired were more effective than the typical new teacher.³⁴ Similarly, in a survey of principals who partnered with BTR, principals rated 88 percent of BTR graduates as effective or more effective than their counterparts, with a majority rated as "significantly more effective."³⁵ Part of the reason for the higher level of satisfaction may be the fact that, through residencies, candidates are effectively completing a yearlong interview — so principals who hire them are more likely to be satisfied with their performance once they begin teaching full-time.

Are Residency Programs Effective?

The evidence on residents' effectiveness in the classroom is complicated. Research suggests that new residency program completers are **as effective** as traditional preparation completers in raising student achievement in reading. A 2012 study of Boston Teacher Residency,ⁱ an analysis of TNTP's Teaching Fellows,ⁱⁱ and an ongoing evaluation of Denver Teacher Residencyⁱⁱⁱ all support that finding. The Boston and Denver studies, however, also found that new teacher residents are **slightly less effective** in raising student achievement in math than other new teachers.

But those findings are only part of the story. By their fourth and fifth years teaching, Boston Teacher Residency residents were found to be more effective in raising student achievement than both their same-experience peers and veteran teachers. Denver Teacher Residency completers outperformed their peers on other measures of practice quality. And a recent analysis shows that Memphis Teacher Residency graduates outscored other teachers on measures of student growth and achievement.^{iv}

This body of evidence doesn't lend itself to a clear interpretation or story. Instead, what we can conclude is that there is wide variation in program quality.

Of course, impact on student achievement isn't the only measure of program quality. Research suggests that residency programs have a range of other benefits for candidates and employers, discussed below.

- i John P. Papay et al., "Does an Urban Teacher Residency Increase Student Achievement? Early Evidence From Boston," *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis* 34, no. 4 (2012): 413-434.
- ii R. Dean Gerdeman et al., "Impact of TNTP's Teaching Fellows in Urban School Districts," American Institutes for Research, May 2017, <https://www.air.org/sites/default/files/downloads/report/TNTP-Teacher-Fellows-Evaluation-Summary-May-2017.pdf>.
- iii Ryan Eisner et al., "Lessons From AIR's Ongoing Evaluation of the Denver Teacher Residency," American Institutes for Research, 2017.
- iv Shelby County Schools, Office of Strategy and Innovation, Department of Performance Management and Research, "Memphis Teacher Residency in 2014-15," research brief, September 2015, https://memphistr.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/11/SCS-Evaluation-2014_2015.pdf.

Challenges to Expanding Teaching Residencies

The evidence and practical arguments in favor of teacher residencies are compelling, and yet the concept is spreading relatively slowly. The primary barrier preventing teacher residencies from proliferating more quickly is the cost. Critics claim that residencies are dramatically more expensive than traditional teacher preparation and, because of that, will never operate at scale.³⁶

In reality, there are no data to suggest that residency programs are inherently more expensive than traditional teacher preparation programs.

But that claim is based on perception, not evidence. In reality, there are no data to suggest that residency programs are inherently more expensive than traditional teacher preparation programs. Indeed, as a field we don't have any idea how much, per candidate, it costs to prepare a teacher through a traditional preparation program. For all the data we have, teacher residencies could be less expensive than traditional programs and we would never know. Yet the reputation sticks: Residency programs are perceived to be prohibitively expensive and not scalable.

To be clear, there are real — and often extensive — costs associated with preparing a teacher, regardless of the model. (For a review of residency programs' cost drivers and funding streams, see Appendix A.) The problem, however, is with the assumption that residencies are, in all cases, much more expensive than traditional preparation and therefore not a viable preparation model.

Three factors contribute to this assumption, and must be addressed in order to realize the potential of residency programs:

- Residency programs are perceived to be more expensive than they actually are.
- The cost of residencies is unnecessarily inflated because they exist in a policy environment designed for traditional preparation programs.
- Residencies' complicated research story exacerbates the perception that they are not a viable model.

Residencies Are Perceived to Be More Expensive Than They Actually Are

Residencies are perceived to be more expensive than they are for two reasons.

First, **traditional teacher preparation appears “free” to the actors who pay for residencies.** Historically, the cost of traditional teacher preparation was covered by two actors: the program operator (usually an IHE) and the teacher candidate. The teacher candidate would pay tuition to the program operator, and the program operator would deliver the content. There were occasionally other funding streams (e.g., public IHEs could receive funding from the state), but generally the cost of teacher preparation was spread between these two actors.

The cost of teacher residencies, however, falls to several additional actors: philanthropists, LEAs, and independent residency operators. Again, the exact funding model depends on the program, and programs may have access to other funding streams (e.g., federal grant money or candidate tuition).

Residency programs are perceived to be more expensive than traditional teacher preparation programs because the actors who pay for teacher residencies have no financial responsibility for traditional teacher preparation. This obscures the true cost of traditional programs and makes the cost of residency programs more visible. In other words, traditional teacher preparation appears “free” to philanthropists, LEAs, and independent residency operators — so they feel the costs of residency programs more keenly.

It's worth noting that residencies continue to seem “free” for the vast majority of LEA partners. LEA partners bear very little responsibility for the cost of preparing residencies, although that's not uniformly true: Some LEAs cover the cost of mentor teacher stipends, while others cover the resident salary stipend by hiring them as substitutes or paraprofessionals. But part of the reason residencies seem particularly expensive to philanthropists and independent residency operators is because the primary “customers” — LEAs — are underpaying.

The actors who pay for teacher residencies have no financial responsibility for traditional teacher preparation.

Second, teacher residencies have a reputation for being expensive because **early residency programs made design decisions that had high start-up costs.**

The early urban residency programs, which eventually coalesced to form the National Center for Teacher Residencies, followed a similar model: They were operated by a nonprofit independent organization rather than an IHE, they gave candidates a living stipend, they required limited to no tuition dollars from candidates, and they provided coaching and induction support to teachers during their first two years as teacher of record. These organizations started from scratch, had no obvious public funding stream, and relied heavily on philanthropy to sustain them.

This particular program design had high start-up costs. And because many of the residency programs in later years followed a similar model, residencies gained a reputation for being expensive and financially unsustainable.

This reputation is no longer accurate. A number of residency programs have found ways to be financially sustainable without philanthropic or public grant funding, particularly as they experiment with alternative funding models, often based on tuition revenue. The residency programs operated by Arizona State University, Texas Tech University, and University of South Dakota, for example, fall into this category. Other residency programs have found ways to increase funding or lower costs. Nashville Teacher Residency receives a \$7,000 placement fee from partner schools when the school hires a resident from the program. And the candidate “stipend” is covered by partner schools as well; candidates are hired as full-time employees at the school and receive a minimum salary of \$25,000 annually.

The Cost of Residencies Is Unnecessarily Inflated Because They Exist in a Policy Environment Designed for Traditional Preparation Programs

Residencies must comply with quality monitoring policies that are designed for traditional preparation programs. This compliance is expensive, and is often forgotten in conversations about the cost for traditional programs because it is covered by the IHE in which they are based.

Historically, two systems attempted to ensure the quality of teacher preparation programs: state preparation program approval and institutional accreditation. These quality checks are largely input-based. They measure quality based on a preparation program’s ability to meet a predefined set of standards that outline the key components (e.g., the structures, systems, and practices) that are indicative of a “high-quality” teacher preparation program.

Technically, residencies could provide teacher training content without going through either state approval or institutional accreditation, but they have three compelling incentives to do so:

Residencies gained a reputation for being expensive and financially unsustainable. This reputation is no longer accurate.

Residencies must comply with quality monitoring policies that are designed for traditional preparation programs.

- A residency can only **certify teachers** if it is an approved preparation program of the state. If a residency wants to become a viable pipeline of certified teachers, it must go through the state program approval process.
- There are very few **funding streams** available to residency programs that are not operated by an IHE. Only residencies that are operated by an IHE are eligible for institutional accreditation, which grants them access to federal student aid. Independent residency programs that operate outside of an IHE are not eligible for institutional accreditation, so they cannot access federal student aid on their own. Some programs partner with an accredited IHE to access federal student aid.
- State approval is a prerequisite for **conferring degrees**, and in most states, programs must also be accredited. Public policies and societal attitudes toward educators tend to equate “qualifications” and “quality” with degrees and credentials rather than competencies or other measures. Residency program operators often assume that candidate recruitment and public perception would suffer if they did not confer degrees.

Residencies face several costly challenges in complying with state program approval and institutional accreditation standards.

Residencies face several costly challenges in complying with state program approval and institutional accreditation standards. The primary issue is that these processes assume that all preparation programs look like the traditional preparation program model: operated by an IHE, with three semesters of IHE-based coursework (with the accompanying discrete, written assignments) and one semester of student teaching in a pre-k through 12 classroom, all governed by a set of regulations executed through institutionalized processes. Because state program approval and institutional accreditation are input-based systems, quality is defined by how well the program fits this traditional model.

This approach drives up the cost of residency programs — and any other programs that attempt to deviate from the traditional model — by limiting programs’ ability to innovate with alternative inputs to deliver comparable results and requiring programs to contort their design and practices in such a way that satisfies state approval and accreditation requirements. Specifically, accreditation and state approval increase residency programs’ costs in three ways:

- **Programs must pay a series of fees to be considered for accreditation and often have to pay annual dues to maintain their accredited status.** For example, first-time accreditation through the Higher Learning Commission, an agency that accredits institutions in 19 states, costs about \$32,275 upfront and \$4,355 every year.³⁷ And initial accreditation through the Western Association of Schools and Colleges will cost a minimum of \$25,000 in upfront fees and \$7,592 annually in dues.³⁸
- **Programs fund additional staff roles or a portion of existing staff time to complete approval and accreditation review processes.** Most residency programs are designed so that staff are concentrated in candidate support, rather than administrative, roles. Accreditation and state approval are long, laborious processes, however, which require

dedicated staff capacity to successfully complete. Residency programs that want to complete accreditation or approval processes often have to hire new staff or reallocate existing staff time to handle the applications. Either way, the programs must invest substantial financial resources in completing their applications.

- **Implementing required revisions from state approval and accreditation agencies can be expensive — in time, money, and program authenticity.** The types of revisions that accreditation and approval agencies require don't necessarily prevent residency programs from operating, but implementing them saddles programs with an expensive burden. The aforementioned faculty degree requirements, for example, mean that programs have a severely restricted recruitment pool; hiring and retaining high-quality faculty in such an environment requires programs to compensate with higher salaries, better benefits, and other persuasive recruiting techniques. Similarly, residencies commonly have to make expensive revisions to their program operations. When High Tech High Graduate School of Education went through the Western Association of Schools and Colleges accreditation process, the program had to align its staff titles and functions with institutions of higher education, consult an expert on the ethics of the program model, adopt more formal governance structures, expand its Board of Trustees, and revise the board appointment process.³⁹ These revisions require many complicated, expensive, bureaucratic changes, all of which add a good deal of cost, interfere with the residency's ability to deliver the program it originally designed, and seem unrelated to program quality.

Most independent and LEA-based residency programs have decided that applying for accreditation is too great of a burden; instead, they partner with an IHE that is already accredited. These partnerships, however, can increase residency costs in other ways.

Because of these challenges, most independent and LEA-based residency programs have decided that applying for accreditation is too great of a burden; instead, they partner with an IHE that is already accredited. Through this partnership, the IHE receives student tuition and federal student aid in exchange for handling the components historically associated with teacher preparation — specifically, coursework, accreditation, certification, and degree requirements. The residency staff handles the LEA partnerships, student placement, resident feedback and evaluation, and any practice-specific training and support.

These partnerships, however, can increase residency costs in other ways. Residencies often subsidize the cost of IHE tuition for candidates, and often IHE tuition is higher than it would be for a residency program to deliver the same coursework in-house. In fact, residency staff are often hired by the IHE to serve as adjunct faculty and are the ones actually delivering the coursework.

Finally, it's important to note that despite the challenges that residencies face in the current policy environment, a completely unregulated environment is not ideal for teacher residencies, either. Indeed, an unregulated policy environment makes it just as difficult for residencies to expand as a highly restrictive environment does, because it's harder for them to compete with low-cost, low-quality options. Texas, for example, is a relatively open

regulatory environment; based on interviews with programs in the state, this environment makes it more difficult to recruit candidates. To a candidate comparing the various pathways, even a residency program might seem too expensive and burdensome when compared to an alternative preparation program, or too much of a risk when compared to a traditional program.

Residencies' Complicated Research Story Exacerbates the Perception That They Are Not a Viable Model

The perceived cost of residencies would matter less if they produced unquestionably better outcomes than traditional preparation programs. On many measures of effectiveness, they do: There is compelling evidence that residencies produce a corps of teachers that is more diverse, has lower attrition rates, and is better received by principals. Residency programs give LEAs more control over their human capital pipeline and mitigate the risks for prospective teachers. On measures of student learning, however, residencies produce comparable outcomes to traditional preparation programs.

Despite other research, most conversations about residency programs myopically focus on student learning outcomes. When combined with the assumption that residencies are expensive, a flawed narrative forms: Residency programs are no better than traditional preparation programs, but they cost much more. This narrative is wrong, of course, but is much easier to disseminate than the real story.

Correcting that narrative is crucial for residencies to be considered a scalable teacher preparation model. Doing so requires a body of evidence on effective practices and processes in teacher residencies and the ability to hold residency programs accountable based on that evidence.

The commonly held narrative about residency programs — that they are no better than traditional preparation programs, but cost much more — is wrong. But it is much easier to disseminate than the real story, so it persists.

Recommendations

These recommendations are operator and model agnostic, and intentionally so, because the only way to truly improve teacher preparation is to create a policy and regulatory environment that encourages strategic, monitored innovation and doesn't codify requirements into policy without a solid evidence base.

To remove these barriers and realize the potential of residencies, the field needs a broad, system-wide shift in how it approaches teacher preparation program quality. This approach should be flexible: Accreditation and approval processes must make space for new preparation program models and innovations within current models. This approach should be evidence-based: Quality standards must be informed by research. And in this new approach, residencies must hold themselves accountable for quality.

Taken together, these changes will allow residency programs to bypass the costly program regulations that make them appear more expensive than traditional preparation programs while building a body of evidence supporting the value of residencies.

It bears emphasis that residencies are a promising option for improving teacher preparation — but they are not the only option. In 2016, one of the authors proposed a different pathway,⁴⁰ as have others.⁴¹ Each of these proposals is based in evidence, but the current research doesn't point to one “right” way. As a result, the recommendations below seek to create an environment that is more hospitable to residencies, but is designed to similarly benefit all teacher preparation programs, including traditional models. In other words, these recommendations are operator and model agnostic, and intentionally so, because the only way to truly improve teacher preparation is to create a policy and regulatory environment that encourages strategic, monitored innovation and doesn't codify requirements into policy without a solid evidence base. To that end, we propose three recommendations.

1 Accreditation and approval processes must make space for new preparation program models and innovations within current models.

At both the state and federal level, policymakers should develop an alternative accreditation pathway that gives high-performing preparation programs flexibility from existing prescriptive requirements. In exchange, programs will undergo increased scrutiny and consequences for their performance.

At both the state and federal level, policymakers should develop an alternative accreditation pathway that gives high-performing preparation programs flexibility from existing prescriptive requirements. In exchange, programs will undergo increased scrutiny and consequences for their performance.

At the federal level, this alternative pathway will allow residencies to more comfortably access federal student loan dollars and request waivers from specific compliance measures. Federal policymakers could work with existing accreditors, or encourage the development of a new national specialized accrediting agency specific to teacher residency programs. Like institutional accreditation, specialized accreditation is a form of quality monitoring that grants programs access to federal student aid. Unlike institutional accreditation, specialized accreditation is available to free-standing programs, such as residencies operated outside of IHEs. A specialized accrediting agency focused on teacher residencies would hold programs accountable for quality standards that were specifically designed for the residency model. Specialized accreditation is a promising option for postsecondary training that does not fit within the traditional institution of higher education model or structure.⁴²

At the state level, a performance-specific approval pathway will allow residencies to certify teachers and/or confer degrees. The State University of New York, for example, which authorizes charter schools in the state, instituted an alternative pathway for its charter schools to certify teachers if the program meets certain criteria and requirements. This model, while not perfect, offers lessons for future efforts to encourage innovative and flexible preparation programs.

Ideally, program eligibility for these new pathways would be determined by the performance of their completers. Current research suggests, however, that it may not be possible to hold preparation programs accountable solely for their completers' effect on student achievement.⁴³ In the short term, eligibility should be based on other completer employment outcome indicators, including job placement, retention, and candidate and principal satisfaction. Programs should only be eligible for this pathway if there is clear, statistically significant evidence that their completers excel on these indicators, and programs should be excluded from these pathways if there is clear, statistically significant evidence that their completers are ineffective in the classroom.

In the long term, policymakers should continue to use employment outcome indicators, but they should also collaborate with high-performing programs to identify a tool that measures completer performance in the classroom. To that end, this

coalition of policymakers and practitioners should pilot multiple alternative methods of measuring program performance that are valid and reliable, ultimately leading to an agreed-upon metric.

By design, a performance-based accreditation pathway will not be accessible to all preparation programs. As a result, most preparation programs will remain beholden to the existing prescriptive approval and accreditation requirements. To reduce the burden of those requirements, policymakers should audit the existing requirements, remove requirements that do not improve program quality, and replace them with requirements that are supported by research. This should not be a one-time audit: Policymakers must build in processes and flexibility that allow the standards and pathways to evolve to reflect new research as it becomes available in a way that the traditional processes have not been.

2 Quality standards must be based in research.

The quality standards that inform this alternative accreditation pathway should be based in research. To ensure that, the field first needs to invest in specific, actionable research to inform those standards.

To date, efforts to improve quality standards for teacher preparation programs have had very little impact on the overall effectiveness of teachers. That's not for lack of trying: In recent years, states have adopted standards based in the strongest existing research.⁴⁴

The current state of research is incredibly problematic for a system that purports to define what a high-quality teacher preparation program looks like.

The problem with these efforts is in the research that informs them. The existing body of research on teacher preparation tells us very little about how to design a better teacher preparation program. Across all models of teacher preparation, a program that wanted to improve its design and practice would not have the information it needed to do so. That's a disheartening finding, but not surprising. Existing research was designed to provide generalizable conclusions, not program-level actions.⁴⁵ The same is true for residency programs, and perhaps even more so because of their relatively recent popularity. Right now, the big research question is, "Do residency programs work?" As a starting point, that's a necessary question. But, as discussed, there is wide variation in the design of residency programs and the quality of implementation. Without deeper analysis, "Do residency programs work?" is as useful as asking, "Does adding 'residency' to the name of a teacher preparation program improve its quality?"

The current state of research is incredibly problematic for a system that purports to define what a high-quality teacher preparation program looks like.

Future quality standards for teacher preparation programs should be based in research that asks questions that force deeper analysis and, in doing so, produce lessons for current and new residency programs and the field at large. Specifically, future research should ask: What components of teacher preparation produce positive outcomes? How positive are the effects? On what types of outcomes? For what population? Under what circumstances? At what cost?

*Future research should ask:
What components of teacher
preparation produce
positive outcomes? How
positive are the effects? On
what types of outcomes?
For what population?
Under what circumstances?
At what cost?*

“At what cost?” is a particularly crucial question for future research — both to clarify the true cost of teacher preparation and give programs the data they need to understand .

This approach to research will allow policymakers to develop and hold programs to quality standards that are based in evidence. At the same time, the evidence from these research questions will provide programs with information they need to make better design decisions. Taken together with the performance-based accreditation pathway, this new approach will hold programs accountable for how well they prepare teachers and support them to improve.

Policymakers can create incentives for implementing this research agenda, but members of the field at large — philanthropists, researchers, programs, and advocates — are responsible for driving specific studies.

3 Residencies must hold themselves accountable for quality.

To truly maximize the effectiveness and impact of teacher residencies, programs cannot delay their improvement efforts until they are forced into it through a new body of evidence or quality standards. Instead, residencies should improve their program practice and contribute knowledge to the field through sophisticated continuous quality improvement systems.

To date, there has been a tendency in education to think about program- and completer-level data primarily as tools for large-scale randomized controlled trials and consequences-focused accountability. These efforts are crucial for moving the field forward, and should continue to be a priority, but are limited in their ability to improve the quality of teacher preparation.

Residencies should use completer- and program-level data to document and measure the effects of their own improvement efforts and initiatives, including any changes they make to program structure or content. They should work with LEAs to better understand the characteristics of high-performing new teachers and the practices of the preparation programs that trained them.⁴⁶

Residencies should take this work one step further by developing networked learning communities. Networked learning communities are groups of practitioners that pool their resources to develop and test innovative practices. When done well, networked learning communities increase participants' capacity and produce actionable findings that each participant can use to improve their design and operations.

Crucially, residency programs must act on the information they gather through their internal continuous improvement cycles and networked learning communities. Programs should sculpt their structure and content to produce stronger candidates and meet the needs of their LEA partners.

State and federal policymakers can support these efforts. States should develop data-sharing agreements to access data for completers who teach in other states, and create data systems and dashboards that give programs access to those data in real time. Some states, like New Jersey and Rhode Island, require programs to publicly report completer performance data, though only data for completers who teach in-state are available. Outside of those states, the many programs that want to follow up on their completers face substantial challenges accessing the data, even for in-state completers. At the federal level, programs should be required to track and report a variety of completer data. At a minimum, these systems should track and link completer data on impact on student learning, evaluation rating, instructional performance, job placement, and retention. A proposed regulation in the Higher Education Act would have required this reporting nationally, but Congress scrapped it in early 2017.⁴⁷

These recommendations are intended to support residencies and other innovative preparation models by creating a hospitable policy, regulatory, and practical environment — which is a long-term goal that requires careful, strategic, system-wide changes to achieve.

Again, these recommendations are intended to support residencies and other innovative preparation models by creating a hospitable policy, regulatory, and practical environment — which is a long-term goal that requires careful, strategic, system-wide changes to achieve. There's a sense of urgency, however, in education policy conversations that may push states to make rash, short-term policy decisions. Some states, for example, now require that all teacher preparation programs have a yearlong student teaching experience — but, like improvement efforts before them, layer these requirements on top of the other things that preparation programs have to do. These efforts may support the expansion of residency programs, but without system-wide changes their potential impact will be stifled.

Realizing the Potential of Teacher Residencies

Research to date suggests that traditional preparation is not as effective as it could be: not necessarily that teacher preparation overall doesn't matter, but that preparation in its current iteration isn't working. The problem is that, for decades, efforts to improve teacher preparation have layered new requirements on top of old, hoping to mix the perfect cocktail of inputs that will guarantee a teacher preparation program is effective.

But while the field continues down that rabbit hole, the policy conditions created by this approach are forcing promising programs and new models, like teacher residencies, into expensive mediocrity. The current policies, norms, and practical circumstances governing teacher preparation severely restrict the potential of residencies — in their expansion, effectiveness, and impact — while grossly inflating their cost.

It doesn't need to be that way. Residencies are an incredible opportunity to change the way teachers learn their craft. To realize the potential of residency programs, the field needs to dramatically shift its approach to teacher preparation quality. Specifically, the field must shift away from the current prescriptive, compliance-focused regime with little grounding in research and toward an environment that incentivizes a program's individual evolution and nimbly responds to advances in research.

In the current system, teacher residencies are struggling to innovate while laden with the millstone of traditional preparation regulations. The effect — and effectiveness — of teacher residencies will be restricted until that burden is removed. Without these changes, residency programs will be trapped in their current policy context — and future teachers and students will suffer because of it.

Appendix

Costs and Funding Streams in the Residency Model

The cost of a residency varies greatly from program to program. Generally, costs can be broken into five categories (see table below). A teacher residency’s total operating cost depends heavily on the residency’s unique combination of program design decisions. A program that decides to offer candidates a living stipend, for example, will have higher operating costs than one that doesn’t; intensive coaching costs more than one-off sessions; and multiple years of induction support cost more than one year’s worth.

Residency Cost Drivers				
Faculty and Staff Salaries	Teacher Candidate Stipends	Mentor Teacher Stipends	Coursework Costs	General Operating Costs

The funding structure for a residency program also varies greatly. Residencies commonly access five different types of funding streams (see table below). Traditional preparation programs are largely funded by student tuition and state subsidies, while residencies may or may not have access to those funds. Residencies operated by independent organizations receive very little tuition or state money and rely heavily on philanthropic and LEA funding instead, while residences based in an IHE are able to access tuition. Tuition dollars allow several IHE-based residencies to be financially sustainable. Increasingly, non-IHE-based residencies are going through the state approval and institutional accreditation processes (described below) that are necessary for accessing tuition.

Residency Funding Streams				
Federal Dollars	State Dollars	Philanthropic or Privately Raised Dollars	Tuition	Partner LEA Contributions

Federal Dollars: Historically, there have been three primary federal funding streams available to residency programs: Teacher Quality Partnership (TQP) grants, AmeriCorps grants, and federal student aid.

- TQP grants are designed to improve the quality of new teachers through innovative preparation models, including residencies. They’re awarded in five-year grant periods; many residencies have used TQP grants as one-time start-up funds.
- AmeriCorps grantees receive federal funding to offer participants a living stipend and a scholarship in exchange for a year of community service. AmeriCorps funding is both a boon and a problem for residencies: The grant requirements and award timeline, for example, conflict with residency best practices. As a result, residencies often

make programmatic concessions and dedicate a substantial amount of staff time and resources — often a full-time position — to ensure the program is in compliance with AmeriCorps regulations.

- Federal student aid is only accessible to residency programs that are regionally accredited, or that partner with a regionally accredited organization. It is one of the most common funding streams for traditional preparation programs, and highly sought after among residency programs.

State Dollars: Very few residency programs receive any funding from states. Those that do receive funding from states do so through funding for initiatives other than residencies. It's common for public IHEs, for example, to receive funding from state tax appropriations and other funds targeted to higher education generally, so a residency program based at a public IHE may use those funds to operate the program.

Philanthropic or Privately Raised Dollars: The majority of residency programs, particularly those not based in IHEs, rely heavily on philanthropic or privately raised funds to cover operating costs.

Tuition: All residency programs can, theoretically, charge candidates tuition, but both the amount that programs can charge and the incentive they offer candidates to pay depends on the program. The current assumption is that candidates will only pay tuition if they receive an accredited diploma and a teaching credential, and if they can use federal student aid to cover tuition costs.

Partner LEA Contributions: It is becoming increasingly common for residency programs to ask LEAs to contribute or cover part of the cost of residents' preparation. In some cases, LEAs will pay programs a per-resident amount for candidates that they hire, similar to a placement fee. In other cases, LEAs hire residents to fill other roles, such as substitute teachers or paraprofessionals, in a part-time capacity during their residency year.

Note: This paper intentionally does not review the range of funding models for residency programs or make recommendations for alternative funding structures. Several organizations have dedicated time and energy to that topic — Bank Street College's Prepared to Teach initiative suggested that LEAs can better spend existing funds,ⁱ for example; the National Council for Teacher Residencies proposed tweaks to state policy;ⁱⁱ and Public Impact has pushed for changes to both.ⁱⁱⁱ

i Karen DeMoss et al., "Clearing the Path: Redesigning Teacher Preparation for the Public Good" (New York, NY: Bank Street College, Sustainable Funding Project, September 2017), https://d2mguk73h8xisw.cloudfront.net/media/filer_public/filer_public/2017/09/28/clearing_the_path_1248.pdf.

ii National Center for Teacher Residencies, "Recommendations for State Support for Effective Teacher Residencies," July 2017, <https://nctrresidencies.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/06/Recommendations-for-State-Support-of-Effective-Teacher-Residencies.pdf>.

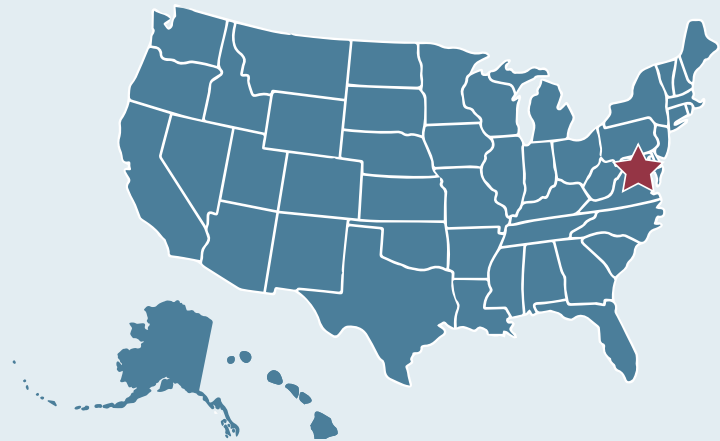
iii Stephanie Dean et al., "Paid Educator Residencies, within Budget: How New School Models Can Radically Improve Teacher and Principal Preparation" (Chapel Hill, NC: Public Impact, 2016), retrieved from http://opportunityculture.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/Paid_Educator_Residencies_Within_Budget-Public_Impact.pdf.

AppleTree Early Learning Teacher Residency

Location: Washington, D.C.

Total number of program completers: 160

Years in operation: 10



Overview

The AppleTree Early Learning Teacher Residency is an innovative, two-year teacher residency program that provides residents with an advanced degree and certification over the course of two years.

AppleTree's residency program was developed through a partnership with Relay Graduate School of Education and the National Center for Teacher Residencies. It is intended to build a predictable pipeline of effective early educators who are prepared for the unique challenges of teaching in Washington, D.C. Residents begin the program as a classroom apprentice, gradually taking on responsibility until they become a fully certified lead teacher with a Master of Arts in Teaching.

Target Candidates

AppleTree seeks to recruit an ethnically diverse cohort of teachers. In 2017, 84 percent of AppleTree teacher residents identified as people of color.

Candidates must have a bachelor's degree in order to enroll in the program. AppleTree prioritizes candidates with experience working with young children and demonstrated interest in social justice and improving educational outcomes for young children. The majority of teachers and teacher residents come from the Washington, D.C. metropolitan area. Residents come from a variety of backgrounds, from career changers to recent college graduates.

CASE STUDY

AppleTree has partnered with early childhood literacy organizations in Washington, D.C., such as Literacy Lab and Jumpstart, to recruit potential residents. Literacy Lab provides low-income children from age 3 through grade 3 with individualized reading instruction and places trained tutors in early childhood centers and elementary schools. And Jumpstart recruits and trains college students and community members as aides to preschool teachers to prepare high-need children for kindergarten.

Program Design

The AppleTree Residency program is a two-year program that includes a residency year — also known as a Fellowship year — followed by intensive support during residents' first year as lead teachers. Prior to the beginning of the Fellowship year, residents attend a three-week summer session and resident institute, exposing them to early childhood training, lesson planning development, and classroom setup. Residents also meet their instructional leader and mentor teachers.

During the Fellowship year, residents are embedded full-time in an AppleTree school. At the same time, they complete coursework that ultimately leads to a Master of Arts in Teaching from Relay Graduate School of Education. AppleTree partnered with Relay to develop the coursework with a focus on early childhood in AppleTree schools. As a result, the coursework incorporates early childhood research and data, and emphasizes supporting the social, emotional, and cognitive development of young children in addition to classroom management and pedagogy.

Coursework is tightly linked to the residents' classroom experience, which takes place under the guidance of an experienced mentor teacher. Mentor teachers help residents develop the knowledge, skills, and habits of mind that are required of an effective teaching methodology. In this structure, residents apply their theoretical learning in real-life situations under close supervision. This close mentor-mentee relationship addresses the rift often seen in theory-to-practice instruction. Mentors coach residents to apply best practices in early childhood education in a real classroom environment with the real challenges of working with 3- and 4-year-olds growing up in predominantly low-income communities.

In order to complete their Fellowship year, residents must pass the Praxis exams, required by the District of Columbia to earn Early Childhood teacher licensure. At that point, residents start their second year as a supported lead teacher. During this year, residents continue to receive coaching, feedback, and observations from mentor teachers, instructional coaches, principals, and the residency team. While teachers are not required to stay for a third year in the program, many residents do: In 2016, AppleTree's retention rate was 91 percent, higher than the district's average.

Additionally, residents receive coaching and training on implementing AppleTree's instructional model, Every Child Ready. Every Child Ready provides educators with curriculum content, professional development, and a set of student and teacher assessments that measure success. The curriculum

CASE STUDY

focuses on student content standards including language and literacy, math, science, social studies, approaches to learning, creative arts, physical development, and social-emotional development. So while it is specific to AppleTree, it provides a strong foundation for all future early childhood teachers.

Finally, AppleTree is uniquely positioned to host a residency program because it has a research institute that has developed a research-to-practice model alongside its charter school network. As the two entities are intertwined, staff have the ability to provide direct feedback into programmatic evaluation, which in turn informs revisions in the curriculum they teach.

Financial Model

AppleTree fully funds its residency program from Washington, D.C.'s Uniform Per Student Funding Formula (UPSFF), the district's per-pupil funding formula. UPSFF funding is tied to enrollment and is equally applied to all public schools, district and charter. AppleTree is able to apply UPSFF for teacher residents as they are full-time salaried employees.

AppleTree's main expenses are resident salary and tuition. Residents do not receive a stipend as they are employees of AppleTree and receive a salary of \$33,000 annually along with health care benefits. AppleTree also covers two-thirds of the master's degree tuition. Residents must pay the remaining one-third in their first year and full tuition in their second year, which adds up to \$5,000 in tuition in two years. AppleTree partially subsidizes student tuition through a grant from the National Center on Teacher Residencies.

State Policy Landscape

District of Columbia policy is receptive to the implementation of residency preparation programs: For example, the Office of the State Superintendent of Education offers teacher pipeline grants under the Scholarships for Opportunity and Results Act to provide funding to recruit and train candidates for D.C. charter school teacher residency or teacher roles.

Overcoming Barriers To Expansion

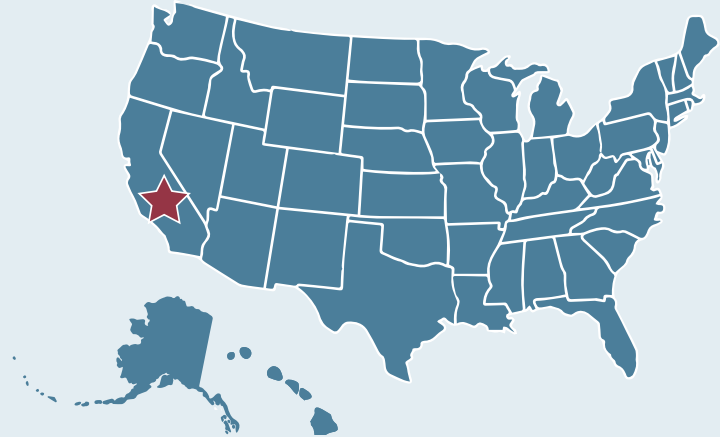
One of the key barriers AppleTree has had to overcome in launching the residency program is competition with other preparation programs. Since the AppleTree residency program's inception, a number of competing residency programs have entered the market. These other residency programs provide greater stipends, but AppleTree has stood out among these programs by partnering with Relay Graduate School of Education to offer residents a master's degree and certification. The residency program has also benefited from AppleTree's organizational reputation: Increasingly, residents recognize the advantage of entering into a lead teaching position with a growing organization that is known for operating high-quality schools and providing quality professional development and support to teachers.

Kern Rural Teacher Residency

Location: Bakersfield, CA

Total number of program completers: 66

Years in operation: 3



Overview

The Kern Rural Teacher Residency (KRTR) is a teacher preparation program that focuses on giving future educators the necessary skills and guidance to work with rural communities. The program is housed in California State University – Bakersfield (CSUB), a Hispanic-serving institution.

The KRTR is a partnership between CSUB’s School of Social Sciences and Education and three Central Valley California districts: Buttonwillow Union School District, Lamont Elementary School District, and Semitropic Elementary School District. The KRTR is a recipient of the U.S. Department of Education’s Teacher Quality Partnership grant.

Graduates of the program receive a preliminary teaching credential and a master’s degree. Residents are required to teach in a high-need or rural district in Kern County for three years after completing the program.

Target Candidates

The Bakersfield region has a large Latino student and English language learner population but has a shortage of Latino and bilingual teachers. To address this need, the KRTR primarily recruits Latino teacher candidates and bilingual teacher candidates. Because CSUB is a Hispanic-serving institution,

CASE STUDY

the KRTR is able to attract and recruit from a diverse group of college students that closely matches the primary and secondary students it serves. Approximately 60 percent of the current cohort identify as Latino and bilingual.

Program Design

The KRTR residents complete a 15-month program, divided into two stages. The first stage takes place the summer before the residency year. During that summer, residents participate in Camp BLAST, a STEM-focused summer program for fourth- to eighth-grade students from the local partner districts. At Camp BLAST, residents learn about lesson planning and classroom management, and build relationships with faculty, mentor teachers, and other residents.

During the second stage, residents spend a full school year in a K–12 classroom. Residents complete required coursework while co-teaching with their cooperating teacher mentor Monday through Thursday. The course curriculum includes science and math methods courses, project-based learning, and learning how to effectively integrate STEM into instruction. Residents draw on experiences in their residency classrooms for their course discussions while simultaneously applying the theory learned in coursework to their classroom experience. During the spring, residents may opt to take a one-unit course to develop Camp BLAST curriculum for the summer.

Every Friday during the fall and spring, residents participate in discussions about teaching in rural communities, connecting the coursework readings to the districts in which they work. Cooperating teachers and faculty mentor residents to provide guidance in these discussions, including strategies to address challenges that teachers in rural schools may face. Additionally, once a month, teacher residents participate in a Saturday conference to discuss vital issues facing the communities they serve.

To best serve the English language learner student population in partner districts, teacher residents expand on their language skill sets through additional mentorship from district faculty. The KRTR also provides workshops for students interested in dual-language immersion classes. Students prepare for Bilingual, Crosscultural, Language and Academic Development certification through these supplementary workshops.

After residents complete credential coursework and their yearlong placement, they continue on with master's-level coursework. Residents may add another credential by taking the California Subject Examinations for Teachers on a specific subject.

CASE STUDY

Financial Model

The KRTR's largest financial responsibility is resident stipends. The KRTR is able to provide residents with a \$28,000 stipend. Residents use \$14,000 of that stipend for tuition and the rest to offset living expenses. The KRTR also pays cooperating teachers \$3,000 annually.

The KRTR's primary source of funding is a \$7.3 million Teacher Quality Partnership grant, awarded by the U.S. Department of Education in 2014. The five-year grant ends in 2019. At that point, the KRTR will have to make adjustments to reflect its new funding reality. For example, the KRTR may reduce the stipend and ask residents to cover tuition. Furthermore, the master's program will be removed after the grant ends, and the residency program will only provide a teaching credential.

The KRTR is considering asking partner districts to provide some financial investment. As partner school districts benefit from hosting teacher residents from the KRTR program, those districts are considering funding aspects of the program, such as student tuition and cooperating teacher stipends. The Greenfield Union School District, for example, which has hired many KRTR completers, recently started its first cohort of residents who are fully financially sustained by the district. CSUB still provides supervision, course faculty, and mentorship.

State Policy Landscape

California has no legislation that governs teacher residency programs; therefore, the Kern Rural Teacher Residency Program is governed by traditional preparation program policies.

In recent years, policy changes have made California more conducive to residency programs. California passed legislation that allows teacher preparation programs to extend their duration. Previously, teacher preparation programs in the state were limited to one year.⁴⁸ Through Senate Bill 5, programs with more in-depth clinical experiences — including residency programs — will be able to provide teacher preparation over the course of two years.

Overcoming Barriers To Expansion

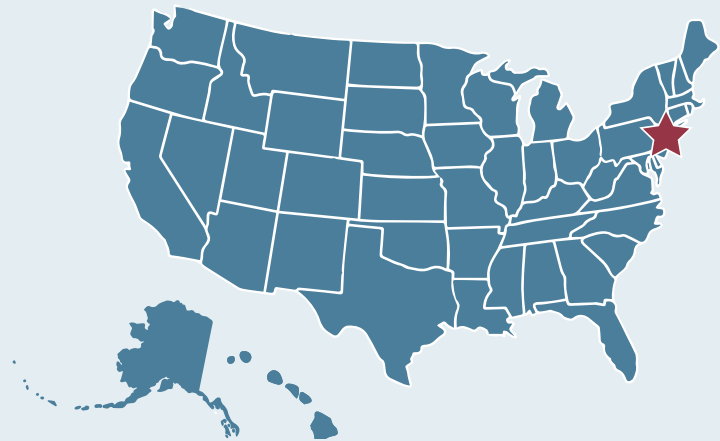
In the rural setting of the KRTR, finding highly qualified cooperating teachers was a large barrier during the launch of the program. In response, KRTR collaborated with districts to redefine what an effective cooperating teacher looks like. By the third cohort, KRTR leadership had provided a systematic way to select cooperating teachers. Cooperating teachers are jointly selected by the CSUB and the district, and CSUB residency staff observe the cooperating teacher, using a rubric with an established set of criteria, before placing a resident with that cooperating teacher. As a result of these coordination efforts, the KRTR has created a wider pool of highly qualified mentor teachers.

Newark-Montclair Urban Teacher Residency

Location: Newark, NJ

Total number of program completers: 93

Years in operation: 8



Overview

Launched in 2009, the Newark-Montclair Urban Teacher Residency (NMUTR) recruits and prepares teachers interested in urban education and committed to the Newark community. NMUTR represents a four-decade partnership between Montclair State University (MSU) and Newark Public Schools (NPS) that began as a series of professional development programs operated by MSU and eventually led to this jointly administered residency program. Residents complete a 12- to 15-month preparation program with a specific subject focus.

There are two separate strands of the residency program: dual certification in early childhood education and special education or certification in secondary math/science education. By the end of the residency, candidates earn their certification and a Master of Arts in Teaching from Montclair State University.

Target Candidates

NMUTR is a small program: Every year, a total of 25 residents across the two strands are admitted. At the same time, NMUTR recruits broadly, attracting recent college graduates as well as second-career candidates. The residency also targets Newark Public Schools alumni and candidates of color, as the district has experienced shortages in math and science teachers and special education teachers. Newark Public Schools is the largest school district in New Jersey and consists of 47 percent African-American and 44 percent Hispanic students with an English language learner (ELL) population of 10 percent.⁴⁹

CASE STUDY

Nearly 40 percent of all NMUTR graduates are teachers of color; this is much higher than what is found in most traditional teacher education programs and higher than the national average. Forty-six percent of candidates in the science and math strand and 37 percent of those in the early childhood/special education strand are people of color.

Program Design

For over four decades NPS and MSU have jointly supported teacher recruitment, preparation, and professional development for new and experienced educators. Together, they have articulated a clear vision about what effective urban teachers know and are able to do. In 2004, Montclair State and Newark Public Schools launched a new model of partnership to link teacher preparation, teacher development, and teacher leadership. This new collaboration, called the Partnership for Instructional Excellence and Quality (PIE-Q), led to the development of the residency. The aim and goals were and continue to be effecting interdependence in the recruitment, preparation, retention, and professional development of urban educators so that renewal of the schools and teacher education occurs simultaneously. As mentioned, NMUTR is a small program, and intentionally designed to be that way. The smaller cohorts have enabled the faculty to work closely with candidates and address their individual needs as they mentor the residents to become agents of change and renewal in the urban schools where they eventually teach.

NMUTR residents go through a slightly different training program depending on their subject area specialization. MSU faculty and NPS educators co-designed the NMUTR curriculum, which includes a summer community internship to acquaint candidates with the neighborhoods and people of Newark. NPS maintains a commitment to hire graduates from MSU, with an explicit commitment to hire graduates of the NMUTR program.

The early childhood special education strand is a 15-month residency that begins in April. The curriculum includes courses on learning and development of children with and without disabilities as well as observation and assessment of young children with disabilities. Residents spend ten months in a classroom with an expert mentor teacher in grades pre-k to third. The classroom instruction and observations are closely linked to coursework on working in special education and early childhood settings. Candidates who complete this program are eligible to receive two certifications: Early Childhood (P-3) and Special Education.

The secondary education track is a 12-month residency that begins in June. Residents work with experienced mentor teachers with expertise in science or mathematics and tightly linked to STEM-focused coursework. Residents slowly take on the various components of managing the classroom including lesson design, instruction, grading, classroom management, and evaluating assessment data. Residents who complete the secondary education track receive a teacher certification in secondary math or science.

CASE STUDY

Both residency strands are embedded in the schools with carefully scaffolded clinical experiences. Each resident is paired with a master teacher mentor with whom they co-plan, co-teach, and co-assess pre-k through 12 student learning. Mentors work painstakingly to help residents learn the fundamentals of teaching and reflection on practice. Residents engage in educational “rounds,” during which they observe master teachers together and discuss exceptional teaching strategies and techniques. Clinical specialists from the university conduct regular observations and coach individual candidates in their teaching. The faculty meet biweekly with the residents to help them interpret what they are learning in their classroom placements and to support their efforts to apply theory to practice.

After completing the residency program, NMUTR participants receive three years of induction support, which includes individual coaching and professional development. Similar to a medical residency in a hospital, residents:

- Receive weekly guidance from a mentor teacher, who is also prepared by Montclair State;
- Work with an induction coach, hired by Montclair State;
- Meet regularly with their peers for professional development in mutually agreed-upon topics;
- Are supported by a principal who works with the residency staff to provide the right environment for teacher success in the school.

These four aspects of the induction program are the basis of residents’ success in the classroom and their longevity in the school system. Induction not only benefits the new teachers of record, but also acts as an opportunity for mentor teachers and school leaders to grow. Mentor teachers gain leadership experience and skills by helping develop and prepare new teachers.

Financial Model

Currently, NMUTR is funded by a Teacher Quality Partnership (TQP) grant, administered by the U.S. Department of Education. As part of the grant conditions, NMUTR must match TQP funds 100 percent, which it does with in-kind donations, private funding from other grants, and district and university dollars.

NMUTR’s greatest expenses are resident tuition subsidies, staff salaries, and resident and mentor teacher stipends. Montclair State University waives a portion of the \$30,000 in tuition it normally charges. TQP and match dollars cover faculty summer salaries, staff salaries, and two-thirds of the resident stipend. NPS pays for the mentor teacher stipend and the remaining one-third of the resident stipend.

CASE STUDY

TQP grants are awarded in five-year cycles, and NMUTR's funding ends in 2019. At this time, there are no plans to increase the NPS contribution or ask residents to pay more tuition. As the TQP grant winds down, faculty has been focused on sustaining best practices from the residency and building them into the larger teacher preparation program. For example, MSU and NPS hope to continue their close working relationship between faculty and mentor teachers. Finally, the university will continue offering induction support and retain an induction coordinator as a member of the team. Without additional funding, however, it's unclear if the residency program will continue to exist as it currently does.

State Policy Landscape

In late 2015, the New Jersey State Board of Education adopted legislation that requires teacher preparation programs to increase their candidate entry requirements and include a "rich clinical experience." Previously, the state did not require a minimum number of clinical preparation hours for traditional programs. Now, candidates who go through a traditional pathway must complete 50 hours of clinical experience, fieldwork that occurs prior to student teaching, prior to clinical practice, or student teaching in the field.⁵⁰ And the requirements for candidates who complete alternative route programs increased, from 24 hours of pre-professional experience and 200 hours of clinical practice, to 50 hours of pre-professional clinical experience and at least 350 hours of clinical practice.⁵¹

Overcoming Barriers To Expansion

As the federal funding for NMUTR is only guaranteed through 2019, the residency program is primarily concerned with sustainable funding in the post-TQP years. The New Jersey state policy landscape is supportive of rich clinical experiences as part of teacher preparation, but additional funding has not accompanied these requirements. NMUTR will continue practicing the rich elements of the residency in its larger programs. For example, faculty have already begun establishing senior year cohorts who are mentored by NMUTR graduates in Newark Public Schools. Additionally, MSU and NPS will continue seeking funding to support highly talented candidates who are not able to afford tuition.

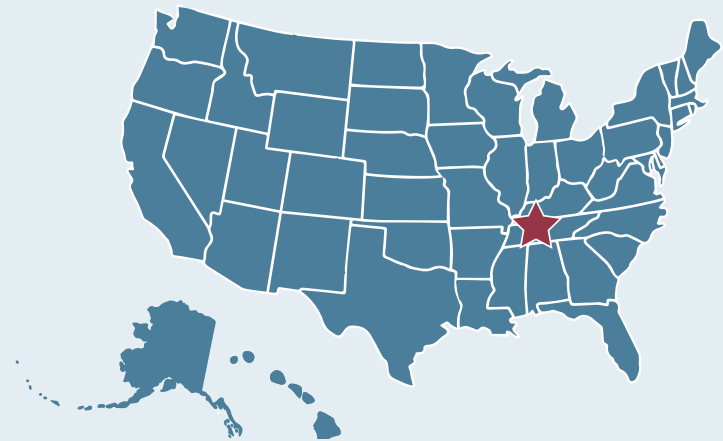
NMUTR has been intentional in integrating best practices of the residency program into the partnering schools in the event that NMUTR does not acquire full funding to maintain the current scale of the program. Some of the best practices include a district focus on hiring teacher candidates from MSU, maintaining close university faculty and mentor teacher relationships, developing structures for robust student teaching experiences, and retaining an induction coordinator.

Nashville Teacher Residency

Location: Nashville, TN

Total number of program completers: 32

Years in operation: 1



Overview

The Nashville Teacher Residency (NTR) was launched in 2016. Its mission is to develop diverse cohorts of new teachers who come from Nashville communities. Residents spend the first year of the program developing their skills in K-12 classrooms, first observing, followed by assistant teaching, then eventually co-teaching under a mentor teacher. At the same time, residents take two semesters of coursework, including an intensive first month on instructional methods and classroom management.

After the first year, residents earn their Tennessee Initial Teaching License and continue working as full-time teachers, often in their placement school. During the second year, residents can also choose to pursue a Master of Arts in Teaching from Relay Graduate School of Education or Lipscomb University.

In 2017, NTR placed residents in eight partner schools, all of which were charter schools serving primarily low-income students.

Target Candidates

NTR recruits recent college graduates with majors in subjects other than education and trains them to become middle and high school math and English teachers. It seeks to recruit teacher candidates who reflect the racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic diversity of the Metro Nashville region. Specifically, NTR recruits teacher candidates of color, first-generation college graduates, and alumni of Metro Nashville Public Schools.

CASE STUDY

NTR hopes to have a cohort comprising 75 percent residents of color, represented by African Americans, Latinos, Kurds, and recent immigrant candidates to match the racial diversity of Metro Nashville Public Schools.⁵² The current NTR cohort comprises 75 percent students of color but is predominantly made up of African Americans and does not represent the full diversity of Metro Nashville Public Schools. Thirty percent of the residents identify as first-generation college graduates.

Program Design

Teacher residents begin with an eight-week internship program over the summer. During the internship, candidates spend four days a week in schools and complete night and weekend courses in instructional methods and culturally responsive teaching. The internship serves as a type of extended audition: The purpose is to expose candidates to the teaching field and help them determine their interest in a teaching career prior to committing to a full year of residency, and give NTR an opportunity to decide if the candidate is a fit for the program.

After candidates complete their eight-week internship, residents formally begin the program. They meet their mentor teachers, get to know the NTR staff and their cohort, and begin working in their assigned partner school. During the first month of course work, residents focus on instructional methods, classroom management, and relationship building. Every week, residents attend a subject methods class in English or math, or take community and culture classes.

As the residents progress through their first semester, they work closely with their mentor teachers as teaching assistants. Residents tutor students, lead small groups, and help with planning and grading. In the spring, residents take over teaching duties with their mentor teacher as their coach.

NTR staff work closely with the partner schools. Staff spend a significant amount of time at the schools to maintain a constant line of communication. NTR and its partner schools collaborate to select mentor teachers; partner schools recommend teachers and NTR staff interview mentor teacher candidates to determine their qualifications. Staff also observe weekly coaching meetings between mentor teachers and residents to help mentor teachers improve their coaching. This relationship has value for both partners: NTR can better support residents, and mentor teachers at partner schools gain valuable leadership development experience.

After completing a full academic year in the teacher residency, residents earn a Tennessee Initial Teaching License. In 2016, 100 percent of residents who completed the program were hired full-time; approximately 75 percent of residents were hired by the partner schools they worked with during the year, and the remaining 25 percent were hired by other partner schools.

CASE STUDY

Residents who continue on as full-time teachers in their second year receive coaching and support from NTR. During that time, residents continue to take classes from NTR to build their skills in management, community and culture, instructional methods, and subject methods. Residents who decide to pursue a Master of Arts in Teaching with a partner institution take graduate courses during the second year.

Financial Model

NTR's two primary sources of revenue are student tuition and a \$7,000 placement fee paid by the partner schools when they hire a resident graduate of the program. The primary expense for NTR is staff salaries.

Residents are required to pay \$5,000 in tuition during their second semester of full-time teaching. If the resident does not complete the program or does not get hired by a partner school, they will not have to pay that tuition. NTR also receives philanthropic gifts to fund program expenses and is currently applying for an AmeriCorps grant in order to provide supplementary stipends for teacher residents.

Currently, the cost to run the program per resident is approximately \$20,000 per year, but this expense is expected to decrease to \$12,000 annually when the model goes to scale. NTR hopes to reach scale at 75 residents.

NTR does not directly provide its residents with a salary or stipend; rather, partner schools in which residents are placed pay residents as full-time employees with a minimum resident salary requirement of \$25,000. In order to fund residents, partner schools have reallocated paraprofessional and teaching assistant budget line items to teacher residents.

After completion of their residency year, residents are eligible to enroll in a master's program independent of NTR coursework. The cost for the second year of graduate study at Relay is approximately \$9,000. The cost for the one remaining year of graduate study at Lipscomb University is approximately \$12,000. Students are eligible for federal financial aid to offset this cost.

State Policy Landscape

NTR encountered several policy barriers when it initially applied to become an approved educator preparation program through the Tennessee Department of Education. Under state approval policies, for example, institutions of higher education had to present a statement to demonstrate financial security such as an endowment. Endowments are generally only accessible to institutions of higher education. As NTR did not have access to an endowment, the state and NTR worked collaboratively to determine an alternative proof of financial stability. Ultimately, NTR was able to present a surety bond to demonstrate financial stability.

CASE STUDY

The Tennessee Department of Education also has a statute to support the development of residency programs that support high-need districts over the next three years. An award recipient could receive up to \$1 million in support of the development of a residency program.⁵³ NTR has not accessed this funding, however, because the grant was announced after NTR was founded.

Overcoming Barriers To Expansion

In addition to the approval barriers mentioned above, NTR has faced challenges recruiting a cohort of residents that is truly reflective of Metro Nashville. While the NTR cohort consists of 75 percent teacher candidates of color, the majority of candidates are African-American; Metro Nashville Public Schools, by way of comparison, has a wider range of ethnicities. In order to diversify its teacher resident pipeline, NTR has been working with various community-based organizations that focus on Latino, Asian, and Kurdish communities. These community organizations are able to recruit and disseminate information about the NTR program through channels trusted by the communities it seeks to serve. Furthermore, students of teacher residents help recruit family members to apply for the residency program.

As a next step to scaling up the teacher residents and students it serves, NTR hopes to partner with Metro Nashville Public Schools. During the start-up phase of NTR, Metro Nashville Public Schools was undergoing a series of changes and was not receptive to adopting a residency model as part of its pipeline strategy. NTR has worked to build a relationship with Metro Nashville Public Schools and has since become an official partner, a necessary step to recruiting and training teachers in the public school district.

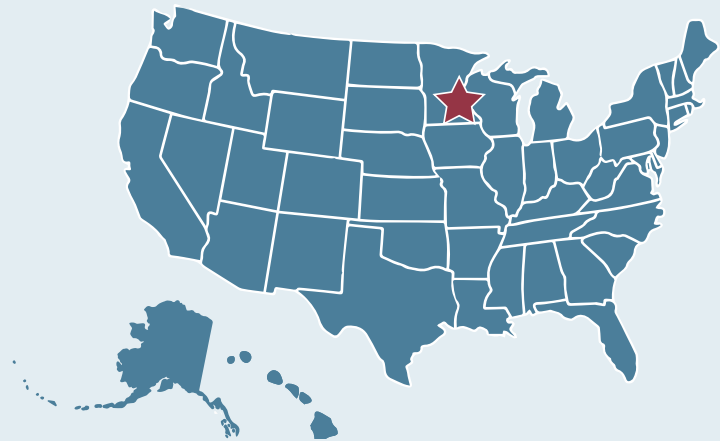
CASE STUDY

Concordia University-Saint Paul's Southeast Asian Teachers Licensure Program

Location: St. Paul, MN

Total number of program
completers: 600+

Years in operation: 20



Overview

The Southeast Asian Teachers (SEAT) teacher preparation and accelerated bachelor's degree program focuses on better serving students from underrepresented backgrounds in the St. Paul-Minneapolis region. The program recruits and trains candidates from underrepresented backgrounds who are currently employed as non-licensed staff in a Minnesota school district. Graduates of the program receive either a bachelor's degree and/or teacher licensure, depending on their current level of educational attainment.

SEAT has many components typical of a residency: Candidates are in the classroom full-time, complete certification coursework that is related to their experience in the field, and receive mentorship throughout the program. SEAT also meets a need that residency programs often strive to address: The program focuses on recruiting a diverse corps of teachers based on the needs of its partner districts.

At the same time, SEAT doesn't seamlessly fit into the typical residency model. Most residencies are master's-level programs that pull candidates from a range of backgrounds. SEAT, on the other hand, specifically recruits non-licensed personnel who are already working full-time in schools. Similarly, residency programs often replace the traditional semester-long student teaching experience with a yearlong, full-time classroom placement. SEAT combines the traditional and the resident experiences: Candidates may stay in their current school-based position as part of their training, but also complete a separate student teaching semester. In addition, SEAT candidates are mentored not only by school site cooperating teachers, but also by university supervising personnel and program staff.

CASE STUDY

Taken together, SEAT may be better categorized as a “grow your own” preparation program — a type of program often led by school districts that recruits candidates who are either already working in or graduated from the district. But SEAT’s model and practices provide lessons for other classroom-based preparation programs, including residencies.

Target Candidates

Initially, as the name suggests, SEAT exclusively recruited Southeast Asian candidates to work in St. Paul and Minneapolis Public Schools. Historically, between 6 and 13 percent of students in these districts were of Southeast Asian descent, compared to less than 3 percent of the teaching force.⁵⁴ Parents and leaders in the Hmong-American community advocated for program funding focused on the development of teachers of Hmong descent.

In recent years, however, the demographics have changed: Southeast Asian students make up less than 6 percent of all students of color in these districts.⁵⁵ In response, SEAT revised its recruitment strategies to reflect these changes. Only 32 percent of the most recent cohort were of Southeast Asian descent (primarily Hmong), while the majority of SEAT candidates came from South American and African countries such as Cameroon, Colombia, Liberia, Nigeria, Paraguay, Peru, and Somalia.

Additionally, SEAT only recruits candidates who are already employed as non-licensed staff in St. Paul and Minneapolis Public Schools. Often, this means SEAT candidates work as paraprofessionals, home-school liaisons, or teaching assistants. SEAT focuses on this group for several reasons: Program leadership believes that, by working in schools, candidates signal their commitment to K–12 students, their dispositions to be successful as a teacher, and their willingness to stay in the Twin Cities as a teacher.

Program Design

SEAT candidates work in non-licensed, school-based roles during the day and complete their licensure requirements during their off-hours. There are three components to SEAT’s licensure requirements: coursework, weekly seminars, and student teaching. After successfully completing these requirements, SEAT graduates receive a bachelor’s degree and/or teaching licensure depending on prior education credentials.

The content and duration of the SEAT program varies based on the candidate: Candidates take as long as they need to complete the courses required for licensure, and the number and type of courses depends on their educational attainment and past experience. Most candidates must complete 24 credits of pedagogical and content coursework, including courses focused on culturally responsive teaching and working with students who speak English as a second language, and are able to do so over 18 months. Teacher candidates’ academic backgrounds, however, range from associate’s degrees to

CASE STUDY

advanced degrees from their countries of origin, so some candidates enter the program with eligible transfer credits, while others need additional support and time. The program's content and timeline is individualized to meet candidates' specific needs.

SEAT candidates also complete 15 weeks of student teaching. The coursework and student teaching experience are tightly linked to the program's focus on serving students from underrepresented backgrounds. During student teaching, the teaching candidates must fulfill Human Relations hours, in which teacher candidates work with traditionally underserved groups of students including bilingual and English language learners, students from low socioeconomic backgrounds, students with special education needs, and students who are different races than the teacher candidate.

In addition to coursework and student teaching, SEAT candidates attend a mandatory weekly seminar to help with the transition from non-licensed staff to teachers of record who can effectively serve students from underrepresented backgrounds. The seminars explore Minnesota and U.S. racial history, connect teachers' personal stories to their current profession, and present best practices in teaching from fellow cohort members. At these seminars, SEAT teacher candidates receive guidance from licensed teachers, principals, and human resources personnel.

At the end of the program, SEAT provides newly licensed teachers with job placement and induction support. SEAT works with partner schools in St. Paul and Minneapolis to connect teachers to open positions. And SEAT staff provide face-to-face and virtual mentoring sessions for the first three years of their teaching career.

Financial Model

For the first ten years of its operation, SEAT relied on funding from partner school districts and the Minnesota Collaborative Urban Educator (CUE) program to cover the cost of the program. CUE is a statewide initiative designed to increase and improve the training of teacher candidates from underrepresented populations, particularly teachers of color. With CUE and district funding combined, SEAT was able to cover the entire cost of tuition and textbooks for the 40 candidates it prepared every year.

After the economic recession, however, CUE funding and partner district contributions dropped dramatically, forcing SEAT to cut its annual enrollment to 23 students. CUE funding has incrementally increased since 2008, allowing SEAT to slowly increase its number of candidates throughout the years.

Today, through CUE funding SEAT covers half of the cost of tuition for its candidates and the full cost of textbooks and support services. Candidates pay for the remaining half of tuition through other sources, including grants and loans.

CASE STUDY

State Policy Landscape

Minnesota has explicit legislation that allows for teacher residency programs in the state. Due to its unique structure, the SEAT program does not explicitly fit the criteria of teacher residency programs as defined by the state, so it is governed by the policies governing traditional preparation programs.

Minnesota legislation requires residency programs to be approved by the Professional Educator Licensing and Standards Board. School districts with a state-approved teaching residency plan may hire graduates of approved Minnesota teacher preparation programs as teaching residents. The state imposes a number of restrictions that prevent residencies from expanding. Residencies, for example, are only approved by the state to operate for one year and are not guaranteed an extension; statewide, there are only allowed to be a maximum of 600 teacher residents in a year; and the state allows a ratio of only one teaching resident for every eight full-time licensed teachers.

Overcoming Barriers To Expansion

Because SEAT focuses on teachers from underrepresented backgrounds, specifically recent immigrants, nearly all of SEAT candidates face language barriers. As a result, historically candidates have had difficulty passing state-required licensure exams, such as the MTLE/NES or Praxis exams. To address this barrier, SEAT partnered with faculty on specific subjects and the International Center at Concordia University to support candidates in reading and writing in English.

Endnotes

- 1 A 2016 Bellwether publication written by the author estimates that each teacher candidate spends approximately \$24,000 and 1,500 hours meeting the requirements to enter the classroom. For more, see Chad Aldeman and Ashley LiBetti Mitchel, “No Guarantees: Is It Possible to Ensure Teachers Are Ready on Day One?”, Bellwether Education Partners, February 2016.
- 2 See, for example: Jill Constantine et al., “An Evaluation of Teachers Trained Through Different Routes to Certification, Final Report (NCEE 2009-4043),” National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Institute of Education Sciences, US Department of Education, 2009, 35, <https://ies.ed.gov/ncee/pubs/20094043/pdf/20094043.pdf>; Aldeman and LiBetti Mitchel, “No Guarantees: Is It Possible to Ensure Teachers Are Ready on Day One?”
- 3 US Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, “Highest Degree Earned, Years of Full-time Teaching Experience, and Average Class Size for Teachers in Public Elementary and Secondary Schools, by State: 2011-12,” Table 209.30, https://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d13/tables/dt13_209.30.asp.
- 4 Melissa Steel King, Leslie Kan, and Chad Aldeman, “Illinois Educator Workforce: Changes from 2002-2012,” Bellwether Education Partners, July 2016, https://bellwethereducation.org/sites/default/files/Bellwether_IL%20Educator%20Workforce_16_0702_0.pdf.
- 5 James Cowan et al., “Missing Elements in the Discussion of Teacher Shortages,” American Institutes for Research, 2016, <https://caldercenter.org/sites/default/files/Teacher%20Shortage%20Explainer%20%2812-15-16%29.pdf>.
- 6 US Department of Education, Office of Planning, Evaluation, and Policy Development, “The State of Racial Diversity in the Educator Workforce,” July 2016, <https://www2.ed.gov/rschstat/eval/highered/racial-diversity/state-racial-diversity-workforce.pdf>.
- 7 US Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), “State Nonfiscal Survey of Public Elementary and Secondary Education,” 1995-96 through 2011-12; and National Elementary and Secondary Enrollment Projection Model, 1972 through 2023. Projected for 2017. https://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d13/tables/dt13_203.50.asp.
- 8 Douglas N. Harris and Tim R. Sass, “Teacher Training, Teacher Quality, and Student Achievement,” *Journal of Public Economics* 95, no. 7 (2011): 798-812.
- 9 Jill Constantine et al., “An Evaluation of Teachers Trained Through Different Routes to Certification, Final Report (NCEE 2009-4043),” National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Institute of Education Sciences, US Department of Education, 2009, 67, <https://ies.ed.gov/ncee/pubs/20094043/pdf/20094043.pdf>.
- 10 For a review of these efforts, see: Ashley LiBetti Mitchel and Chad Aldeman, “Peering Around the Corner: Analyzing State Efforts to Link Teachers to the Programs That Prepared Them,” February 2016.
- 11 Matthew M. Chingos and Paul E. Peterson, “It’s Easier to Pick a Good Teacher than to Train One: Familiar and New Results on the Correlates of Teacher Effectiveness,” *Economics of Education Review* 30, no. 3 (2011): 449-465, <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0272775710001755>.
- 12 Constantine et al., “An Evaluation of Teachers Trained Through Different Routes to Certification, Final Report (NCEE 2009-4043),” xix, <https://ies.ed.gov/ncee/pubs/20094043/pdf/20094043.pdf>.
- 13 See, for example, Ronald F. Ferguson and Helen F. Ladd, “How and Why Money Matters: An Analysis of Alabama Schools,” in Helen F. Ladd, ed., *Holding Schools Accountable* (Washington, DC: The Brookings Institution, 1996); Rob Greenwald, Larry V. Hedges, and Richard D. Laine, “The Effect of School Resources on Student Achievement,” *Review of Educational Research* 66, no. 3 (1996): 361-396; Thomas J. Kane, Jonah E. Rockoff, and Douglas O. Staiger, “What Does Certification Tell Us About Teacher Effectiveness? Evidence from New York City,” *Economics of Education Review* 27, no. 6 (2008): 615-631.
- 14 Byron Gerald Auguste, Paul Kihn, and Matthew Miller, “Closing the Talent Gap: Attracting and Retaining Top-third Graduates to Careers in Teaching: An International and Market Research-based Perspective,” McKinsey and Company, 2010.
- 15 See, for example, TeachStrong, “TeachStrong Policy Proposal: Teacher Preparation,” <https://teachstrong.org/principle-2/>.

- 16 Douglas N. Harris and Tim R. Sass, "Teacher Training, Teacher Quality, and Student Achievement," *Journal of Public Economics* 95, nos. 7–8 (August 2011): 798–812; Matthew M. Chingos and Paul E. Peterson, "It's Easier to Pick a Good Teacher than to Train One: Familiar and New Results on the Correlates of Teacher Effectiveness" (paper prepared for a symposium, Harvard Kennedy School, 2010), http://www.hks.harvard.edu/pepg/PDF/Papers/2010-22_PEPG_Chingos_Peterson.pdf.
- 17 Jennifer L. Steele et al., "The Distribution and Mobility of Effective Teachers: Evidence from a Large, Urban School District," *Economics of Education Review* 48 (October 2015): 86–101.
- 18 See, for example, Richard V. Reeves and Dimitrios Halikias, "Race Gaps in SAT Scores Highlight Inequality and Hinder Upward Mobility," Brookings, February 1, 2017, <https://www.brookings.edu/research/race-gaps-in-sat-scores-highlight-inequality-and-hinder-upward-mobility/>; Michael T. Nettles et al., "Performance and Passing Rate Differences of African American and White Prospective Teachers on Praxis Examinations," Educational Testing Service, March 2011, <https://www.ets.org/Media/Research/pdf/RR-11-08.pdf>.
- 19 See, for example, Seth Gershenson, Stephen B. Holt, and Nicholas Papageorge, "Who Believes in Me? The Effect of Student-Teacher Demographic Match on Teacher Expectations," *Economics of Education Review* 52 (2016): 209–224, http://research.upjohn.org/up_workingpapers/231/;
Katherine W. Phillips, "How Diversity Makes Us Smarter," *Scientific American*, October 1, 2014, <http://www.scientificamerican.com/article/how-diversity-makes-us-smarter/>;
Charles T. Clotfelter, Helen F. Ladd, and Jacob L. Vigdor, "How and Why Do Teacher Credentials Matter for Student Achievement?," NBER Working Paper no. 12828, January 2007, <http://www.nber.org/papers/w12828.pdf>;
Seth Gershenson et al., "The Long-run Impacts of Same-race Teachers," IZA Institute of Labor Economics, Discussion Paper no. 10630, March 2017, <http://ftp.iza.org/dp10630.pdf>.
- 20 National Center on Teacher Residencies, "About: The Residency Model," <https://nctresidencies.org/about/residency-model-teacher-mentor-programs/>.
- 21 The Sustainable Funding Project, "For the Public Good: Quality Preparation for Every Teacher" (New York, NY: Bank Street College of Education, June 2016).
- 22 Roneeta Guha, Maria E. Hyler, and Linda Darling-Hammond, "The Teacher Residency: An Innovative Model for Preparing Teachers," Learning Policy Institute, September 2016, https://learningpolicyinstitute.org/sites/default/files/product-files/Teacher_Residency_Innovative_Model_Preparing_Teachers_REPORT.pdf.
- 23 Aldeman and LiBetti Mitchel, "No Guarantees: Is It Possible to Ensure Teachers Are Ready on Day One?"
- 24 National Center for Teacher Residencies, "2015 Network Impact Overview," February 2016, <https://nctresidencies.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/04/NCTR-2015-Network-Impact-Overview.pdf>.
- 25 US Department of Education, "The State of Racial Diversity in the Educator Workforce," 2016, <https://www2.ed.gov/rschstat/eval/highered/racial-diversity/state-racial-diversity-workforce.pdf>.
- 26 Jonathan Osler, "Practicing 'Soul Care' in the Recruitment of Teachers of Color," San Francisco Teacher Residency, 2016.
- 27 Boston Public Schools, "Boston Public Schools at a Glance," December 2016, https://www.bostonpublicschools.org/cms/lib/MA01906464/Centricity/Domain/238/BPS%20at%20a%20Glance%202016-17_online.pdf.
- 28 Education First, "Ensuring High-Quality Teacher Talent," 2016, <https://education-first.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/01/Ensuring-High-Quality-Teacher-Talent.pdf>.
- 29 John P. Papay et al., "Does an Urban Teacher Residency Increase Student Achievement? Early Evidence From Boston," *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis* 34, no. 4 (2012): 413–434.
- 30 Linda Perlstein, "Building Effective Teacher Residencies," Urban Teacher Residency United, November 2014, <https://www.nctresidencies.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/09/Executive-Summary.pdf>.
- 31 Kimberley Raue and Lucinda Gray, "Career Paths of Beginning Public School Teachers: Results from the First through Fifth Waves of the 2007-08 Beginning Teacher Longitudinal Study," *Stats in Brief*, National Center for Education Statistics, September 2015, <https://nces.ed.gov/pubs2015/2015196.pdf>.

- 32 Barnett Berry et al., "Creating and Sustaining Urban Teacher Residencies," The Aspen Institute and the Center for Teaching Quality, August 2008, <https://www.aspeninstitute.org/publications/creating-sustaining-urban-teacher-residencies-new-way-recruit-prepare-retain-effective/>; Kay Sloan et al., "Measures of Success," New Visions/Hunter College Urban Teacher Residency, summative report, March 2015, https://b3cdn.net/hvps/d1725192f4cb60167f_qsm6vz3qx.pdf.
- 33 San Francisco Teacher Residency, "SFTR Impact Analysis, 2010-2015," <https://www.dropbox.com/s/nc86nyvll6a3ly7/SFTR%20Development%20Evaluation%20Study%20+.pdf?dl=0>.
- 34 Ryan Eisner et al., "Lessons from AIR's Ongoing Evaluation of the Denver Teacher Residency," American Institutes for Research, 2017, <https://www.chalkbeat.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/06/Lessons-from-DTR.pdf>.
- 35 Berry et al., "Creating and Sustaining Urban Teacher Residencies," <https://www.aspeninstitute.org/publications/creating-sustaining-urban-teacher-residencies-new-way-recruit-prepare-retain-effective/>.
Bellwether analysis based on Higher Learning Commission dues and fees schedule. Annual dues based on 100-student program. Higher Learning Commission, "Dues and Fees Schedule: Fiscal Year 2017-2018," <https://www.hlcommission.org/Accreditation/dues-and-fees-schedule.html>.
Bellwether analysis based on Western Association of Schools and Colleges dues and fees schedule. Fees assume no additional visits or extensions were required. Annual dues based on program with fewer than 100 students. WASC Senior College and University Commission, "Dues and Fees Schedule 2017-2018," <https://www.wscuc.org/>
- 36 See, for example: Sarah Gonser, "This May Be the Best Way to Train Teachers, But Can We Afford It?," Huffington Post, updated May 17, 2016, https://www.huffingtonpost.com/entry/seattle-teacher-residency_us_572ba231e4b0bc9cb0461eba; Stephen Sawchuk, "Teacher Residencies Make Strides, Encounter Obstacles," *EdWeek*, July 8, 2011, https://www.edweek.org/ew/articles/2011/07/08/36residency_ep.h30.html; Matt Barnum, "Yearlong Residencies for Teachers Are the Hot New Thing in Teacher Prep. But Do They Work?," Chalkbeat, June 28, 2017, <https://www.chalkbeat.org/posts/us/2017/06/28/year-long-residencies-for-teachers-are-the-hot-new-thing-in-teacher-prep-but-do-they-work/>.
- 37 Bellwether analysis based on Higher Learning Commission dues and fees schedule. Annual dues based on 100-student program. Higher Learning Commission, "Dues and Fees Schedule: Fiscal Year 2017-2018," <https://www.hlcommission.org/Accreditation/dues-and-fees-schedule.html>.
- 38 Bellwether analysis based on Western Association of Schools and Colleges dues and fees schedule. Fees assume no additional visits or extensions were required. Annual dues based on program with fewer than 100 students. WASC Senior College and University Commission, "Dues and Fees Schedule 2017-2018," <https://www.wscuc.org/content/dues-and-fees-schedule-2017-2018>.
- 39 More information on High Tech High's accreditation process, including letters from the WASC Commission and team reports, is available here: High Tech High Graduate School of Education, "Statement of Accreditation Status," <https://www.wscuc.org/institutions/high-tech-high-graduate-school-education>. For a review of the challenges faced by High Tech High and other residency programs in their efforts to secure accreditation, see Thomas Arnett, "Startup Teacher Education: A Fresh Take on Teacher Credentialing," Clayton Christensen Institute for Disruptive Innovation, 2015, <https://www.christenseninstitute.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/06/Startup-Teacher-Education.pdf>.
- 40 Aldeman and LiBetti Mitchel, "No Guarantees: Is It Possible to Ensure Teachers Are Ready on Day One?"
- 41 See, for example, Lisette Partelow and Annette Konoske-Graf, "Starting Strong: How to Improve Teachers' Entry Into the Profession," Center for American Progress, January 25, 2017, <https://www.americanprogress.org/issues/education-k-12/reports/2017/01/25/295885/starting-strong/>; Melissa Tooley and Laura Bornfreund, "Time to Improve: How Federal Policy Can Promote Better Prepared Teachers and School Leaders," policy brief, New America, March 2014, <https://s3.amazonaws.com/www.newamerica.org/downloads/TimeToImprove-TooleyBornfreund-Final.pdf>; David Bergeron and Michael Dannenberg, "New Colleges of Education: A Path for Going from Concept to Reality," *Education Reform Now*, September 2017, <https://edreformnow.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/09/ERN-New-Teacher-Prep-Final.pdf>.

- 42 The US Department of Education approves accrediting agencies (accreditors) to oversee and ensure the quality of postsecondary training programs and institutions of higher education. Accreditors, which are private educational associations, develop quality standards and assess programs on their ability to meet those standards. If an accreditor determines that the program meets its standards, the program is then “accredited.” There are two basic types of accreditation: institutional and specialized. Most colleges and universities have institutional accreditation. Specialized accreditation may apply to units within an institution, such as a department or discipline, or to free-standing professional or vocational postsecondary institutions. A residency-specific specialized accrediting agency would not be the first educational training specialized accreditation pathway. There is a specialized accrediting agency for programs that prepare Montessori teachers. The accreditor, the Montessori Accreditation Council for Teacher Education, designed an accountability process specific to Montessori training programs. US Department of Education, “Financial Aid for Postsecondary Students: Overview of Accreditation in the United States,” <https://www2.ed.gov/admins/finaid/accred/accreditation.html#Overview>; US Department of Education, “Financial Aid for Postsecondary Students: Specialized Accrediting Agencies,” https://www2.ed.gov/admins/finaid/accred/accreditation_pg7.html; US Department of Education, “Accreditor Federal Recognition Process,” <https://www2.ed.gov/admins/finaid/accred/accreditor-federal-recognition-process-steps.pdf>.
- 43 For a more thorough discussion of the limitations of outcomes-based accountability for preparation programs, see Chad Aldeman and Ashley LiBetti Mitchel, “No Guarantees: Is It Possible to Ensure Teachers Are Ready on Day One?” Bellwether Education Partners, February 2016.
- 44 For more on the relationship between preparation program standards, research, and their effect on teacher quality, see Aldeman and LiBetti Mitchel, “No Guarantees: Is It Possible to Ensure Teachers Are Ready on Day One?”
- 45 For a thorough discussion of the issues with existing research, see Ashley LiBetti Mitchel and Melissa Steel King, “A New Agenda: Research to Build a Better Teacher Preparation Program,” Bellwether Education Partners, October 2016, https://bellwethereducation.org/sites/default/files/Bellwether_NewAgenda-GPLP_Final-101316.pdf.
- 46 For information on the potential of networked learning communities in other fields, see Ashley LiBetti Mitchel, “Network Early Childhood Education Providers,” in Andrew J. Rotherham and Jennifer O’Neal Schiess, “16 for 2016: 16 Education Policy Ideas for the Next President,” Bellwether Education Partners, September 7, 2016, <https://bellwethereducation.org/publication/16-2016-16-education-policy-ideas-next-president>.
- 47 Brenda Iasevoli, “Trump Signs Bill Scrapping Teacher-Prep Rules,” *Education Week*, March 28, 2017, http://blogs.edweek.org/edweek/teacherbeat/2017/03/trump_signs_bill_scrapping_tea.html.
- 48 Katie Croy and Teri Clark, presenters, “Impact of SB 5 and Related Information on Undergraduate and Blended Teacher Preparation,” Commission on Teacher Credentialing, February 2014.
- 49 Newark Public Schools, “Facts Related to ...,” <http://www.nps.k12.nj.us/strategic-plan/the-next-three-years/facts-related-to/>.
- 50 New Jersey Department of Education, “Changes to Traditional Route/CEAS Educator Preparation Programming Requirements,” November 2015, <http://www.state.nj.us/education/educators/rpr/CEASChanges.pdf>.
- 51 New Jersey Department of Education, “Changes to Alternate Route/CE Educator Preparator Programming Requirements,” November 2015, <http://www.state.nj.us/education/educators/rpr/CEChanges.pdf>.
- 52 Tennessee Department of Education, “State Report Card,” <https://www.tn.gov/education/data/report-card.html>.
- 53 Tennessee Department of Education, “Tennessee Teacher Residency Grants,” https://gallery.mailchimp.com/b28b453ee164f9a2e2b5057e1/files/a3343eeb-3df4-4127-9a0a-2a7b02b9e56d/Tennessee_Residency_Grant_Announcement_8.2.17.pdf?mc_cid=17666eceb5&mc_eid=409c090feb.
- 54 Minneapolis Public Schools, “Summary Statistics KG-12: Racial/Ethnic Breakdown from 1986-2017,” <http://studentaccounting.mpls.k12.mn.us/uploads/historyfall1986-2017final.pdf>.
- 55 Minneapolis Public Schools, “Summary Statistics KG-12: Racial/Ethnic Breakdown from 1986-2017,” <http://studentaccounting.mpls.k12.mn.us/uploads/historyfall1986-2017final.pdf>.

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to thank the many people who shared their time, knowledge, and expertise to make this paper better. We'd also like to thank the Joyce Foundation for funding this work. As always, the conclusions and recommendations of this paper are those of the authors alone.

Finally, the authors would like to acknowledge Marnie Kaplan for sharing her artistic skills to shape the final version of this paper.

About the Authors



Ashley LiBetti

Ashley LiBetti is an associate partner on the Policy and Thought Leadership team at Bellwether Education Partners. She can be reached at ashley.libetti@bellwethereducation.org.



Justin Trinidad

Justin Trinidad is an analyst on the Policy and Thought Leadership team at Bellwether Education Partners. He can be reached at justin.trinidad@bellwethereducation.org.



About Bellwether Education Partners

Bellwether Education Partners is a national nonprofit focused on dramatically changing education and life outcomes for underserved children. We do this by helping education organizations accelerate their impact and by working to improve policy and practice.

Bellwether envisions a world in which race, ethnicity, and income no longer predict opportunities for students, and the American education system affords all individuals the ability to determine their own path and lead a productive and fulfilling life.

© 2018 Bellwether Education Partners



This report carries a Creative Commons license, which permits noncommercial re-use of content when proper attribution is provided. This means you are free to copy, display and distribute this work, or include content from this report in derivative works, under the following conditions:



Attribution. You must clearly attribute the work to Bellwether Education Partners, and provide a link back to the publication at <http://bellwethereducation.org/>.



Noncommercial. You may not use this work for commercial purposes without explicit prior permission from Bellwether Education Partners.



Share Alike. If you alter, transform, or build upon this work, you may distribute the resulting work only under a license identical to this one.

For the full legal code of this Creative Commons license, please visit www.creativecommons.org. If you have any questions about citing or reusing Bellwether Education Partners content, please contact us.