REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING DEPARTMENT

RECIPROCAL PEER MENTORING IN PRE-SERVICE ELT PRACTICUM IN TERMS OF TEACHING CONCERNS AND TEACHER EFFICACY BELIEFS

Seyit Ahmet ÇAPAN

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

ADANA / 2017

REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING DEPARTMENT

RECIPROCAL PEER MENTORING IN PRE-SERVICE ELT PRACTICUM IN TERMS OF TEACHING CONCERNS AND TEACHER EFFICACY BELIEFS

Seyit Ahmet ÇAPAN

Supervisor **:** Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hasan BEDİR

Member of Examining Committee: Prof. Dr. Arda ARIKAN

Member of Examining Committee: Prof. Dr. Zühal AKÜNAL OKAN

Member of Examining Committee: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Şehnaz ŞAHİNKARAKAŞ

Member of Examining Committee: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Oğuz KUTLU

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

ADANA / 2017

To the Directorship of the Institute of Social Sciences, Çukurova University

We certify that this thesis is satisfactory for the award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hasan BEDİR

Member of Examining Committee: Prof. Dr. Arda ARIKAN

Member of Examining Committee: Prof. Dr. Zühal AKÜNAL OKAN

Member of Examining Committee: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Şehnaz ŞAHİNKARAKAŞ

Member of Examining Committee: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Oğuz KUTLU

I certify that this dissertation conforms to the formal standards of the Institute of Social Sciences.

20/07/2017

Prof. Dr. H. Mahir FİSUNOĞLU

Director of the Institute

NOTE: The uncited usage of reports, charts, figures, photographs in this thesis, whether original or quoted from other sources, is subject to the Law of Works of Arts and Thought No:5846.

NOT: Bu tezde kullanılan özgün ve başka kaynaktan yapılan bildirişlerin, çizelge, şekil ve fotoğrafların kaynak gösterilmeden kullanımı, 5846 sayılı Fikir ve Sanat Eserleri Kanunu'ndaki hükümlere tabidir.

ETİK BEYANI

Çukurova Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Tez Yazım Kurallarına uygun olarak hazırladığım bu tez çalışmasında;

- Tez içinde sunduğum verileri, bilgileri ve dokümanları akademik ve etik kurallar çerçevesinde elde ettiğimi,
- Tüm bilgi, belge, değerlendirme ve sonuçları bilimsel etik ve ahlak kurallarına uygun olarak sunduğumu,
- Tez çalışmasında yararlandığım eserlerin tümüne uygun atıfta bulunarak kaynak gösterdiğimi,
- Kullanılan verilerde ve ortaya çıkan sonuçlarda herhangi bir değişiklik yapmadığımı,
- Bu tezde sunduğum çalışmanın özgün olduğunu,

bildirir, aksi bir durumda aleyhime doğabilecek tüm hak kayıplarını kabullendiğimi beyan ederim. 20 / 07 / 2017

Seyit Ahmet ÇAPAN

ÖZET

HİZMET ÖNCESİ İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ ÖĞRETMENLİK UYGULAMASINDA ÖĞRETİM KAYGILARI VE ÖĞRETMEN ÖZ YETERLİK İNANÇLARI AÇISINDAN KARŞILIKLI AKRAN DANIŞMANLIĞI

SEYİT AHMET ÇAPAN

Doktora Tezi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı

Danışman: Doç. Dr. Hasan BEDİR

Temmuz 2017, 310 sayfa

Öğretmenlik uygulaması, hizmet öncesi öğretmen eğitiminin önemli ancak genellikle ihmal edilen bir parçasıdır. Hizmet öncesi öğretmenlerinin öğretmenlik uygulaması esnasında karşılaştıkları güçlüklerin ve bu güçlüklerin onların öğretmen olarak ben algılarını nasıl etkilediğinin incelenmesi oldukça önemlidir. Hizmet öncesi öğretmenlerin bu zorlukların negatif etkisini/etkilerini aşması ve kendi mesleki bilgi ve becerilerine olan inançlarını yükseltmek için uygulama öğretmenleri ve danışmanları kapsayan diğer öğretmenlik uygulaması paydaşlarının yapabileciği olası katkıların incelenmesi de aynı şekilde gereklidir. Bu bağlamda, bu çalışmanın amacı hizmet öncesi İngiliz dili eğitimi öğretmenlerinin, öğretim kaygıları ve öğretmen öz yeterlik inançlarını incelemek ve geleneksel danışmanlığa karşılık karşılıklı akran danışmanlığı uygulamasının öğretmenlik uygulaması boyunca etkili öğretmen kimliği gelişimini nasıl etkilediğini araştırmaktır.

Bu amaçla, bu çalışma eşzamanlı karma yöntem dizaynını kullanmıştır. Çalışma özbildirim ölçekleriyle birlikte açık uçlu anket, grup/bireysel görüşme, yansıtıcı günlükler ve ses kayıtları aracılığıyla veri toplamıştır. Çeşitli veri toplama araçlarıyla elde edilen verilerin analiz edilmesi için SPSS Sürüm 23 ve içerik analizi kullanmıştır.

Çalışmanın sonuçları uygulama öncesi ve sonrası öğretim kaygıları ve öğretmenlik öz yeterlik inançları açısından çalışma ve karşılaştırma grupları içinde ve arasında önemli farklılıklar olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu çalışma, geleneksel danışmanlığa karşılık karşılıklı akran danışmanlığı uygulamasında bulunmanın hizmet öncesi İngiliz dili eğitimi öğretmenlerinin farklı türlerdeki öğretim kaygılarını azaltma çabalarını güçlendirirken, öğretmen öz yeterlik inançlarının çeşitli boyutlarındaki inançlarını

yükselttiği sonucuna varmıştır. Ayrıca çalışma, hizmet öncesi öğretmenlerin öğretmenlik uygulamasından sağlayacağı yararları arttırmak amacıyla karşılıklı akran danışmanlığının geleneksel danışmanlık modeline karşı geçerli bir alternatif olabileceğini ortaya koymuştur. Son olarak, bu çalışma halihazırda hizmet öncesi İngiliz dili eğitimi öğretmen eğitimi programlarında kullanılan geleneksel danışmanlık modelinin gözden geçirilmesinin gerekliliğini ortaya koyan çeşitli öneriler sunmuştur.

Anahtar kelimeler: Karşılıklı akran danışmanlığı, öğretim kaygıları, öğretmen öz yeterlik inançları, İngiliz dili eğitimi, öğretmenlik uygulaması.

ABSTRACT

RECIPROCAL PEER MENTORING IN PRE-SERVICE ELT PRACTICUM IN TERMS OF TEACHING CONCERNS AND TEACHER EFFICACY BELIEFS

SEYİT AHMET ÇAPAN

Ph.D. Thesis, English Language Teaching Department
Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hasan BEDİR
July 2017, 310 pages

Practicum is a salient but largely neglected component of pre-service teacher education. It is critical to investigate possible challenges pre-service teachers encounter during practicum and to understand how these challenges affect their perceptions of self as a teacher. It is equally essential to examine possible contributions the other stakeholders of practicum including the cooperating teachers and supervisors can make to help pre-service teachers overcome negative impact(s) of these challenges and promote their confidence in their own professional knowledge and skills. Therefore, the aim of this study was to probe into pre-service ELT teachers' perceived teaching concerns and teacher efficacy beliefs and how implementation of reciprocal peer mentoring practice compared to traditional mentoring influenced their development of an effective teacher identity throughout practicum.

To this end, the present study adopted the concurrent mixed methods design. The study collected data through an open-ended questionnaire, group/individual interviews, reflective journals and audio-records of peer conferences along with self-report scales. The study employed SPSS Version 23 and content analysis in order to analyze the data elicited through various data collection tools.

The results of the study indicated significant differences within and between the study and comparison groups in terms of their teaching concerns and teacher efficacy beliefs prior to and following practicum. The present study concluded that compared to traditional mentoring, engagement in reciprocal mentoring practice reinforced pre-service ELT teachers' struggle for alleviating different types of teaching concerns while it prompted higher efficacy in various dimensions of teacher efficacy beliefs. The study also suggested that reciprocal peer mentoring might be a viable enhancement to the

traditional mentoring model in order to foster benefits pre-service teachers can make from practicum. Finally, the study yielded several implications calling for a reconsideration of the traditional mentoring model currently used in pre-service ELT teacher education programs.

Keywords: Reciprocal peer mentoring, teaching concerns, teacher efficacy beliefs, ELT, practicum.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to express my sincere gratitude my advisor Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hasan BEDİR for his incessant support, assistance and encouragement throughout each and every step of writing this thesis. I owe a lot to him for his guidance and assistance about issues reaching far beyond merely academic ones. It was great relief to know that he was ready to refresh me at any time under any circumstance.

I would also like to thank Prof. Dr. Arda ARIKAN, Prof. Dr. Zühal AKÜNAL OKAN, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Şehnaz ŞAHİNKARAKAŞ and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Oğuz KUTLU for accepting to be a member of the examining committee and providing professional support and guidance to carry out this study.

A special note of thanks would go to Prof. Dr. Hatice SOFU, Assoc. Prof. Dr. John Allen UNGER, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Neşe CABAROĞLU, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Rana YILDIRIM, Assist. Prof. Dr. Gülden İLİN and Assist. Prof. Dr. Safiye İpek KURU GÖNEN for the personal and professional guidance they have provided me all along my Ph.D. process.

I am also grateful to the participant pre-service teachers who voluntarily invested a great amount time and effort to make this study happen.

Finally, my heartfelt thanks would go to my dear colleagues Res. Asst. Dr. Esra ÖRSDEMİR, Res. Asst. Dr. H. Çağlar BAŞOL, Res. Asst. Burcu TURHAN, Res. Asst. Meryem ÖZDEMİR, Res. Asst. Tuğba ŞİMŞEK and Ins. Veysel İŞÇİ for their warm encouragement and unceasing patience.

This thesis has been supported by the Scientific and Technical Research Council of Turkey (TÜBİTAK) within the framework of “2211 Yurt İçi Doktora Burs Programı (National Doctoral Scholarship Program)”.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

ÖZET ..... **iv**

ABSTRACT ..... **vi**

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT ..... **viii**

ABBREVIATIONS ..... **xiii**

LIST OF TABLES ..... **xiv**

LIST OF FIGURES ..... **xv**

LIST OF APPENDICES ..... **xvi**

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction 1

1.2. Background to the Study 1

1.3. Problem Statement 6

1.4. Aim and Research Questions 12

1.5. Significance of the Study 14

1.6. Limitations of the Study 16

1.7. Definitions of Terms 17

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction 19

2.2. Reciprocal Peer Mentoring 19

2.2.1. Models of Peer Mentoring 24

2.2.2. RPM as an Enhancement to TM 25

2.3. Teaching Concerns 27

2.3.1. The Teaching Concerns Model 29

2.3.1.1. The Sequential Concerns Development Hypothesis 32

2.3.2. Contextual and Personal Factors in Teaching Concerns 33

2.3.3. Teaching Concerns in PTE 36
2.3.3.1. Teaching Concerns Development in Practicum 37
2.3.4. Role of Mentoring in Handling Teaching Concerns 39
2.4. Teacher Efficacy Beliefs 41
2.4.1. Teacher Efficacy Beliefs in the SCT 44
2.4.2. Measurement of Teacher Efficacy Beliefs 46
2.4.3. The Integrated Model of Teacher Efficacy Beliefs 49
2.4.3.1. Sources of Teacher Efficacy Beliefs 51
2.4.4. Factors Associated with Teacher Efficacy Beliefs 54
2.4.5. Teacher Efficacy Beliefs in PTE 57

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction 62
3.2. The Research Design 62
3.3. Participants 63
3.4. Data Collection Tools and Procedures 65
3.4.1. Data Collection Tools 65
3.4.1.1. Teacher Concerns Checklist 65
3.4.1.2. Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale 65
3.4.1.3. Reflective Journals 67
3.4.1.4. Open-Ended Concerns Questionnaire 68
3.4.1.5. Group and Individual Interviews 69
3.4.1.6. Audio Records 70
3.4.2. Procedures 71
3.4.2.1. Training on RPM 72
3.5. Data Analysis 73
3.5.1. Round 1: Analysis of Teacher Efficacy Beliefs 76
3.5.2. Round 2: Analysis of Teaching Concerns 78
3.5.3. Round 3: Analysis of Perceptions on Overall Practicum 79

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction 82
4.2. Teacher Efficacy Beliefs Prior to and Following Practicum 82
4.2.1. Efficacy Beliefs of the RPM Group 84
4.2.2. Efficacy Beliefs of the TM Group 88
4.3. Differences between Efficacy Beliefs of the RPM and TM groups 93
4.3.1. Perceptions on Mastery Experiences 95
4.3.2. Perceptions on Vicarious Experiences 98
4.3.3. Perceptions on Social/Verbal Persuasion 102
4.3.4. Perceptions on Physiological and Emotional Arousals 106
4.4. Teaching Concerns Development over the Practicum Process 106
4.4.1. Teaching Concerns in the Context of Turkish ELT Practicum 106
4.4.1.1. Self-Concerns 107
4.4.1.2. Task Concerns 115
4.4.1.3. Impact Concerns 119
4.4.2. Teaching Concerns Prior to and Following Practicum 122
4.4.2.1. Teaching Concerns of the RPM Group 123
4.4.2.2. Teaching Concerns of the TM Group 130
4.5. Differences between Teaching Concerns of the RPM and TM groups 135
4.5.1. Influence of Teaching Practices 137
4.5.2. Influence of Observing the Cooperating Teachers 143
4.5.3. Influence of Conferences with the Cooperating Teachers 149
4.5.4. Influence of Peer Observation 154
4.5.5. Influence of Peer Conference 156
4.6. Perceptions on Overall Practicum Process 161
4.6.1. Teaching Practices 161
4.6.2. Observing the Cooperating Teachers 165
4.6.3. Conferences with the Cooperating Teachers 168
4.6.4. Peer Observation 171
4.6.5. Peer Conference 173

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

5.1. Introduction 182
5.2. Changes in Teacher Efficacy Beliefs 182
5.3. Comparisons between Efficacy Beliefs of the RPM and TM Groups 185
5.3.1. Mastery Experiences 187
5.3.2. Vicarious Experiences 190
5.3.3. Social/Verbal Persuasion 193
5.3.4. Physiological and Emotional Arousals 198
5.4. Changes in Teaching Concerns 199
5.4.1. Self-Concerns throughout Practicum 201
5.4.2. Task Concerns throughout Practicum 208
5.4.3. Impact Concerns throughout Practicum 212
5.5. Comparisons between Teaching Concerns of the RPM and TM Groups 216
5.6. Perceptions on Overall Practicum Process 222
5.6.1. Perceptions on Teaching Practices 223
5.6.2. Perceptions on Observing the Cooperating Teachers 225
5.6.3. Perceptions on Conferences with the Cooperating Teachers 228
5.6.4. Perceptions on Peer Observation 231
5.6.5. Perceptions on Peer Conference 233

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

6.1. Introduction 240
6.2. Conclusions 240
6.3. Implications 252

REFERENCES 261
APPENDICES 298
CURRICULUM VITAE 310

ABBREVIATIONS

ELT: English Language Teaching

PTE: Pre-service Teacher Education

RPM: Reciprocal Peer Mentoring

SCT: Social Cognitive Theory

TES: Teacher Efficacy Scale

TM: Traditional Mentoring

ZPD: Zone of Proximal Development

LIST OF TABLES

Page

Table 1. Data collection tools and analysis types in line with research questions 75
Table 2. Pre-test and post-test efficacy scores of the RPM and TM groups..... 83
Table 3. Analysis of pre- and post-test efficacy scores of the RPM group 85
Table 4. Analysis of pre- and post-test efficacy scores of the TM group 89
Table 5. Analysis of the pre-test efficacy means of the RPM and TM groups..... 94
Table 6. Analysis of the post-test efficacy means of the RPM and TM groups 95
Table 7. Pre-test and post-test concern means of the RPM and TM groups..... 123
Table 8. Analysis of pre- and post-test concern scores of the RPM group..... 124
Table 9. Analysis of pre- and post-test concern scores of the TM group 130
Table 10. Analysis of the pre-test concern means of the RPM and TM groups 136
Table 11. Analysis of the post-test concern means of the RPM and TM groups..... 136

LIST OF FIGURES

Page

Figure 1. The Process in a convergent mixes methods design study 63

Figure 2. Number of references to dimensions and sources of efficacy by the RPM group 86

Figure 3. Number of references to dimensions and sources of efficacy by the TM group 90

Figure 4. Major issues in subcategories of concerns 108

Figure 5. Number of references to concern subcategories by the RPM group 125

Figure 6. Number of references to concern subcategories by the TM group 131

Figure 7. Perceived components of mentoring practices 137

Figure 8. Perceptions on overall practicum process 161

Figure 9. Reasons underlying the RPM group's preference for peer conferences 176

LIST OF APPENDICES

Page

Appendix 1. Permission letter 298
Appendix 2. Consent form 299
Appendix 3. Teacher Concerns Checklist 300
Appendix 4. Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale 302
Appendix 5. Template for reflective journals (TM version) 304
Appendix 6. Template for reflective journals (RPM version) 305
Appendix 7. Open-ended questionnaire 306
Appendix 8. Interim group interview questions 307
Appendix 9. Individual interview questions 308

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

This chapter briefly introduces the background to the study. Then, it sheds light on the problem statement and aim and research questions. Finally, it provides information about the significance and limitations of the study as well as giving the definition of terms used in the study.

1.2. Background to the Study

Pre-service teacher education is the critical period holding vital repercussions for the development and growth of effective teachers. It ideally encompasses the theoretical knowledge and practical work pre-service teachers essentially need to overcome challenges and frustrations of the professional life. Providing insights into various roles and tasks of a teacher, it aids pre-service teachers to develop a functional awareness about what they will be required to do once assigned as full-time teachers, take agency in their professional development and gain autonomy to make informed decisions at times of turbulences. However, pre-service teacher education (PTE) has notoriously been identified with a drastic gap between theory it offers and practices in actual teaching settings (Beck & Kosnick, 2002). Relevant to the gap between theory and practice, there has been widespread criticism that PTE programs inadequately prepare teachers, which in turn induces high attrition rates worldwide (Ingersoll, 2001; Levine, 2006). Therefore, there appears a dire need for PTE programs to timely identify and address diverse needs and concerns of pre-service teachers, cultivate in them a strong sense of confidence in their instructional skills and knowledge and provide them with sufficient hands-on experiences for a realistic understanding of teaching (Beauchamps, Klassen, Parsons, Durksen & Taylor, 2014).

In line with the need for such programs, international calls (Darling-Hammond, 2010; ten Dam & Blom, 2006) have mushroomed to restructure PTE programs to make them more school-based. Attempts to have PTE programs and actual schools work in tandem for the development of more effective teachers have yielded promising

outcomes (Putnam & Borko, 1997; Stroot et al., 1999). Central to these attempts, practicum has featured as the primary site to link the theory and actual practice. As it signifies the initial and demanding contact with actual classrooms as a teacher, practicum, also called as early field placement or early field experience, involves pre-service teachers in a bunch of experiences that ideally foster their personal and professional development. Though pre-service teachers have had thousands of hours of exposure to teaching beforehand (Richter et al, 2013), it is in practicum that they get the first opportunity to critically observe practices of experienced teachers. Practicum similarly provides hands-on teaching experiences, which enables pre-service teachers to operationalize their instructional knowledge and skills in order to survive in actual classrooms and contribute to student learning. Also, it involves pre-service teachers in briefing and debriefing sessions, during which they get involved in reflective thought on the observed and their own teaching practices, exchange opinions about ways of overcoming possible struggles and receive feedback about how to improve their effectiveness as a teacher.

Even though these practices each make invaluable contributions to pre-service teachers' development, development of a successful teacher identity requires more than mere engagement in observation, teaching or briefing/debriefing experiences. More precisely, practicum requires effective mentoring practices in order to maximize the gains pre-service teachers are likely to make through engagement in these experiences. A prominent component of practicum process, mentoring is a complex and dynamic interpersonal relationship which requires time and commitment (Campbell-Evans & Maloney, 1997). Viewed as an extension of the pastoral role of being a teacher (Goodwyn, 1997), mentoring provides context-specific and non-judgmental support and feedback. With an increasing interest in its contributions to teacher effectiveness since the mid-1980s, mentoring holds a great potential to facilitate teacher development and induction (Ehrich, Hansford & Tennent, 2004; Hobson, Ashby, Malderez & Tomlinson, 2009).

While there is no consensus on an ideal type of mentor, certain roles and attributes have been identified for effective mentors. Effective mentors are those who serve as a collaborator, supporter, role model, motivator, guide, coach and critical friend (Malderez & Bodoczky, 1999; Zachary, 2002). Likewise, effective mentors are trustworthy and willing to guide new teachers (Gareis & Grant, 2014; Portner, 2003), foster reflection rather than giving directions (Acheson & Gall, 1997), and have good

communication skills (Trubowitz & Robins, 2003). Obviously, effective mentors also hold content and pedagogical expertise apart from at least three to five years of experience in teaching (Boreen, Johnson, Niday & Potts, 2009; Gareis & Grant, 2014). Yet Gareis and Grant's (2014) call for drawing a clear-cut distinction between mentoring and teaching is worth noticing since mentoring is different from teaching and additionally requires specialized skills and knowledge, which implies that being a good teacher by no means guarantees being a good mentor. Accordingly, it is plausible to assume that experience and expertise in teaching are prerequisite but inadequate in and of themselves for being an effective mentor (Gareis & Grant, 2014; Valencic & Vogrinc, 2007).

Mentoring is likely to serve a major function through collaborative planning, observation, providing assistance to facilitate the search for alternatives, and discussions before and after teaching practices. It provides psychosocial and professional support to ensure pre-service teacher development at the end of practicum process. Among numerous contributions, mentoring prompts neophytes' confidence, self-reliance and independence (Boreen et al., 2009; McIntyre & Hagger, 1996). It also fosters reflection and problem-solving through regular discussions with the mentor and other teachers (Boreen et al., 2009; McIntyre & Hagger, 1996). Likewise, it promotes teacher socialization while reducing the sense of isolation (Sinclair, 2003; Odell, 1992) and frustration during initial experiences in teaching. Finally, mentoring yields increased rates of job satisfaction and retention among beginning teachers (Boreen et al., 2009; Ingersoll & Kralik, 2004).

Nonetheless, mentoring may not always bring about the espoused outcomes. While the literature has well-documented positive contributions of mentoring, there may also be cases where mentoring "do not always lead to analysis, reflection, and growth on the part of the novice teacher" (McIntyre, Byrd, & Foxx, 1996, p. 171). Particularly with mentors who have a poor understanding of the goals and effective practices in mentoring pre-service teachers, mentoring may equally do harm on pre-service teachers' learning and overall development in practicum. This in turn confirms the conclusion that no mentoring at all can be better than poor mentoring (Ehrich et al., 2004; Hobson et al., 2009). As a result of the growing need for probing deeper into the darker side of mentoring contrary to the overwhelmingly positive attitude towards its contributions, a paradigm shift in the conception of mentor-mentee roles and responsibilities has occurred to make mentoring better fit its purpose (Glickman,

Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2001; Le Cornu, 2005). Traditionally, mentoring was considered as the mere transfer of knowledge from an expert teacher to a less experienced neophyte. Within a highly hierarchical and unidirectional relationship, the role of mentor who held a superior position was to impart his/her expert knowledge to the mentee and "fill up their empty heads with readily available wisdom" (Goodwyn, 1997, p.76). In contrast, the inexperienced mentee's role was to merely follow the directions given by the mentor. Following the recent paradigm shift, however, mentoring has been reconsidered in line with constructivist views of teacher education (Richter et al., 2013; Stein, Smith & Silver, 1999). The refined conception of mentoring emphasizes "collaborative inquiry, cooperative practice and reflection" (Carter & Francis, 2001) as it redefines the roles of mentor and mentee as peer or colleagues with equal status and authority to contribute to the process (Smith, 2007; Darwin, 2000). Within a more collegial relationship, the mentor actively listens to the mentee, provides support and guides him/her to question what s/he does and why s/he does so while the mentee enjoys more self-reliance and freedom of choice (Boreen et al., 2009; Glickman et al., 2001).

Apparently, the current conception of mentoring goes far beyond simply providing instructional materials or broadly formulated suggestions. It requires deep involvement in pre-service teachers' needs, concerns and beliefs in order to provide well-tailored guidance and assistance and supplement their endeavor to be effective teachers. In conjunction with the current conception of mentoring, several methods of professional development such as teacher study groups (Carroll, 2005), communities of practice (Wenger, 1998), and practice-based research (Vrijnsen-de Corte, Brok, Kamp & Bergen, 2013) might be appropriate for use. Yet central to all these methods are two practices including a certain amount of teaching and engagement in reflective dialogue with a colleague(s). With this regard, reciprocal peer mentoring (RPM, hereafter) surfaces as a viable alternative (Kram & Isabella, 1985) in that it essentially engages pre-service teachers in a sequence of teaching, peer observation and peer conference practices. One of the two forms of peer mentoring distinguished by a clear elimination of status-oriented differences in mentoring relationships, RPM matches two partners who are roughly equal in age and experience in order to promote workplace learning for both partners (Angelique, Kyle & Taylor, 2002). RPM inherently fosters a sense of ownership through mutual contributions of peers to one another's development. More precisely, it places onus on encouraging pre-service teachers to take responsibility not

only for their own but also for their peer's learning and empowers them to make their own choices for their professional development.

Vygotsky's view of socio-constructivism by and large provides the theoretical framework for RPM. Viewing development as a socially mediated process, Vygotsky (1978) posited that social interaction is a prerequisite for learning. According to his theories, construction of meaning initially occurs as exchanges between individuals, and subsequently knowledge becomes internalized. Learning and development derive from interaction embedded in communication and collaboration with others in social settings (Vygotsky, 1981). Therefore, knowledge is not constructed in isolation; rather, people interpret, transfer and internalize new knowledge through social interaction with others. Nevertheless, one should notice that the interaction should take place within individuals' Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), a salient notion in Vygotsky's theories. Applied to RPM, ZPD triggers further progress in that each partner with some knowledge and skill assists one another to complement their deficiencies (Goos, Gailbraith & Renshaw, 2002). As a result, peers can socially construct a sound knowledge base and repertoire of instructional skills. Moreover, RPM displays major convergence with Schön's (1983, 1987, 1991) views about reflective practice. Through systematic opportunities for briefing and debriefing conferences prior to and following each teaching practice, RPM enables pre-service teachers to critically analyze their practices and question what they did and why they did so in collaboration with a peer. Also, these conferences entail pre-service teachers to exchange feedback on how to improve their effectiveness on the basis of what they observed in one another's practices. Hence, one may premise that in conjunction with Schön's notion of reflective practice, RPM fosters reflective dispositions in pre-service teachers.

Within the specific context of the present study, there were only few studies (Göker, 2006; Kuru-Gönen, 2012; Yalçın Arslan & İlin, 2013) probing into possible influence(s) of peer mentoring on pre-service EFL teachers. Adopting an experimental design, Göker (2006) reported that engagement in peer mentoring positively affected pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs and instructional skills. Similarly, Yalçın Arslan and İlin (2013) evinced that peer mentoring, especially when used for long-terms, could prove an effective tool to improve pre-service teachers' teaching practices in terms of classroom management. Finally, Kuru-Gönen (2012) provided extensive training on RPM and investigated perceptions about implementation of RPM into pre-service ELT context. She (ibid.) concluded that RPM together with a training component

significantly improved teacher reflectivity as well as positively contributing to pre-service teachers' professional, social and affective development.

1.3. Problem Statement

Teacher education research has recently attached growing attention to familiarizing prospective teachers with real-like teaching experiences. Following the recent trend towards a more school-based approach to PTE (Foster, 1999), most teacher education programs require senior students to attend to practicum courses. In these field experiences, pre-service teachers work under the guidance of a cooperating teacher/mentor and university supervisor so that they develop a deep understanding of responsibilities they will be required to undertake in their future careers. Though the practicum process provides invaluable sources of hands-on teaching experiences and a realistic understanding of the dynamics of teaching in actual classrooms, several studies (Alpan, Özer, Erdamar, & Subaşı, 2014; Campbell & Thompson, 2007; Çelik, 2008) have revealed that it may also function as a source of further worry for pre-service teachers. More specifically, McDonald and Elias (1983) state that these early teaching experiences are "perilous and fraught with risks" (p.1). Thusly, the professional and personal assistance they are likely to need (i.e. mentoring) during these early experiences has repeatedly been identified as critical for their development (Borko & Mayfield, 1995; Richter et al., 2013; Zeichner, 2010).

Despite its overwhelmingly strong potential to contribute to pre-service teachers' development, practicum perplexingly features as the least intentional component of PTE (Levine, 2002). Several researchers (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Hartsuyker 2007; Zeichner, 2010) contend that practicum experiences are vulnerable to serious flaws, since they are rather haphazard and insufficiently resourced. A deeper investigation of practicum experiences unfolds that the problems lie in not only the quantity but also the quality of the experiences. One of the leading problems in the practicum process concerns mentoring practices. The cooperating teachers and university supervisors seem to be busy due to their heavy workload and thus, cannot provide pre-service teachers with satisfactory support and feedback (Forte & Flores, 2014; Pierce & Miller, 1994). The busy schedule and heavy workload of the cooperating teachers and supervisors can also function as a drawback preventing them from accommodating needs and concerns of pre-service teachers in practicum. Besides, although an effective mentoring requires

scheduling regular conferences for reflecting on the development of pre-service teachers (Boreen et al., 2009), the cooperating teachers and university supervisors hardly spare any time for the conferences. Even when they do, they provide either readily available recipes or superficial and broad prescriptions to impose their own teaching style (Beck & Kosnick, 2000; Okan & Yıldırım, 2004) instead of focusing on the specific problems inducing pre-service teachers' concerns and hesitation about their effectiveness as a teacher. It is not surprising that during the rare conferences, the cooperating teachers and university supervisors take longer turns leaving limited time and space for pre-service teachers to question, state their beliefs and offer suggestions (Vasquez, 2004).

Similarly, the notorious twice-a-year model of supervisory observations fall short of making the espoused contributions to pre-service teachers' development (MacDonald et al., 1995; Vidmar, 2006). Observing the pre-service teachers' performance solely twice a year cannot be sufficiently informative for identifying and addressing pre-service teachers' aspirations or concerns. Also, the deficient model of observing once or twice throughout the practicum urges pre-service teachers to perform their best and conceal any problems or concerns by pretending to be in a classroom with no problem. This runs counter the overall goal of mentoring as effective mentoring intends to contribute to pre-service teachers' overall development rather than perfection at a certain point in time. Moreover, there is a need for reconsidering the traditional perceptions of classroom observations as a learning experience merely for the observed (Schuck, Aubusson & Buchanan, 2008; Smith, 2003). Enriching practicum through alternative observation models which emphasize benefits to both the observed and observer might offer valuable gains for pre-service teachers.

The teaching practices per se surface as another problematic aspect hindering possible contributions of the practicum experiences. The fact that pre-service teachers can only teach in the second term of practicum placements limits the number of hands-on teaching experiences and gives restricted access to classroom events of various types (Goodwyn, 1997; Hudson & Nguyen, 2008). This may in turn lead to an oversimplified understanding of actual teaching and undermine pre-service teachers' efforts to develop their own strategies to overcome some serious issues that worry them the most during practicum and negatively influence their confidence in their instructional knowledge and skills. In addition, a viable solution for the problem about teaching practices should obviously not be a mere matter of provision of abundant teaching practices. Rather, it requires pre-service teachers to be critically engaged in their practices through probing

deeper into the reasons underlying strengths and weaknesses along with possible alternatives to overcome these weaknesses.

Furthermore, as it is the first step in the process of transition from being a student teacher to teaching students (Gold, 1996), practicum is the very site for pre-service teachers to put their theoretical knowledge into practice, examine their assumptions about teaching and create a professional identity deriving from these early experiences of their own. In parallel with the arousal of a greater "need to know" (Campbell & Thompson, 2007, p. 173) in pre-service teachers, practicum should ideally provide ample opportunities to examine their concerns and find ways to handle them. Yet PTE, in particular practicum has unfortunately proven to have limited capability to prepare pre-service teachers for successfully coping with the challenges and concerns in the initial years of their professional career (Flores, 2001; Haser, 2010). Among a broad range of factors amplifying neophyte teachers' teaching concerns such as self as a teacher, students, school administration and other colleagues, school environment and students' parents, Fuller and Bown (1975) project 3 stages of teaching concerns including concerns about self, concerns about task and concerns about impact. They (ibid.) further argue that teachers typically go through these concern stages in a linear sequence throughout their professional development. However, previous research on the linear development of teaching concerns has been far from uniformity. Whereas some studies (Butler & Smith, 1989; Ralph, 2004) support Fuller and Bown's (1975) sequential development trajectory, others (Burn, Hagger, & Mutton, 2003; Guillaume & Rudney, 1993; Smith & Sanche, 1993) reject it on the ground that teachers may suffer from more than one type of concerns simultaneously.

Considering the Turkish context, teaching concerns has been a relatively recent research interest. Some studies (Alpan et al, 2014; Aslan, 2012; Baltacı Göktalay & Cangur, 2008; Cabi & Yalçınalp, 2013) developed scales measuring teaching concerns of pre-service and in-service teachers from different areas of majoring. However, a common feature of most studies (Cevher-Kalburan, 2014; Çakmak, 2008; Kayaoğlu, Kobul & Erbay, 2013) was to collect data cross-sectionally without paying attention to longitudinal investigation of teaching concerns and possible reasons aggravating/relieving teaching concerns. Likewise, quite a few studies (Aslan, 2012; Sezer, 2010; Yatağanbaba, 2015; Yaylı & Hasırcı, 2009) basically emphasized impact(s) of demographic variables on teaching concerns.

With specific reference to Turkish pre-service teachers of ELT, research on

teaching concerns was even rarer. In a longitudinal analysis of pre-service ELT teachers' concerns during methodology courses and teaching practices, Yalçın Arslan (2014) postulated that comparisons of teaching concerns before and after the participants took methodology courses and teaching practices revealed significant differences. Intriguingly, though, she (ibid.) found no statistically significant differences among teaching of sophomore, junior and senior pre-service ELT teachers. But her study (2014) shed little light, if any, on role of mentoring practices as a factor amplifying/alleviating teaching concerns throughout practicum. Moreover, Sarıçoban (2009) provided additional insights into pre-service ELT teachers' concerns as he investigated teaching concerns through classroom observations of teaching practices during practicum. Through the perspectives of the cooperating teachers and university supervisor, he (ibid.) unearthed that effective use of educational technologies, classroom management and administrative duties were major concerns affecting pre-service ELT teachers' performance in practicum. However, he (ibid.) did not give pre-service teachers' voice to express their own concerns about practicum and overall teaching.

In the same vein, Ekizler (2013) examined correlations between teacher efficacy beliefs and teaching concerns as well as differences between pre-service and in-service ELT teachers in terms of their teacher efficacy beliefs and teaching concerns. On the one hand, she (ibid.) indicated that there were overall negative correlations between teacher efficacy beliefs and teaching concerns of both pre-service and in-service teachers. On the other hand, she (ibid.) highlighted that while in-service teachers had higher teacher efficacy beliefs than pre-service teachers, the latter had higher teaching concerns than their in-service counterparts. Yet her study (2013) included merely quantitative data leaving possible reasons underlying these finding in complete darkness. Hence, there is still grave need for further research on how pre-service ELT teachers' concerns develop throughout the practicum process, what role different components and stakeholders of practicum play in pre-service teachers' perceived concerns and whether alternative mentoring practices may have an influence on pre-service teachers' concern development.

Another salient construct which has potent impact on pre-service teachers' perceptions of self as a teacher is teacher efficacy beliefs. Several researchers (Cantrell, Young & Moore, 2003; Crowther & Cannon, 1998; Huinker & Madison, 1997; Ramey-Gassert, Shroyer & Staaver, 1996) have asserted that field experiences can affect teachers' efficacy beliefs. Rooted in Bandura's (1977, 1997) social cognitive theory,

teacher efficacy beliefs refer to one's "judgment of his or her capabilities to bring about desired outcome of student engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult or unmotivated" (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfok Hoy, 2001, p.783). Bandura (1986; 1997) hypothesized four sources of self-efficacy including mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social/verbal persuasion and physiological and emotional arousal. As efficacy beliefs affects one's preferences, motivation and behaviors, various studies found positive influence of teachers' sense of efficacy on their resilience at times of difficulty (Podell and Soodak, 1993), trying out new instructional practices (Evers, Brouwers and Tomic, 2002), and students' academic achievement (Caprara, Barbaranelli, Steca, and Malone, 2006). Likewise, Ghaith and Shabaan (1999) have indicated that teachers' efficacy level is negatively correlated with their concern level i.e. the more efficacious they are, the less concern they will have.

Given the teacher efficacy beliefs research in Turkey, there were numerous studies (Atay, 2014; Ozder, 2011) conducted with both in-service and pre-service teachers from different major areas. However, they mostly investigated correlations between teacher efficacy beliefs and various constructs including teachers' epistemological beliefs (Rakıcıoğlu, 2005), reflective and critical thinking (Aldan Karademir, 2013), job satisfaction and burnout (Teltik, 2009; Kimav, 2010), academic motivation (Saracaloğlu & Dinçer, 2009), and autonomy (Karabacak, 2014). While several studies (Gür, 2008; Külekçi, 2011; Özerkan, 2007; Rakıcıoğlu, 2005) basically focused on various demographic features to explain results about teacher efficacy beliefs, many others (Ceylandağ, 2009; Çapa, Çakıroğlu & Sarıkaya, 2005; Köse, 2007) conducted psychometric analysis of different/new teacher efficacy beliefs inventories. Also, there were a limited number of experimental studies which showed that teacher efficacy beliefs were positively affected by in-service education programs (Ortaçtepe, 2006; Özçallı, 2007), micro-teaching experiences (Arsal, 2014) and peer feedback in practicum (İnce, 2016).

Three studies (İnce, 2016; Özdemir, 2012; Rakıcıoğlu-Söylemez, 2012), nevertheless, merited specific reference as they showed major correspondence with the purposes of the present study. In an exploratory case study of teacher efficacy beliefs, Rakıcıoğlu-Söylemez (2012) highlighted that mentoring practices and the organization of practice teaching courses played an influential role in pre-service ELT teachers' efficacy beliefs development throughout practicum. While she (ibid.) reported no significant development in any dimension of efficacy beliefs following teaching

practices, she interestingly identified a significant decline in efficacy beliefs in classroom management at the end of practicum. In a longitudinal study of pre-service ELT teachers' efficacy beliefs in practicum, Özdemir (2012) similarly found no significant differences between teacher efficacy beliefs prior to and following practicum. She (ibid.) further asserted that mentors and supervisors did not feature as significant predictors of pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs development in practicum. However, neither studies (Özdemir, 2012; Rakıcıoğlu-Söylemez, 2012) paid attention to the four sources of efficacy beliefs suggested by Bandura (1986; 1997) while Özdemir (2012) did not provide insights into possible changes in the three dimensions of teacher efficacy beliefs, either. Moreover, İnce (2016) probed into relationships between pre-service ELT teachers' efficacy beliefs and peer feedback and specified that receiving peer feedback, written or oral, throughout practicum positively contributed to teacher efficacy beliefs. While her study (2016) compared impacts of receiving written versus oral peer feedback on teacher efficacy beliefs, it did not include a comparison group to reveal possible differences/similarities between teacher efficacy beliefs of those who received peer feedback and who did not during practicum. Nor did it make specific references to changes in the dimensions of teacher efficacy beliefs.

As mentioned above, although there are a large number of studies on teacher efficacy beliefs in Turkey and worldwide, most are intriguingly cross-sectional snapshots pictured through mere self-reports of efficacy beliefs at a given point in time. Nevertheless, quite a few researchers (Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008; Phan & Locke, 2015; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998) have documented that there is a desperate need for qualitative studies employing teacher interviews, observations and journal entries in order to construct a more complete and enriched understanding of teacher efficacy beliefs development. There is also a dramatic dearth of studies revealing the interplay between teacher efficacy beliefs and sources of efficacy information in practicum. Moreover, experimental or quasi-experimental studies with control groups that shed light on impact of intervention programs on efficacy beliefs are almost absent in the teacher efficacy literature (Henson, 2002; Ross & Bruce, 2007). Regarding the alarming need for intervention studies with an experimental design, Henson (2002) contended that these studies will prompt the progression of teacher efficacy research into the next stage of its developmental life.

All in all, it is apparent that current mentoring practices in practicum are deficient in many aspects due to various factors such as hierarchical nature of mentoring

relationships, little feedback from mentors, time restrictions and heavy workload of mentors, lack of training on effective mentoring, and lack of commitment for mentoring role (Arends & Rigazio-Digilio, 2000; Beck & Kosnick, 2000; Hobson, Ashby, Malderez & Tomlinson, 2009). Hence, it becomes a necessity to supplement these practices by alternative mentoring programs that are in accordance with recent trends in teacher education. Evidently, such alternative mentoring programs cannot be insensitive to pre-service teachers' concerns as these concerns may have a vital role in how much pre-service teachers benefit from the practicum experiences. Eventually, studies of such alternative programs should longitudinally investigate pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs through qualitative measures so that they can draw a more complete picture of possible changes and the interplay between pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs and the sources of efficacy information provided in the practicum experiences.

1.4. Aim and Research Questions

Early teaching experiences in practicum represent a period of severe need for extensive support. Yet the support mechanism in the traditional mentoring (TM, hereafter) model stumbles for several reasons mentioned above. Taking into account the aforementioned problems regarding overall practicum practices in PTE, the present study aims to bring a fresh perspective on TM process by assigning some role for pre-service teachers to take agency for their own development and provide mutual mentoring to one another during practicum experiences. What this study specifically intends is to reveal pre-service teachers' perceptions about involvement in RPM practices as an alternative to the TM model. To this end, the present study involves the participants in the RPM apart from TM practices and compares impact(s) of each set of practices on pre-service teachers' development throughout practicum.

On the one hand, the present study probes into pre-service teachers' perceptions of engagement in regular conferences with a peer as opposed to conferences with the cooperating teachers and university supervisors. More precisely, the present study sheds light on how peer conferences possibly serves to accommodate pre-service teachers' needs and struggles during practicum. In addition, it delves into the role that extensive time and space for reflective dialogues with a peer plays in shaping pre-service teachers' perceptions of self as an effective teacher. Hence, the present study attempts to provide an empirical response to the widespread questions about pre-service teachers'

capacity to take the ownership of their own development in practicum.

On the other hand, there is a need to reshape observation practices as a source of learning not only for the observed but also observer because the notion of observation per se is concern-provoking. Hence, the present study explores pre-service teachers' perceptions of extended peer observations contrary to the twice-a-year model of supervisory observation. Moreover, the present study examines impact of concurrent involvement in observation and teaching practices on pre-service teachers' development instead of the traditional observation practices in which observation and teaching practices are firmly divided as two discrete units in each semester in practicum. The present study also searches for perceived benefits and drawbacks of undertaking additional responsibilities associated with observing a peer compared to merely observing the cooperating teachers in the traditional model.

On the still other hand, the present study seeks to unveil pre-service teachers' perceptions about challenges of teaching practices in practicum. In particular, it delineates factors facilitating and/or debilitating the development of a complete understanding of teaching through hands-on teaching practices. In addition, the present study provides an analysis of the repercussions that an earlier onset of teaching practices has for pre-service teachers' improvement in practicum. Traditionally, pre-service teachers get the opportunity to practice-teach only in the second term in practicum, which puts a major limitation on possible contributions of teaching practices to their improvement (Goodwyn, 1997). Alternatively, the present study envisions a shorter period for observing the cooperating teachers and examines whether an earlier onset of teaching practices can serve any function to maximize pre-service teachers' gains in practicum.

Another major aim of the present study is to mirror pre-service teachers' concerns development in practicum. The present study gives a detailed account of issues affecting pre-service teachers' concerns in line with the triadic categorization provided by Fuller and Bown (1975). It also highlights the progression pre-service teachers can possibly make through different concern stages throughout practicum as an attempt to testify Fuller and Bown's (1975) sequential development hypothesis in a Turkish ELT practicum context. Moreover, the present study examines whether involvement in RPM protocols throughout the practicum will make an extra tool for prospective teachers to collaboratively determine their teaching concerns and devise and implement individual strategies to handle them.

As an additional focus, the present study investigates pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs while they attempt to handle their teaching concerns via RPM practices throughout practicum. What makes this investigation especially valuable is the attempt to highlight the specific roles different components of practicum play as a source of efficacy information. The present study also projects possible changes in pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs throughout practicum. Finally, the present study probes into the interplay between involvement in RPM practices and pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs development.

Under the light of the aforementioned problems associated with the TM practices, particularly in Turkey, and the growing interest in pre-service teachers' concerns and efficacy development, the present study is geared to finding answers to the following research questions:

- R.Q. 1. Is there any statistically significant difference in efficacy beliefs of the

  a) RPM group prior to and following the practicum?
  b) TM group prior to and following the practicum?
- R.Q.2. Is there any statistically significant difference between the RPM and TM groups regarding their efficacy beliefs prior to and following the practicum?
- R.Q.3. Is there any statistically significant difference in teaching concerns of the

  a) RPM group prior to and following the practicum?
  b) TM group prior to and following the practicum?
- R.Q.4. Is there any statistically significant difference between the RPM and TM groups regarding their teaching concerns prior to and following the practicum?
- R.Q.5. What are the perceptions of the RPM group as compared to those of the TM group on overall practicum process?

1.5. Significance of the Study

Practicum as a key component of PTE makes a profound impact on pre-service teachers' professional career. As it features as the first site for pre-service teachers to practically take on various roles and responsibilities of being a teacher in actual classrooms, providing support mechanisms that can promote a smooth transition into the profession is vital for the success of practicum experiences. The present study offers

one such mechanism i.e. RPM in order to ensure effective personal and professional development for pre-service teachers in practicum. RPM considerably contributes to creating a context conducive for sharing views, engaging in reflective dialogues about teaching, and developing individual strategies for improving teaching and learning. In so doing, however, the present study by no means overlooks the role of support provided by the cooperating teachers and university supervisors. That's why the present study, in accordance with many other studies (Benedetti & Reed, 1998; Forbes, 2004; Parker et al., 2008), suggests RPM as an enhancement rather than a replacement to the TM model.

What the present study specifically does is to introduce RPM as an alternative to help pre-service teachers handle challenges of practicum. Though several studies have been conducted in different areas including business, physical education and science teaching, there is little research (Göker, 2006; Kuru-Gonen, 2012; Yalçın Arslan & Ilin, 2013) that resorts to RPM in English Language Teaching PTE, particularly in Turkey. Hence, the present study provides valuable insights into how pre-service English Language Teaching (ELT) teachers react to integrating RPM practices into practicum as well as revealing perceived benefits and shortcomings of involvement in these practices. Additionally, the present study is likely to fill in some gap in the mentoring literature in that several researchers (Ingersoll & Kralik, 2004; Smith and Ingersoll, 2004; Little, 1990) have openly elaborated on the need for employing a comparison group to which results of the mentoring group can be compared.

Despite growing interest in mentoring, the pre-service teachers' voice in mentoring throughout practicum is still missing (Ambrosetti & Dekkers, 2010). A large number of researchers (Hawkey, 1995; Nguyen & Baldauf, 2010) further criticize the dearth of research on peers learning from peers in practicum. Given some common problems in TM including a lack of mentor training programs (Foster, 1999), a fallacious tendency to equate quality mentoring to quality teaching (Goodwyn, 1997) and top-down recruitment of mentors rather than careful, criteria-based selection (Ingersoll & Kralik, 2004), the present study reveals profound benefits in giving pre-service teachers more authority in practicum. Through giving access to the RPM practices, the present study provides evidence that pre-service teachers can make a remarkable difference not only in their own but also in their peer pair's personal and professional development.

As Feiman-Nemser (2001) points out, investigating challenges that neophyte

teachers encounter and how they affect teaching practices can serve a worthwhile function to improve teacher education programs. With this in mind, the present study offers practical suggestions to overcome (and prevent if possible) issues stimulating pre-service teachers' concerns as they grapple with challenges of practicum experiences. Although extensive research (Capel, 1997; Hardy, 1996; Meek & Behets, 1999) has been conducted on pre-service teachers' concerns in various subject areas, there is relatively little research that keeps track of pre-service ELT teachers' concerns over a longitudinal period of time. Considering concern studies (Cevher-Kalburan, 2014; Dursun & Karagün, 2012; Goktalay-Baltacı & Cangur, 2008) in Turkey, there is even less research to reveal pre-service teachers' concerns development throughout practicum, and almost none specifically with pre-service ELT teachers. Hence, this study may contribute to a better understanding of pre-service ELT teachers' concern development throughout practicum. Similarly, no previous research has been found that investigates Turkish pre-service ELT teachers' concern development during practicum experiences characterized by RPM practices. Accordingly, this study yields a preliminary projection of pre-service ELT teachers' concern development in line with participation in RPM practices in practicum.

Last but not the least, little research (Göker, 2006) has investigated pre-service ELT teachers' efficacy development over a practicum process characterized by RPM practices while teacher efficacy beliefs have been a point of great interest for researchers both in Turkey and elsewhere. Therefore, the present study hints on teacher efficacy development in pre-service ELT teachers in line with participation in RPM practices. Moreover, the present study holds considerable value particularly for teacher efficacy research because it sheds extensive light on the role of sources of efficacy beliefs in pre-service teachers' efficacy development in practicum. Paying heed to unanimous calls for longitudinal intervention studies (Henson, 2002; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001), the present study provides an in-depth analysis of pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs development distinguished by participation in RPM and TM practices in practicum.

1.6. Limitations of the Study

The present study involved pre-service ELT teachers taking the school experience and practicum courses to fulfill requirements of the ELT department they

were enrolled in at Çukurova University. Although the present study intended to shed light on pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs and concern development as a result of practicum placements typical of pre-service ELT teacher education system in Turkey, the findings cannot be generalized to all ELT contexts. Instead, the results should be tentatively interpreted as they were limited to the early field experiences of pre-service teachers in the specific context of the present study. The number of participants in the present study also stood out as a factor restricting the generalizability of the results. Although a small number of participants featured to be a common phenomenon in longitudinal studies (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000) and particularly in peer mentoring studies in PTE (Lu, 2010), it prevented drawing generalizations and firm conclusions based on the findings of the present study.

The fact that pre-service teachers were placed in two different practicum schools was another limitation. Though the practicum schools were located in similar socioeconomic backgrounds and broadly shared similar characteristics and facilities, different events and dynamics unique to each school context might have interfered with the results in the present study. In addition, the present study placed the participants merely in elementary schools, which limited generalizability of the results. Considering the influence of contextual factors on pre-service teachers' development, the present study might have yielded different findings if the placements had included primary or high schools as well.

Likewise, the participants placed in different practicum schools had to work with different cooperating teachers while those in the same school were also assigned to different cooperating teachers. Therefore, involvement of multiple cooperating teachers should be considered a limitation because differences in teachers' personalities, philosophy of teaching and tendency to help a pre-service teachers etc. might have affected the results in the present study. However, one should notice that the limitations related to different practicum schools and cooperating teachers seemed to be inherent. It was not feasible to place all the participants in the same school under the guidance of the same cooperating teacher due to insufficient resources in the schools and limited number of cooperating teachers available to mentor all pre-service teachers at the same time.

1.7. Definition of Terms

Teacher education literature interchangeably uses different terms to refer to the same concepts. In order to avoid any confusion or misunderstanding, the following key terms used throughout the present study need definition.

- The terms ‘practicum’, ‘early field experience’, ‘early school experience’, ‘early field placement’, ‘teaching practicum’, and ‘teaching practice’ refer to the placements of pre-service teachers in practice schools under the guidance and supervision of cooperating teachers as a requirement for completing their PTE program. The present study uses the term ‘practicum’.
- The term ‘pre-service teacher’, ‘mentee’, ‘student teacher’, ‘teacher trainee’ and ‘teacher candidate’ refer to undergraduate students enrolled in a PTE program and taking the School Experience and Practicum courses as a requirement of the program they are enrolled in. The present study uses the term ‘pre-service teacher’.
- The terms ‘supervisor’ and ‘university supervisor’ refer to the faculty member who has specialized in ELT teacher education. The university supervisor is responsible for guiding and visiting pre-service teachers while s/he also cooperates and collaborates with the cooperating teachers throughout the practicum process. The present study uses the term ‘university supervisor’.
- The terms ‘cooperating teacher’, ‘mentor’, ‘assistant teacher’ and ‘associate teacher’ refer to the experienced teachers in the practicum school, who is responsible for assisting and supporting pre-service teachers in collaboration with the university supervisor throughout the practicum process. The present study uses the term ‘cooperating teacher’.
- The terms ‘peer mentoring’, ‘peer coaching’, ‘peer observation/supervision’ and ‘paired placement’ refer to the collaborative partnership between peer teachers which engage them in certain practices including observations of one another’s teaching practices and giving/receiving support and feedback to improve their performance. The present study uses the term ‘peer mentoring’.
- The term ‘reciprocal peer mentoring’ refers to the collaborative relationship between peer teachers who are equal/almost equal in terms of age, status and experience. RPM essentially offer the same authority and power to reciprocally contribute to one another’s development through regular peer observations and conferences.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW of LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

This chapter begins with an introduction to RPM, models of peer mentoring and literature about RPM as an enhancement to TM. The next section provides literature about teaching concerns, contextual and personal factors in teaching concerns, teaching concerns in PTE, and role of mentoring in handling teaching concerns. The last section summarizes teacher efficacy beliefs together with brief information about teacher efficacy beliefs in the SCT, measurement of teacher efficacy beliefs, the Integrated Model, factors associated with teacher efficacy beliefs, and teacher efficacy beliefs in PTE.

2.2. Reciprocal Peer Mentoring

Peer mentoring is a developmental process, in which two (pre-service) teachers engage in a set of activities involving planning, observing and debriefing in order for continuous progression towards improvement. Emerging partly as an outgrowth of the clinical supervision in the early 1980s, peer mentoring can appear in two forms depending on the role of peers involved in mentoring relationships (Ackland, 1991). In expert mentoring arrangements, a teacher with more expertise and/or special training observes and provides assistance to a less-experienced peer. In such mentoring arrangements, a hierarchical one-way relationship governs the mentoring process as the 'expert' peer guides and directs the mentee's development (Le Cornu, 2005). However, RPM has marked a radical departure from traditional peer mentoring because it reconceptualized peer mentoring activities by redefining the status of partners engaged in mentoring relationships. Contrary to hierarchical and power differentials between peers, RPM engages two peers of equal or nearly equal status in an inherently mutual relationship so that both peers have something to contribute to one another's personal and professional development (Nguyen, 2013; Topping & Ehly, 1998).

Zwart, Wubbels, Bergen and Bolhuis (2007, 2009) define RPM as the activities of a pair of teachers undertaken in the workplace in order to support and assist one

another. For the specific purposes of the present study, RPM refers to peer mentoring activities that aim to promote effective practices and modify or replace ineffective practices with better ones through professional reflective dialogues in order to achieve effective teaching skills and a smoother transition from being a student teacher to teaching students. In RPM arrangements, peers with similar knowledge and skills focus on collaborative or collegial work in order to improve the effectiveness of their teaching practices. Apparently, the expert model runs counter to the term 'peer' given that the presence of an expert signifies the authority to be obeyed in mentoring relationships and may thusly foster some sense of social divisiveness by emphasizing the role of mentor over mentee. In contrast, RPM resolves this paradox as it assigns both parties in mentoring relationships the same roles and power to help one another improve their effectiveness as a teacher (Le Cornu, 2005; Parker et al., 2014). Hence, RPM brings about a mindset shift through emphasizing learning in collaboration with a peer over individual learning directed by an 'expert' peer.

Although peer mentoring was initially designed for in-service teachers to enhance the transfer of new skills and knowledge learned in in-service workshops into the classroom (Jenkins & Veal, 2002; Joyce & Showers, 1988; Showers and Joyce, 1996), there has been a growing tendency to employ it in PTE. Along with this growth, the purpose of employing peer mentoring has extended to providing work-based learning opportunities for accommodating beginning teachers and improving extant yet underdeveloped skills apart from facilitating the transfer of new skills and knowledge (Vacilotto & Cummings, 2007; Zwart Wubbels, Bolhuis & Bergen, 2008). Peer mentoring typically comprises a cyclical process of planning, observing and data collection, and providing feedback and reflective analysis (Donegan, Ostrosky & Fowler, 2000; Joyce & Showers, 1980). In the planning stage, peers meet before teaching in order to share plans and set a goal for teaching. In the second stage, one of the peers observes and collects data about the performance of the other peer who is actively teaching in the classroom. In the last stage, the peers meet following the teaching practices to make a reflective analysis of their performance and exchange feedback to improve one another's effectiveness. As for the internalization of peer mentoring as a life-long personal attribute, Parker et al. (2008) suggested a 3-step process consisting of building a developmental peer partnership, building achievement through actually doing peer mentoring, and continuing to use peer mentoring as a strategy for future learning. Nonetheless, their study (2008) clarified that the amount of

satisfaction and learning in peer mentoring was directly related to the time and effort peer pairs put into the peer mentoring process. Peer pairs who spend more time with their peers get higher satisfaction and higher benefit from peer mentoring.

Previous research (Ackland, 1991; Parker et al. 2008; Showers & Joyce, 1996) has documented certain factors to take into consideration while designing a peer mentoring program. Willingness on the part of both peers is a key factor contributing to the success of peer mentoring programs. Showers and Joyce (1996) emphasized that peers should have a strong commitment to supporting one another, implementing possible modifications suggested by peers and collecting data about the effectiveness of one another's teaching. Just like in other mentoring models, direct observation of teaching performance ensued by constructive feedback features as another key element for establishing effective peer mentoring programs (Ackland, 1991). As RPM focuses on collegial efforts enhancing professional development, adoption of a non-judgmental and non-evaluative approach also plays a crucial role in establishing effective peer mentoring programs. Several researchers (Becker, 1996; Parker et al., 2014; Vidmar, 2006) underlined that the non-evaluative nature of peer mentoring encouraged peers to explore and address instructional problems in their teaching. Likewise, a broad range of studies (Ackland, 1991; Shams & Law, 2012) pinpointed that interdependent goal-setting was a factor essentially fostering good practice in not only peer mentoring but all mentoring models. More specifically, peers should determine exclusive goals so that they could more consciously trace their development throughout the peer mentoring process.

Other factors vital for success in peer mentoring programs are peer compatibility and selection. Based on a pilot project for pairing pre-service teachers in practicum, Walsh, Emslie and Tayler (2002) argued that although differences between pairs might result in some positive learning outcomes, matching peers with similar strengths and weaknesses along with similar interests, goals, and concerns would reinforce more fruitful practicum experiences. Similarly, Topping (2005) concurred that too great differences between peers in terms of ability, knowledge and experience might diminish the amount of assistance provided by peers while boosting up cognitive clashes. Furthermore, he (2005) implied that matching peers with vastly different levels of ability might endanger true mutuality because it might result in a mentoring relationship, in which the one with greater ability or experience spoon-feeds the peer with less ability or experience. Reflecting on peer compatibility in mentoring

relationships, Long (1997) cautioned that failure in successful mentee-mentor matching might actually prove detrimental to both parties. Hence, a viable suggestion for peer selection might be enabling pre-service teachers the opportunity to select their own peers because this would eliminate any concern with respect to working in a 'forced marriage' setting. As Parker et al. (2008) suggest, having an input in selecting the peer to work with will ensure stronger ownership of the mentoring relationship and more benefits throughout their professional career. In the same vein, the opportunity to select the peer will help to resolve issues of trust and confidentiality between peers, two elements reported to be prerequisite for effective peer mentoring in a large amount of research (Costa & Garmston, 2002; Li, Sun & Zheng, 2011; York- Barr, Sommers, Ghere & Montie, 2001). One may conclude that as RPM requires continuous introspection of teaching practices, resolving issues of trust and confidentiality through the opportunity to select one's own peer will create an environment enabling pre-service teachers to safely provide and receive assistance, openly talk about frustrations and solve possible problems in practicum.

Another key factor in peer mentoring is the notion of reciprocity, which enables peers direct involvement in one another's learning and professional development throughout practicum. As stated earlier, RPM views reciprocity as the sine qua non of peer mentoring, which requires a continuous alternation between the roles of mentor and mentee so that bidirectional flow of information from and to both peers can be enhanced (Paris, 2010; Mallette, Maheady & Harper, 1999). Zwart et al. (2009) argue that through promoting continual shifts between roles of mentor and mentee, RPM enhances professional learning which is context-specific and collaborative. Several studies (Joyce and Showers 2002; Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001; Waddell & Dunn, 2005) showed that through reciprocity, peer mentoring programs allowed mutually beneficial partnerships fostering personal and professional development of both peers.

However, one should notice that precise role definition is equally important in RPM. That is to say, pre-service teachers engaged in RPM relationships should clearly understand responsibilities of mentor and mentee roles so that they know what they should do and expect throughout mentoring activities (Showers & Joyce, 1996). With this respect, Showers and Joyce (1996) maintained that peer mentoring would go far beyond being a mere forum for offering advice. It required both peers to perform roles enhancing collaborative learning "from one another while planning instruction, developing support materials, watching one another work with students, and thinking

together about the impact of their behavior on their students' learning" (Showers & Joyce, 1996, p.15). Also, Parker et al. (2014) posited that peer mentoring would disappoint peers who anticipated to be spoon-fed by their peers' advice because peer mentoring would involve both peers in roles of mentor and mentee so that they could alternately contribute to one another's growth and development through devising their own solutions.

Last but not the last, one of the most salient factors in effective peer mentoring is the integration of reflection. Through setting goals and posing questions in briefing and debriefing conferences throughout practicum, pre-service teachers engaged in RPM constantly make inquiries on their teaching practices, which help them gain awareness of their practices in the classroom and hone and refine their instructional skills. Vidmar (2006) stresses that involvement in collaborative reflection with a peer enables teachers to make each teaching practice "as much a learning experience as a teaching experience" (p. 140). Nevertheless, one should notice that the reflective dialogues in these conferences are not simply a matter of chattering. Rather, they are professional exchanges allowing peers to probe deeper into their actions in order to identify what was successful/wrong, why it was successful/wrong and what else could be done to maximize the benefits for all (Neubert & Stover, 1994; Prince, Snowden & Matthews, 2010).

The reflective dialogues foster peers' learning not only through mere experience but also through critical analysis of their teaching practices. Likewise, a large number of studies (Kurtts & Levin, 2000; McAllister & Neubert, 1995) confirmed that involvement in peer mentoring practices promoted pre-service teachers' reflectivity. In one of the few RPM studies conducted with Turkish pre-service ELT teachers, Kuru-Gönen (2012) put forward that together with a training component, RPM experience significantly increased pre-service teachers' reflectivity levels through practicum. Also, Goker (2006) reiterated that peer mentoring activities were instrumental in improving pre-service teachers' self-efficacy and reflective practice. But a critical point to be considered in exchanging feedback and suggestions during these reflective dialogues is the manner in which they are presented. In other words, insensitively and judgmentally expressed reflections run the risk of hindering the potential for providing support and assistance to peers. Given that such reflections may damage the learning relationships expected to contribute to peers' development, it is of vital importance to properly formulate (sugarcoat whenever necessary) reflections in ways not to give offence.

Additionally, several researchers (Rhodes & Beneicke, 2002; Vacilotto & Cummings, 2007) compromised on the need for prior training on how to express reflections and feedback on one another's teaching practices in order for effective functioning of peer mentoring.

2.2.1. Models of Peer Mentoring

Models of peer mentoring abound in the literature. Yet, they all focus on fostering improvement in teaching and learning through peer work as their primary objective. The most common models include technical coaching, challenge coaching, team coaching, collegial coaching and cognitive coaching. Technical coaching intends to facilitate transfer of new curriculum or instructional strategies into a teacher's regular practices (Garmston, 1987). It features to be instrumental particularly in incorporating the content of in-service workshops into classroom practices. Challenge coaching elaborates on identifying and resolving specific problems in one's classroom practices. Challenge coaching is appropriate for use in a larger context than classroom such as school or grade levels (Becker, 1996). Team coaching involves teachers teaching alongside one another rather than differentiating between the roles of the observed and observer (Galbraith & Anstrom, 1995). In this model, teachers work in tandem throughout the whole process including planning, teaching and evaluation. Collegial coaching, however, aims at refining instructional practices, developing collegiality, promoting professional dialogue and helping teachers reflect on their teaching practices. In collegial coaching model, peers work on already existing practices, which they think need improving through peer assistance and feedback (Benedetti & Reed, 1998).

As an extension of collegial coaching, cognitive coaching emphasizes the internal skills and thought processes underlying the observable teacher practices. It assumes that peers hold strong potential to enhance one another's cognitive processes and thus their perceptions and decisions that motivate the resulting instructional behaviors. As it views reflection as a priori, cognitive coaching focuses on teachers' thinking, perceptions, beliefs, and assumptions and how these affect teachers' practices (Costa & Garmston, 2002). Cognitive coaching encourages peer assistance to develop expertise in planning, reflecting, problem-solving and decision making since it considers these to be the covert tools of being a professional, which serve as the source of all teachers' choices and behaviors. At the core of cognitive coaching model are five

competencies; namely, posing reflective questions, paraphrasing, probing for clarity, using silence and collecting data and presenting it objectively (Costa & Garmston, 1992). According to the cognitive coaching model, it is a must that peers remain non-judgmental throughout the process in order that they can safely think without any worry about being judged. The cognitive coaching model follows the cycle of clinical supervision (Cogan, 1973) and essentially engages peers in three stages of pre-conference, lesson observation where one of the peers observes the other teach, and post-conference.

Costa and Garmston (1992) posit that there are three major outcomes of implementing the cognitive coaching model. Firstly, this model prompts an overall sense of trust. That's pre-service teachers develop trust not only in each other but also in the mentoring process and workplace environment. Secondly, the cognitive coaching model fosters learning. As it emphasizes pre-service teachers' cognitive involvement in the mentoring process through employing tools and strategies enhancing their perceptions, the cognitive coaching model boosts up the gains both peers possibly make from the peer work. More importantly, the model helps pre-service teachers develop cognitive autonomy. The cognitive coaching model profoundly contributes to pre-service teachers' self-monitoring, self-analysis and self-evaluation abilities, which in turn positively affect their self-directedness (Garmston, Linder & Whitaker, 1993).

The present study adopted the cognitive coaching model because it seemed to more aptly underpin the tenets of RPM practices. As it would engage pre-service teachers in deep thought and reflection about possible strengths and struggles in their teaching practices in practicum, the cognitive coaching model was also promising to mirror teaching concerns and efficacy beliefs development. Finally, one should notice that the literature commonly employs the term 'peer coaching' to refer to the relationship between peers. However, there might be some negative connotations that the term 'coaching' may stand for such as a sense of hierarchy, a need for someone to oversee the relationship, presence of a problem to be fixed and the act of pouring knowledge from a wise expert to a blank vessel (Cochran-Smith & Paris, 1995; Sanford & Hopper, 2000). That's why the present study uses 'peer mentoring' instead as an ameliorative attempt to avoid these connotations.

2.2.2. RPM as an Enhancement to TM

In line with calls by several researchers (Holbeche, 1996; Rose, 2003) for empowering pre-service teachers in mentoring process, RPM encourages active and direct involvement of pre-service teachers not only in their own but in one another's professional development. More precisely, RPM signifies a shift in the locus of control in mentoring activities as it places the responsibility of learning and mentoring throughout practicum in the hands of pre-service teachers. This in turn enables pre-service teachers a greater ownership of their own professional development rather than an imposition by the cooperating teachers or university supervisors (Rhodes & Beneicke, 2002). Therefore, one of the exclusive features making RPM highly valuable may be that it equally empowers both ends of the mentoring activity to contribute to the learning process.

Considering that RPM necessarily engages pre-service teachers in various activities including observation, critical reflection and constant exchange of ideas, it allows pre-service teachers to search for and try out new methods in order for solving instructional problems and improving their overall effectiveness as a teacher. Moreover, several studies (Britton & Anderson, 2010; Featherstone, Munby & Russell, 1997; Le Cornu, 2005; Vidmar, 2006) documented that RPM formed a sound source of support for pre-service teachers and reinforced collaboration through practicum. Working with four pre-service teachers throughout their classroom practices, Britton and Anderson (2010) unveiled that pre-service teachers felt satisfied with peer mentoring because it provided collegial support and practical feedback through regular observations and communication with peers. Also, the pre-service teachers in Hooker's (2014) study underlined that collaboration with a peer who they could candidly ask about their frustrations and share problems was a major source of support against the challenges in their field-based initial teacher education program. Briefly, all these findings combined with Hargraves' (2001) suggestion of collaborative working and learning as a prerequisite skill for effective teachers of future classrooms implied that RPM might be a viable method to challenge the archaic conception of teaching as an isolated job through cultivating more collaborative dispositions in pre-service teachers.

However, there is no single ideal mentoring model that would faultlessly work for every pre-service teacher under various conditions. As mentioned above, peer pairings, if not matched carefully, might cause problems diminishing effective functioning of peer mentoring. Some studies (Kurtts & Levin, 2000; Ovens, 2004) also indicated that pre-service teachers viewed working with peers as being less effective

than with university supervisors or cooperating teachers. More importantly, several studies (Forbes, 2004; Heirsfield, Walker, Walsh & Wilss, 2008; Vacilotto & Cummings, 2007) cited the tax on participants' time as a major pitfall of peer mentoring programs. Investigating the effectiveness of peer mentoring as a professional development tool for pre-service teachers, Vacilotto and Cummings (2007) stated that some of the pre-service teachers unanimously found peer mentoring as demanding too much time. In the same vein, Heirsfield et al. (2008) specified that the issue about time in peer mentoring activities resulted from regular meetings as it was quite challenging to schedule meetings at mutually appropriate times.

Furthermore, Jenkins, Garn and Jenkins (2005) maintained that peer mentoring required not only pre-service teachers but teacher educators to invest substantial time and effort. Lu (2010) concurred that part of the reason why peer mentoring had not received due recognition despite promising benefits associated with its use was the extra effort it required of teacher educators to incorporate peer mentoring in teacher education programs. A lack of institutional support and resources appears as another major pitfall in peer mentoring programs. Several studies (Britton & Anderson, 2010; Galbraith & Anstrom, 1995; James, Smith & Radford, 2014) confirmed that a lack of institutional support and resources, in particular providing training on what peer mentoring was and how best it could be used for teacher effectiveness would undermine the potential contributions of peer mentoring to pre-service teachers' professional development. Yet once these pitfalls are addressed properly, it might be reasonable to assert that peer mentoring is a cost-effective method presenting a valuable enhancement to TM models (Benedetti & Reed, 1998; Parker et al., 2008; Pierce & Miller, 1994).

2.3. Teaching Concerns

Teaching concerns refers to a teacher's tensions and worries which trigger feelings of deficiency and probably motivate him/her to search for ways to cope with the deficiency. One of the pioneers of teaching concerns research, Fuller (1969) defined teaching concerns as problems that teachers perceive about their teaching. Hall, George and Rutherford (1977, p.5) explicated that teachers concerns is "the composite representation of the feelings, preoccupation, thought, and consideration given to a particular issue or task". Hall et al. (1977) further stated that teaching concerns is perceptional. That's beyond actually experiencing a situation, a teacher's perception of

a situation suffices to spark concerns about it. Similarly, Mok (2005) emphasized that it is prerequisite for teachers to take notice of a situation as problematic in order for considering it a concern.

Nevertheless, it will be fallacious to regard teaching concerns merely as areas of problems and worries. As Conway and Clark (2003) argue, mere elaboration on the negative connotations of the construct of teachers concerns fosters deceptive pessimism which leads to a confined and biased understanding of teacher professional development. Fuller (1970) hinted on the positive aspect of teaching concerns as she postulated that perceived failure in handling a specific task would yield "constructive frustration" (p. 11) which would promote pondering on alternative ways to achieve the task. Likewise, Cho, Kim, Svinicki and Decker (2011) distinguished between negative and positive aspects of teaching concerns. They (ibid.) specified that on the negative side, there were worries, deficiencies and problems which required fixing and were perceived as threatening. On the positive side, in contrast, there were interests and opportunities signaling areas of professional development which were perceived as worth putting effort in. In this regard, Reeves and Kazelskis (1985) provided a more neutral definition of teaching concerns as they stated that teaching concerns comprised things a teacher "thinks about frequently and would like to do something about personally" (p. 267). Therefore, they underlined that teaching concerns represents areas of not only deficiency but also improvement.

Teaching concerns research has widely sprang from Fuller's (1969) seminal work on the problems pre-service teachers experienced and the concerns they expressed about these problems during teacher education period. In her model of teaching concerns, Fuller (1969) proposed a generalized conceptualization of developmental changes teachers go through in the process of professional maturation. Fuller's teaching concerns model has inspired two main strands of research. The first strand which has provided one of the foci of the present study sheds light on developmental dynamics of pre-service and in-service teacher learning while the second strand called the Concern Based Adoption Model (CBAM) focuses on teachers' perceived concerns about implementation of educational innovations (Conway & Clark, 2003).

Based on in-depth interviews with pre-service education teachers in counselling sessions, Fuller's concern model revealed 3 phases of concerns development. In the initial form of her model, Fuller used 6 codes to distinguish teaching concerns including orientation to teaching, control, student relationship, student gain (cognitive), student

gain (affective), and personal growth and professional issues apart from a code for nonteaching concerns (Fuller, 1967; Fuller & Case, 1969; Parsons & Fuller, 1974). According to this model, pre-service teachers in the first phase i.e. pre-teaching or non-teaching concern phase have an amorphous view of their concerns as they had no or little engagement in the specifics of teaching (Fuller, 1969). In the second phase also called early teaching phase, teachers grapple with a couple of overt and covert concerns characterized by questions like "Where do I stand?" and "How adequate am I?" (Fuller, 1969, p. 220). Emerging as the main challenge for pre-service and beginning teachers, these questions reflect teachers' concerns about self-survival. In the third, or late concerns phase, teachers focus on pupil learning and their professional development.

Subsequent research, however, evinced a reconsideration of the three-phase concerns model. Two categories signifying concerns about being liked and educational improvement were discarded from the original model due to weak frequency of occurrence and coder agreement (Fuller, Parsons & Watkins, 1974). Categories reflecting concerns about role and adequacy were combined, since they displayed a close match (Fuller, Parsons & Watkins, 1974). As a consequence, Fuller's teaching concerns model was refined to comprise 3 stages including 'self', 'task' and 'impact', which has remained unchanged since then (Rutherford & Hall, 1990).

2.3.1. The Teaching Concerns Model

The teaching concerns model projects a linear progression through concern stages. Distinguishing between pre-service and in-service teachers, Fuller and Bown (1975) asserted that pre-service teachers with no previous teaching experience might be considered to be in a pre-teaching concern stage, during which they rely on their own experiences as a student. Once engaged in teaching experiences in practicum, pre-service teachers experience a drastic shift of focus and become primarily concerned about self-survival. As they gain more experience during practicum, they gradually pay utmost attention to the routines of teaching and finally, become preoccupied with pupils. Several researchers (Capel, 2001; Fuller, Parsons & Watkins, 1974; Ralph, 2004) have maintained that the changes through these stages reflect professional maturation. More precisely, self-concerns stage indicates low maturity in terms of teaching while impact concerns stage, which a proportionately smaller number of teachers can reach, represent high teaching performance and the strongest level of

professional maturation. Accordingly, Fuller (1970) suggests that teacher education programs should principally intend to assist pre-service teachers to shift their attention from self to impact concerns, which Conway and Clark (2003) call "a journey outward" (p. 470).

According to Fuller's teaching concerns model, certain concerns become more prevalent at a certain time while others become more central at other times (Fuller, 1970). Likewise, teachers cannot proceed to a higher concern stage before addressing less mature concerns (Veenman, 1984) as the teaching concerns model assumes a rigid hierarchy between concern stages. Nevertheless, one should notice that although all teachers go through the three stages in the same sequential order, the length of the time they spend in each stage may show considerable differences (Fuller, 1969; Katz, 1972). Regarding the progress through concern stages, Fuller (1970) underscored that three criteria are essential. First and foremost, pre-service teachers should have concerns. Given that concerns may provide strong motives for professional development, pre-service teachers should focus on some issues as concerns in order to be professionally mature. Secondly, pre-service teachers should be aware of their concerns. As the third criteria, they should resolve these concerns, which may also be achieved with the help of others such as supervisors, mentors and peers. Though Fuller's teaching concerns model is subject to some criticisms due to its simplistic and highly hierarchical stance to teaching concerns (Richardson & Placier, 2001; Watzke, 2007), it has still managed to be one of the most commonly cited model thanks to "the elegance and clarity" (Conway & Clark, 2003, p.467) of the way it explains teacher professional development.

As stated above, Fuller (1969) found three main concern stages/ categories which all teachers go through. Even though some studies (Swennen, Jörg & Korthagen, 2004; Meek & Behets, 1999) reported disconfirming results or some variations of the three categories, a great number of studies (Capel, 1997; George, 1978; McBride, Bogess & Griffey, 1986) consistently supported the three concern domains in Fuller's model. The first stage, 'self-concerns stage', is the period when pre-service teachers elaborate on their own well-being and survival in teaching situations. Self-concerns become predominant especially in early teaching experiences, during which pre-service teachers begin to get a realistic grasp of teaching profession and shift from being a student to teaching students (Borich & Tombari, 1997; Chan & Leung, 1998; Fuller & Bown, 1975). In the self-concerns stage, pre-service teachers busy their minds with a broad range of issues including classroom control and discipline, content adequacy,

being liked and accepted as a teacher, relationships with pupils, being observed and evaluated by university supervisors, and relationships with mentors. However, issues with classroom management, in particular those with maintaining discipline and establishing authority are perhaps the most prominent feature of this stage as quite a few studies (Borich, 1992; Capel, 2001; Çakmak, 2008) unraveled that classroom management is by far the most frequently mentioned self-concern by pre-service teachers.

As pre-service teachers spend more time in the classroom and gain more experience, self-concerns gradually diminish and become replaced with a distinct set of concerns, which marks the transition to a new stage. The second stage also called 'task concerns stage' signals a period during which pre-service teachers deal with properly delivering instruction, finding out different and new teaching strategies, and improving their teaching skills (Anhalt & Perez, 2013; Borich & Tombari, 1997; Cho, et al., 2011). At this stage, pre-service teachers center mostly on the day-to-day routines of teaching. To name some characteristic issues, pre-service teachers at task concerns stage worry about lack of instructional materials and resources, large number of students in the classroom, inflexibility of the curriculum, planning a lesson without assistance, instructional time limitations, assessing student work, and handling administrative workload (Boz & Boz, 2010; Capel, 1998a; Hardy, 1996).

Once they resolve task-related concerns, pre-service (and novice) teachers proceed to the third concerns stage. The final stage known as 'impact concerns stage' prioritizes pupils' learning over self- and task-related concerns. In the impact concerns stage, teachers become preoccupied with whether they can make the espoused contributions to pupils' learning. Critical issues that bother teachers at this stage involve identifying and serving to academic, social and emotional needs and interests of pupils, addressing individual pupil differences, fostering pupils' motivation, and helping pupils overcome learning problems to realize their capacity (Fuller, 1969; Meek & Behets, 1999; Swennen et al, 2004).

Although there is vast ambiguity over the onset and length of duration of the concerns stages (Burden, 1990), teachers with more experience compared to the less experienced ones grapple with more mature concerns. Accordingly, the way teachers at an upper level concerns stage teach differs from how teachers at a lower level concerns stage teach (Fuller, Peck, Bown, Menaker, White & Veldman, 1969). Furthermore, research on teaching concerns has shown contradictory results in terms of the concern

category that stimulates the highest concerns in practicum. While some studies (Capel, 1998a; Chan & Leung, 1998; Hardy 1995) identified the self-concerns category as sparking the highest concerns in pre-service teachers, others (Behets, 1990; Bogess, McBride & Griffey, 1985; Bray & Hall, 1995) revealed impact category as the source of highest concerns. Still some other studies (Boz, 2008; Buhendwa, 1996; Şaban, Korkmaz & Akbaşlı, 2004; Boz & Boz, 2010) perplexingly found that pre-service teachers reported the highest concerns about task category. Yet most studies (Capel, 1997; Ngidi & Sibaya, 2003) unanimously indicated that pre-service teachers had overall moderate levels of concerns throughout practicum.

2.3.1.1. The Sequential Concerns Development Hypothesis

In Fuller's model, the sequential development hypothesis has aroused much criticism over the years. As stated above, Fuller (1969) and Fuller and Bown (1975) conceptualized that pre-service teachers have discrete types of concerns depending on their concerns stage and necessarily follow a linear progression from self to task to impact concerns stages. Fuller (1970) reasoned that the strictly linear progression might be a reflection of maturity since teachers' concerns shifted to pupils learning, which she (ibid.) deemed as an indicator of top maturity in the profession, only over time and through experience. On the contrary, many researchers (Borich, 2000; Bullough, 1997; Hardy, 1994; Mok, 2002) advocated that given the complexity of teacher development, the linear progression hypothesis would be too simplistic and highly idealized because there could be numerous other factors confounding the sequence. Accordingly, Hardy (1994; 1996) premised that though it might sound logical, a conceptualization of concerns stages exclusive of each other requires one to refer these stages as mere guidelines framed in broad terms. From a reflective practitioner methodology perspective, Conway and Clark (2003) substantiated that rather than a straightforward sequential development, teachers should optimally care about their own development and have a certain amount of concerns in all three categories at any given time.

A great amount of research (Capel, 1998a; Campbell & Thompson, 2007; Guillaume & Rudney, 1993; Mau, 1997) has found results disconfirming Fuller's sequential development hypothesis. Capel (1998a) examined pre-service teachers' concerns after four school experiences and documented that pre-service physical education teachers held various concerns simultaneously rather than in a pre-determined

sequence. In an investigation of pre-service teachers' concerns during teacher education, Campbell and Thompson (2007) evinced a remarkable departure from the sequential development hypothesis in that pre-service teachers from 16 institutions experienced similar levels of concerns of different types at once. Besides, several other studies (Capel, 2001; Lotter, 2004; Smith & Sanche, 1992; Swennen, Jörg & Korthagen, 2004) reported somewhat reversed sequence. For instance, Smith and Sanche (1992) measured concerns of 127 K-12 pre-service teachers at three points during a 16-week practicum process and reported highest impact instead of self- or task concerns at all three points. Analyzing drawings and card sorts of pre-service teachers, Swennen, Jörg and Korthagen (2004) confirmed that in contrast to Fuller's hypothesis, the Dutch pre-service teachers in their study focused mostly on impact concerns. Similarly, teaching concerns studies conducted on pre-service teachers in Turkey (Boz, 2008; Şaban, Korkmaz & Akbaşlı, 2004; Yaylı & Hasırcı, 2009) challenged the sequential development hypothesis. Boz (2008) unveiled that pre-service secondary science and mathematics teachers had highest task concerns along with impact concerns. Based on these and similar findings, many researchers (Veenman, 1984; Watzke, 2007) have pinpointed that the teaching concerns model (Fuller, 1969; Fuller & Bown, 1975) calls for extended reconsideration because pre-service teachers evidently do not need to have resolved all concerns in one category before paying attention to concerns in another category.

2.3.2. Contextual and Personal Factors in Teaching Concerns

Furthering the dispute over teaching concerns development, Fuller's concern model implies that concerns of an earlier stage may return when teachers confront aggravated unease (Fuller, Parsons & Watkins, 1974). To illustrate, a teacher who primarily elaborates on impact concerns may revert to concerns about survival or time management when s/he transfers to a new school or teaches in a different classroom. Borich and Tombari (1997) speculated that the time it would take to cope with these lower concerns for a second time might be shorter. In the same vein, many researchers (Furlong & Maynard, 1995; Hardy, 1994; Mok, 2005) deduced that various contextual and personal factors play a major role in determining teaching concerns. Regarding the influence of context on teaching concerns, Hardy (1994) postulated that teachers' perceptions of concerns, their interaction with significant others and socialization into

schools help to shape the intensity of their concerns at a particular time. In addition, Mok (2005) asserted that changing the context in which teachers work may largely invoke different concerns. As an example, D'Rozario and Wong (1996) placed 397 pre-service teachers in three different schools including government, government-aided and special assistance plan (SAP) schools in Singapore and compared their practicum-related concerns. They (ibid.) inferred that teaching in SAP schools stimulated less concerns than teaching in government or government-aided schools. Therefore, it became clear that in order to provide better-tailored assistance, teacher education programs should identify pre-service teachers concerns arising from a particular situation at a particular time.

Personal factors have also surfaced to be influential on somewhat controversial findings about teaching concerns development. Whereas some studies (McBride, Boggess & Griffey, 1986; Ngidi & Sibaya, 2003; Pigge & Marso, 1987) evinced significant differences stemming from various personal factors, other studies (Chan, 2004; Fritz & Miller, 2003; Ghaith & Shaaban, 1999) demonstrated no significant influence of personal factors on teaching concerns. To start with gender, conventional wisdom suggests significantly higher concern levels for females, and there were some studies (Çubukçu & Dönmez, 2011; D'Rozario & Wong, 1996; Pigge & Marso, 1987) substantiating this suggestion. But many other studies (Çakmak, 2008; Fritz & Miller, 2003; Murray-Harvey, Silins & Saebel, 1999) yielded contradictory results. In a cross-cultural study of Australian and Singaporean pre-service teachers, Murray-Harvey et al. (1999) proposed that concerns of male and female teachers did not differ significantly. Nevertheless, much research (Pigge & Marso, 1997; Akgün, Gönen & Aydın, 2007) indicated that as another personal factor, grade point average (GPA) had a significant influence on teaching concerns. Pigge and Marso (1997) maintained that pre-service teachers with the highest GPA had relatively higher self-concerns than their peers with the lowest GPA. They (ibid.) added that the highest GPA group in contrast to the lowest GPA group was more successful at minimizing these concerns at the end of teacher preparation.

Moreover, a great number of studies (Çubukçu & Dönmez, 2011; Pigge & Marso, 1986; Bogess, McBride & Griffey, 1985; Morton, Vesco, Williams & Awender, 1997) unanimously pointed out that the major area of specialization had a significant influence on pre-service teachers' concerns. For instance, Morton et al. (1997) highlighted that of the 400 pre-service teachers from nine related majors, teachers

majoring in English experienced significantly higher levels of concerns. Year spent at the teacher education program appeared to be another personal factor affecting teaching concerns rather controversially. Some studies (Buhendwa, 1996; Çakmak & Hevedanlı, 2004) unveiled that more advanced pre-service teachers had lower concerns than pre-service teachers at lower grades. Several other studies (Boz & Boz, 2010; Şaban et al., 2004; Ünaldı & Alaz, 2008) showed conflicting results. Boz and Boz (2010) found that while grade level had no significant influence on task and impact concerns, pre-service teachers in the fifth grade had significantly lower self-concerns than those in the second and third grades. More intriguingly, Şaban et al. (2004) pointed out that pre-service teachers in the fourth grade had significantly lower self- and impact concerns whereas there was no significant difference in task concerns across grades.

In addition, a great deal of research (D'Rozario & Wong, 1996; Morton et al., 1997; Çubukçu & Dönmez, 2011; Pigge & Marso, 1986) unearthed that grade level of teaching was another significant factor distinguishing concerns of pre-service teachers. In an analysis of concerns among Turkish pre-service teachers, Çubukçu and Dönmez (2011) documented negative relationships between concern scores and grade level of placement because pre-service primary education teachers reported higher concerns than pre-service secondary education teachers. Pigge and Marso (1986) verified that pre-service teachers who would teach in elementary grades had significantly higher concerns than the pre-service teachers who would teach in secondary grades. Nonetheless, one of the most commonly cited personal factor, age, has proven to have no significant influence on teaching concerns because much research (Chan, 2004; Dursun & Karagün, 2012; Murray-Harvey, Slee, Lawson, Silins, Banfield & Russell, 2000) has well-established that teaching concerns did not necessarily show meaningful variances depending on age.

Lastly, experience in teaching has emerged as another intriguing personal factor that may make a significant influence on teaching concerns. Several studies (Christou, Eliophotou-Menon & Philippou, 2004; Marso & Pigge, 1994; Ralph, 2004; Smith, Corkery, Buckley & Calvert, 2013) consistently documented that experience was negatively related to the maturity of teaching concerns. That's although teachers, experienced, novice or pre-service, had concerns about teaching, teachers with more experience held higher-order concerns than less experienced teachers. Marso and Pigge (1994) indicated that while less experienced teachers worried about self-related concerns, experienced teachers pre-dominantly focused on the impact of their teaching

on pupils. Ralph (2004) postulated that what privileged experienced teachers over inexperienced colleagues was their "wisdom of experience" (p. 417). He (ibid.) recapitulated that as they gained numerous experiences with various situations that would feel intimidating for pre-service or novice teachers, experienced teachers would safely cope with challenges they confronted in the classroom. Henceforth, it seems inevitable that experienced teachers centralize on higher-order concerns in contrast to pre-service teachers who still grapple with such lower-order concerns as classroom management and adequacy as a teacher.

2.3.3. Teaching Concerns in PTE

According to the teaching concerns model, having some amount of concerns in the process of transition from being a student to teaching students is quite natural and perhaps essential. As such transition requires adaptation to unfamiliar environments and a novel set of responsibilities embedded in the very nature of their new role as a teacher (Murray-Harvey, Slee, Lawson, Silins, Banfield & Russell, 2000), a certain amount of concerns may motivate pre-service teachers to find out possible deficiencies in their performance and take necessary measures to handle these deficiencies. Fuller (1970) purported that pre-service teachers should arouse some concerns and resolve them, for the resolution of their concerns might promote professional growth. Similarly, Kyriacou and Stephens (1999) summed up the benefits of having a certain amount of concerns in three main categories including successfully taking responsibility as a teacher, fostering one's confidence in his/her teaching skills and creating an orderly classroom.

With this regard, numerous researchers (Fuller, 1967; Karge, Sandlin & Young, 1993) have argued for the need for identification and resolution of pre-service teachers' concerns. Fuller, Parson and Watkins (1974) confirmed that though teacher education programs might involve crucial content, the topics and their sequence might not necessarily correspond to what pre-service teachers would ideally like to know depending on their concerns stage. For this reason, investigating pre-service teachers' awareness about their concerns as a way of facilitating professional development surfaces to be a fundamental function of teacher education programs. More precisely, teacher education programs should help pre-service teachers increase awareness about their own concerns as this may facilitate professional development (de Baz & el Weher, 2008). Goh and Matthews (2011) postulated that increasing awareness about teaching

concerns holds a vital role in maximizing benefits of teacher education programs, particularly benefits of the practicum experiences. Furthermore, Bray and Hall (1995) underlined that as the other major stakeholders of practicum, supervisors and mentors should also recognize the developmental ups and downs in pre-service teachers' concerns. Apparently, supervisors and mentors empathizing with pre-service teachers can more effectively mediate pre-service teachers' attempts to allay their various concerns.

Fuller's model assumes that concerns different groups of pre-service teachers have are mostly alike, suggesting a notion of generalizability in teaching concerns. Several studies (Fuller, Parsons & Watkins, 1974; Mok, 2005; Ruohotie-Lyhty, 2013) have shown similar results, validating this assumption. For instance, Fuller et al. (1974) investigated concerns of pre-service teachers from six stages of pre-service education including a)those with no previous education course work and no teaching experience, b)those with education course work but no teaching experience, c)those currently making observations and taking education course work, d)those who have completed observation in the classroom but are currently taking course work, e)those currently having teaching practices and f)those who have completed teaching practices but is not currently an in-service teacher. They (ibid.) found that these six groups of pre-service teachers showed no significant differences regarding their teaching concerns. In an article reviewing various studies conducted in the U.S. and elsewhere, Veenman (1984) maintained that problems that stimulated concerns were similar in general. Similarly, Pillen, Den Brok and Beijaard (2013) compared concerns of pre-service teachers in primary education, general secondary education and secondary vocational education. Pillen et al.'s (2013) study evinced that these three groups of pre-service teachers were homogenous in terms of the number and type of concerns they reported.

2.3.3.1. Teaching Concerns Development in Practicum

With reference to pre-service teachers' concern development, practicum is a crucial factor that should be taken into consideration. Evidently, a well-structured practicum is a major source of practical knowledge and a basic means of improving teaching skills. It enables pre-service teachers to experience the day-to-day teacher roles and responsibilities through experimenting their knowledge and skills in actual classrooms (Kragler & Nierenberg, 1999; Pietsch & Williamson, 2005; Sarıçoban,

2007). A well-structured practicum which includes such key components as extended teaching practices, observation, supervision, reflection and support from mentors and supervisors may help to produce more effective teachers (Zeichner, 1980; McDonalds & Elias, 1983; Ralph, 1994). However, several studies indicated that compared to other stages in teachers' career, practicum is the stage during which teachers experience concerns in the highest intensity (Fritz & Miller, 2003; MacDonald, 1993). Despite its contributions to the development of a professional identity, practicum has unequivocally surfaced to be fraught with perils and difficulties which aggravate pre-service teachers' concerns.

Previous research (Goh & Matthews, 2011; Hardy, 1996; Kyricaou & Stephens, 1999) cited various reasons for why practicum itself might increase pre-service teachers' concerns. Hardy (1996) highlighted that mental and physical challenges of practicum as well as the need for fulfilling requirements of other courses made the practicum more concern-provoking for pre-service teachers. Kyricaou and Stephens (1999) posited that unreasonably high expectations imposed by mentors and supervisors also stimulated higher concerns in pre-service teachers. Comparing pre-service teachers' perceptions of three different practicum programs, Kragler and Nierenberg (1999) concurred that too much emphasis on administrative duties might foster concerns because this hindered pre-service teachers from focusing on their own concerns in practicum. Similarly, pre-service teachers' overly optimistic and idealistic view of teaching may be another reason lying at the heart of high concerns about practicum.

Intriguingly, a simplistic view of practicum may undergird teaching concerns in practicum. Many studies (Cabaroğlu, 2012; Capel, 1998b; Meister & Jenks, 2000) unearthed that the protected nature of practicum might give a sense of false relief and safety, since existence of mentor, teaching only a segment of the lesson and favorable manners of pupils towards pre-service teachers might mask the full range of problems which may arise in the classroom. Once pre-service teachers are confronted with complexities of actual teaching in practicum, their concerns undergo remarkable changes and become more aggravated (Fuller & Bown, 1975). In particular, discrepancies they perceive between the theory they have learned at university and practical constraints of actual teaching diminish pre-service teachers' optimism about teaching and their performance (O' Connel, 1994). Numerous studies (Chan & Leung, 1998; Goh & Matthews, 2011; Lamote & Engels, 2010) indicated that these discrepancies emerging in practicum might strongly boost up pre-service teachers'

concerns. Lastly, a number of researchers (Grenfell, 1996; Mundt, 1991) also referred to teacher isolation as another concern-provoking aspect of practicum. Grenfell (1996) purported that pre-service teachers failed to develop feelings of belonging and felt isolated in the practicum school, which in turn increased their concerns about practicum.

Despite the abovementioned inconveniences that make practicum more concern-provoking, practicum does cause drastic changes in pre-service teachers' concerns. Various studies (Capel, 2001; Derosier & Soslau, 2014; Boggess, McBride & Griffey, 1985) found a remarkable decrease in overall concern levels of pre-service teachers after they completed practicum. However, one should notice that it is not mere engagement in practicum that influences pre-service teachers' concerns per se. Appropriate interventions that address specific concerns might facilitate the progression towards more mature concerns (Hall & George, 1979). For instance, Morton, Vesco, Williams and Awender (1997) provided a few weeks of instructional preparation before practicum and reported that such preparation coupled with observations of actual classroom settings reduced pre-service teachers' concerns to a large extent. In Sumsion and Thomas' (1999) study, pre-service teachers attended to stress management sessions which mainly included training on guided relaxation and visualization techniques before they went to practicum schools. The researchers (ibid.) concluded that training offered in these sessions noticeably changed pre-service teachers' perceptions of practicum-related concerns as they felt much less concerned about practicum.

2.3.4. Role of Mentoring in Handling Teaching Concerns

Additional support mechanisms can supplement the change in pre-service teachers' concerns. A central mechanism that can promote pre-service teachers' progression towards more mature concerns relates to the quality of mentoring services they receive during practicum (Stair, Warner & Moore, 2012; Ralph, 1993). It is crystal clear that pre-service teachers need appropriate support and guidance in order for an effective practicum. Even though experiencing actual teaching is a good teacher, it would be too idealistic to expect that mere experience might properly help pre-service teachers make necessary deductions to cope with their concerns. Rather, they need support from significant others to successfully interpret the experiences and resolve problems they encounter in practicum (Katz, 1972; Livingston & Borko, 1989).

Grossman, Wilson and Shulman (1989) stressed that lack of such support and guidance would urge pre-service teachers to fall back on traditional teaching methodologies through which they were taught as a student. This lack of support might also be a salient factor giving rise to teacher attrition in the long run (Torres, 2012). Discerning a key attribute of effective mentoring, Fuller (1970) underlined that providers of such support i.e. teacher educators themselves should be at mature concern stages so that they could successfully help pre-service teachers reach more mature concerns stages in practicum.

In the same vein, Burden (1982) pointed out that it was a prerequisite for mentors and university supervisors to diversify the type of support in accordance with developmental stages of teachers. Introducing a continuum consisting mainly of three supervisory approaches, he (ibid) suggested that a directive supervisory approach would better serve survival stage teachers who were still naïve about various technical teaching skills whereas a collaborative supervisory approach would be more effective for adjustment stage teachers who could equally share the responsibility for meeting their own needs. Ultimately, he claimed that a non-directive supervisory approach would be the most helpful for mature stage teachers who could resolve their own problems primarily through self-assessment. Furthermore, many researchers (Baum & McMurray-Schwarz, 2004; Kragler & Nierenberg, 1999) pinpointed that another crucial attribute to make mentoring conducive for handling teaching concerns related to the nature of collaboration between mentors and university supervisors. As Kragler and Nierenberg (1999) argue, developing both parties' awareness of pre-service teachers' concerns and ensuring close collaboration and exchange of information between them will make greater contributions to mitigating pre-service teachers' concerns and endorsing their professional development.

Apparently, mentors form a critical component of effective mentoring which affect pre-service teachers' achievement in their initial encounters with teaching in actual classrooms (Melnick & Meister, 2008; Pomeroy, 1993). As they have a rich background of experience with numerous different problems that may arise in classrooms, mentors can help pre-service teachers' broaden their viewpoints and analyze classroom events from multiple perspectives. In so doing, mentors' awareness of pre-service teachers' concerns has a vital role to play in guiding pre-service teachers to cope with their concerns. Mau (1997) asserted that when apprised of possible concerns of pre-service teachers, mentors "can anticipate, mitigate and eventually dissipate their concerns" (p. 60). Among many others, fundamental functions mentors

can serve in practicum include observing and giving feedback, sharing teaching materials and guiding about how to prepare effective materials and more importantly, entitling pre-service teachers sufficient freedom and flexibility in experimenting with new strategies and techniques (Connor & Kilmer, 2001; Murray-Harvey et al, 2000). Quite a few researchers (Goh & Matthew, 2011; Lotter, 2004; Smith et al., 2013) posited that collaborative mentor-mentee relationships based on empathy and care about pre-service teachers' concerns give rise to increased performance and confidence in pre-service teachers. In a study with pre-service teachers enrolled in a 1-year secondary school program in New Zealand, Smith et al. (2013) found that opportunities for open dialogue about practicum could considerably increase pre-service teachers' success in practicum.

Additionally, effective collaboration between pre-service teachers and university supervisors is of paramount importance in order to ensure pre-service teachers' success in their struggle against teaching concerns in practicum. Murray-Harvey et al. (2000) concurred that apart from talking to and learning from mentors, establishing working relationships with supervisors was a significant strategy for pre-service teachers to cope with their concerns about practicum. Nevertheless, many studies (Kragler & Nierenberg, 1999; Öztürk & Yıldırım, 2013) demonstrated that supervisors fell short of optimizing their potential for providing support and guidance to pre-service teachers in practicum. Kragler and Nierenberg (1999) asserted that supervisors had difficulty in offering sufficient feedback, which endangered functionality of their support in resolving pre-service teachers' practicum-related concerns. In his study with a group of pre-service ELT teachers in Turkey, Çelik (2008) found that communication with supervisors was one of the leading factors aggravating pre-service teachers' concerns about practicum. Based on this finding, he (ibid.) purported that although communication with supervisors might be a good point of reference for pre-service teachers, failures in establishing effective communication which he assumed to stem from negative attitudes of supervisors might limit gains pre-service teachers could make from practicum.

2.4. Teacher Efficacy Beliefs

Teacher efficacy beliefs is a construct that has sparked considerable interest among teacher educators over the last four decades. Credited to the RAND studies

(Armor et al., 1976; Berman, McLaughlin, Bass, Pauly & Zellman, 1977) and Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) (1977; 1997), teacher efficacy beliefs can most broadly be defined as a teachers' belief about their capability to create optimal conditions conducive for effective teaching and learning. Among the pioneers' of teacher efficacy researchers, Gibson and Dembo (1984) stated that teacher efficacy beliefs reflected teachers' evaluations of their capabilities to positively influence student learning. Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998, p. 233) defined teachers' sense of efficacy as "the teacher's belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context". Similarly, Guskey and Passaro (1993) referred to the construct of teacher efficacy beliefs as "teachers' belief or conviction that they can influence how well students learn, even those who may be difficult or unmotivated" (p. 3).

Teacher efficacy beliefs is a motivational judgment of perceived, rather than actual, competence in prospective tasks, which implies that high teacher efficacy beliefs do not necessarily equate high competence (Coladarci, 1992). Although various researchers (Ashton, 1985; Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Guskey & Passaro, 1993; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001; Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005) proposed slightly different formulations of teacher efficacy, common to almost all these formulations was the emphasis on teachers' belief in bringing about positive student outcomes in the form of learning and engagement, even in highly unmotivated students. Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2007) posited that teachers' sense of "self-efficacy is a little idea with big impact" (p. 954). However, Goddard, Hoy and Woolfolk Hoy (2004) cautioned that using the term teacher efficacy is misleading as it can be confused with other similar constructs and suggest using more specific terms such as "teachers' perceptions of efficacy, efficacy judgments, sense of efficacy, perceived efficacy, or efficacy beliefs" (p. 4).

Considered "a key energizer" (Ross & Bruce, 2007, p. 59) of teacher behaviors, teachers' sense of efficacy predicts the goals teachers set for themselves, the amount of effort they expend to achieve them and the resilience they display to attain them (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Ross & Bruce, 2007). Therefore, teachers with greater efficacy beliefs set higher goals for themselves as well as their students, expend more effort to attain them and display higher resilience in the face of obstacles in contrast to less efficacious teachers who set lower goals, expend less effort and are more likely to give up against obstacles or failures. Moreover, teacher efficacy beliefs is distinguished

by its cyclic nature, since higher efficacy paves the way for higher effort and resilience, which promotes higher attainment, which in turn fosters higher efficacy (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Nevertheless, one should notice that the amount of effort expended to a given task may have different implications on efficacy beliefs depending on task difficulty. Optimally, success in the given task will promote higher sense of teacher efficacy whereas failure will lower it. Woolfolk Hoy and Spero (2005) specify that if success in the given task, particularly in a simple task is achieved through too much effort, it is likely that this experience will lower teacher efficacy beliefs despite the positive outcome. In contrast, failure in the given task may not necessarily lower sense of efficacy as along as it gives teachers clues about possible strategies for coping with prospective challenges. Pinpointing the critical role of teacher efficacy beliefs in overcoming possible challenges, Goddard, Hoy and Woolfolk Hoy (2000) assert that teachers' brightness can make little good unless teachers hold strong beliefs in their capabilities.

As stated earlier, teacher efficacy beliefs research originated in the RAND studies (Armor et al, 1976; Berman et al., 1977; Berman & McLaughlin, 1978) and gained momentum following the introduction of Bandura's SCT. As the first research strand underlying teacher efficacy, the RAND studies were based on Rotter's (1966) Locus of Control Theory, which emphasized whether people attributed the consequences of their actions to internal or external factors. The RAND studies were conducted with the assumption that student learning and motivation were the two factors reinforcing teachers. Although reliance on the RAND studies resulted in serious controversies about the construct of teacher efficacy beliefs, these studies left a noticeable imprint on the development of teacher efficacy beliefs research (Dellinger, Bobbett, Olivier & Ellett, 2008; Henson, 2001a). In the RAND studies, teachers' sense of efficacy was considered the extent to which teachers believed that reinforcing of their teaching was within or out of their control. The RAND studies used two items to measure efficacy beliefs. The Item 1 reflected teachers' belief that environmental factors such as home environment, social and economic features, and students' various individual needs exert an influence on student learning, which goes far beyond the possible influence of teachers. The Item 2, in contrast, referred to teachers' belief in their own capabilities to overcome factors hindering students' learning. Hence, it expressed a more specific and individual belief compared to a belief in the influence teachers in general could exert on student learning (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy,

2001).

2.4.1. Teacher Efficacy Beliefs in the SCT

The second strand in teacher efficacy beliefs research was grounded in Bandura's (1977) SCT, which considered teacher efficacy a type of self-efficacy. The SCT is a unified theory of human action and functioning, which is concerned with factors operating to initiate, execute and maintain behavior. The SCT explains human development through cognitive motivational processes. Bandura's SCT gives a detailed account of the influence that a number of crucial factors have on behavior. As the name suggests, the SCT focuses on two dimensions of human development i.e. cognitive and social. On the one hand, cognitive processes refer to the basic human capabilities through which people influence their own actions. According to the SCT, cognitive processes are crucial for the acquisition and retention of knowledge and skills. Bandura (1982) emphasizes that information related to people's judgments of their capabilities motivate and guide actions only when it is cognitively attended. On the other hand, the SCT holds that people also benefit from a highly advanced social capacity. Zimmerman (1995) argues that socially-guided learning supplemented with feedback and modeling by significant others provide major opportunities to form people's conceptions of their knowledge and skills. Given that learning through an individual trial-and-error process would be costly and ineffective in some cases (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003), social learning capacity plays a pivotal role in one's development. However, Bandura (1999) cautions that modeling goes far beyond being a simple process of behavioral mimicry because people basically extract general conceptions from these abstract modeling experiences, and integrate them into diverse situations emerging in the course of their lives. With such abstract conceptions, people generate new behaviors that help them handle challenges of situations they had never experienced before.

Efficacy perceptions refer to people's beliefs in their capabilities to produces courses of action required for attaining certain outcome at the expected level. They pertain to people's beliefs in their capacity to exercise control over their functioning and life events by determining the initiation of action for a given outcome, the amount of effort to be expanded and their resilience in attaining the given outcome. Compared to other mechanisms of personal agency, self-efficacy is the most central one to influence actions (Bandura, 1997). In the SCT, Bandura (1977) distinguishes two types of

efficacy expectations that conjointly determine actions. Outcome expectancy refers to "a person's estimate that a given behavior will lead to certain outcomes" and self-efficacy relates to a person's "conviction that one can successfully execute the behavior required to produce the outcomes" (Bandura, 1977, p. 193). More specifically, self-efficacy relates to a person's belief that s/he has what it takes to execute and orchestrate courses of action in order to produce a certain outcome while outcome expectancy refers to his/her estimation that the courses of action s/he performs will yield the given outcome at the expected level.

A salient point worth considering, however, is that self-perceptions of efficacy are not meant to project actual capabilities or skills. Bandura (1986; 1993) highlights that possessing knowledge and skills essential for performing an action is remarkably different from actually deploying the knowledge and skills under challenging circumstances. That is why mere acquisition of knowledge and skills, though important, is insufficient to predict action. Rather, successful functioning also requires cultivation of strong self-efficacy beliefs because it is these beliefs that mediate the relationship between perceived knowledge/skills and action (Huinker & Madison, 1997). For instance, people with similar competences and experiences perform differently on a given task depending on their beliefs in their capabilities. Bandura (1986) reflects that without well-established beliefs in their capacity to produce the desired outcomes, people will have little incentive to act and show resilience against challenges. Hence, people who believe that they have the knowledge and skills essential to perform an action or handle a problem and their behaviors will yield the desired outcomes are more likely to do it (Ajzen, 2002; Gist & Mitchell, 1992).

The two-component conceptualization of self-efficacy beliefs dwells on the premise that self-efficacy and outcome expectancy are interrelated but clearly represent different expectations about actions. On the one hand, successful functioning requires people to have substantial beliefs not only in certain behaviors to yield the given outcomes but also in their own capabilities to perform these behaviors (Bandura, 1977). Similarly, Ross and Gray (2006) assert that the relationship between self-efficacy and outcome expectancies is mutual as high outcome expectancies foster beliefs in self-efficacy which further promote attainments. Therefore, attainment in a certain area of functioning can only be possible through an amalgam of self-efficacy and outcome expectancies. On the other hand, the two components are distinct (Bandura, 1986; Guskey & Passaro, 1993) because people may firmly believe that certain courses of

action will generate the desired outcomes but do not initiate action due to their doubts about their capabilities. Likewise, people may be assured of their skills but do not perform action, or do not persist even if they perform, because they seriously doubt their actions will generate the desires outcomes. Furthermore, Luszczynska and Schwarzer (2005) purported that perceived self-efficacy subsumes outcome expectancies to some extent. The belief that they can produce the actions essential for the desired outcomes may also assume the belief that they can handle the resulting outcomes of their actions. Accordingly, Bandura (1977; 1986) posits that compared to actual consequences, self-efficacy holds a stronger potential to predict actions because judgments of outcomes exert their influence on functioning through the influence of thought.

Compared to other conceptions of self including self-worth, self-esteem and self-concept, self-efficacy has some distinctive properties. Firstly, self-efficacy beliefs are domain- and context-specific. Hence, people may feel highly efficacious for performing a specific task in certain situations while they may have low efficacy for another task in different situations (Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008). Also, self-efficacy beliefs are future-oriented, which means that they focus on prospective actions. Another discrete feature of self-efficacy is that self-efficacy beliefs specify the given task rather than personal properties (Zimmerman, 1995).

2.4.2. Measurement of Teacher Efficacy Beliefs

Concerns about measuring an elusive construct like teacher efficacy beliefs via two items as was done in the RAND studies brought about the development of further instruments that would supposedly capture a more precise picture of teacher efficacy beliefs. In line with the new research strand, several instruments were developed including the Ashton Vignettes (Ashton, Burh & Cracker, 1984), the Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984) and the Science Teaching Efficacy Belief Instrument (Riggs & Enochs, 1990). The Ashton Vignettes investigated teacher efficacy beliefs through situations that teachers might encounter in the classroom and asked them to state the extent to which they anticipated to successfully cope with these situations.

The Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984), however, gained such widespread recognition that it was labeled as the “standard” (Ross, 1994, p. 382) instrument in teacher efficacy beliefs research. Gibson and Dembo (1984) originally

established a 30-item Likert-type scale of 6 points ranging from “completely agree” to “completely disagree”, which was later reduced to 16 items with higher reliability coefficients. Applying the Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES) to 208 primary school teachers, Gibson and Dembo (1984) found two factors, which they associated with the two types of expectancies in Bandura’s SCT. They (1984) asserted that the first factor pertaining to teacher’s belief in possessing the capability to affect student learning was labelled as personal teaching efficacy (PTE) and thought to correspond to the concept of self-efficacy in Bandura’s SCT. The second factor referring to teachers’ belief in the extent to which the influence of teachers in general on student learning might be restricted by environmental limitations was labeled as teaching efficacy (TE) and assumed to correspond to Bandura’s outcome expectancy (Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

In a following study examining the relationship between the two factors and different measures of teachers’ orientations toward management, control and student motivation, Woolfolk, Rosoff and Hoy (1990) renamed the second factor as general teaching efficacy (GTE). In line with Bandura’s SCT, Gibson and Dembo (1984) reported that the two factors represented discrete expectations. Subsequent research (Coladarci, 1992; Gaith & Shaaban, 1999; Ross, Cousins & Gadalla, 1996) has unanimously confirmed this result, which implies that a teacher may have high efficacy beliefs in his/ her teaching capabilities whereas they may entertain doubts about the influence teachers in general may have on student learning. Though strong belief in both dimensions of teacher efficacy is suggested, Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) purport that teachers may have deficient capabilities in particular situations, but they will have high PTE as long as they know how to fix these deficits.

Though the TES quickly gained popularity among researchers, subsequent studies (Guskey & Passsaro, 1993; Soodak & Podell, 1996; Woolfolk et al., 1990) have reported several issues which might endanger the validity of the interpretations based on the TES (Henson, 2001a; Dellinger et al., 2008). First and foremost, the TES had theoretical problems because it attempted to measure teachers’ sense of efficacy within the conception of Bandura’s SCT but derived items from the RAND studies which were based on Rotter’s (1966) Locus of Control Theory. Though the TES supposedly tapped the two dimensions of Bandura’s efficacy expectations, some studies (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993; Woolfolk et al., 1990) revealed that both factors in the TES related to beliefs about performance capability and thus, did not reflect outcome expectations. Guskey and Passaro (1993) indicated that the difference between PTE and GTE more suitably

revealed the distinction between internal versus external locus dimensions, rather than a personal or general teaching efficacy distinction.

Furthermore, some other studies (Cerit, 2010; Poulou, 2007; Soodak & Podell, 1996; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990) employing the TES yielded evidence disconfirming the two-factor conception of teacher efficacy as they reported a third factor. For example, Emmer and Hickman (1991) used a modified version of the TES and reported that classroom management formed a third factor that was different from PTE and GTE. Similarly, Woolfolk and Hoy (1990) found three factors and argued that the third factor, outcome efficacy, was different from PTE and GTE as it represented a teacher's belief in his/her responsibility for positive and negative student outcomes. Although Soodak and Podell (1996) also evidenced a three-factor model, they asserted that their conception of outcome efficacy was different from that of Woolfolk and Hoy's (1990). They (1996) formulated outcome efficacy as teachers' belief in the extent to which their actions bring about desired student outcomes. Hence, Soodak and Podell (1996) distinguished that of the three factors, a) personal efficacy related to the belief whether one had the skills for yielding student outcomes, b) outcome efficacy reflected the belief whether student outcomes were the result of teacher actions, and c) teaching efficacy represented the belief that teachers affected student outcomes irrespective of environmental limitations.

In addition to the aforementioned inconsistencies stemming from the definition and measurement of teacher efficacy beliefs, another question predominating the teacher efficacy beliefs research concerned whether to treat teacher efficacy as a general or context-specific construct. Early studies (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Gibson & Dembo, 1984) conceived teachers' sense of efficacy as a general judgment about one's capability to teach irrespective of contextual factors. However, more recently researchers (Bandura, 1997; Brouwers & Tomic, 2001; Dellinger et al., 2008; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998) have established that teachers' sense of efficacy is a situation-, domain- and context-specific belief about teachers' capabilities. As such, Ross et al. (1996) indicated that the class within which experienced secondary teachers taught made a significant impact on their efficacy beliefs. Investigating pre-service teachers' sense of preparedness and efficacy, Siwatu (2011) found that teaching in an urban or suburban school affected pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs.

Similarly, several studies (Lin & Gorrell, 2001; Soodak & Podell, 1996) proved that the grade level at which they taught affected teachers' efficacy beliefs. Beauchamp,

Klassen, Parsons, Durksen and Taylor (2014) compared elementary and middle/secondary school teachers and identified that elementary school teachers had higher self-efficacy than their colleagues teaching in middle/secondary school. Nevertheless, Soodak and Podell (1996) showed that considering personal efficacy, secondary school teachers stated higher efficacy than elementary school teachers whereas elementary school teachers expressed slightly higher confidence than secondary school teachers in terms of teaching efficacy. Furthermore, a number of studies (Enochs & Riggs, 1990; Gençtürk & Memiş, 2010; Raudenbush, Rowan & Cheung, 1992; Romi & Leyser, 2006) have demonstrated that the subject matter they teach influence teachers' efficacy beliefs. For instance, Gençtürk and Memiş (2010) compared classroom and subject teachers' efficacy beliefs and unearthed that except for efficacy in instructional strategies, classroom teachers expressed higher efficacy beliefs than the subject teachers. Enochs and Riggs (1990) also highlighted that in line with their perceived efficacy, the time pre-service elementary teachers spent on different subject areas showed differences as they preferred to spend less time on areas they felt less efficacious.

2.4.3. The Integrated Model of Teacher Efficacy Beliefs

Despite the contributions they made to the development of teacher efficacy beliefs research, the RAND studies and the theoretical and psychometric issues with the instruments most commonly used to measure the concept of teacher efficacy beliefs brought about a dramatic conceptual confusion in the teacher efficacy beliefs research, which Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998, p. 202) called the "identity crisis of adolescence". Given the confusion dominating the teacher efficacy beliefs research, Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) developed a new, uniform model which promised a more precise explanation of teacher efficacy beliefs. The new model called the Integrated Model combined the two conceptual strands in teacher efficacy research i.e. Rotter's and Bandura's social learning theories. Displaying complete congruence with Bandura's (1977) SCT, the Integrated Model addressed not only self-efficacy beliefs but also outcome expectancies.

In the Integrated Model, Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) supported the conception of teacher efficacy beliefs as a context-specific construct. In line with this conception, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) developed a new teacher

efficacy scale consisting of three subscales including efficacy in student engagement, instructional strategies and classroom management. With this new scale called the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale or more commonly known as the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) premised that deriving a general efficacy score without reference to specific tasks would be of little importance. However, studies using this scale revealed intriguing results in terms of the scores reported for each subscale. For instance, Klassen and Chiu (2010) examined efficacy beliefs of Canadian teachers working in different school contexts and showed that though the teachers had similar means of efficacy in classroom management and instructional strategies, they reported much lower efficacy in student engagement. Investigating perceived efficacy beliefs among Greek pre-service teachers, Poulou (2007) found that the pre-service teachers perceived themselves as more efficacious in student engagement while their perceptions of efficacy in classroom management and instructional strategies were similar. Although adequacy in student engagement is a more demanding aspect of teaching (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007), it was intriguing to note that in Poulou's study (2007), the participants who had only 6 weeks of actual teaching experience felt the most efficacious in student engagement. Conversely, Ozder (2011) indicated that novice teachers in the first year of full-time employment reported the lowest efficacy ratings in student engagement whereas their efficacy ratings in classroom management and instructional strategies were similar and relatively higher.

Moreover, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2007) compared efficacy perceptions of experienced and novice teachers and concluded that experienced teachers had higher assurance in their efficacy in classroom management and instructional strategies. Yet they perplexingly (2007) found no differences between experienced and novice teachers in terms of efficacy in student engagement, which they attributed to two possible factors. They (2007) stressed that the lack of difference between experienced and novice teachers might be due to the fact that student engagement had only recently begun to gain its due interest in teaching or that student engagement was a higher order task for teachers. Contributing further to the infirmity about the dimensions of teacher efficacy beliefs as envisioned in the new model, other studies (Chacon, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008) informed significantly higher efficacy in instructional strategies compared to efficacy in student engagement and classroom management. Chacon (2005) examined the efficacy perceptions among Venezuelan in-service EFL teachers and

unearthed that the teachers scored higher efficacy ratings in instructional strategies than in classroom management and student engagement, respectively.

The Integrated Model was established on two interrelated functions including analysis of teaching task at a particular context and an assessment of personal teaching competence. On the one hand, the analysis of the particular teaching task and its context comprises consideration of constraints that hinder or negatively influence students' learning and the resources likely to foster their learning. Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) underline that the task analysis in the new model is distinctive in that it emphasizes consideration of not only constraints but also the resources available. While they evaluate the requirements and difficulty of the teaching task, teachers consider such factors as the students' abilities, motivation and socioeconomic background as well as contextual factors like collegial support, school leadership and availability of resources (Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) postulated that the task analysis is more evidently instructive for beginning teachers while experienced teachers fall back on memories and interpretations of similar experiences they had in the past. On the other hand, the assessment of personal teaching competence includes evaluation of personal capabilities against personal deficiencies in the given context. In assessing their competence, teachers consider such elements as their "teaching skills, methods, training and expertise" (Goddard et al., 2000, p. 485). Henceforth, the interaction between these two functions yield teachers' ultimate judgments about their efficacy beliefs and the consequences deriving from these beliefs (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

2.4.3.1. Sources of Teacher Efficacy Beliefs

According to the Integrated Model, the information needed to make task analysis and competence assessment derives from four sources as proposed by Bandura (1997); namely, mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social/verbal persuasion, and physiological arousals. Mastery experiences provides information that derives from teachers' actual teaching experiences. Consistent with the cyclical conception of teacher efficacy beliefs, Tschnannen-Moran et al. (1998) argue that perceptions of achievement in performing the given teaching task foster anticipation of achievement in prospective situations. However, failures, particularly if they are repeated or occur early in learning, reduce efficacy beliefs as they aggravate the anticipation of failure in prospective

situations. Gist and Mitchell (1992) emphasize that mastery experiences provide hands-on, authentic information about various facets of one's performance, which in turn, enables to form more accurate efficacy judgments.

Secondly, vicarious experiences serve as a source of efficacy information obtained from observing the performance of a model. Observing the performance modeled by others encourage teachers to make evaluations about their own abilities to perform the given task. Bandura (1989) argues that vicarious experiences provide a short-cut especially in learning challenging tasks because these experiences free teachers from the burden of constructing the targeted performance little by little, which may not necessarily guarantee the ultimate attainment. Critical to the impact of vicarious experiences on teachers is the degree of identification with the model. If teachers perceive close identification with the model who performs successfully, their belief in their own success in similar situations will arise. However, marked differences with the model may hinder any contribution of vicarious experiences to efficacy beliefs, irrespective of the model's competence (Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, 2007).

As the third source of efficacy information, social/ verbal persuasion reflects the influence of interactions with significant others such as coaches, colleagues and school principal on teachers' efficacy beliefs. Bandura (1997) proposed that social/verbal feedback from significant others affects teachers' perceptions of their own efficacy as long as it presents realistic appraisals of their performance. In educational contexts, verbal persuasion includes such activities as pep-talks, workshops fostering professional development and course work at the faculty (Oh, 2011). Physiological and emotional arousal forms the other source of efficacy information, which premises that feelings teachers harbor about teaching a lesson affect their efficacy beliefs. While feelings of joy or pleasure promote teachers' efficacy beliefs, aggravated stress or anxiety levels may decrease their assurance in their capabilities (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

As these sources by themselves do not result in increase or decrease in efficacy beliefs, cognitive processing and interpretation of the information deriving from them is of vital importance. That is what teachers cognitively attend to, what they conceive as important and what they remember about their performance govern the individual influence of these sources on efficacy beliefs (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Most researchers (Atay, 2007; Bandura, 1997; Mulholland & Wallace, 2001; Woolfolk Hoy, 2000) compromisingly reiterated that mastery experiences are the most powerful source of teacher efficacy beliefs whereas the physiological and emotional arousals form the

least powerful source. Moreover, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2007) found that the experienced teachers in their study reported little reliance on verbal persuasion, which they (2007) explained by the mastery experiences these teachers had gained throughout their careers. In the case of pre-service teachers who lack mastery experiences, however, other sources become more prevalent in forming their efficacy judgments until they step into the practicum school where they become involved in authentic teaching experiences for the first time. Accordingly, several studies (Chan, 2008; Charalambaos, Philippou & Kyriakides, 2008; Huinker & Maddidson, 1997; Poulou, 2007) unearthed that the mastery experiences in the practicum played a preliminary role in constructing pre-service teachers' efficacy judgments. Huinker and Maddison (1997) expounded that even failures in the practicum experiences may have positive implications as long as they are not ascribed to personal deficiencies, but to inappropriate strategy use or lack of effort.

Nevertheless, some other studies (Capa Aydın & Woolfolk Hoy, 2005; Mulholland & Wallace, 2001; Phan & Locke, 2015) disclosed somehow contradictory findings as they revealed that social/verbal persuasion and vicarious experiences surmounted the perceived influence of mastery experiences. For instance, Mulholland and Wallace (2001) indicated that social/verbal persuasion in addition to mastery experiences played a significant role in teacher efficacy beliefs while vicarious experiences and physiological and emotional arousals made a relatively little contribution. Likewise, Phan and Locke (2015) examined Vietnamese English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers perceptions of sources of efficacy information and showed that social/verbal persuasion in the form of positive feedback from their students and colleagues was the main source of efficacy for the teachers participating in their study. More recently, some studies (Poulou, 2007; Oh, 2011) found additional sources of information affecting teachers' efficacy judgment. Poulou (2007) examined perceptions about sources of efficacy through what she called the Sources of Personal Teaching Efficacy Inventory and reported that apart from the four sources suggested by Bandura (1997), the pre-service teachers in her study referred to additional potential sources including personality characteristics, skills, and motivation for teaching. Poulou's (2007) study further indicated that different sources of information had differential impact on judgments of efficacy in different aspects of teaching. The participants in her (2007) study stated that while their perceptions of personality characteristics and teaching competencies affected their perceptions of efficacy in

instructional strategies and classroom management, their perceptions of motivation as well as personality characteristics and skills formed the basis of their perceptions of efficacy in student engagement.

2.4.4. Factors Associated with Teacher Efficacy Beliefs

Previous research examining relationships between teacher efficacy beliefs and various factors has yielded intriguing findings. To start with, demographic variables have consistently been reported not to be strong predictors of teacher efficacy beliefs (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). For instance, a plethora of studies found that efficacy beliefs of pre-service or in-service teachers did not differ depending on age (Guskey, 1987; Pendergast, Garvis & Keogh, 2011) and race (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). Regarding the relationship between teacher efficacy beliefs and gender, however, some studies (Coladarci & Breton, 1997; Romi & Leyser, 2006) found higher efficacy scores in favor of female teachers, which Ross et al. (1996) explained by the perception of teaching as a more female profession. Much research (Campbell, 1996; Cantrell, Young & Moore, 2003; Ross et al., 1996) also showed that teachers' educational degree was another major demographic variable marking a difference in their efficacy beliefs.

Comparing pre-service and in-service teachers in the USA and Scotland, Campbell (1996) reasoned that participation in graduate degrees and in-service training activities exposed teachers to different ideas and strategies, which in turn contributed to their efficacy beliefs. Interestingly, Chacon (2005) highlighted that teachers' perceived proficiency in listening, speaking, writing and reading as well as culture knowledge predicted their perceived efficacy. She (2005) specified that except for a lack of correlation between perceived proficiency in writing and efficacy in classroom management, perceived proficiency in the four major language skills predicted efficacy in student engagement, instructional strategies and classroom management. Additionally, Wertheim and Leyser (2002) pinpointed that pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs varied depending on the area of major. They (2002) stated that pre-service teachers majoring in early childhood education were identified with significantly lower efficacy means than those majoring in junior high education.

Studies probing (Moore & Esselman, 1992; Phan & Locke, 2015) into the relationship between teachers' efficacy beliefs and various aspects of the school they

worked in pointed out that contextual factors displayed significant relationships with teacher efficacy beliefs. For instance, Moore and Esselman (1992) contended that teachers who viewed themselves as an active contributor to school-based decision making and their school atmosphere as positive reported stronger efficacy beliefs. Furthermore, collegiality and institutional support have a strong impact on teacher efficacy beliefs. In Phan and Locke's (2015) study, teachers complained that a lack of collegiality in their school context had a negative impact on their efficacy beliefs because it deprived them of such opportunities to improve their performance as social/verbal persuasion and vicarious experiences. Woolfolk Hoy and Spero (2005) similarly noted a dramatic decline in novice teachers' efficacy beliefs at the end of their first year in teaching. They (2005) argued that lack of support which the novice teachers had previously received from their school-based teachers and supervisors in practicum might have caused the decline.

Several studies (Hoy & Woolfolk 1990, 1993) indicated that another factor affecting teacher efficacy beliefs concerned teachers' perceptions of the school principal. Investigating the relationships between the two dimensions of teacher efficacy (i.e. PTE and GTE) and various aspects of a healthy school climate, Hoy and Woolfolk (1993) found out that working with a school principal who had influence with his/her superiors and could use it for the good of teachers fostered teachers' PTE beliefs. They (1993) further maintained that a school climate prioritizing academic achievement contributed to both PTE and GTE beliefs. A number of studies (Lin et al., 2002; Lin & Gorrell, 1997; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2002) also revealed that teacher efficacy beliefs significantly correlated with parental involvement as teachers with higher efficacy were more open to support and feedback from parents. Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2002) added that availability of resources was another crucial factor promoting teacher efficacy beliefs. Similarly, quite a few studies (Lee, Dedrick & Smith 1991; Woolfolk Hoy and Spero, 2005) confirmed that socioeconomic background of students marked a difference in teacher efficacy beliefs. Put it simply, teachers felt more efficacious when they taught students from higher socioeconomic background.

Previous research has unquestionably confirmed that teachers' sense of efficacy does not operate in isolation, rather interact with other psychosocial constructs. A number of studies (Puolou, 2007; Saracaloğlu & Dinçer, 2009; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) showed strong correlation between teacher efficacy beliefs and

motivation. In a correlational analysis of the relationship between teacher efficacy beliefs and academic motivation among pre-service primary school teachers, Saracaloğlu and Dinçer (2009) concluded that teachers with higher motivation would have stronger efficacy beliefs. Other studies (Caprara, Barbaranelli, Borgogni & Steca, 2003; Caprara, Barbaranelli, Steca & Malone, 2006; Martin, Sass & Schmitt, 2012; Viel-Ruma, Houchins, Jolivette & Benson, 2010) revealed positive relationships between teacher efficacy beliefs and job satisfaction. Viel-Ruma et al. (2010) examined special education teachers' perceptions of collective efficacy, teacher efficacy and job satisfaction, and pointed out that teacher efficacy was a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Likewise, quite a few studies (Coladarci, 1992; Dellinger et al, 2008; Evans & Tribble, 1986) highlighted that high efficacy beliefs reinforced teachers' commitment to teaching.

Conversely, several studies (Ghaith & Shaaban, 1999; Li & Zhang, 2000; Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008) documented that teachers' sense of efficacy was negatively correlated with such critical constructs as teaching stress, anxiety and concerns. Using Gibson and Dembo's TES, Ghaith and Shaaban (1999) found out that Lebanese teachers' experience in teaching and PTE beliefs, rather than GTE beliefs, showed significantly negative relationships with their perceptions of teaching concerns. More specifically, teachers who had more years of experience in teaching and stronger PTE beliefs were less concerned about different aspects of teaching including self-, task and impact concerns. In the same vein, various studies (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Devos, Bouckenooghe, Engels, Hotton & Aelterman, 2007; Evers, Brouwers & Tomic, 2002) indicated negative relationships between teacher efficacy beliefs and different dimensions of teacher burnout. Brouwers and Tomic (2000) maintained that efficacy in classroom management had differential relationships with the three dimensions of burnout. Considering the direction of the relationships, they (ibid.) pinpointed that while teachers' efficacy in classroom management impacted depersonalization and personal accomplishment, emotional exhaustion affected their efficacy in classroom management. In accordance with the negative relationship between teacher efficacy and burnout, Schwarzer and Hallum (2008) recapitulated that teachers with low levels of efficacy were more likely fall victim to burnout.

Previous studies (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Soodak & Podell, 1993; Wertheim & Leyser, 2002) well-established that teacher efficacy beliefs played a major role in teachers' behaviors. That is when teachers had stronger efficacy

beliefs, they displayed more positive teaching behaviors. For instance, teachers with high efficacy employed more student-centered and individualized teaching strategies than teacher-centered strategies (Ross et al., 1996; Wertheim & Leyser 2002). Teachers with high efficacy spent more time in academic learning, provided students who had difficulty in learning with substantial support to ensure their learning rather than being critical of their mistakes, and gave positive reinforcement for their achievements (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Likewise, teachers with high efficacy were less likely to refer students with learning difficulties to special education in contrast to the less efficacious teachers who viewed placing such students in regular education as inappropriate (Podell & Soodak, 1993; Soodak & Podell, 1993).

A great number of studies (Allinder, 1994; Evers et al., 2002; Ghaith & Yaith, 1997; Guskey, 1987) also confirmed that teachers with high efficacy tended to more readily embrace new ideas and experiment with innovative instructional practices. Regarding teachers' control ideology, quite a few studies (Emmer & Hickman, 1991; Henson, 2001b; Witcher et al, 2002; Woolfolk, Rosoff & Hoy, 1990) indicated that while teachers with high efficacy beliefs adopted more humanistic and communicative approaches, teachers with low efficacy displayed more custodial behaviors in the classroom. Furthermore, several studies showed that teacher efficacy beliefs significantly correlated with student outcomes including students' own sense of efficacy (Anderson, Greene & Loewen, 1988; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001), motivation (Henson, Kogan & Vacha-Haase, 2001), and academic achievement (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Therefore, one can summarize that students of highly efficacious teachers are likely to have stronger efficacy, higher motivation and success in learning.

2.4.5. Teacher Efficacy Beliefs in PTE

With respect to teacher efficacy development in pre-service teachers, previous studies (Poulou, 2007) yielded promising results about the influence various teacher education programs had on teacher efficacy beliefs. Several researchers (Dembo & Gibson, 1985; Gorrell & Capron, 1988; Housego, 1992) underscored the need for PTE programs to involve activities and practices specifically intending to promote efficacy beliefs. Obviously, Hoy and Woolfolk (1993) posited that expecting teacher education programs to generate pre-service teachers with well-established personal teaching

efficacy beliefs would be unrealistic; rather, teacher education programs should equip pre-service teachers with the essential knowledge and skills to cope with the challenges of actual teaching. Once the knowledge and skills prove functional in actual practices, they will facilitate construction of accurate efficacy judgments. Similarly, Moseley, Reinke and Bookout (2003) deemed that crucial contributions of teacher education programs to pre-service teachers' sense of efficacy could be realized only when these programs exposed pre-service teachers to extensive pedagogical knowledge and provided them with authentic teaching experiences and opportunities for learning through vicarious experiences and social/verbal persuasion including observing and interacting with supervisors, school-based teachers and peers.

As such, numerous studies (Huinker & Madison, 1997; Lin & Gorrell, 2001; Mulholland & Wallace, 2001; Woolfolk Hoy & Spero 2005) found changes in pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs after attending to teacher education programs. One of the various aspects of these programs, methods courses play a major role in promoting pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs (Arsal, 2014; Crowther & Cannon, 1998; Savaşçı Açıkalın, 2014). In a study comparing efficacy beliefs of pre-service teachers following attendance to methods course, Crowther and Cannon (1998) contended that though all the groups reported benefits from having the practicum, the participants who had taken the methods course before having the practicum communicated their efficacy gains better than those who did not have the course or had the course and practicum simultaneously. Likewise, Savaşçı Açıkalın (2014) pointed out that there was a statistically significant increase in teacher efficacy beliefs of Turkish pre-service science teachers after they completed the science methods course.

A great number of studies (Cerit, 2010; Lin & Gorrell, 1997; Lin et al., 2002; Spector, 1990) also documented changes in pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs throughout different years in teacher education programs. In a study examining the influence of culture and education on pre-service teachers from the USA and Taiwan, Lin et al. (2002) postulated that the ending-level pre-service teachers had significantly stronger efficacy beliefs than the beginning-level pre-service teachers. Pointing to a linear increase in pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs during a four-year teacher education program, Spector (1990) emphasized that teacher efficacy beliefs peaked in practicum. Nevertheless, one should notice that in the studies (Dembo & Gibson, 1985; Housego, 1992; Romi & Leyser, 2006) discerning between PTE and GTE beliefs, the direction of the change was far from being conclusive given that the time spent in

teacher education programs featured to have differential impact on PTE and GTE beliefs. While some studies (Cerit, 2010; Witcher et al., 2002) pointed out higher PTE scores with the progression of time in the education program, others (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990; Wertheim & Leyser, 2002) unfolded a decrease or no significant difference in GTE scores. Similarly, some studies (Henson, 2001c; Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005) indicated an increase in GTE scores over time whereas others (Housego, 1992; Gorrell & Hwang, 1995) yielded no significant change or a tendency to decrease.

More intriguingly, some studies (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990; Dembo & Gibson, 1985; Housego, 1992) indicated that while there was a significant increase in pre-service teachers' PTE beliefs over time in teacher education programs, the GTE beliefs demonstrated a significant decline. Housego (1992) studied efficacy beliefs development among pre-service Canadian elementary education teachers and found that that although there was a significant increase in PTE beliefs, GTE beliefs decreased significantly throughout the program. Furthermore, some longitudinal studies (Woolfolk Hoy, 2000; Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005) revealed that although pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs increased significantly throughout the teacher education program, there was a significant decrease in their efficacy beliefs at the end of their first year teaching, which Ross (1998) explained by the perceived complexity of actual teaching practices in real classrooms. Soodak and Podell (1997) maintained that in contrast to high PTE beliefs in the early fieldwork and student teaching, pre-service teachers' PTE beliefs declined significantly during the first year of teaching.

Another prominent aspect of teacher education programs, teaching practicum plays a pivotal role in the development of efficacy beliefs. Given that teaching practicum presents the first encounter with actual classroom settings, it gives pre-service teachers invaluable opportunities to gain awareness about what teaching real students requires, what authentic teaching experiences feel like and how the multi-faceted school context operates (Pendergast, Garvis & Keogh, 2011; Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005). Indeed, many researchers (Yeung & Watkins, 2000; Yılmaz & Çavaş, 2008) consistently underlined that a well-designed teaching practicum is the strongest aspect of teacher education programs factoring into pre-service teachers' efficacy judgments. Considering Bandura's (1997) hypothesis that efficacy beliefs are amenable to change early in learning and once established, they are highly resistant to change, several researchers (Enochs & Riggs, 1990; Gorrell & Hwang, 1995; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990; Savran Gencer & Çakıroğlu, 2007) capitalized on the need for early detection of

efficacy beliefs during teacher education, particularly during teaching practicum.

In congruence with the argument for early detection of efficacy beliefs, numerous studies (Atay, 2007; Charalambaos et al., 2008; Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008; Paese & Zinkgraf, 1991) conveyed that teaching practicum made significantly positive contributions to pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs. For instance, Charalambaos et al. (2008) noticed that coupled with social/verbal persuasion from peers, mentors, tutors and students, a three-month teaching experience in schools considerably improved pre-service mathematics teachers' efficacy beliefs. Cantrell et al. (2003) maintained that teaching practices engaging the participants in lesson plan development for a sustained period of time boosted up pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs. Examining the impact of teaching practices on teacher efficacy beliefs and teacher stress, Paese and Zinkgraf (1991) reported significantly inverse relationships between perceptions of role ambiguity and PTE while a similar relationship was true between perceptions of role overload and PTE and GTE. They (ibid.) signified that pre-service teachers who perceived less role ambiguity and overload had stronger PTE beliefs while those who perceived less role overload also had stronger GTE beliefs. They also (1991) reported that pre-service teachers who felt well-prepared for teaching had higher PTE beliefs. Intriguingly, though, Paese and Zinkgraf's (1991) study revealed no significant changes in pre-service teachers' PTE and GTE beliefs during the three-month field experience.

Given the relationships between teaching practices and PTE and GTE beliefs, previous studies (Dembo & Gibson, 1985; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990) yielded controversial findings. A great number of studies (Crowther & Cannon, 1998; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990; Li & Zhang, 2000) indicated that while PTE beliefs became stronger during teaching practices, GTE beliefs tended to wane. Reporting on a pilot study conducted with pre-service elementary and early childhood education teachers, Li and Zhang (2000) noted that after six field experience trips, pre-service teachers had significantly higher PTE beliefs contrary to significantly lower GTE beliefs. They (ibid.) attributed the decline in pre-service teachers' belief in the influence overall teaching might exert on student learning to the complexity of actual teaching practices which seemingly tarnished the participants' optimistic views. Similarly, Mulholland and Wallace (2001) traced efficacy development of an elementary school teacher during her transition from pre-service to in-service teaching and argued that giving pre-service teachers' fractional responsibility in practicum schools might underlie the cultivation of

unrealistically optimistic efficacy beliefs. Accordingly, quite a few researchers (Ross, 1998; Wheatley, 2005) clarified that despite Bandura's (1997) contention that reasonable optimism might yield better results, pre-service teachers with unrealistically optimistic efficacy beliefs were vulnerable to experience reality shock once they were placed in real schools as practicing teachers, which required a recalibration of their understanding of teaching and efficacy beliefs against the divergences between their experiences in the pre-service education and actual teaching practices.

As to the factors that might positively contribute to teacher efficacy beliefs during teaching practicum experiences, previous studies (Enochs & Riggs, 1990; Goker, 2006; Nolan & Hillkirk, 1991; Volkman, Scheffler & Dana, 1992) attached grave importance to such activities as collaboration with and support from the stakeholders in practicum and engagement in reflective practice. For instance, Akbari and Allvar (2010) found a statistically significant correltation between teacher efficacy and teacher reflectivity. In an experimental study conducted with pre-service elementary education teachers over a four-week teaching experience, Volkman et al. (1992) reiterated that engagement in reflective practice in the form of recasting, rethinking and reinterpreting their practices in biweekly reflective conferences enabled pre-service teachers to form significantly stronger efficacy beliefs than those who did not attend to these conferences. Moreover, collaboration with peers made significant contributions to teacher efficacy beliefs. In an attempt to examine impact of peer mentoring on efficacy beliefs and instructional skills, Goker (2006) unraveled that peer mentoring activities significantly improved pre-service EFL teachers' efficacy beliefs. Finally, numerous studies (Mulholland & Wallace, 2001; Yeung & Watkins, 2000) showed that although cooperating teachers were a major figure for pre-service teachers in the practicum schools, lack of support from cooperating teachers featured to be a strong factor undermining pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter begins with introducing the research design used in the present study. The following sections provides information about the participants and data collection tools and procedures. Finally, it explains the data analysis process.

3.2. The Research Design

The specific purposes of the present study required different kinds of research questions, which required collecting and analyzing different types of data. The study resorted to quantitative data in order to respond the first set of questions (i.e. research questions 1-4) regarding possible within- and between-group differences in teaching concerns and teacher efficacy beliefs of the participants prior to (pre-test) and following (post-test) practicum while it also used qualitative data to delve deeper into reasons and implications of the differences. To answer the last question examining the perceptions of the participants about practicum, the present study utilized qualitative data. In so doing, the present study used the convergent mixed methods design, which is one of the six types of mixed methods design described by Creswell (2012).

Mixed methods research design refers to a procedure in which researchers rely on both qualitative and quantitative methods in the collection and analysis of data. As a basic type of mixed methods design, the convergent mixed methods design aims to concurrently collect and combine both types of data in order to provide a comprehensive understanding of the research problem (Cresswell, 2012). Like all the other mixed methods design types, the convergent mixed methods design uses both types of data to offset possible weakness of either type, which in turn helps to draw a more complete picture of the research problem than the use of either type can do alone. With regard to the process of conducting a convergent mixed methods design study (See Figure 1), Creswell (2012) stated that:

"*The researcher gathers both quantitative and qualitative data, analyzes both datasets separately, compares the results from the analysis of both datasets, and makes*

an interpretation as to whether the results support or contradict each other. The direct comparison of the two datasets by the researcher provides a "convergence" of the data sources" (p. 540).

Characteristically, the convergent mixed methods design views both types of data as equally important. In this design, the collection of both types of data takes place concomitantly. Studies using this design compare the results of qualitative and quantitative analyses so as to shed light on similarities and dissimilarities between the results. Of the several ways Creswell (2012) illustrated to make this comparison, the present study chose to present the quantitative and qualitative results side by side to ensure a better understanding of the results. Moreover, the present study counted the number of references to each concern category and efficacy dimension emerging from the qualitative data in order to further reinforce the quantitative results.

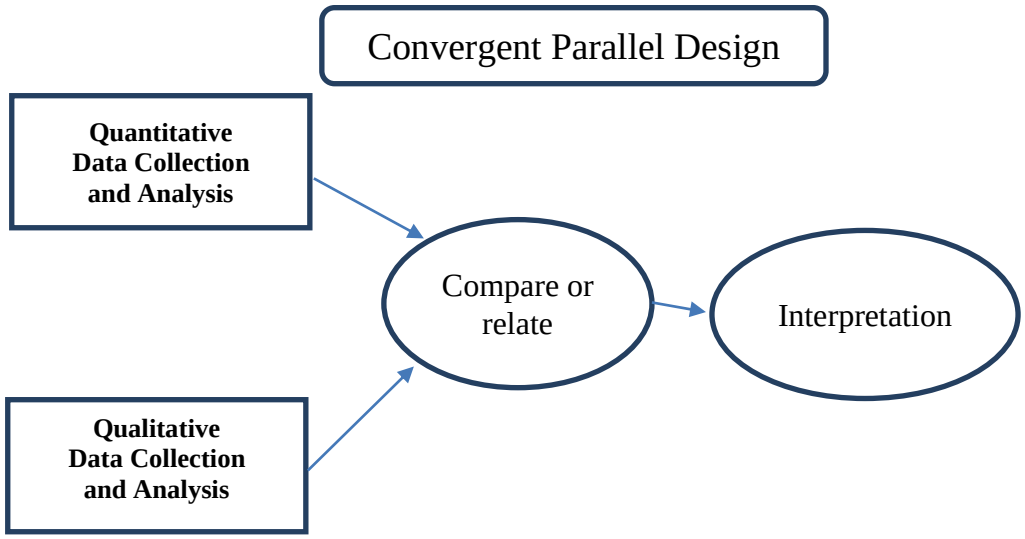


Figure 1. The Process in a convergent mixes methods design study (Creswell, 2012, p.541)

3.3. Participants

The present study comprised a total 20 pre-service ELT teachers assigned to the study and comparison groups with 10 participants in each. The present study used convenience sampling (Creswell, 2012) in order to select the participants. Convenience sampling is a sampling strategy which enables to select participants identified with willingness and availability to be studied. As Creswell (2012) argues, convenience sampling can offer useful information for producing enriched answers to the questions guiding a study. Obviously, a major disadvantage of convenience sampling is that the sample is not representative of the population, which restricts generalizability of results

(Cohen et al., 2007; Creswell, 2012; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009). However, two factors made convenience sampling a requirement to successfully carry out the present study. Firstly, the fact that the practicum schools had to share similar contextual features (socio-economic, physical etc.) for conducting reliable comparisons between the RPM and TM groups urged choosing participants from a restricted geographical area, which in turn required selection of participants who were convenient. Secondly, the participants in the RPM group had to be granted certain autonomy to select their peers due to the very nature of extended collaboration they would be involved in throughout practicum, which further required convenience sampling.

To access the participants and conduct the present study, the researcher submitted a formal letter to the administration of the Çukurova University ELT department together with a brief description of the study and questionnaires to be administered (See Appendix 1). Upon receiving approval to conduct the study, the researcher informed pre-service teachers who were assigned to the practicum schools used in the present study about the purposes and procedures in this study. Those who volunteered to participate received further information about the responsibilities and tasks they would undertake by accepting to participate in the present study. Then, each participant signed a written consent form to indicate their complete willingness to participate (See Appendix 2). In the consent form, the researcher ensured the participants that the personal data they would submit would be kept confidential and that they could withdraw from the study any time they wished.

As criteria for selecting the participants among those who had volunteered to participate, the present study ensured that all the participants (12 females and 8 males) had completed the compulsory methodology courses before the practicum placement and had no previous teaching experience. Also, the participants were all in the final year of the PTE program and enrolled in the 'School Experience' and 'Practice Teaching' courses in the fall and spring semesters, respectively. They all claimed willingness to keep weekly reflective journals, participate in interviews and fill out questionnaires throughout the study. Further, the participants in the RPM group also admitted to regularly make peer observations and hold peer conferences prior to and following each teaching practice in practicum. To prevent confusion, the present study assigned each participant a number from 1 to 20 (i.e. P1, P2 etc.) and used RPM and TM to distinguish between the participants in the study and comparison groups. Hence, a pseudonym like RPM-P1, which the present study uses in the following chapter to identify the excerpts

deriving from participant reflections, stands for the participant numbered 1 in the RPM group while TM-P5 represents the participant numbered 5 in the TM group.

3.4. Data Collection Tools and Procedures

3.4.1. Data Collection Tools

This longitudinal study utilized both quantitative and qualitative data collection tools. Extensive use of both types of data in conjunction with one another would obviously provide a more enriched understanding of the point(s) of interest than either type could do by itself (Creswell, 2012). While the present study administered Teacher Concerns Checklist (Borich, 1992) and Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) to elicit quantitative data, it used reflective journals, open-ended concern questionnaire, group and individual interviews, and audio-records of peer conferences as sources of qualitative data. The present study briefly introduces each tool used for data collection below.

3.4.1.1. Teacher Concerns Checklist

The Teacher Concerns Checklist (TCC) is a self-report instrument deriving from Fuller's (1969) seminal work on stages of teacher development. TCC (Borich, 2000) measures teaching concerns with a specific focus on self, task and impact concerns, which represent the three stages in Fuller's (1969) theory of teacher development. TCC consists of 45 items, with 15 items specifically addressing each type of concerns (See Appendix 3). TCC identifies teachers' perceived levels of concerns through 5-point Likert-type items anchored from 1 (not concerned) to 5 (preoccupied). The higher one scores in TCC and its subscales, the higher concerns s/he has about teaching. Numerous studies (Boz, 2008; Campbell & Thompson, 2007; Watzke, 2007) reported high reliability and validity both for the instrument as a whole and its subcategories. Hence, TCC appeared to have a well-established recognition as a viable tool for not only assessing but also formatively evaluating pre-service teachers' teaching concerns (Buhendwa, 1996).

3.4.1.2. Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale

The Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) was based on the assumption that

there was a dire need for a valid instrument measuring efficacy beliefs in regard to various tasks within different domains of functioning in specific contexts (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Woolfolk Hoy and Spero (2005) argued that TSES proved superior to its precedents because "it has a unified and stable factor structure and assesses a broad range of capabilities that teachers consider important to good teaching, without being so specific as to render it useless for comparisons of teachers across contexts, levels, and subjects" (p. 354). While there is also a short version with 12 items, the present study used the long version of TSES (See Appendix 4). TSES (the long version) includes 24 items assessed along a 9-point continuum with anchors at 2—Nothing, 3—Very Little, 5—Some Influence, 7—Quite a Bit, and 9—A Great Deal. TSES has 3 dimensions; namely, efficacy in student engagement, classroom management and instructional strategies. A higher score on TSES and subscales means higher efficacy in one's ability to successfully perform various teaching practices. Quite a few studies (Pendergast et al., 2011; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007; Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005) found high reliability and validity for both the full scale and the subscales. Due to its widespread use with high reliability and validity across studies, several researchers (Cheung, 2008; Klassen et al., 2009; Ross & Bruce, 2007) viewed TSES as a candidate to become the standard instrument for measuring teacher efficacy beliefs.

Although there is a Turkish version of TSES translated by Çapa et al. (2005), the present study used the original version because the participants were majoring in ELT and had sufficient proficiency to understand it. Nevertheless, one should notice that in their initial analysis, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) found that the best solution of TSES for pre-service teachers would be a single factor and thus, suggested to consider the total score rather than the scores gauged from the subscales while using TSES to assess pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs. However, Charalambaos et al. (2008) challenged Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2001) argument for single factor because they found evidence that pre-service teachers did discriminate between different aspects of teaching. Likewise, Woolfolk Hoy and Spero (2005) admitted that despite its relative success, TSES still required further testing and validation. Accordingly, the present study perceived no risk to use the subscale scores with the participants. Even so, it used the subscale scores merely for the purpose of descriptively analyzing the pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs without conducting any advanced analysis.

3.4.1.3. Reflective Journals

Following the growing interest in Schön's (1983) notion of reflective practitioners, reflective journals have featured as one of the most promising methods for helping teachers to adopt a critically reflective approach to their practices (Richards & Ho, 1998; Zeichner & Liston, 1987). Reflective journals provide a forum for teachers to document, analyze and reflect on classroom events through their own perspectives. As Richards and Ho (1998) argue, keeping reflective journals is not a mere matter of storytelling. Rather, it engages teachers in reflective analysis of their practices, which enhances their awareness about critical events that may otherwise go unnoticed and thus, fosters teachers' professional development. With this regard, the present study required the participants to write reflective journals about their experiences in practicum.

Nonetheless, keeping a reflective journal may prove challenging, particularly for inexperienced teachers who are unfamiliar with the concept of reflection and features of an effective journal (Richards & Ho, 1998). Similarly, various researchers (Britton & Anderson, 2010; Vidmar, 2006) maintained that providing sample tools including a list of questions for consideration, particularly in the initial stages of RPM process, could do a major service to foster reflection. Therefore, the researcher in the present study developed a template for reflective journals based on a review of previous studies (Vidmar, 2006; Wynn & Kromrey, 2000; Zwart et al., 2008) so as to promote the participants' critical reflection on the practicum experiences. One should keep in mind that rather than imposing external foci, the researcher provided the template as a mere framework for encouraging the participants to critically reflect on what worked well/poorly in practicum, notice differences between their initial plans and actual practices, and make inferences for their own development.

The researcher designed two separate versions of the template corresponding to the specific practicum experiences of the RPM and TM groups. The TM version of the template comprised 4 sections; namely, objective, strengths, weaknesses/suggestions and reflections (See Appendix 5). In the first section, the participants jotted down the teaching and observation objective(s) for each week. In the second section, they specified at least 3 strengths in the practices they observed or performed. In the third section, they noted at least 3 weaknesses in the practices they observed/performed and

suggestions to overcome the perceived weaknesses. In the last section, they stated overall reflections about the practicum experiences they had each week.

The RPM version of the template for reflective journals, however, consisted of two parts distinguished by the roles of mentee and mentor (See Appendix 6). The first part included the same sections and requirements as in the TM version. The second part of the RPM version of the template focused specifically on the role of mentor. Different from the first part, the second part included five sections. In the first section, the participants wrote down their objective(s) in observing their peers' practices. In the second section, they enlisted at least 3 strengths in their peer's practices. In the third section, they highlighted at least 3 weaknesses in their peer's practices and suggestions to handle the perceived weaknesses. In the fourth section, they reflected on the suggestions and advice they passed on to their peer as well as personal gains they made from acting as a mentor to their peer. Finally, the participants briefly summarized overall RPM experiences of each week, its contributions to their learning to teach and possible underpinnings for forthcoming practices in the fifth section of the template.

3.4.1.4. Open-Ended Concerns Questionnaire

Eliciting teaching concerns through open-ended questionnaires has long been a typical implementation in teaching concerns research. Fuller et al. (1974 B86) explained the drawback of merely relying on quantitative instruments as they emphasized that teaching concerns reflected in a structured instrument would be filtered through the instrument developer's selection at the expense of eliminating some more serious concerns. Based on a review of previous studies (Fuller et al, 1974; Conway & Clark, 2003 B85), the present study administered an open-ended concern questionnaire consisting of a single item that asked the participants to state any concerns they had about teaching (See Appendix 7). All the participants responded the questionnaire in written form immediately after they filled out TCC both at the beginning and end of practicum. The logic in administering the open-ended concern questionnaire in addition to TCC was to delve into possible reasons underlying their responses and providing the participants with more freedom to state any concern that was not addressed in TCC. Given that teaching concerns were context-specific (Campbell & Thompson, 2007; Watzke, 2007), the open-ended concern questionnaire could additionally help to explore possible concerns specific to the practicum experiences in the context of ELT

practicum.

3.4.1.5. Group and Individual Interviews

Interview is a powerful and flexible tool for data collection, which allows for investigating events/situations through the viewpoints of the actors themselves (Cohen et al., 2007). It enables researchers to delve deeper into interviewees' world as it allows for asking for further clarification at the spur of the moment and thus, minimizing possible misunderstandings. Considering that constructs like teaching concerns and teacher efficacy beliefs rely heavily on teachers' subjective interpretations of the classroom events, the researcher perceived it essential to conduct interviews in order to probe into the participants' mind and reflect their interpretations of the practicum experiences through their own words. All the interviews in the present study were semi-structured i.e. the researcher asked a set of predetermined questions aligned with the purposes of the study but also granted the participants sufficient flexibility to focus on topics that were of particular interest to them.

To determine possible interview questions, the researcher conducted an extensive review of studies (Britton & Anderson, 2010; Capel, 1998b; Hardy, 1996; Lindgren, 2005) using interviews to investigate pre-service teachers' teaching concerns and efficacy beliefs. With a preliminary list of questions deriving from the literature review, the researcher consulted to an experienced teacher educator who was a full time professor working as the head of ELT department at the university where the present study was conducted in order to refine the list and identify questions more likely to encourage the participants to freely share their opinions. During the interviews, the researcher paid specific attention to take shorter turns, hoping that it would maximize the time and space allotted to the participants' talk (Creswell, 2012). Moreover, the researcher audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim all the interviews for further analysis.

The present study employed both group and individual interviews because of the relative strengths of each type. On the one hand, group interviews based on interactive discussions among the group members provide enriched data through encouraging the participants to share their own views and experiences (Cohen et al., 2007). As Creswell (2012) argues, they can prove useful for eliciting shared understanding of certain events, particularly when the participants are reluctant to disclose opinions on an

individual basis. The group interviews in the present study were conducted at the end of first semester. They mainly comprised 5 questions in the case of the TM group and 7 questions in the case of the RPM group (See Appendix 8), which were hoped to further stimulate the participants' additional opinions and comments about their practicum experiences in the first semester. Separately conducted with the RPM and TM groups, each group interview lasted approximately 2 hours.

On the other hand, the present study also included individual interviews conducted with all the participants at the end of the practicum process. The present study employed individual interviews to provide the participants with freedom from group thinking and foster sharing of individual views (Cohen et al., 2007). More precisely, the individual interviews intended to allow the participants to comfortably disclose individual opinions about the practicum experiences and personal interpretations of possible strengths/weaknesses in their own practices. Each individual interview lasted about 50-70 minutes. Apart from the issues coined by individual participants, the individual interviews basically engaged the participants in in-depth thinking about a broad range of issues such as their likes/dislikes about practicum, perceived contributions of the mentoring experiences (RPM or TM) to their professional development, the quantity and quality of support ideally provided by the significant others during practicum and struggles/positive experiences they had in practicum (See Appendix 9). Furthermore, the present study ensured to involve the participants in the RPM group in specific comparisons of taking practicum through RPM and TM practices in terms of (peer) observations, (peer) conferences and teaching practices.

3.4.1.6. Audio-Records

The present study required the participants in the RPM group to audio-record the peer conferences they necessarily had prior to and following each teaching practice. Then, the participants submitted these audio-records via e-mail no later than the day after they visited the practicum school. The audio records performed two critical functions. On the one hand, they ensured that the participants in the RPM group regularly held the conferences. On the other hand, they provided insights into the participants' teaching concerns and efficacy beliefs development throughout practicum. The researcher transcribed verbatim all the audio records of peer conferences for content analysis.

3.4.2. Procedures

Practicum in the context of PTE where the present study was carried out engages pre-service teachers in practicum placements for two semesters, with a minimum of 10-12 weeks in the practicum schools in each semester. The present study could collect data for a total of 16 weeks spread over the fall and spring semesters of the academic year 2014-2015 due to a variety of reasons including a) the formal correspondence between the university and practicum schools for practicum to start, b) nationwide holidays or special days/events in the practicum schools coinciding with the day the participants visited the schools, and c) the one-week mid-term exams breaks requiring the participants to spend a whole week at the university at the expense of visiting the practicum school in each semester. Once he determined the participants and assigned them to the study and comparison groups, the researcher separately took both groups to the practicum schools in order to introduce them to the cooperating teachers they would work with, the administrators and other staff in the schools. It was before these introductory visits that all the participants filled out the TCC, open-ended concern questionnaire and TSES.

Following the introductory visits, the participants in the TM group started the practicum with the routines in the TM model, which ideally required observing the cooperating teachers in the fall semester, practice-teaching in the spring semester and holding regular briefing and debriefing conferences with the cooperating teachers throughout the practicum. Different from the TM group, the participants in the RPM group observed the cooperating teachers only for four weeks. At the same time, they participated in a training program on RPM, which will be discussed below. Then, the RPM group proceeded with the practices in the RPM model, which required regular peer observations and peer conferences apart from the routines in the TM model. At the end of the first semester, the researcher held interim group interviews with the RPM and TM groups separately. During these semi-structured interviews, the participants reflected on experiences they had and observations they made during the first semester, how they managed to survive possible challenges they encountered in practicum schools, and overall pros and cons of taking practicum in the first semester.

In the second semester, the TM group started teaching practices whereas the RPM group followed essentially the same routines. Throughout the whole practicum

process, both groups wrote weekly reflective journals while the RPM groups also kept audio-records of the pre- and post-conferences they held with their peers. The researcher collected all the reflective journals and audio-records of the conferences via e-mail in order to ensure maximal convenience for the participants. The deadline for submitting the reflective journals and audio-records was no later than the day after the participants visited the practicum schools. The researcher deliberately kept the deadline short because too long a time interval between teaching/observation practices and submitting journals/audio-records might lead to ignoring or forgetting to refer to some critical events or exaggerating some experiences in order for 'social desirability'. During the week following the last teaching practices in the second semester, the researcher held individual interviews with all the participants. In these final interviews, the researcher elicited the participants' reflections on overall practicum experiences, possible benefits/drawbacks of engagement in the practicum experiences and suggestions to further improve practicum.

3.4.2.1. Training on RPM

Several authors (Bowman & McCormick, 2000; Hasbrouck, 1997; Lu, 2010) emphasized the need for a training program before implementing peer mentoring. Therefore, the present study provided an intensive training program on RPM during the first 4 weeks period when the RPM group observed the cooperating teachers. Given the purposes and design of the study, only the study group participated in the training program. The training intended to help the RPM group gain a robust awareness about their roles and responsibilities in the RPM model. The researcher determined the content of the training program as a result of an extended literature review of previous studies (Askvig & Garnes, 1999; Goh & Matthews, 2011; Hooker, 2014; Kuru-Gönen, 2012; Mau, 1997) which provided similar training on RPM. The content of the training program mainly addressed 7 topics including

- Introduction and discussion of TM
- Introduction to RPM
- Justification for RPM
- Stages and procedures in RPM
- Tips for giving and receiving effective feedback
- Interpersonal communication skills

- Critical reflection

The training program comprised 8 sessions each approximately lasting 1,5-2 hours. It included interactive discussions through eliciting and responding the participants' questions and allowed flexibility for covering new topics emerging from the participants' questions in addition to the pre-specified major topics. The last session in the training program surfaced as a sort of simulation of peer work the participants would be engaged in throughout practicum as they watched practice-teaching videos of former pre-service teachers in practicum, reflected together with their peer on strengths/weaknesses of the teaching performance and suggested alternatives about how to improve the performance. The researcher had contacted the former pre-service teachers in the videos in advance and ensured to get their permission to use their videos for the purposes of the present study. Finally, the supervisor in the present study also attended to the last session as a counselor and additional source of reference to satisfactorily respond possible questions that the participants might ask about the teaching performances in the videos, overall practicum and RPM practices.

3.5. Data Analysis

The present study used both quantitative and qualitative techniques to analyze the data collected through various instruments. To analyze the quantitative data, the present study employed a couple of statistical tests through SPSS Version 23. The number of participants in the present study was insufficient to conduct what is called parametric tests. Fraenkel and Wallen (2009) propose that the minimum sample size that would make parametric tests possible should be no less than 30. Nevertheless, the present study gauged data from a total of 20 pre-service teachers. That's why the present study had to resort to nonparametric alternatives. Table 1 below summarizes the tools used for data collection and the types of analysis conducted to respond the research questions.

As a first step, the present study conducted a set of descriptive analyses to unveil the participants' perceived teaching concerns and teacher efficacy beliefs means prior to and following practicum. These analyses also yielded mean scores in subcategories of teaching concerns and teacher efficacy beliefs. Next, the present study used the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test for paired samples in order to compare teacher efficacy beliefs of each group prior to and following practicum. As Cohen et al. (2007) highlight,

Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test is the nonparametric alternative for the t-test for paired samples. Analyzing teacher efficacy beliefs through Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test allowed determining possible intra-group changes in teacher efficacy beliefs before and after the participants undertook the practicum experiences. The present study repeated the same analysis for the dimensions of teacher efficacy beliefs. This helped to shed light on how possible changes in dimensions of teacher efficacy beliefs aligned (or otherwise) with possibly significant changes in overall efficacy beliefs and thus, proved much more informative about the development of pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs in practicum. Similarly, the present study followed the same procedures through the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test so as to reveal intra-group differences in the perceived teaching concerns before and after the participants attended to practicum. Also, the present study repeated the analysis to identify possible changes in the subcategories of teaching concerns, which enabled to draw a more complete picture of pre-service teachers' teaching concerns development throughout practicum.

As the last step of the quantitative analysis, the present study compared the participants' teaching concerns and teacher efficacy beliefs prior to and following practicum. To this end, the present study conducted the Mann-Whitney U test, which compares the mean scores of two different groups as the nonparametric alternative for the t-test for independent samples (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009). Through the Mann-Whitney U test, the present study unearthed possible inter-group differences in the teacher efficacy beliefs prior to and following practicum. That's the present study revealed if there were any statistically significant differences between teacher efficacy beliefs of the RPM and TM groups before and after they completed the practicum process. However, a salient point of consideration worth underlining was that due to the limited number of participants, the present study had to conduct two separate analyses. In the first place, the present study conducted an analysis through the Mann-Whitney U test delving into possible differences between the teacher efficacy beliefs of the RPM and TM groups prior to practicum and then conducted a second analysis through the Mann-Whitney U test again to specifically examine possible differences between the teacher efficacy beliefs of both groups following practicum. Likewise, the present study repeated the same procedures through the Mann-Whitney U test to analyze inter-group differences in teaching concerns of the RPM and TM groups before they attended to practicum and after they completed it.

Table1

Data collection tools and analysis types in line with research questions

Research Questions	Tools	Analysis
• **R.Q. 1.** Is there any statistically significant difference in efficacy beliefs of the **a)** RPM group prior to and following the practicum? **b)** TM group prior to and following the practicum?	• TSES • Reflective Journals • Individual Interviews • Group Interviews • Transcriptions of audio-records	• Wilcoxon Signed Ranks • Content Analysis
• **R.Q.2.** Is there any statistically significant difference between the RPM and TM groups regarding their efficacy beliefs prior to and following the practicum?	• TSES • Reflective Journals • Individual Interviews • Group Interviews • Transcriptions of audio-records	• Mann-Whitney U test • Content Analysis
• **R.Q.3.** Is there any statistically significant difference in teaching concerns of the **a)** RPM group prior to and following the practicum? **b)** TM group prior to and following the practicum?	• TCC • Open-Ended Concerns Questionnaire • Reflective Journals • Individual Interviews • Group Interviews • Transcriptions of audio-records	• Wilcoxon Signed Ranks • Content Analysis
• **R.Q.4.** Is there any statistically significant difference between the RPM and TM groups regarding their teaching concerns prior to and following the practicum?	• TCC • Open-Ended Concerns Questionnaire • Reflective Journals • Individual Interviews • Group Interviews • Transcriptions of audio-records	• Mann-Whitney U test • Content Analysis
• **R.Q.5.** What are the perceptions of the RPM group as compared to those of the TM group on overall practicum process?	• Reflective Journals • Individual Interviews • Focused Group Interviews	• Content Analysis

To analyze the qualitative data, however, the present study used content analysis. Content analysis comprises systematically analyzing, examining and verifying content of written data (Flick, 1998). It is basically a process of coding, categorizing, comparing/contrasting, and drawing conclusions from a given text (Ezzy, 2002). Cohen et al., (2007) argue that content analysis is useful for both building new theories and testing or confirming existing ones. Weber (1990) posited that researchers should utilize both qualitative and quantitative analyses of texts in order to generate high-quality

reports. The present study, therefore, involved not only mere excerpts but also quantitative accounts of the qualitative data through providing statistical representation of frequency of references the participants made about the phenomena investigated in this study. Employing both analyses apparently provided further support for the quantitative data. Considering the increased responsibility of researchers using qualitative data for clearly specifying the methods they use (Gray, Williamson, Karp & Dalphin, 2007), the present study offers a detailed explanation of the qualitative data analyses below.

In the present study, qualitative data analyses informally started as the participants began to submit weekly journals and audio-records of pre- and post-conferences. Miles, Huberman and Saldana (2014) suggested that adopting an all-at-one-time approach to data analysis would negatively affect the robustness of qualitative data and quality of analysis. Similarly, Thornberger and Charmaz (2011) argued that the collection and analysis of qualitative data should go hand in hand and that analysis should immediately start as data begins to emerge. That's why the researcher tentatively determined possible communication units and codes as the data collection was still in progress. This helped the researcher gain an awareness of the events the participants encountered in the practicum schools and how they perceived and reacted to them. In other words, it increased the researcher's familiarity with the overall dataset, which would facilitate the subsequent data analysis (Saldana, 2009).

However, formal analysis of the qualitative data began only when the data collection ended following the final interviews the researchers conducted with the participants. The analysis of qualitative data took place in three rounds. The researcher created separate panels of coders for each round of data analysis due to the voluminous body of data. A total of 7 coders took part in the whole qualitative analysis process.

3.5.1. Round 1: Analysis of Teacher Efficacy Beliefs

The first round of qualitative analysis particularly intended to investigate the participants' teacher efficacy beliefs development with a specific interest in the sources of teacher efficacy beliefs. The researcher created a panel of three separate coders to help with the analysis. The coders were all PhD candidates in ELT who were working as a research assistant or instructor and had previous experience with qualitative data analysis. Two of the coders also had increased awareness about teacher efficacy beliefs

as one had studied pre-service ELT teachers' efficacy beliefs in her MA thesis and the other had published an article on teacher efficacy beliefs. The researcher sent the qualitative dataset to the three coders via e-mail and asked them to analyze the dataset. In the e-mail, the researcher informed the coders of the purposes of the study, in particular those pertaining to pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs development, and provided operational definitions of teacher efficacy beliefs, dimensions of efficacy beliefs and sources of efficacy beliefs.

The coders independently analyzed the data through the Constant Comparison Method. The constant comparison method refers to a process of establishing a robust fit between the data and patterns emerging from the data. Glaser (1996 cited in Cohen et al, 2007) defines it as the process of continuously comparing the properties and categories across the qualitative data until no new pattern emerges. The constant comparison method enables comparisons of data with data, data with codes and codes with codes so that similarities and differences within a dataset can be displayed (Cohen et al, 2007; Thornberger & Charmaz, 2011).

The present study equally empowered the three coders to partake in all the activities including identifying communication units, coding, sorting and categorizing. Upon receiving the dataset, the coders read through the data for initial coding, a process which allows researchers "to reflect deeply on the contents and nuances of your data and to begin taking ownership of them" (Saldana, 2009, p.81). This would give a sense of what was going on in the data and help to begin analyzing and interpreting the data (Thornberger & Charmaz, 2011). At the end of the initial coding, the researcher had individual conferences with the coders virtually (via Hangout or Skype) or through the telephone. These conferences included discussions of the communication units and tentative codes the coders had determined and possible struggles they had in determining and coding the communication units. Obviously, these tentative codes were not an end in themselves. Rather, coding defined as the act of "naming segments of data with a label that simultaneously categorizes, summarizes and accounts for each piece of data" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 43) is a complex and evolving process. It required revisiting for adding, dropping and modifying the tentative codes (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Miles et al., 2014) for a more thorough analysis and interpretation of the data. Accordingly, the coders in the present study read through the data again for what Charmaz (2006) called focused coding, which included a more directed and selective focus in order to come up with more conclusive decisions about codes and categories.

Yet the researcher reminded the coders that they were most welcome to add new communication units/codes/categories and drop or modify the existing ones any time they deemed it necessary. At the end of the focused coding process, the researcher elicited the codes and categories each coder had created. To measure the "intercoder agreement" (Saldana, 2009, p. 27), the present study used the following formula Miles and Huberman (1994, p.64) suggested.

$$\frac{\text{Number of agreements}}{\text{total number of agreements + disagreements}}$$

Though there is no base value to be accepted as standard, Saldana (2009) maintained that a value over 80% represents good intercoder agreement. The present study revealed 84% agreement, which was high enough to consider intercoder agreement reliable. Yet Miles and Huberman (1994) posited that despite numerical statistics, it would be useful to clarify differences among coders. Similarly, Harry, Sturges and Klingner (2005) suggested that group consensus achieved through intensive group discussion was more desirable than what pure numerical statistics would suggest. Hence, the researcher conducted a group meeting where the coders discussed and clarified the communication units/codes/categories that challenged them the most, determined the excerpts to be included in the report and unanimously decided on the final form of codes and categories to be used for the representation of the data. It was in the group meeting that the coders together with the researcher decided in consensus to abide by the original terminology used by Bandura (1977, 1986, 1997) in naming the categories and sources of teacher efficacy beliefs. The decision about resorting to the original terminology was justified with three reasons including a) the desire to ensure consistency with the literature on teacher efficacy beliefs, b) the relative success of the original terminology across studies and c) the fact that the coders detected no outliers in the dataset.

3.5.2. Round 2: Analysis of Teaching Concerns

The second round of qualitative data analysis probed into perceived teaching concerns pre-service teachers reported throughout practicum. For the second round of analysis, the researcher created a new panel of three separate coders. Just like those in the first round, the coders participating in the second round were PhD candidates in ELT who were working as a research assistant or instructor. The coders had vast

experience in qualitative data analysis. They were also familiar with teaching concerns because they had publications on similar constructs like teacher stress and anxiety. The researcher hoped that the coders' familiarity with the topic of interest in the present study might facilitate the data analysis.

The second round of qualitative analysis basically followed the same routines as in the first round. The researcher sent the coders an e-mail including the dataset, the purposes of the study with a specific focus on pre-service teachers' concerns development in practicum, and operational definition of teaching concerns and its subcategories. The coders independently analyzed the dataset through the constant comparison method. They took part in all the activities including identification of communication units, coding, sorting and categorizing. Similar to the first round, the coders iteratively read through the dataset for initial coding and then, had an individual telephone or virtual conference with the researcher. In these conferences, they discussed with the researcher the communication units which challenged them the most and tentative codes they had determined. Once the initial coding was over, the coders proceeded with focused coding. The researcher made the notification that any modification of the communication units or tentative codes would be appreciated.

At the end of the focused coding, the researcher gleaned the codes and categories from each coder. Using Miles and Huberman's (1994) formula, the measurement of intercoder agreement for the second round revealed a value of 87%, which represented a highly reliable intercoder agreement. Next, the researcher conducted a group meeting to resolve disagreements and achieve consensus among the coders (Harry et al., 2005). In the group meeting, the coders together with the researcher discussed and clarified communication units/codes/categories that posed challenges for them, determined excerpts to be included in the report and decided on the conclusive form of codes and categories to be used for the representation of the data. In the meeting, the group argued for confirming to the three broad categories originally named in Fuller's (1969) and Fuller and Bown's (1975) studies. But within each category, they decided on using the thematic codes specifically emerging in the present study. The decision about using the specific thematic codes was considered essential based on the reasoning that teaching concerns were to some extent context-specific (Campbell & Thompson, 2007; Guillaume & Rudney, 1993; Watzke, 2007).

3.5.3. Round 3: Analysis of Perceptions on Overall Practicum

The third round of qualitative data analysis aimed at providing an in-depth analysis of pre-service teachers' perceptions on overall practicum with a specific interest in differentiated views on engagement in RPM and TM practices. For the third round of the qualitative analysis, the researcher created a panel of two separate coders. Yet one of the coders was the same colleague who also assisted the data analysis in the first round. One of the coders holds his PhD in ELT and still works as an assistant professor in an ELT department. The other coder was about to complete her PhD in ELT and worked as a research assistant in an ELT department. Both coders had previous experience in qualitative data analysis and were well-acquainted with the field experience system in pre-service ELT programs in Turkey.

The process in the third round of qualitative analysis was quite similar to the preceding rounds. The researcher sent the coders an e-mail including the dataset, purposes of the study with a specific focus on practicum experiences and operational definitions of practicum, mentoring and RPM. Different from the preceding rounds, however, the dataset to be analyzed in the third round comprised only the reflective journals and verbatim transcriptions of the group and individual interviews held with the participants because it was solely through these tools that the researcher particularly elicited the participants' views about the overall practicum process. The coders independently analyzed the data through the constant comparison method. They actively participated in the whole process including identification of communication units, coding, sorting and categorizing. Similar to the preceding rounds, the coders read through the dataset for the initial coding. Then, they had an individual telephone or virtual conference with the researcher, where they discussed the communication units and tentative codes they had determined as well as possible struggles they encountered in determining them. Following the conferences, the coders continued with the focused coding with full freedom to modify the communication units or tentative codes whenever they perceived it necessary and/or useful.

Then, the researcher collected the codes and categories determined by the coders. Intercoder agreement for the third round of analysis measured through Miles and Huberman's (1994) formula surfaced to be 83%, which was moderately high for a reliable intercoder agreement. Eventually, the researcher held a group meeting so as to achieve robust consensus through resolving disagreements between the coders (Harry et al., 2005). Just like in the preceding rounds, the group meeting included the discussions and clarification of communication units/codes/categories which proved to be

challenging for the coders, determination of the excerpts to be included in the report and conclusive decision on the codes and categories to be used for the representation of the data. In the meeting, the coders together with the researcher compromised to employ five categories, which featured to stand for all the components of practicum as experienced by the RPM and TM groups in an embedded fashion.

Finally, the present study employed member checking in order to ensure true conformity with the data submitted by the participants. Member checking is the process of consulting to the participants in a study in order to promote the trustworthiness of findings emerging from the study (Saldan, 2009; Ezzy, 2002; Creswell, 2012). Accordingly, the researcher sent to the participants the excerpts that were determined to be used during the group meetings in each round. The researcher asked the participants to confirm if a) the excerpts taken from the data they had submitted were placed in appropriate codes and categories, b) reflected precisely what they had meant and c) adequately sampled their teacher efficacy beliefs, teaching concerns and perceptions about practicum experiences as a whole. Also, the participants shared their opinions about whether the translations of their words, as the interim and final interviews were conducted in Turkish, were proper. The researcher consulted to the supervisor and made necessary modifications according to the suggestions deriving from member checking. As a consequence, member checking enabled to ensure that the excerpts provided sound evidence augmenting the quantitative data.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the findings emerging from the present study. The first section includes findings about teacher efficacy beliefs prior to and following practicum with an emphasis on the three dimensions of efficacy beliefs. This section highlights the changes in the efficacy beliefs of each group prior to and following practicum. The next section presents findings about the differences between the efficacy beliefs of the RPM and TM groups prior to and following practicum. It provides comparisons between the two groups' efficacy beliefs in terms of the four sources of efficacy beliefs information.

The third section in this chapter focuses on teaching concerns development throughout the practicum process with a specific emphasis on the three types of teaching concerns. This section presents the changes in teaching concerns of each group prior to and following practicum. The next section, Section 4.4., presents findings about the differences between teaching concerns of the RPM and TM groups prior to and following practicum. Through comparing the teaching concerns of the participants, this section gives insights into the differential influence of various components of practicum on the perceived differences.

The last section summarizes findings about pre-service teachers' perceptions on the overall practicum process. It provides insider views about various components of practicum including teaching practices, observation experiences and briefing/debriefing conferences along with peer observation and peer conference.

4.2. Teacher Efficacy Beliefs Prior to and Following Practicum

The present study revealed that overall efficacy means of the RPM group increased from 5.8583 prior to practicum to 7.6083 following it, which marked a considerable change in their perceived efficacy beliefs (See Table2). Conversely, the efficacy means of the TM group decreased from 6.3208 prior to practicum to 5.0042 following it. Despite the remarkable decrease, the participants in the TM group were still moderately efficacious following practicum. Hence, one can speculate that the

practicum process had a negative impact on the efficacy scores of the TM group without changing their efficacy levels whereas it positively affected the efficacy scores of the RPM group, which probably made them feel more assured of their teaching capabilities. Moreover, the descriptive analyses of the efficacy scores of the RPM group in all the dimensions of efficacy indicated a remarkable increase following practicum. However, the mean efficacy scores of the TM group showed a reverse trend in all the dimensions except for instructional strategies. Put it simply, the mean efficacy scores of the TM group in student engagement and classroom management diminished considerably whereas their efficacy in instructional strategies increased following the practicum process.

Furthermore, there were also drastic differences both between and within the RPM and TM groups in terms of the dimensions in which they reported the highest and lowest efficacy prior to and following practicum. Considering the mean scores of the RPM group, the participants reported the highest efficacy in student engagement and the lowest efficacy in classroom management prior to practicum. Following the practicum, however, the participants in the RPM group opted for classroom management as the area of the highest efficacy and instructional strategies as the area of the lowest efficacy. With respect to the mean scores of the TM group, the present study indicated that the participants felt the most efficacious in classroom management and the least efficacious in student engagement prior to practicum. Nevertheless, the participants in TM group showed the highest efficacy in instructional strategies and the lowest efficacy in classroom management following practicum.

Table 2

Pre-test and post-test efficacy scores of the RPM and TM groups

			Overall Efficacy		**Student Engagement**		**Instructional Strategies**		**Classroom Management**	
			Pre	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**
RPM	**N**	**Valid**	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
		Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Mean		5.8583	7.6083	6.1625	7.6250	5.8125	7.4250	5.6000	7.7750
TM	**N**	**Valid**	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
		Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Mean		6.3208	5.0042	5.6500	4.6750	6.5875	7.1000	6.7250	3.2375

The present study relied on Bandura's (1977) four sources of efficacy information as points of reference giving insights into possible reasons underlying the changes in the efficacy beliefs of each group prior to and following the practicum. In the present study, the sources of efficacy information comprised different activities in

line with the different components of the practicum trajectories perceived by each group. With specific reference to the components of the practicum trajectory the RPM group perceived, the extensive teaching practices they had throughout the whole practicum process referred to their mastery experiences. The conferences they regularly had with their peers as well as the conferences with the cooperating teachers represented social/verbal persuasion. Also, peer observations scattered over the whole practicum process apart from observing the cooperating teachers constituted their vicarious experiences while physiological and emotional arousals embraced any activity related to their feelings throughout the practicum process.

Regarding the sources of efficacy information in line with the practicum trajectory perceived by the TM group, the teaching practices they had in the second term of the practicum process stood for their mastery experiences. For the TPM group, social/verbal persuasion only comprised the conferences with the cooperating teachers. Furthermore, observations of the cooperating teachers formed their vicarious experiences, and physiological and emotional arousals referred to activities stirring their feelings. Hence, the present study unearthed differential influence of various sources of information on the participants' efficacy development depending on the practicum trajectory within which they took the practicum, which in turn contributed to different interpretations of the changes in their efficacy beliefs.

4.2.1. Efficacy Beliefs of the RPM Group

The present study showed that the abovementioned changes in teacher efficacy beliefs of the RPM group were statistically significant ($z= -2.805$, $p<.05$). The increases in all the dimensions including their efficacy in student engagement, instructional strategies and classroom management were statistically significant, as well (See Table 3). Therefore, one can argue that taking the practicum within the RPM protocols contributed to not only the participants' overall efficacy beliefs but also their efficacy in the three dimensions of efficacy beliefs.

Table 3

Analysis of pre- and post-test efficacy scores of the RPM group

	Pre-test Post-test	n	Mean rank	Sum of ranks	z	p
Overall	Negative ranks	0	.00	.00	-2.805*	.005
	Positive ranks	10	5.50	55		
St. Eng.	Negative ranks	1	1.00	1.00	-2.705*	.007
	Positive ranks	9	6.00	54.00		
Inst. Str.	Negative ranks	0	.00	.00	-2.805*	.005
	Positive ranks	10	5.50	55.00		
Cl. Mang.	Negative ranks	0	.00	.00	-2.807*	.005
	Positive ranks	10	5.50	55.00		

*based on negative ranks

The qualitative data collected from the participants clarified that given the number of references they made to each source of efficacy information, social/verbal persuasion seemed to be by far the strongest source for the RPM group (See Figure 2). This finding was quite understandable considering that the participants in the RPM group had many opportunities to exchange feedback and reflections on the practicum experiences thanks to the peer conferences they regularly had apart from the conferences they were supposed to have with the cooperating teachers and supervisor. Furthermore, the present study intriguingly pointed out that although the RPM group enjoyed extensive teaching experiences starting from the first term of the practicum process, mastery experiences featured to play a secondary role as a source of efficacy information in the RPM group's efficacy development. This finding implied that merely having teaching practices would be insufficient to ensure development of strong efficacy beliefs. Instead, the teaching practices should be reinforced by other sources of efficacy information, especially by social/verbal persuasion in the form of regular conferences with the other stakeholders of practicum and vicarious experiences in the form of observing teaching practices of effective models who would closely identify with the observer. Also, the present study unearthed that vicarious experiences seemed to be only a supplementary source of efficacy information for the RPM group. As for the source of efficacy information which received the fewest references, the participants' reflections revealed that physiological and emotional arousals surfaced to have the least impact on the efficacy beliefs of the RPM group.

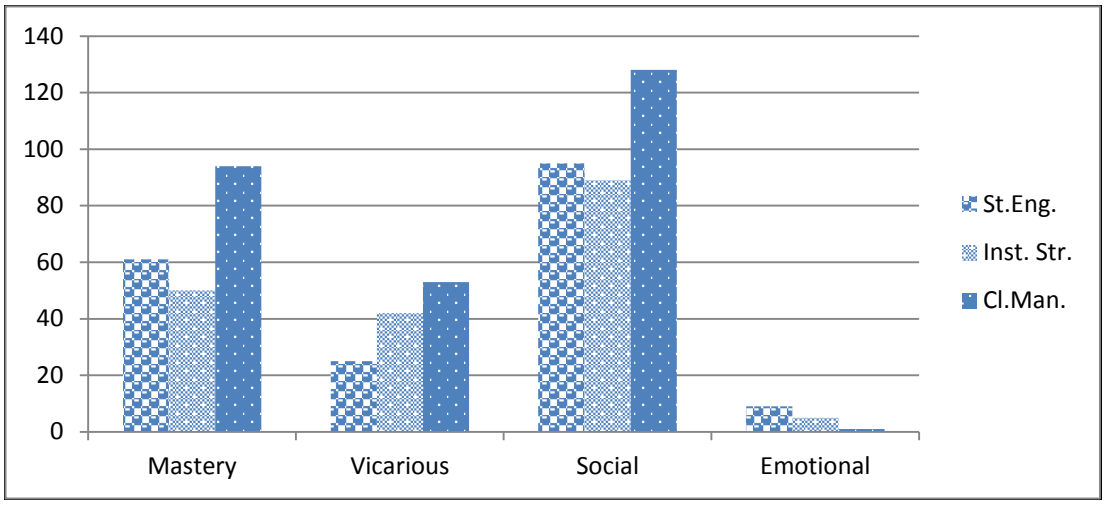


Figure 2. Number of references to dimensions and sources of efficacy by the RPM group

The content analysis of the qualitative data collected from the RPM group yielded invaluable remarks that gave insights into the results emerging from the statistical analyses. Confirming the increase in the RPM group's overall efficacy beliefs following practicum, the participants' reflections on the practicum process indicated that various experiences they had throughout practicum exerted a noticeable influence on the way they perceived their efficacy in teaching. Excerpts 1-2 illustrated the RPM group's views on the contribution of the practicum process on their overall efficacy beliefs.

> "After a while, the sessions were getting better than I had thought beforehand. The students were more eager to be active in the class. Even I heard some voices saying 'I love that teacher' and these voices triggered me to be more active in the class". (Excerpt 1- RPM-P3)
>
> "We have progressed a lot in terms of teaching. We have improved in classroom management, language use, adapting to the classroom. More specifically, we can now make our teaching more productive by using different techniques. We realized that we should not limit ourselves to using certain techniques as it would be boring to always teach in the same way". (Excerpt 2- RPM-P7)

Moreover, the RPM group's reflections on the practicum process supported the significant increase in all the dimensions of efficacy. Regarding their efficacy in student engagement, the content analysis of the qualitative data intriguingly revealed that though there was a slight difference compared to instructional strategies, efficacy in student engagement seemed to receive the fewest number of references by the participants in the RPM group. However, this finding might be explained by a 'ceiling effect' because the participants in the RPM group reported the highest efficacy in

student engagement prior to practicum. Henceforth, they might not have needed to elaborate on student engagement as much as they did on classroom management or instructional strategies because they already felt moderately efficacious in motivating the students to learn at the beginning of practicum. Likewise, the RPM group's reflections evinced that the experiences they had during the practicum gave them opportunities to further testify their effectiveness in engaging and motivating the students in learning activities. Upon seeing their achievement in focusing the students' attention on learning, the participants in the RPM group seemed to form more positive views about their ability to deliver attractive lessons, which might have promoted the increase in their efficacy in student engagement. Excerpt 3 exemplified the RPM group's satisfaction with the role of the practicum process in boosting their efficacy in student engagement.

> "I realized that the activities I prepared were very effective. I mean I managed to attract the students' interest in time. In the previous weeks, they were always like bored of doing the activities but later on, I began to use more funny activities and luckily got positive reactions. In this sense, the practicum helped me a lot". (Excerpt 3- RPM-P1)

As regards the statistically significant increase in the RPM group's efficacy in instructional strategies, the content analysis of the qualitative data corroborated the increase in their efficacy in instructional strategies following practicum since efficacy in instructional strategies surfaced to be the second most frequently referred dimension by the RPM group. Evidently, the RPM group's reflections ascribed a preliminary role to the experiences they had during practicum in the statistically significant increase in their efficacy in instructional strategies. In particular, the participants in the RPM group pinpointed that the practicum experiences enabled them to construct a more realistic understanding of how they should functionally implement the theoretical knowledge of various teaching methodologies into practice. With such understanding, the participants in the RPM group probably got more assured of their own ability to decide on which instructional strategies to employ in different situations, which in turn might have boosted the increase in their efficacy in instructional strategies. Excerpt 4 reflected how the participants in the RPM group viewed the practicum process as a factor strengthening the progress they made in their efficacy in instructional strategies.

> "While my partner was teaching, I observed her and put myself in her shoes. This gave me a chance to think in advance about what could be done in my classroom.

> [Peer's name] would give the meaning of unknown words by drawing them on the board or made the students guess their meanings. She looked really effective in this. When I used the same guessing activity in my own classroom, my students really liked it. I kept using it while teaching new words". (Excerpt 4- RPM-P7)

As to the increase in the RPM group's efficacy in classroom management, the qualitative data collected from the RPM group unveiled that the participants mentioned their efficacy in classroom management more than the other two dimensions. This boiled down to mean that the participants in the RPM group focused mostly on their efficacy in classroom management throughout the various experiences they had during practicum, which partly justified the statistically significant increase in the RPM group's efficacy in classroom management following practicum. That is to say, their emphasis on classroom management during various experiences including their teaching practices, conferences with the peers and cooperating teachers, and observations of the peer and cooperating teachers might have enabled the RPM group to come up with alternative solutions to solve possible problems with classroom management, which in turn made them feel more efficacious about their classroom management skills. The content analysis of the qualitative data yielded insider comparisons of the participants' views on classroom management prior to and following practicum. The participants' reflections on the practicum process underlined the crucial role that engagement in actual teaching environments might have played in providing the RPM group with authentic information about the notorious issue of effective classroom management. Excerpt 5 illustrated that establishing their views on experiences in actual classrooms helped the participants in the RPM group make major benefits from the practicum process, which corroborated the increase in their efficacy in classroom management.

> "When I started teaching in the practicum school, I was afraid I would not be able to establish my authority. But with more practice, the practicum showed me that I was actually good at trying to make the students silent by using different strategies such as waiting silently, walking around the classroom and making eye contact… I was also good at taking their attention by using a song about our unit". (Excerpt 5- RPM-3)

4.2.2. Efficacy Beliefs of the TM Group

With respect to the changes in overall efficacy beliefs of the TM group prior to and following practicum, the present study showed a statistically significant decline after they completed the practicum process ($z= -2.807$, $p<.05$). The results also pinpointed statistically significant differences in the TM group's efficacy in all the dimensions. While there was a significant decline in their efficacy in student engagement and classroom management, there was a significant increase in their efficacy in instructional strategies (See Table 4). Based on these findings, one can assert that taking the practicum within the TM trajectory had a negative impact on the participants' overall efficacy beliefs as well as their efficacy in student engagement and classroom management whereas it positively affected their efficacy in instructional strategies.

Table 4

Analysis of pre- and post-test efficacy scores of the TM group

	Pre-test Post-test	**n**	**Mean rank**	**Sum of ranks**	**z**	**p**
Overall	Negative ranks	10	5.50	55.00	-2.807*	.005
	Positive ranks	0	.00	.00		
St. Eng.	Negative ranks	9	5.89	53.00	-2.608*	.009
	Positive ranks	1	2.00	2.00		
Inst. Str.	Negative ranks	2	2.75	5.50	-2.245**	.025
	Positive ranks	8	6.19	49.50		
Cl. Mang.	Negative ranks	10	5.50	55.00	-2.812*	.005
	Positive ranks	0	.00	.00		

*Based on positive ranks

** Based on negative ranks

The qualitative data elicited from the participants in the TM group yielded interesting findings about the impact of the sources of information on the TM group's overall efficacy development as well as their efficacy beliefs in the three dimensions of efficacy. Given the number of references they made to the four sources of efficacy information, the participants in the TM group most frequently referred to the mastery experiences, which made these experiences the primary source of information for the TM group's efficacy development (See Figure 3). The TM group's emphasis on the role of mastery experiences in their efficacy development confirmed Bandura's (1977, 1997) argument for mastery experiences as the primary source of efficacy beliefs. Another noticeable finding emerging from the qualitative data elicited from the TM group was that the participants in the TM group referred solely to their observation of their cooperating teachers' practices as the source of vicarious experiences and their

interactions with the cooperating teachers as the source of social/verbal persuasion. This finding implied that unlike the participants in the RPM group, the participants in the TM group did not perceive discussions with and observations of their peers, with whom they were assigned to the same cooperating teacher, as a resource for their professional development.

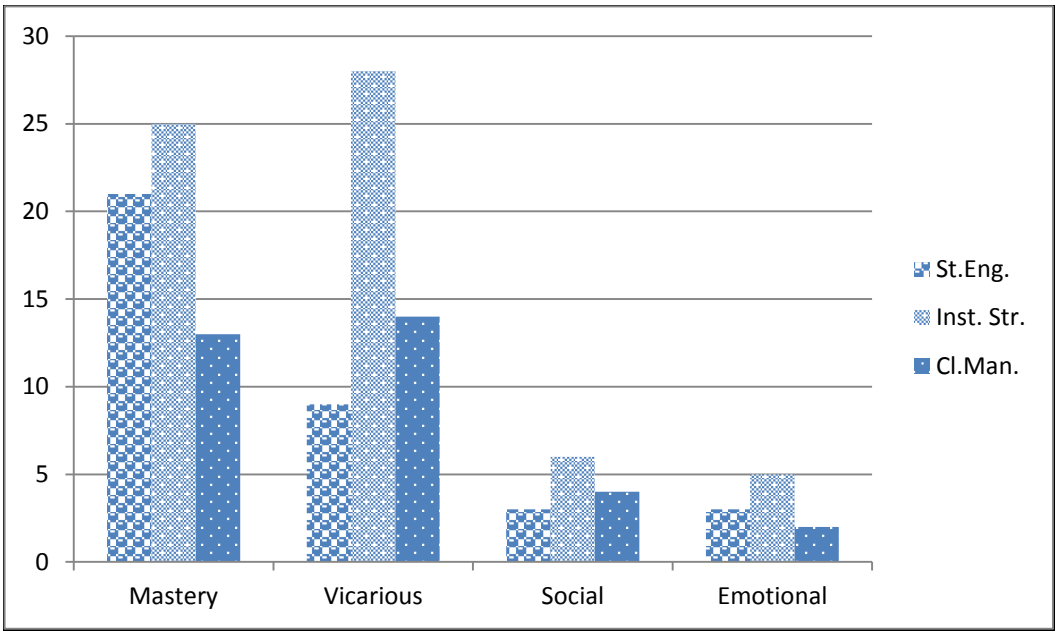


Figure 3. Number of references to dimensions and sources of efficacy by the TM group

More importantly, the qualitative data elicited from the TM group proved that considering the number of references made to vicarious experiences and social/verbal persuasion, the TM group displayed major differences with the RPM group. While the RPM group viewed vicarious experiences as an additional source, the participants in the TM group made the second most reference to vicarious experiences. In contrast to the RPM group's reference to social/verbal persuasion as the strongest source of efficacy information, the participants in the TM group made little reference to social/verbal persuasion, which implied that social/verbal persuasion was a weak source of efficacy information for the TM group. However, the participants in the TM group compromised with the RPM group on the role of physiological and emotional arousals in their efficacy development as they made the least reference to the arousals as a source of efficacy information. Nevertheless, the number of references made by the TM group to the four sources of efficacy information accorded with the order of importance suggested by Bandura (1977, 1997), which included, from the most informative source to the least, mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social/verbal persuasion and physiological and emotional arousals.

The content analyses of the qualitative data elicited from the TM group yielded interesting expressions about the changes in their efficacy beliefs. Evidently, the TM group's reflections unearthed that the practicum experiences had a critical impact on the changes in their overall efficacy beliefs as well as their beliefs in the three dimensions of efficacy. Given the decrease in their overall efficacy scores, the present study indicated that the practicum did not fulfill the expectations of the participants in the TM group. The TM group's views on the practicum process compromisingly revealed that engagement in actual teaching/learning environments was certainly useful but might have negative implications on pre-service teachers' professional identity unless it was carefully structured. More precisely, the participants in the TM group underlined that if they could not get sufficient support from the other stakeholders of practicum, particularly the supervisor, mere involvement in observing and teaching practices would have counter effect on their development, which might help to explain the decline in their overall efficacy beliefs. Excerpt 6 illustrated the helplessness that the participants in the TM group felt when things went awry during practicum.

> "I paid attention to teach inductively during my teaching practices. I did not directly give the students the rule. Instead, I tried to involve them in interactive activities so as to help them infer it. However, the students had great difficulty in adapting to my style because they were used to the deductive approach. Every time my practice did not work, I was losing my hope to be a good teacher". (Excerpt 6- TM-P4)

The TM group's reflections also confirmed the statistically significant changes in all the dimensions of their efficacy beliefs. Regarding the TM group's efficacy in student engagement, the number of references they made to student engagement throughout practicum was congruent with the statistically significant decline in their efficacy in student engagement as their reflections revealed few references to engaging the students in learning. More specifically, the TM group's reflections unveiled that the participants in the TM group experienced noticeable failures in attracting the students' attention to the lesson. Yet more importantly, the participants' in the TM group noted that it was a challenging task to engage the students in learning activities. Furthermore, they claimed that the number of teaching experiences would not suffice to ensure achievement in this challenging task. Excerpt 7 highlighted the TM group's reflections on the practicum process, which might partly justify the decline in their efficacy in student engagement.

> "This week I had an awful class again. My students didn't participate in the lesson. They weren't active in repetitions and little question-answer parts. It was impossible to draw their attention to the activities. They seemed to busy themselves with other things". (Excerpt 7- TM-P5)

As to the TM group's efficacy in instructional strategies, this was the only dimension in which they reported an increase following practicum. It was intriguing to notice that despite the statistically significant declines in the other dimensions of efficacy, the participants in the TM group showed a significant increase in their efficacy in instructional strategies. Yet, the content analysis of their reflections gave insights about the statistically significant increase in their efficacy in instructional strategies, since the participants in the TM group made the most references to their efficacy in instructional strategies. The TM group's reflections explicitly pointed out that despite the aforementioned inconveniences, the participants in the TM group made inferences from the multifaceted experiences they were involved in during practicum about what instructional strategies to use and/or avoid in order to teach successfully in the classroom. In particular, the present study found that the participants in the TM group viewed their own teaching practices as a sound factor promoting the increase in their efficacy in instructional strategies. Excerpt 8 shed light on how the participants in the TM group benefitted from the practicum experiences in forming a better understanding of effective teaching, which might have contributed to the increase in their efficacy in instructional strategies.

> "This week, I prepared a video and different kinds of materials. The teacher also liked my materials and found them appropriate for the students' level. It was promising for me as a prospective teacher to use these different and more enjoyable activities because they made my lesson much more effective". (Excerpt 8- TM-P7)

Finally, efficacy in classroom management was the other dimension in which the participants in the TM group reported a significant decline following practicum. Consonant with the decline, the content analysis of the TM group's reflections made it clear that the participants in the TM group made little reference to classroom management. The TM group's reflections implied that the difficulties they had with controlling the problematic students marked a highly negative imprint in their confidence in effectively managing the classroom. Experiencing insufficiency in handling possible discipline problems featured to be a major factor cultivating self-

doubt in the TM group about their teaching capabilities, which might have further triggered the decline in their efficacy in classroom management. Excerpt 9 explicated that the TM group seemed to equate effective teaching with effective classroom management as a result of the negative experiences they had during the practicum.

> "While teaching in the classroom, I still had problems with my tone of voice. I couldn't adjust it, and it caused management problems because when the students didn't hear me, they began to talk each other. As I couldn't prevent their talking, I couldn't teach the topic, either. And, my teacher also criticized me because of this. She said that I should practice more in order to handle this problem". (Excerpt 9- TM-P3)

4.3. Differences between Efficacy Beliefs of the RPM and TM groups

As stated above, the present study revealed statistically significant differences in the perceived efficacy beliefs of both groups prior to and following the practicum process. More specifically, the participants in the RPM group were identified with a statistically significant increase in their overall efficacy scores whereas the participants in the TM group were identified with a statistically significant decrease after they completed the teaching experiences. Whereas the increase in overall efficacy scores the RPM group was sustained in all the dimensions of efficacy including efficacy in student engagement, instructional strategies and classroom management, the decrease in the overall perceived efficacy scores of the TM group was maintained in all the dimensions but instructional strategies.

In addition to the statistical differences in efficacy beliefs within each group, the present study also compared the efficacy beliefs of both groups to see if there were any statistically significant differences between their efficacy beliefs. Due to the number of the participants, the present study conducted two separate Mann-Whitney U Tests in order to unravel any changes in their efficacy beliefs prior to and following practicum. Regarding the participants' efficacy beliefs prior to practicum, the results showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the RPM and TM groups before they started the practicum ($U=26.00$, $p<.05$) (See Table5). Prior to practicum, the participants in both groups had completed most of the courses in the program they were enrolled in and had the same number of micro teaching experiences. This might explain why there was no statistically significant difference between the groups in terms of their

perceptions of efficacy in teaching. Another possible explanation might derive from their reflections on the education they had received at the university because the participants in both groups iteratively reported strong confidence in the theoretical knowledge they had gained during the university education. Excerpts 10-11 highlighted the RPM and TM groups' views on the theoretical knowledge they had gained at the university, respectively.

> "I had already learned a lot about the teaching methodologies. Sometimes, I felt better than her [i.e. the cooperating teacher] because my knowledge of teaching methodologies was more updated and contemporary. But I only lacked experience about classroom management because I was still in the process of constructing my own conceptions of teaching". (Excerpt 10- RPM-P1)

> "I had successfully taken the methodology courses in which I had learned about various theories and approaches to teaching English. I had also learned about how to design effective materials that would facilitate the students' learning. So, the practicum was a good opportunity for me to put all this knowledge into practice". (Excerpt 11- TM-P6)

In either case, however, the lack of statistical difference between the RPM and TM groups implied that before they had the practicum experiences, the participants in both groups were homogenous in terms of their efficacy beliefs. Based on this finding, one may tentatively assume that any possible differences between efficacy beliefs of the RPM and TM groups following practicum might be related to the experiences they had throughout the practicum process.

Table 5

Analysis of the pre-test efficacy means of the RPM and TM groups

Group	**n**	**Mean rank**	**Sum of ranks**	**U**	**p**
Control	10	12.90	129.00	26.00	.069
Study	10	8.10	81.00		

Contrary to the initial homogeneity, the present study indicated a statistically significant difference between the RPM and TM groups in terms of their efficacy beliefs following practicum ($U=.000$, $p<.01$) (See Table 6). As stated above, there was a noticeable increase in the efficacy beliefs of the RPM group in contrast to the dramatic decrease in the efficacy beliefs of the TM group following practicum. Therefore, one can argue that after the practicum process, the RPM group felt more efficacious whereas

the TM group had lower efficacy.

Table 6

Analysis of the post-test efficacy means of the RPM and TM groups

Group	n	Mean rank	Sum of ranks	U	P
Control	10	5.50	55.00	.000	.000
Study	10	15.50	155.00		

The content analysis of the participants' reflections unfolded that in congruence with the statistically significant differences in their efficacy beliefs following the practicum, the participants in the RPM and TM groups also differed remarkably in the way they perceived the practicum experiences. In line with the different practicum trajectories they had, the participants in RPM and TM groups made interesting remarks shedding light on possible impacts of the four sources of efficacy information on the statistically significant difference in their efficacy beliefs following practicum. The present study revealed that differential access the RPM and TM models enabled to the four sources of efficacy information considerably factored into the differences between efficacy beliefs of the RPM and TM groups following practicum.

4.3.1. Perceptions on Mastery Experiences

Considering the role of mastery experiences in efficacy development of the participants, both groups agreed on the benefit of having authentic teaching experiences as these gave them a more realistic understanding of actual teaching. With specific reference to the influence of mastery experiences on the efficacy beliefs of the RPM group, the participants' reflections highlighted that the teaching practices as part of mastery experiences enabled the RPM group to see the strengths and weaknesses in their teaching practices and refine their practices, which in turn boosted their confidence in their ability to carry out effective teaching. Excerpt 12 illustrated that achievement of their mastery experiences encouraged the RPM group to put more effort to improve their teaching, which might have promoted their efficacy beliefs.

> "I realized that they liked my teaching style. The more interest they showed in my lesson the more motivated I became to teach them. I mean as they learned and gave me positive feedback, I began to forget my anxiety about teaching and focus on how I could be more beneficial to them. Receiving positive feedback from the students made me more motivated to be a teacher. I thought I should certainly be

a teacher, I really liked it". (Excerpt 12- RPM-P6)

Similarly, the present study unveiled that the difference between the efficacy beliefs of the RPM and TM group might be attributable to the different number of mastery experiences each group had during practicum. The RPM group's reflections on the practicum experiences iteratively showed that regarding the increase in their efficacy beliefs, the participants in the RPM group attributed a great role to the extensive teaching experiences they had during practicum. Excerpt 13 implicitly pointed to RPM group's favor for having more teaching experiences in the practicum process.

> "I could see the negative and positive sides of my teaching in the practicum school. As I was involved in first-hand teaching since the initial weeks of the practicum, I began to feel more confident that I would be a good teacher in the future". (Excerpt 13- RPM-P7)

As to the influence of mastery experiences on efficacy beliefs of the TM group, however, the present study demonstrated that there were some factors related to the way they had the practicum, which might have limited the benefit they could have made from the mastery experiences. Firstly, although mastery experiences appeared to be the strongest source of efficacy information for the participants in the TM group, these experiences were not sufficient to enable them to see the outcomes of their practices on the students. Moreover, the participants in the TM group underlined that they did not have well-structured mastery experiences which would help them focus on a certain aspect of their teaching. Instead, they reported that they had to make an overall analysis of their performance, which might have hindered identification and solution of the main problems they had during the teaching practices. Also, the participants in the TM group emphasized a lack of support in cases of failures in their teaching practices. That's although they considered their mastery experiences successful in general, they asserted that they needed someone to provide them with alternative ideas about how to prevent those failures or what measures they should take in cases of failures. Excerpt 14 illustrated the TM group's reflections on mastery experiences, which might partly explain the statistically significant difference between their efficacy beliefs and those of the RPM group following practicum.

> "It did not work as I had expected in real classrooms. I was thinking that when I taught a topic, some of the 30 students in the classroom would certainly understand it. But this was not the case because there were times when literally nobody understood me. I saw the difficulty of simplifying a topic to make it

understandable for the students. The ability to make immediate and practical modifications when they did not understand was certainly not something that could be achieved simply by teaching a few lessons". (Excerpt 14- TM-P8)

More importantly, the present study pointed out that considering the influence of mastery experiences on the TM group's efficacy beliefs, a 'reality shock' accompanying their initial teaching practices featured to make the TM group question their capabilities, particularly in classroom management. The participants' reflections hinted that the participants had optimistic views about their teaching capabilities based on their success in the micro teaching experiences at the university. However, such optimism seemed to fade against the multifaceted variables governing the dynamic nature of actual classrooms. Excerpt 15 clarified that the crash of the early optimism that the TM group had about teaching might have implications on the significant differences between the efficacy beliefs of the TM and RPM groups following practicum.

"Although I was very successful in the micro teachings, it was completely different to teach in real classrooms. When I came to the classroom, I realized that the micro teaching had nothing to do with teaching in real classroom. The students were crazily energetic and likely to cause some new trouble at any moment. I was thinking that it would be impossible to keep them seated, let alone teaching them something effectively". (Excerpt 15- TM-P1)

Additionally, the participants in the TM group stressed that through mastery experiences, they realized how difficult it could be to teach in real classrooms. Their reflections yielded remarks that evinced their failure in noticing the difference between observing the cooperating teachers' teaching and actually teaching. Likewise, the TM group's reflections revealed that mere reliance on their own enthusiasm and training in teaching featured to have negative influence on their efficacy beliefs. Excerpt 16 highlighted that mastery experiences seemed to challenge the TM group's views on teaching, which were not established on actual practice, and thus, might have aggravated the difference between efficacy beliefs of the TM and RPM groups.

"While observing the teacher, I could easily criticize her like if only she did not do it or it would be better to do it this way. But when I started teaching, I saw that controlling a classroom was an issue easier said than done. I had to keep several things running. I mean I had to prevent distractions, deal with the students' problems, reply their questions and do other classroom routines as well as implementing my own plans. And, this was sucking up all my energy". (Excerpt

16- TM-P4)

4.3.2. Perceptions on Vicarious Experiences

The present study unveiled that the participants' perceptions about the role of vicarious experiences in their efficacy development seemed to differ in line with the practicum trajectory they had. Considering efficacy development of the participants in the RPM group, vicarious experiences featured to be a supplementary source of information. As stated earlier, the participants in the RPM group observed not only the cooperating teachers but also their peers. In congruence with the short period of time they observed the cooperating teachers, the participants in the RPM group made little reference to the influence of observing the cooperating teachers' practices on their efficacy beliefs. But in cases where they did, they mentioned the practices of the cooperating teachers as a criterion to decide on their own effectiveness. More precisely, the participants in the RPM group reported that vicarious experiences in the form of observing effective practices of the cooperating teachers implicitly gave them a sense of confirmation in that it increased their beliefs in their own ability to carry out similar practices. Excerpt 17 exemplified the inferences the RPM group made based on observing the cooperating teachers' practices, which might have positively affected their efficacy beliefs.

> "The teacher encouraged the students to participate in the lesson. She was helping them, giving them prompts when they could not remember a word, and reinforcing them when they gave the correct answers. I guess teaching will not be as big a deal as I fear". (Excerpt 17- RPM-P9)

Furthermore, the participants in the RPM group clarified that observing the practices of an experienced teacher had a twofold influence on their judgments about their own teaching, which might have indirectly affected their efficacy beliefs. On the one hand, seeing the similarities between their own practices and the teacher's practices perceived as effective confirmed that they were on the right path to be an effective teacher. On the other hand, the participants reported that there were some old-fashioned and/or ineffective practices in the cooperating teachers' teaching, which they did not approve and would not like to apply in their own teaching practices, and thus, observing these practices directed them to contemplate on alternative practices. Excerpt 18 exemplified conclusions the RPM group draw based on observing the cooperating

teachers' practices.

> "[T]he teacher was still using deductive grammar teaching and traditional activities like repetition drills, reading and translation activities, memorizing the vocabulary by writing five times. When I saw this, I thought I could do much better than this because I was equipped with the most recent teaching methods. And, I felt proud that as a prospective teacher, I used more interactive activities like games, role-plays as well as using web-based tools". (Excerpt 18- RPM-P7)

Nevertheless, the participants in the RPM group also disclosed some complaints about observing the cooperating teachers' practices, which might have made vicarious experiences only a supplementary source for their efficacy development. They argued that despite appreciating the cooperating teachers' experience in teaching, they observed that the teachers still had some problems, particularly with classroom management. Their reflections implied that it was beneficial to observe how an experienced teacher acted in the classroom but witnessing such problems led them to be more tentative about the inferences they would make from observing the cooperating teachers. Excerpt 19 expounded that such tentative attitude towards vicarious experiences in the form of observing the cooperating teachers diminished the RPM group's satisfaction with observing the cooperating teachers and possibly, reinforced their reliance on peer observations and other sources.

> "She had been teaching for years and had some fixed ideas about how to manage the classroom. But she still had problems with controlling some disruptive students maybe because she always used the same techniques. Both I and my peer thought that there was not much to learn from her lessons about how we should teach effectively to all students. But we learned that there would be some disruptive students in all classes and in every stage of our career. The important thing was to be able to keep calm and enrich our lessons with different techniques". (Excerpt 19- RPM-P10)

In addition to observing the cooperating teachers, the other type of vicarious experiences specific to the RPM group was peer observation. In the present study, peer observation surfaced to be an influential alternative to observing the cooperating teachers because peers' practices also offered a substantial amount of exposure to the teaching practices of others. However, one should notice that peer observation was not a factor downplaying the importance of observing the cooperating teachers' practices. Instead, the RPM group's reflections made it clear that observing the practices of their

peers was another noticeable type of vicarious experiences in addition to observing the cooperating teachers, since the peers' practices were rich in terms of the variety of teaching techniques and activities used in them. Evidently, observing the success of a peer in various aspects of teaching including motivating the students to learn and employing effective instructional and management strategies functioned to encourage the RPM group about their own success in teaching. Excerpt 20 hinted on the RPM group's views about the influence of engagement in vicarious experiences in the form of peer observations on their efficacy beliefs.

> "[O]bserving my peer improved me in terms of what I should do with different types of learners. For instance, she gave extra tasks to the students who completed the activities earlier than the others. Also, I observed the strategies she employed to attract the silent students in her classroom. Normally, I could not involve them in the lesson because I was not quite sure about what I should do with such students. Her lessons offered me interesting ideas about it". (Excerpt 20- RPM6)

Regarding the role of vicarious experiences in efficacy development of the TM group, the participants taking the practicum within the TM model merely made intensive observations of the cooperating teachers throughout the first term. The present study found that vicarious experiences in the form of observing the cooperating teachers received the second most references from the TM group as a source of efficacy information. As such, the TM group's reflections provided sound remarks about vicarious experiences, which might help to justify the statistically significant difference between the TM group and RPM groups in terms of their efficacy beliefs following practicum. The participants in the TM group reproached that despite some exceptional cases, the cooperating teachers did not set an effective example for them to see how the lessons could be shaped to promote successful teaching and learning in the classroom. Excerpt 21 illustrated the TM group's views on the perceived lack of influential teacher practices which they could take as models for their own teaching practices.

> "I was expecting to see what strategies the teacher would use to make the L2 comprehensible to all the students despite differences in their levels. But she unfortunately used Turkish every time she needed to make an explanation. An effective teacher should normally have considered the students' age and used lots of gestures and mimics in order to catch their attention. I tried to apply them in my own classes but I do not know how effective I was". (Excerpt 21- TM-P2)

Apart from the perceived lack of opportunity to observe effective models, the

TM group's reflections pointed to a clash between the theoretical knowledge they gained at the university and the practices of the cooperating teachers. The participants in the TM group claimed that the cooperating teachers mostly used practices which they perceived to be traditional. They recounted that the divergences between what they learned to be effective teaching and what they observed in the cooperating teachers' practices caused some sort of ambiguity which they could not resolve during practicum. Furthermore, one may argue that the perceived lack of opportunity to observe effective models might have deprived the TM group of the opportunity to use the practices of an experienced teacher as a criterion for deciding on their own success in ensuring the students' learning. Excerpt 22 reflected the way such ambiguities possibly distinguished the TM group's efficacy beliefs from those of the RPM group following practicum.

> "There were not many cases where the teacher connected the learning point with something from the students' real lives in order to make it more understandable for them. I knew from the theory that this would be beneficial but I could not see the teacher implement it in practice. This technique would theoretically make significant contributions to the students' learning and I was sure to use it. But I do not know if I could have done it in different ways to make it more effective for the students". (Excerpt 22- TM-P7)

Additionally, the participants in the TM group conveyed that vicarious experiences in the form of observing the cooperating teachers showed them what not to do more than what to do in order for an effective classroom atmosphere. This in turn seemed to provoke the TM group to self-question their effectiveness. More specifically, observing the cooperating teachers' practices perceived as ineffective resulted in the assumption that they would also encounter similar negative experiences in their own teaching. Excerpt 23 demonstrated possible consequences of this assumption on the way the TM group perceived their efficacy, which might have indirectly promoted the difference between the efficacy beliefs of the TM and RPM groups following practicum.

> "[I]n the practicum, I realized that teaching might not be a good option for me. I mean how I should approach to the students, when they would learn well, why they were bored and what they liked to do at a specific lesson were the questions I had to answer. Observing the teacher was not helpful for these questions because she also had difficulty in effective classroom management". (Excerpt 23- TM-P10)

4.3.3. Perceptions on Social/Verbal Persuasion

The present study unearthed a remarkable difference between the participants' perceptions about the role of social/verbal persuasion as another major source of efficacy information in their efficacy development. The participants reported different types of social/verbal persuasion depending on the practicum trajectories they had. Although social/verbal persuasion could surface in several types including social/verbal persuasion from the supervisor, school administration, students or parents, the participants in the RPM group referred primarily to social/verbal persuasion from the cooperating teachers and their peers while those in the TM group focused mostly on persuasion from the cooperating teachers. As mentioned above, the present study unfolded that considering the efficacy development of the RPM group, social/verbal persuasion was the strongest source of information breeding into their efficacy beliefs.

Regarding social/verbal persuasion in the form of conferences with the cooperating teachers, the present study demonstrated that although they had a potent potential to help pre-service teachers during their teaching practices, the conferences with the cooperating teachers were viewed as haphazard and limited in terms of the topics covered. Accordingly, the participants' reflections appeared to be critical of the conferences with the cooperating teachers despite referring to some benefits. On the one hand, the participants in the RPM group reported that the conferences with the cooperating teachers provided somewhat informative feedback and reflections on their practices. More precisely, they attached significant importance to receiving positive feedback from the cooperating teachers because they viewed the appreciation of the teachers as a benchmark signifying their success in teaching. Excerpt 24 indicated the positive contributions of social/verbal persuasion in the form of conferences with the cooperating teachers to the RPM group's efficacy beliefs.

> "I did my best to strengthen my teaching via audio-visual materials. The teacher really liked it though he did not use this kind of materials much. When he saw my materials, he would appreciate my efforts in using these lively materials. It was great to hear this because as I said, he had been teaching for several years and did not use them in his own teaching. But as a new teacher, I felt like I was being an inspiration even for him". (Excerpt 24- RPM-P3)

On the other hand, the RPM group's reflections demonstrated that the

cooperating teachers sometimes seemed ignorant of the participants' enthusiasm for teaching. Furthermore, the participants in the RPM group asserted that even though they paid attention to designing their teaching practices based on the recent teaching methodologies, the feedback they got from the cooperating teachers sometimes fell short of living up to their expectations. Excerpt 25 explicated the tentative attitude that the RPM group had about the contribution of social/verbal persuasion in the form of conferences with the cooperating teachers to their efficacy beliefs.

> "An area that I could not get sufficient help from the teacher was about encouraging the silent students to participate in the lesson. She acted as if my questions about this point did not make sense to her, since she simply dodged by suggesting not to worry about them so much or not to bother about engaging every student. I knew that there had to be a better way to attract them but she did not guide me enough about what it might be". (Excerpt 25- RPM-P2)

In addition the conferences with the cooperating teachers, the participants in the RPM group readily referred to peer conferences as another type of social/verbal persuasion, which formed one of the fundamental practices drawing the distinction between the RPM and TM trajectories. The present study explicitly indicated that the participants in the RPM group expressed stronger commitment to the conferences with their peers than those with the cooperating teachers, since they considered peer reflections on their teaching practices to be more specific and informative. In accordance with the finding that social/verbal persuasion was the resource receiving the highest number of references by the RPM group, peer conferences featured to be a prominent source of information contributing to their efficacy development. The participants in the RPM group specified that the feedback and reflections they exchanged during the peer conferences functioned as a source of inspiration for their development because these conferences prompted their confidence in their ability to successfully teach and help the students focus on the learning point. Also, they purported that the peer conferences provided them with opportunities to get affirmed about their teaching practices by a peer who was equipped with the knowledge of the most recent teaching methodologies. Excerpt 26 gave insights into the commitment the RPM group displayed towards peer conferences.

> "When I started the practicum, I thought that it would be fine if I properly deliver the lesson, and I was not interested much in whether or not the students participated in the lesson or they really learned the topic. But in time, all these

> ideas were returned to me as criticisms by my peer. I think this was the greatest advantage of making conferences. Thanks to the comments and criticisms my peer made during the conferences, I began to pay attention to my relationships with the students, adopting a more positive approach to them, and ensuring that each and every student learned the topics". (Excerpt 26- RPM-P2)

Besides, the RPM group's reflections unearthed a specific characteristic of peer conferences which probably strengthened the positive attitude the RPM group had about peer conferences. The participants in the RPM group unanimously emphasized the reciprocity of peer conferences as a major factor promoting their efficacy beliefs because apart from the positive feedback they received from the peer, the success of the suggestions they made to the peer also fostered their satisfaction with their own teaching skills. They argued that thanks to the reciprocity of the peer conferences, they not only enjoyed the opportunity to receive feedback but also give feedback to their peers, whereby they contributed to the development of their peers. Excerpt 27 confirmed the RPM group's views on the reciprocal nature of peer conferences, which might help to account for the predominant role of social/verbal persuasion in the development of efficacy beliefs of the RPM group.

> "[M]y peer had trouble with some students as they were distracting her and the other students. During the post-teaching conference, I gave her a few ideas as precautions against her disruptive students. I told her to frequently make eye-contact with them, softly touch their desks or shoulders to warn them, and change their seats if the problem should continue. And the following week, her lesson was much better because the students felt that their misbehaviors were noticed and they were disturbing their friends. She thanked me after the lesson. But the best part of it was to see that my strategies worked with her students, too". (Excerpt 27- RPM-P10)

As for the influence of social/verbal persuasion on the TM group's efficacy beliefs, the participants in the TM group merely referred to the conferences with the cooperating teachers. As such, social/verbal persuasion in the form of conferences with the cooperating teachers surfaced to be a supplementary source of information affecting efficacy development of the TM group. The present study showed that although the participants in the TM group had sound expectations about the benefit that these conferences could provide, they thought that the conferences were far from satisfying their expectations. In particular, the suggestions made by the teachers during the

conferences seemed to have cultivated in the TM group self-doubts about their overall teaching skills, which might provide a further explanation for the statistically significant difference noticed in their efficacy beliefs as compared to those of the RPM group following practicum. Excerpt 28 exemplified the overall discontent the TM group expressed about the role of social/verbal persuasion in the form of conferences with the cooperating teachers as a source of efficacy information.

> "During the practicum, I saw my weaknesses but I had to search for ways to fix them on my own. I had an experienced teacher to consult to, but I had to talk to her about them only in the breaks. Even when I asked for her suggestions, she did not give satisfactory responses to my questions. For instance, my biggest weakness was controlling the naughty students. But the teacher told me not to challenge them too much and not to form high expectations about them. Instead of this, she could have given examples of her own strategies about what I should do for effective classroom management or modeled them by implementing them in the classroom. Therefore, she did not make much contribution to me although she had so many years of experience in teaching". (Excerpt 28- TM-P8)

Similarly, the participants in the TM group were critical of the conferences with the cooperating teachers because they reported drastic divergences between the cooperating teachers' and their own views about teaching, which appeared to undermine the role they attributed to social/verbal persuasion as a factor affecting their efficacy beliefs. To clarify, the participants in the TM group maintained that though they tried to do their best to accord with the recent teaching methodologies, they frequently experienced dissonance with the cooperating teachers in terms of the foci of their practices. As a consequence, their reflections implied that the suggestions that the cooperating teachers made about their practices led the TM group to question the efficiency of their practices. Excerpt 29 illustrated the hesitation that the dissonance between the cooperating teachers' and TM group's views on effective teaching caused in the TM group.

> "When I asked the teacher, the only suggestion she made was to follow the course book throughout the whole 40 minutes. But we had to be realistic, it would not work that way. I could have re-kindled the students by having them watch a movie, listen to a song or do some other activities. Simply following the book was not enough to take the students any further. At the same time, I knew that she had been teaching for years and her persistence in following the book must have had a

logical reason. This amplified my confusion". (Excerpt 29- TM-P5)

4.3.4. Perceptions on Physiological and Emotional Arousals

Findings in the present study unveiled that physiological and emotional arousals provided the weakest information for the participants. Considering the number of references, physiological and emotional arousals seemed to make the least contribution to the efficacy development of both groups throughout practicum, which signified that the arousals had very little influence on the differences between efficacy beliefs of the RPM and TM groups following practicum. This might be because the participants could not sufficiently attend to their feelings about the experiences they had during the practicum. More specifically, the participants might have been so engrossed in the hustle and bustle of actual teaching environments that they overlooked the affective aspect of their experiences. But when they did, the participants in both groups predominantly emphasized the satisfaction they had about their achievement in teaching. Excerpts 30-31 shed light on the positive feelings the participants in both groups reported on their successful teaching practices.

> "When I came in, the students started to scream, they seemed to be very happy to see me. I guess they worried that I wouldn't come this week. They like me so much and I like them, too. Indeed, at the beginning, it was like a nightmare to teach in this classroom, they made a lot of noise and they were naughty. But it was great to see this progress as they showed such willingness to see me in the classroom today. In my previous reports, I said that in time, things would get better. It is happening". (Excerpt 30- RPM-P2)

> "At the end, I felt like I really taught some stuff this time because in other classrooms, I had to try very hard to engage students in learning. But in this classroom, they were eager to learn, which got me motivated. They were listening to my instructions and doing what I said… Even though it was my first time with them and it was a new unit, I didn't have any problem. I can honestly say that I felt bad when it ended". (Excerpt 31- TM-P9)

4.4. Teaching Concerns Development over the Practicum Process

4.4.1. Teaching Concerns in the Context of Turkish ELT Practicum

As stated earlier in the methodology chapter, the present study used the

qualitative data including the verbatim transcriptions of pre- and post-teaching conferences, weekly journals and open-ended questionnaires as well as group and individual interviews to probe deeper into the participants' teaching concerns throughout the practicum. The content analyses of the above-mentioned resources were done by following the categorization determined by Fuller (1969), which comprised the subcategories entitled self-, task- and impact concerns. However, the present study additionally used the participants' own terminology to define specific issues in each subcategory of teaching concerns, since not all issues might necessarily occur in each and every context. Through determining the issues within each subcategory, the present study shed light on what issues in the concern subcategories emerged in the context of practicum in a typical pre-service ELT teaching practicum in Turkey.

4.4.1.1. Self-Concerns

The present study unearthed that within self-concerns subcategory, the participants in the RPM group reported on ten issues whereas the participants in the TM group referred to seven issues. As shown in Figure 4, the three issues written in bold are specific to the RPM group while the remaining seven issues are common to both groups. Regarding the major issues within self-concerns, the participants in both groups compromised that they were occupied with relationships with the students, practice of teaching, content knowledge, gaining recognition, authority, classroom management and being observed. The three issues that discerned the self-concerns of the RPM group comprised the mentor, student-student relationships and lack of experience.

Considering the other two subcategories of teaching concerns, the participants in both groups referred to five main issues within task- and impact concerns, respectively. The five predominant issues in task concerns of both groups included concerns about time management, the practicum school, number of students in classrooms, over-reliance on the curriculum and course book, and activities and materials used in classrooms. Within the impact concerns subcategory, however, the five basic issues consisted of explicit reference to student learning, interest in individual students, students' developmental period, students' interests and use of the target language. Therefore, the present study pointed out that except for the three issues within the self-concern subcategory of the RPM group, the participants in both groups mainly elaborated on similar problems during the early encounters with actual teaching. Based

on the similarity of the problems, one may assert that engaging pre-service teachers in practicum experiences which require collaboration with peers may be beneficial to help them successfully handle their teaching concerns in a period in which their professional identity is still nascent.

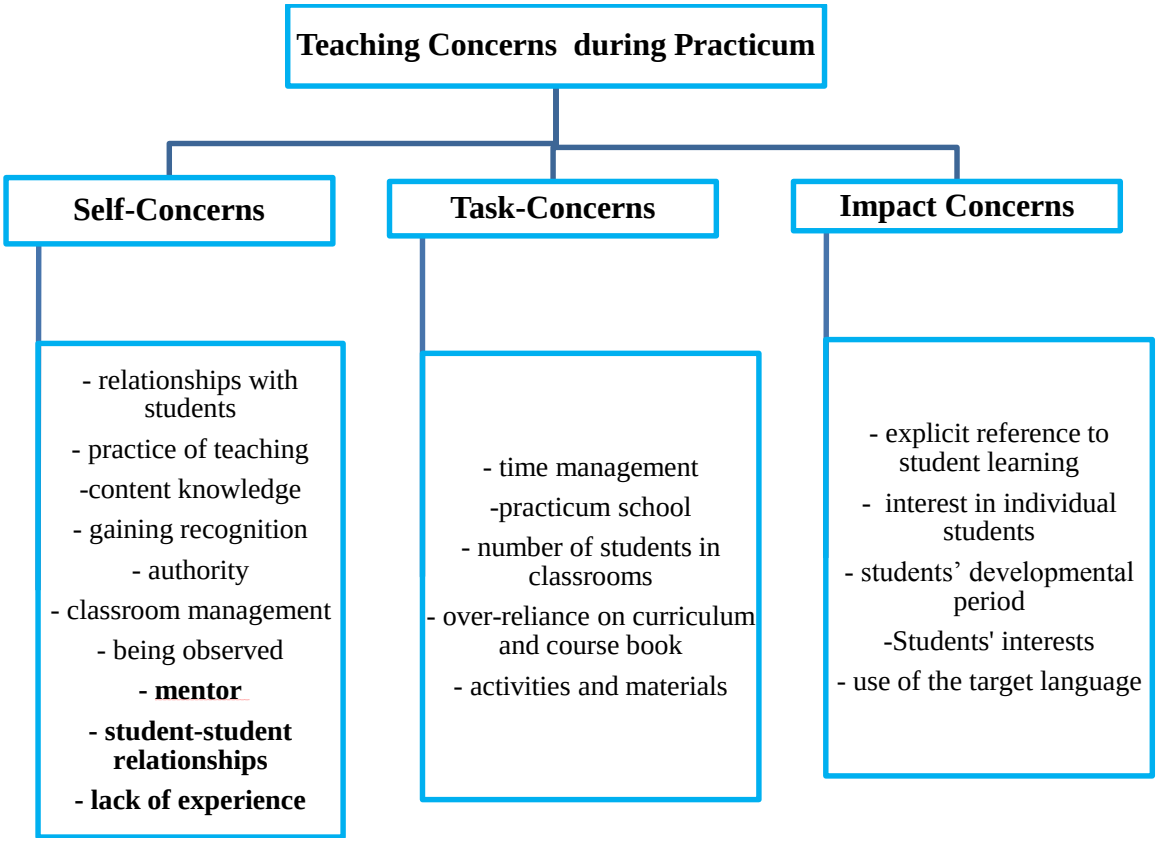


Figure 4. Major issues in subcategories of concerns

The content analysis of the qualitative data collected from the participants yielded several remarks hinting on the way the participants in both groups perceived the teaching concerns about their experiences during practicum. With specific reference to self-concerns, the participants' reflections revealed that they paid substantial attention to self-survival, particularly during their initial teaching practices. As a major issue within self-concerns subcategory, relationships with the students referred to the role the participants granted to establishing positive relationships with their students in order to ensure their own survival in the classroom. The participants emphasized establishing positive relationships with their students because they considered it a benchmark for their survival in classrooms they were to observe and teach. Moreover, the participants' reflections implied that the fragility of their relationships with the students, which might have stemmed from visiting the practicum school only one day a week, made the participants worry about inability to gain the students' trust. Excerpts 32-33 gave

insights about the participants' concerns about their relationships with the students.

> "I could not manage the classroom. They still didn't get used to me. I tried to explain that their mischievous behaviors put me in a hard situation but they didn't listen to me. So finally, I yelled at them. That was not good. I regretted it as they would hate me. I hope this won't continue like that". (Excerpt 32- RPM-P7)
>
> "My first goal as a teacher is to build a trustworthy relationship with my students- especially overactive students- because the more I get to know my overactive students, the more successfully I will control them. Actually, if the students love and respect you as a teacher and if you behave them in a good way, they will listen to you and the lesson goes well". (Excerpt 33- TM-P5)

Another leading issue within self-concerns subcategory which occupied the participants' minds during the practicum was the practice of teaching itself. Though the participants in both groups had previously had micro teaching experiences as a prerequisite of the program they were enrolled in, the teaching practices in the practicum increased their self-related concerns. In particular, the participants' reflections highlighted that the novelty effect of being in a classroom as the teacher for the first time aggravated their self-concerns. Besides, the notorious difference between theory and practice was another factor underpinning the participants' self-concerns. That's the differences they perceived between the theoretical knowledge they had learned at the university and actual classroom settings made the participants feel threatened during the practicum. Excerpts 34-35 illustrated how the teaching practices triggered higher levels of self-concerns.

> "Almost everything in the classroom is different from what we have learnt. Our teachers at the university only taught us theoretically but in real life the atmosphere is very different. Classroom is real, students are real, everything is totally different". (Excerpt 34- RPM-P10)
>
> "Though it was the last week of the practicum, I still couldn't cope with my teaching stress. It affected everything, for example, my motivation, my position and my pronunciation though I thought I had prepared very well for this last week". (Excerpt 35- TM-P9)

Within self-concerns subcategory, content knowledge was another significant issue that bothered the participants. The participants in both groups reported on cases where they could not explain the nuances between grammatical structures and felt embarrassed. Moreover, teaching in medium of the target language permeated their

reflections as a factor posing sound problems for the participants during the practicum. Although the participants were in the final year of the teacher education program they were enrolled in, they iteratively indicated that they worried that they were not confident about whether they had enough knowledge to teach various topics as well as different skills, which in turn might have amplified their self-concerns. This finding about the use of L2 as a self-concern implied that teaching concerns were subject-specific and thus, should be investigated accordingly, rather than with a broad conception of teaching concerns. Excerpts 36-37 unearthed the participants' concerns about the knowledge of content they were supposed to teach.

> "The problems related to using English stemmed from me this week. I mean I had difficulty in expressing my ideas about environmental issues in English. I felt discouraged because it is our main job to teach how to use English. But I had to use Turkish while I was teaching environmental issues pretending that I was using Turkish in order to facilitate their understanding. It was actually because I couldn't express my ideas about these issues in English. This was really embarrassing for me as an English teacher". (Excerpt 36- RPM-P1)
>
> "I couldn't know how to show them the difference between simple past and past perfect. Of course, I know that as a teacher of English, I should clearly state the differences but I couldn't make up my mind and as a result, I sometimes couldn't answer the students' questions". (Excerpt 37- TM-8)

Another self-related issue with which the participants seemed to be pre-occupied was the question of gaining recognition as a teacher. The participants frequently commented on the necessity of gaining recognition and due respect as a real teacher rather than an intern. Apparently, the participants viewed to the issue of gaining recognition as the main objective underlying their behaviors, which explicitly demonstrated that any violation of their position in the practicum school featured to be a hindrance for their self-survival during the practicum. Excerpts 38-39 hinted on the way the issue of gaining recognition possibly exacerbated the participants' self-concerns.

> "When I was teaching, they acted like there was no teacher in the classroom. Except for their formal teacher, they did not care about either you [i.e. the peer] or me because they saw us as intern students… I think no matter how hard I tried, they didn't respect me and see me as a teacher. For this reason, I was already expecting to have difficulty in classroom management". (Excerpt 38- RPM-P3)
>
> "[A student's name] was sitting at the back. I thought that taking him to the front

desks might work but the students said they could not change their seats because it was pre-determined by their class teacher. They rejected to change their seats because they still didn't see me as a teacher and because of this reason, I could not know what to do with that student". (Excerpt 39- TM-P6)

Another salient issue within self-concerns subcategory was establishing their authority in the classroom. Diverging from the issue of gaining recognition, authority for the participants pertained to maintaining firmness in their attitude towards various problems in the classroom, particularly those about misbehaviors. The present study clarified that the participants were so occupied with the issue of authority that some of them perceived teaching as a power play between teachers and students. Excerpts 40-41 showed how the issue of establishing authority was a strong factor sparking the participants' self-concerns.

"When the classroom is very active, I should be more active than them so that I can suppress them, achieve my authority and show them who the boss is. They need to know I am the authority. Otherwise, the class will be like a chaos". (Excerpt 40- RPM-P7)

"We should not react in frustration by screaming, scolding, warning, lecturing, or begging and pleading. Teachers who do any of these fall 'lock stock and barrel' into the power play of mischievous students. It is not the time to yell at students, preach about their behavior, or plead. To do so shows our 'weakness' as the authority in the classroom". (Excerpt 41- TM-P5)

As the penultimate self-related issue commonly referred by both the RPM and TM groups, classroom management featured as the issue that prompted the highest self-related concerns during the practicum. Though it was a multidimensional issue covering a broad range of sub-issues, the content analysis of the qualitative data collected from the participants made it crystal clear that the participants mostly referred to the discipline- and control-related aspects of classroom management. Evidently, complaints about the challenge of taking the classroom under control prevailed the participants' reflections on practicum. Excerpts 42-43 gave clues about the perceived difficulty of effective classroom management, which probably piqued the participants' self-concerns.

"My goal is classroom management today but I will probably not achieve it again because it is very tough indeed. For the classroom I am teaching in, we can view classroom management as merely handling the noise. So, I will try to teach

without any noise, and I don't know how this can be possible". (Excerpt 42- RPM-P8)

"While doing the exercises, again I lost control of the students. It was really hard to take their attention for a long time. I don't understand what happens, when I look at the class, it is chaos sometimes and then, I start to get desperate". (Excerpt 43- TM-P10)

The last issue within self-related concerns that was emphasized by both groups related to one of the pillars of the practicum process i.e. being observed. That's the participants in both groups expressed strong concern about being observed during their teaching practices on the grounds that being observed made them feel under spotlight and thus, negatively affected their teaching performance. Obviously, their concern about being observed was so depressing for the participants that it seemed to restrict their performance. As part of the formal evaluation of their performance in practicum, the participants were observed twice by their university supervisor during their teaching practices, which surfaced as a noticeable factor aggravating their concerns about themselves. Excerpts 44-45 reflected that being observed was a major issue stimulating higher self-concerns during practicum.

"I was extremely nervous because my supervisor was observing me. I made very simple grammatical mistakes. For example, I said 'Have you ever buy?' while I should have said "bought". I mean when the supervisor was observing, my mind was stuck with him. I had tens of questions in my mind such as 'I shouldn't make any mistake, what is he thinking about me? Did I teach effectively?'". (Excerpt 44- RPM-P4)

"The reason why this session ended up being my show-off rather than a session in which the children had fun and learnt something in freedom was the stressing state of mind that I was being observed by my university supervisor. I worried that I would be criticized harshly for each of my mistakes". (Excerpt 45- TM-P1)

Also, the participants were observed by the cooperating teachers throughout their teaching practices. However, one should notice that though both groups expressed concern about being observed by the supervisor, only the participants in the RPM group further referred to being observed by the cooperating teachers. The participants in the TM group made no specific reference to the observation made by the cooperating teachers as a source of concern. More interestingly, the RPM group's reflections demonstrated that the participants in the RPM group implicitly distinguished between

being observed by the cooperating teachers and supervisor in terms of the reasons underlying their concern about being observed. Whereas the participants worried about the cooperating teachers' observation due to possible interventions s/he might make into their teaching, they focused more on the assessment aspect of the university supervisor's observation. The dearth of reference by the TM group and emphasis on the interventions by the RPM group led to the conclusion that the participants in both groups might not have perceived being observed by the cooperating teachers as a factor affecting the overall evaluation of their practicum performance. Excerpts 46-47 unearthed the implicit distinction the RPM group made between their concern about being observed by the cooperating teachers and supervisor, respectively.

> "I felt myself under pressure and I couldn't be active enough. I planned watching the movie with the students and asking them questions about the film but I was afraid [the cooperating teacher's name] would interrupt me or ask me to do a different activity. So, I did not feel comfortable". (Excerpt 46- RPM-P6)
>
> "…the most important thing was that I felt restricted because the supervisor was observing me and grading my performance. So, I couldn't behave like normal. I am sure if I had been alone with you [i.e. referring to peer pair] in the classroom, I would have taught the lesson much more effectively. When I am observed, my mind is certainly busy with the supervisor, I wonder if he will like my teaching". (Excerpt 47- RPM-P9)

As one of the three issues that distinguished the self-concerns of the RPM group from those of the TM group, the issue of mentor was a critical factor aggravating self-concerns of the RPM group. The issue of mentor featured to have dual impact on the RPM group's self-concerns because the participants in the RPM group differentiated between negative and positive aspects of having a cooperating teacher in the classroom. In terms of the negative aspect which seemed to be more prevalent, the participants reported deep concerns about the cooperating teachers' interventions while they were teaching. The participants attributed some of the problems they had to the existence of the cooperating teachers in the classrooms. More specifically, they viewed the existence of the cooperating teachers as a hindrance for their success in self-survival. In the same vein, a lack of interaction and cooperation with the cooperating teachers sometimes negatively affected the RPM group's practices, which probably aggravated their self-concerns. Excerpt 49 pinpointed that the RPM felt overstimulated by the existence of the cooperating teachers in the classroom.

> "[T]he teacher had told me to prepare for the unit 12. So, I prepared some materials for that unit. When I went to the classroom, it was like a shock because they had already finished the unit. And that was a chaos for me, I did not know what to do. The teacher said us the wrong unit again. So, I had to throw all my materials to the garbage. I did not know what to do with the new unit, how I would teach it". (Excerpt 49- RPM-P5)

On the positive side of the medal, however, there were some cases where the participants in the RPM group considered the cooperating teachers' existence as a relief for their self-related concerns, particularly those about classroom management. Furthermore, the participants in the RPM group viewed it positive to have the cooperating teachers in their first visit to a classroom. The participants' reflections highlighted that being introduced to the classroom as a teacher by the cooperating teachers would serve a sound function in facilitating their self-survival in the classroom. Excerpt 50 projected the favor that the RPM group showed about the cooperating teachers.

> "Her [i.e. the cooperating teacher's] absence causes troubles in this classroom, which affects my classroom management a lot because there are so many mischievous students. Some of them view her absence as a green light for making noise, and can immediately turn the classroom into a mess". (Excerpt 50- RPM-P4)

Another issue that discerned self-concerns of the RPM group was the students' relationships with one another. The present study underlined that governing the relationships between and among the students featured as a major self-concern for the RPM group. The participants in the RPM group reported in various ways that breakdowns in the relationships between the students negatively affected their classroom management in the broadest sense, which in turn threatened their survival in the classroom. Excerpt 51 conveyed the RPM group's concerns about failing to handle possible problems between the students.

> "A little quarrel between two of my students immediately grew bigger. While I was trying to collect them, others interfered, the classroom became like a jungle. I couldn't stop them as I don't know what to do in these cases". (Excerpt 51- RPM-P10)

The final self-related issue specific to the RPM group appeared to be a mere lack of experience. The RPM group's reflections unfolded that the participants in the RPM

group attributed some of the problems they encountered during the practicum experiences to their lack of experience in teaching, which in turn aggravated their concerns about self as a teacher. In the same vein, some of the participants in the RPM group explicitly accounted for the dissatisfaction they had with their performance by the same reason. Excerpt 52 recapitulated the RPM group's views on their lack of experience as a factor underlying their self-concerns.

> "I and my peer generally cannot adapt to some unexpected situations that may arise in the classroom. As we don't have much teaching experience yet, we cannot foresee what can cause problems in the classroom or what questions our students can ask" (Excerpt 52- RPM-P3)

4.4.1.2. Task Concerns

The present study yielded five broad issues within the task concerns subcategory; namely, concerns about time management, the practicum school, number of students in classrooms, over-reliance on the curriculum and course book, and activities and materials used in classrooms. As the most dominant subcategory of task-related concerns, time management seemed to be located at the forefront of the participants' minds because they necessarily thought that while effective time management was an essential skill for being a good teacher, the time allotted for teaching was too short to carry out their lessons according to their plans. Apart from the time limitations, some of the participants expressed concerns about their own ability to manage the time. To clarify, they complained that they lacked the ability to organize their lessons in a way to properly address all learning objectives. The content analysis of the participants' reflections made it clear that their concerns about time management lingered throughout the whole practicum process because some participants still expressed doubt about their ability to manage the time effectively even after the final teaching practice. Given their concerns about time management, the participants argued that lack of sufficient time hindered effective performance because it restricted the choices they made, the activities they employed and the interest they showed in the students' questions. Excerpts 53-54 illustrated the participants' concerns about time management.

> "Though I did my best to give all the students a chance to speak, I couldn't help skipping some of them. I had to pass to the following activity because I was

running out of time. I am afraid some students became demotivated and lost their interest because of this". (Excerpt 53- RPM-P4)

"If I had had some more time, I would have applied some drawing activities, too. I was sure they would like them. But I had a short time for teaching, only 40 minutes for teaching all the body parts was not enough". (Excerpt 54- TM-P2)

Another pre-dominant issue within task-related concerns of both groups was the practicum school to which they were assigned as pre-service teachers. The improper functioning of the technical infrastructure in the classrooms, routines in the school, frequent schedule changes and interventions by the school administration featured as major practicum school-related issues busying minds of the participants during the practicum process. Of these issues, technical problems, particularly those with technological devices were by far the most concern-provoking factor for the participants. The participants' reflections revealed that the problems with the technical infrastructure urged the participants to change their plans at times. These problems led to major drawbacks because the pre-service teachers who had no previous teaching experiences reported that they could not immediately improvise an alternative and thus, felt awkward in front of the students. Excerpts 55-56 reflected the negative consequences of the technical problems the participants had during practicum.

"I have problems with the computer in the classroom, I cannot use it because it is out of order. Also, there is problem with the projector. For this reason, I always have to read the listening texts from the teacher's book. It happened again in my second class today". (Excerpt 55- RPM-P3)

"I had a technological problem, which made my teaching a disaster. I had planned to have the students watch a video about seasons at the beginning of the lesson. However, the computer didn't work, and I had to draw a chart on the board including seasons, weather and clothes as well as writing three questions. Then, I asked the students to draw and write them on their notebooks. It was a total chaos". (Excerpt 56- TM-P2)

Likewise, the routines of the practicum school involving social and academic activities such as celebrations, anniversaries and school-wide exams surfaced as another source of task-related concerns for the participants in both groups. The fact that some extracurricular social or academic activities were carried out in the practicum school, about which the pre-service teachers were not informed in advance caused notable inconveniences for their teaching. Excerpts 57-58 reflected the participants' criticisms

about the routines that consumed their teaching time.

> "There was a chess tournament in the school. 20-30% of my students participated in the tournament and they came into the classroom one by one... Almost every week, there is a different surprise in the school and my classes are interrupted". (Excerpt 57- RPM-P10)

> "The bell rang ten minutes earlier than the normal time because there was a staff meeting, and I couldn't do some things I planned. I had talked with the teacher about my plan before the lesson but he didn't mention this conference and it caused problem in my class. For the next lessons, I should specifically ask the teacher about possible problems such as this". (Excerpt 58- TM-P8)

Another school-related issue stimulating task concerns surfaced to be the frequent changes in the weekly schedule as the participants referred to these changes as a noticeable obstruction for their teaching practices. The participants' reflections signaled a regression to previous concerns due to the frequent changes in the schedule. That's as the classroom in which they would teach changed in line with the changes in the schedule, the participants in both groups seemed to revert back to earlier concerns such as classroom management and establishing positive relationships with the students. Excerpts 59-60 explained the impact of schedule changes on the participants' task concerns.

> "Indeed, if I could continue with the other classroom, I would not probably worry about classroom management because I had made great progress with them. But now, I will adapt to a new classroom, so will the students. For this reason, I have to prioritize classroom management again in order to enforce my principles" (Excerpt 59- RPM-P3)

> "In order to know the students better and establish a good relationship with them, I need time but it was the first and probably the last time I was with that classroom. I am sure the schedule will change again" (Excerpt 60- TM-P6)

The other school-related issue within task concerns subcategory was the interventions by the school administration. Regardless of the reason for the interventions, the participants perceived it negative to be interrupted by the school administrators while they were striving to teach in the classroom. The participants' reflections pinpointed that despite occurring relatively less compared to the other school-related issues, the interventions by the school-administration appeared to be a major distractor both for the pre-service teachers and the students in that it would be

highly challenging to make the students focus on the lesson again. Excerpts 61-62 highlighted the inconveniences stemming from the interventions by the school administration, which probably aggravated the participants' task concerns.

> "I could not properly focus on the lesson today. The reason for this was that the vice-principal came in a few times to make some announcements. Because of these interruptions, I could not apply all the activities that I had prepared, either. I had to skip the last activity". (Excerpt 61- RPM-P5)
>
> "The principal interrupted my lesson because he came to the classroom and asked for money from the students… He collected the money for a social organization… It was hard to handle it when I tried to get the students back to the lesson". (Excerpt 62- TM-P8)

The number of students in the classroom featured as another pre-dominant task-related concern specifically for the RPM group. The present study unveiled that the participants in the RPM group considered teaching in crowded classrooms as a major threat because it triggered several other problems like time and classroom management, selection of activity type to use and attuning teaching to the students' needs. The participants' reflections implied that teaching in a crowded classroom posed extra problems like failures in effective classroom management, engaging the students in the learning activities and implementing their plans. Excerpt 63 gave insights about the difficulties of teaching in crowded classrooms as a factor prompting task concerns.

> "…in the classroom that I teach, there are 40-50 students. While I try to deal with one of them, others at the far corner of the classroom are making noise. This is not easy at all, it is never as easy as it looks". (Excerpt 63- RPM-P6)

The qualitative data collected from the participants clearly demonstrated that over-reliance on the curriculum and course book was another major task-related issue during the practicum experiences. As inexperienced teachers, the participants deemed it indispensable to create a perfect match between what was required in the curriculum and course book and what they actually did in the classroom. More specifically, their concern about following the curriculum and course book seemed to restrict flexibility and creativity in their classes although they did notice and worry about the insufficiencies of the curriculum and course book. Excerpts 64-65 hinted on how prioritizing a perfect conformity with the curriculum and course book amplified the participants' task-related concerns.

> "Our unit for this week is 'personal goals'. It will certainly be a very boring

lesson. I am afraid it will be difficult as well, since the topic is like more suitable for university students. I mean my students may not have much to say about their personal goals. But I have to do them in order to obey the curriculum". (Excerpt 64- RPM-P9)

"…under normal circumstances, introducing more than 8-10 new vocab items for a lesson cannot be acceptable for young learners, however, I had to present roughly 22-23 new words in 2 hours for the sake of following the course book and syllabus". (Excerpt 65- TM-P2)

The last issue about task-related concerns i.e. activities and materials referred to the participants' concerns about the quality and/or inadequacy of the activities and materials they used in the classroom. In this regard, the participants expressed concerns about not only the success of the activities and materials they had prepared but also the functionality of the web-based programs required by the Ministry of Education to be used in English classes. Excerpts 66-67 evinced the concerns that the participants conveyed about the insufficiencies of the activities and materials they used in the classroom.

"I was frustrated when I realized that there were an insufficient number of examples about superstitions in the poster that I had prepared. I was puzzled and couldn't do anything to add extra examples in the classroom... Even such a small deficiency sufficed to devastate my teaching". (Excerpt 66- RPM-P4)

"[T]he weakness in my lesson was unsatisfactory use of L2. But it was due to the online program that I had to use for teaching. That program was too much based on Turkish, it required little use of English in the activities, which worked against almost everything I learned at the university. It might be useful for the students in some ways but it was trying to teach English via formulas, which I didn't like at all". (Excerpt 67- TM-P3)

4.4.1.3. Impact Concerns

The present study revealed five basic issues within the impact concerns subcategory including explicit reference to student learning, interest in individual students, students' developmental period, students' interests and use of the target language. Although all these issues ultimately emphasized students' learning, the present study referred to explicit references as an issue in its own right because it far

outnumbered the other issues within the category of impact concerns. Explicit references to student learning represented cases where the participants in both groups openly communicated their worry about positively contributing to the students' learning. As part of the issue of explicit references to student learning, the participants' reflections elaborated on properly addressing student mistakes, successfully delivering the content and diversifying activity types as challenges aggravating their concern about ensuring student learning. Excerpts 68-69 exemplified cases where the participants' explicitly communicated concerns about student learning.

> "When they correct each other's mistakes like in a student-student correction form, their learning will improve because some students may be offended if they receive correction from me. But when their friends correct their mistakes, they will be more comfortable and learn what they don't know more easily". (Excerpt 68- RPM-P6)
>
> "They [i.e. different activities] can increase learners' willingness to learning language. Some teachers are bound up to plans and do not create new things. If there is not any technological opportunity, they use only the board! But they should use different methods and activities to help all the students learn something". (Excerpt 69- TM-P2)

As the second major issue in the subcategory of impact concerns, interest in individual students featured as a perplexing finding in that the participants visited the practicum school only once a week for a few hours, yet they reported to strive for dealing with problems of individual students in order to ensure their learning. That is to say, the participants were somehow interested in individual problems that seemed to restrain the students' learning though they stayed in the practicum school for a relatively short time each week. In particular, the participants' reflections underlined that they worried about helping the so-called mischievous and problematic students as they paid specific attention to have such students learn something, as well. Excerpts 70-71 clarified the concerns that the participants expressed about individual students' learning.

"I realized that there were some students who had problems in their own lives. Other students warned me about them. They were like introverted and withdrawn from the class. I tried to encourage them rather than ignoring them. I will think about what I can do for them". (Excerpt 70- RPM-P1)

"I think that as teachers, we should show true interest in the overactive students to understand them and have positive relationship with them. We can do it in several ways

such as choosing kinesthetic activities, encouraging them with rewards, and giving reinforcements with our words". (Excerpt 71- TM-P4)

The students' developmental period emerged as another major issue within the impact concern subcategory. The participants considered it essential to take into account the characteristic features of the students' developmental period. Their reflections unearthed that they were concerned about delivering teaching that would satisfy cognitive and affective demands of the students' age. The participants concern about students' developmental period surfaced to be severer in cases of misbehaviors, since they reported difficulty in tactfully addressing the students' misbehaviors by considering their age. Excerpts 72-73 hinted on the participants' concerns about teaching in accordance with the characteristics of the students' developmental period.

> "While preparing my lesson plan, I do my best to use songs, games and role-play activities because the children are still 10-11 years old and it will be more effective to teach in this way instead of merely imposing knowledge or writing something on the board". (Excerpt 72- RPM-P5)
>
> "While I was showing them clothes, they saw the hat and one of them said 'Michael Jackson hat.' I turned him and said 'yes, this is Michael Jackson's hat' by emphasizing -s possessive. I did not wait for self-correction from the student. Rather, I chose 'recasting' because I know that students learn possessive –s at very late stages". (Excerpt 73- TM-P3)

The fourth major issue as part of the impact concerns subcategory referred to addressing different interests of the students. That's designing a lesson that would live up to various needs and interests of the students was a major issue influencing their practicum experiences. The present study pointed out that the participants' concern about successfully catering for the students' diverse interests was oppressive enough to trigger feelings of insufficiency at times. Excerpts 74-75 documented how the issue of student interests occupied the participants' minds during the practicum experiences.

> "I know that sometimes, we should forget the routines and create different situations in order to make our all the students understand the lessons clearly and better. But it is really difficult to improvise a situation that will meet every students' needs". (Excerpt 74- RPM-P5)
>
> "We should adapt our teaching method appropriately to the students who have different characters and interests. As much as possible, we should know all our students and try to give activities that will involve all of them in the lesson".

(Excerpt 75- TM-P4)

Last but not the least, use of the target language featured as the other major issue within the impact subcategory. More precisely, the question of preferring the target language over the mother tongue or vice versa amplified the participants' concerns about the impact they could make on student learning. Even though use of the target language was previously classified as part of self-related concerns, the content analysis of the qualitative data required a distinction because there were some cases in which the participants attributed their preference and/or rejection of using the target language to their emphasis on the students' learning. That's why it became a necessity to classify these cases within impact concerns subcategory. Evidently, the choice they made between using the target language or mother tongue surfaced to be a sound factor aggravating the participants' concerns about their ability to facilitate the students' learning. Excerpts 76-77 conveyed the participants' confusion about using the target language or mother tongue in order to provide the maximum benefits for their students.

> "At the beginning of the lesson, I tried to use L2. But because of the fact that the students weren't familiar with the use of L2 in the classroom, they had trouble to understand me. So, I had to speak in Turkish". (Excerpt 76- RPM-P9)
>
> "An ideal English teacher should not use L1 as much as possible. But in my lesson, most of the students could not understand and so, they couldn't be successful. They lost their motivation. Because of this, I had to use L1". (Excerpt 77- TM-P1)

4.4.2. Teaching Concerns Prior to and Following Practicum

With regard to changes in the participants' concerns prior to and following practicum, the present study evinced a decline in the overall concern scores of the RPM group as their concern means prior to practicum was 3.644 while it descended to 2.6822 following practicum (See Table 7). On the contrary, the overall concern means of the TM group increased from 3.6022 prior to practicum to 4.3689 following practicum. The remarkable changes in the concern means of both groups implied that the experiences the participants had throughout practicum helped the RPM group overcome their concerns to a great extent whereas they aggravated teaching concerns of the TM group. In addition, the changes in overall teaching concerns of both groups displayed similar trends in all the subcategories but the impact concerns. Put it simply, the concern means

in self-concerns and task concerns of the participants in the RPM group clearly descended while there was an increase in their impact concerns at the end of practicum. Conversely, the means in self- and task concerns of the participants in the TM group ascended whereas they showed a decline in their impact concerns at the end of practicum.

Furthermore, the descriptive analyses of the subcategories of concerns indicated radical differences between and within both groups regarding the areas in which they reported the highest and lowest concern means prior to and following practicum. On the one hand, the participants in the RPM group had the highest means in self-concerns and the lowest means in impact concerns prior to practicum. Yet they viewed impact concerns as the most concern-provoking area and self-concerns as the least following practicum. On the other hand, the participants in the TM group showed the highest concern in impact concerns while they expressed the lowest concern in self-concerns prior to practicum. Following practicum, however, they perceived self-concerns as the area of highest concern and impact concerns as the area of the lowest concern. Therefore, one can infer that practicum process had a remarkable influence on teaching concerns of both the RPM and TM groups depending on the mentoring models, with which they had the practicum.

Table 7

Pre-test and post-test concern means of the RPM and TM groups

			Overall		**Self**		**Task**		**Impact**	
			Pre	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**
RPM	**N**	**Valid**	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
		Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Mean		3.6444	2.6822	4.4867	2.0000	3.4333	2.4067	3.0133	3.6400
TM	**N**	**Valid**	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
		Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Mean		3.6022	4.3689	3.1867	4.6400	3.3267	4.2800	4.2933	4.1867

4.4.2.1. Teaching Concerns of the RPM Group

With regard to teaching concerns of the RPM group, the present study indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the overall concern means prior to and following practicum ($z= -2.803$, $p<.05$) (See Table 8). Likewise, the study

showed statistically significant differences between their concern means prior to and following practicum in each subcategory of teaching concerns. The decrease in teaching concerns of the RPM group led to the assumption that supplementing the pre-service teachers with RPM practices in the practicum process positively affected their efforts to handle perceived teaching concerns.

Table 8

Analysis of pre- and post-test concern scores of the RPM group

	Pre-test Post-test	N	Mean rank	Sum of ranks	z	p
Overall	Negative ranks	10	5.50	55.00	-2.803*	.005
	Positive ranks	0	.00	.00		
Self	Negative ranks	10	5.50	55.00	-2.807*	.005
	Positive ranks	0	.00	.00		
Task	Negative ranks	9	6.00	54.00	-2.703*	.005
	Positive ranks	1	1.00	1.00		
Impact	Negative ranks	1	2.00	2.00	-2.431**	.015
	Positive ranks	9	5.38	43.00		

*Based on positive ranks

** Based on positive ranks

Furthermore, the qualitative data collected from the RPM group gave noticeable insights into the decline in their perceived concerns following practicum. The present study kept track of the number of references the participants weekly made to each concern subcategory in the reflective journals and verbatim transcriptions of the pre- and post-teaching peer conferences, which provided further support to interpret the statistically significant differences in their teaching concerns prior to and following practicum (See Figure 5). The most remarkable finding emerging from the frequency analysis of the references the RPM group weekly made to each concern subcategory was the partial support it provided for the argument about a linear progress among different concern stages. The fluctuations in the number of references the RPM group made to each concern subcategory made it crystal clear that while self-concerns were prevalent at the beginning of the practicum, task concerns became predominant in the course of time and finally, impact concerns were the strongest concerns preoccupying the RPM group's minds.

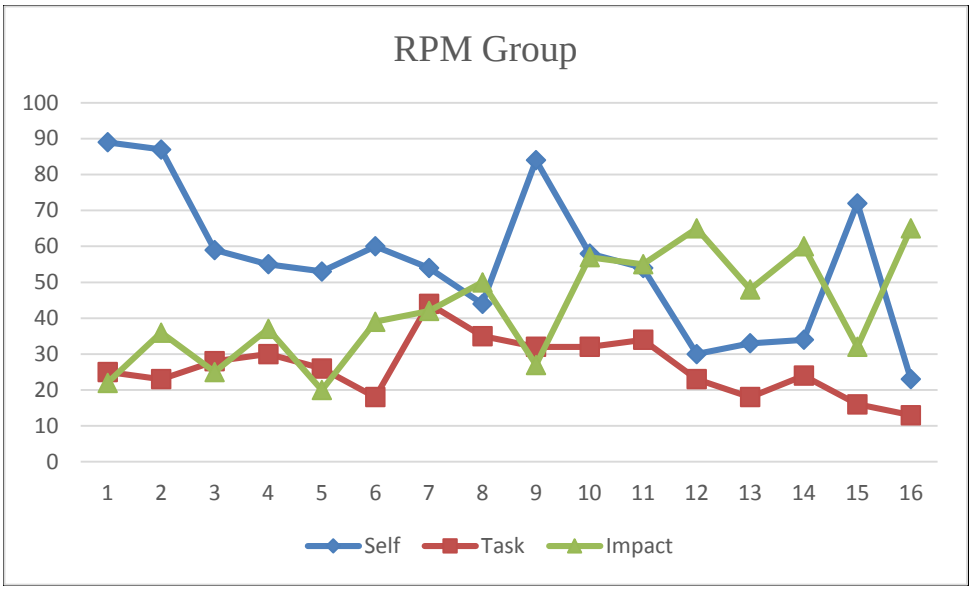


Figure 5. Number of references to concern subcategories by the RPM group

Another salient finding emerging from the analyses of the qualitative data was a noteworthy decline in the number of references to their self-related concerns as time passed by. That's although self-related concerns were by far the most frequently occurring type of teaching concerns in the early weeks of the practicum process, there was a remarkable decrease in their occurrences following the first few weeks of the practicum. The decline in the number of references the RPM group made to self-concerns confirmed the statistically significant difference in their teaching concerns means following practicum. As shown in Figure 3, however, there were two exceptions to the substantial decrease in the references they made to self-concerns. In the weeks 9 and 15, there were radical increases in the RPM group's references to self-concerns. An in-depth analysis of their reflections in journals and peer conferences explicated that the two supervisory observations were made during these weeks. This further contributed to the argument that the supervisory observations were a major factor aggravating pre-service teachers' perceived concerns during the practicum. As to the RPM group's references to task concerns, the content analysis of the qualitative data unearthed that task concerns featured to have received the fewest references by the participants throughout practicum. This finding might be explained by the fact that the participants had just completed all the coursework in the teacher education program they were enrolled in and thus, felt confident about issues related to the teaching task. Though the RPM group's worry about task concerns peaked at the beginning of the second term (i.e. Weeks 7 to 11), it tended to decrease linearly in the remaining period. This decline in the number of references to task concerns corroborated the statistically significant

change in the RPM group's task concern means following practicum. As for the RPM group's impact concerns, the present study explicitly documented a substantial increase in the number of references they made to impact concerns. This was totally in tune with the statistically significant increase in their impact concern means following the practicum.

The qualitative data collected from the RPM group provided several remarks projecting possible reasons underlying the statistically significant changes in their perceived teaching concerns prior to and following practicum. The fact that the participants in the RPM group enjoyed more teaching experiences and opportunities to disclose, discuss and seek for solutions for their teaching concerns through the RPM protocols might help to explain the decrease in their overall teaching concerns. The participants' reflections implied that in time, the RPM group gained confidence in handling problems about various aspects of actual teaching environments. They reported it a great relief to have hands-on experiences in searching for different alternatives to contribute to their teacher persona, improve their teaching skills and promote student learning. The following excerpt recapitulated the RPM group's perceptions about practicum experiences in terms of the changes in their teaching concerns:

> "Before the practicum, I was scared about being in front of students and trying to teach them something. In the first weeks, I even realized that I was being very harsh to the students. But as time passed by, I felt more comfortable, I mean I could be myself". (Excerpt 78- RPM-P7)

With regard to the significant decline in the RPM group's self-concerns, the present study hinted possible factors that might help to justify the progress the participants in the RPM group made throughout practicum. Self-concerns seemed to be the most prevalent at the beginning of practicum, which was probably because the participants in the RPM group would start teaching before long. Evidently, self-concerns permeated throughout practicum. However, there was a gradual decrease in the number of references the RPM group made to self-concerns in the course of time, and self-concerns were superseded by impact concerns towards the end of the practicum process. The participants' reflections also revealed a shift in their perceptions about the various issues they had reported within the self-concerns subcategory, which accorded with the significant decline in their self-concerns means following practicum. The

participants argued that as they had to be active during the time they spent in the practicum school through teaching practices, observations and conferences, they had more opportunities to contemplate on the main sources of the problems they encountered in the classroom. Furthermore, they asserted that over time, they took a more positive stance towards the problems they encountered because experiencing these problems gave them ideas about what to do in similar situations in the future. Excerpt 79 reflected the shift in the RPM group's views on the issues promoting the changes in their self-concerns.

> "Having positive relationships with the students is vital to make them see us as their teacher and listen to our instructions in the classroom. But I realized that they should respect me, and they should like me as well. I mean I needed to be both a friend to my students and authority. So, I always tried to be positive, even I made jokes for establishing positive relationship as they wouldn't respect a teacher they didn't like". (Excerpt 79- RPM-P1)

Another noticeable factor relevant to the prevalence of self-concerns in the RPM group prior to practicum might be that the participants in the RPM group seemed to be in the fallacy of comparing their performance with that of experienced teachers' despite their relative lack of experience in teaching. That is to say, though the teaching experiences in the practicum were their very first step into actual teaching settings, the participants in the RPM group viewed the cooperating teachers' performance as a criterion to decide on their own success, and concluded that they were insufficient. Such a comparison might inherently be erroneous and too harsh in that it ignored the superiority of the performance of the cooperating teacher as a more knowledgeable person with so many years of teaching experience in contrast to the relatively humble performance of the participants in the RPM group as prospective teachers with only a few teaching experiences they had throughout practicum. But the RPM group's tendency to compare themselves to the cooperating teachers might have been replaced by the experiences they gained in the course of time. Excerpt 80 reflected the comparisons that the participants used to justify their naïve performance particularly in handling disruptive behaviors.

> "I don't know if it was reasonable or not. I am sure that as an experienced teacher, she would do better than me. After all, I am not as experienced as her and I don't have a firm idea about how to handle these situations". (Excerpt 80- RPM-P6)

Moreover, the present study indicated that the participants in the RPM group generated some interesting suggestions, which might have alleviated their self-concerns. The participants' reflections conveyed that with the help of their peers, they managed to come up with alternative ways of suppressing the factors perceived to threaten their survival in the classroom. Excerpt 81 illustrated the suggestions, to which the participants in the RPM group resorted as alternatives for coping with the problems they encountered in the practicum process.

> "The most effective thing for me was to ensure that my students showed me respect. Especially some students didn't take me seriously because they didn't want to listen and participate in the lesson. At the beginning, I put a distance between me and the students in order to make them feel that I was the chief. But this didn't work at all. Then, I told them that if everyone listened to me carefully, we would watch some videos and sing a song together. It was like a magical idea as they stopped making noise and silently waited for the videos and songs… I used this technique in other classrooms, too". (Excerpt 81- RPM-P1)

With respect to the significant decline in the task-related concerns of the RPM group, the present study unearthed that task concerns surfaced to have received the least number of references throughout the practicum process. Accordingly, the frequency of references the RPM group made to task-related concerns diminished as they gained more experiences in the practicum process, which corroborated the significant decline in their task concerns. The participants' reflections signified that in the course of time, the participants in the RPM group began to view the problems pertaining to the teaching task as challenges to be mastered instead of barriers obstructing effective teaching. Excerpt 82 documented the inferences the RPM group made from the problems in their teaching practices, which might help to justify the decline in their task concerns following practicum.

> "Every week, we are learning something and fixing some of our mistakes. For example, I couldn't finish the last activity that I had planned for today. But this showed me the importance of giving time limitations at the beginning of every activity… If I had a chance to teach this class again, I would be more careful about timing of the activities I used. I would clearly state a limit for them like 5 minutes, or 3 minutes" (Excerpt 82- RPM-P4)

Similarly, the present study implied that self-determining an objective for each teaching practice might have been a factor underlying the significant decline in the

RPM group's task concerns. The participants in the RPM group contended that as they determined what to focus on according to their own needs and interests, rather than an imposed objective, they had a better chance to handle the problems which prevented them from successfully fulfilling teacher roles and responsibilities in their teaching practices. Excerpt 83 shed light on the participants' objectives for handling the task-related issues.

> "I decided to teach my lessons generally in English. Right now, there are classrooms with over 40 students, no technology, only the blackboard and a teacher book in some part of our country. But there will be no such problems in the future. There will be less students and more technological tools in the classrooms. So, while I am still experiencing with teaching in the practicum, I should try different methods in order to ensure that I can teach through English". (Excerpt 83- RPM-P9)

As for the impact concerns of RPM group following practicum, the present study revealed that though there was a paucity of references in the first term of practicum, references to impact concerns gained momentum and eventually, became predominant in the last few weeks of practicum. The increase in the number of references accorded with the statistically significant increase in the RPM group's impact concerns. The present study unfolded that while they elaborated on self-survival in their early practices, the participants in the RPM group prioritized the assistance they could provide to facilitate student learning towards the end of practicum. The participants' reflections reported on cases where the participants in the RPM group consciously searched for alternatives in order to contribute to different aspects of their students' learning. Excerpt 84 evinced the drastic change in their foci prior to and following practicum, which partly accounted for the significant increase in the RPM group's impact concerns.

> "Now, I can say that I and my partner prefer to have a more student-centered than teacher-centered teaching. I mean we should of course guide the students in the classroom, but they should be in the steering wheel because we noticed that they learn better by doing". (Excerpt 84- RPM-P9)

Congruent with the increase in the RPM group's impact concerns following practicum, the qualitative data clarified that the participants felt overstimulated at times and resorted to external support to get affirmed about the appropriateness of the activities they used. More precisely, the participants stated that they asked their peer and

cooperating teachers for suggestions about what they should alternatively do to foster the impact of their teaching on student learning. Excerpt 85 conveyed the RPM group's reflections on such cases of aggravated impact concerns.

> "I wasn't kind of in the mood of 'let's finish the unit and get out of the classroom.' My main objective was their learning. But I wasn't sure if I was doing the right things. When I asked [the cooperating teacher's name], she said I should give more examples, bring more exercises to the classroom and encourage the students more in the production part". (Excerpt 85- RPM-P7)

4.4.2.2. Teaching Concerns of the TM Group

With respect to teaching concerns of the TM group, the present study showed that there was a statistically significant difference between their overall concern means prior to and following practicum ($z= -2.805$, $p<.05$) (See Table 9). Considering the subcategories of teaching concerns, the present study indicated that there was also a statistically significant difference in their self- and task concerns means prior to and following practicum. Interestingly, though, the change in the impact concern means of the TM group was not statistically significant, and the TM group still had high impact concerns following practicum. Based on these findings, one can argue that the experiences that the TM group had during practicum process aggravated their perceived concerns about teaching.

Table 9

Analysis of pre- and post-test concern scores of the TM group

	Pre-test Post-test	n	Mean rank	Sum of ranks	z	p
Overall	Negative ranks	0	.00	.00	-2.805*	.005
	Positive ranks	10	5.50	55		
Self	Negative ranks	0	.00	.00	-2.805*	.005
	Positive ranks	10	5.50	55.00		
Task	Negative ranks	0	.00	.00	-2.812*	.005
	Positive ranks	10	5.50	55.00		
Impact	Negative ranks	6	5.00	30.00	-1.682**	.092
	Positive ranks	4	3.00	12.00		

* Based on negative ranks

**Based on positive ranks

The qualitative data collected from the TM group gave potent insights into the increase in their perceived teaching concerns following the practicum process. As mentioned above, the present study counted the number of references the participants made to each concern subcategory in the qualitative data they submitted weekly. The content analysis of the qualitative data collected from the TM group confirmed that the variations in number of references they made to each concern subcategory paralleled the

statistical differences in their teaching concerns following practicum (See Figure 6). Given the number of references the TM group made to different subcategories of concerns, the present study revealed that the participants in the TM group displayed a reverse trend in terms of the concerns they reported. That's the TM group reported the highest concerns in the impact subcategory during the first term of practicum, a period during which they made observations of the cooperating teachers' practices. They made the most reference to self- and task concern subcategories in the second term i.e. when they started actual teaching practices. This finding also contributed to the argument that without authentic experiences, teaching concerns would be based on hearsay because the participants seemed to elaborate primarily on achievement in self-survival and teaching responsibilities once they started teaching. However, the finding that self- and task concerns became more prevalent at the end of practicum discorded with the hypothesis about the linear progress among different concern stages starting from self- through task- to impact concerns.

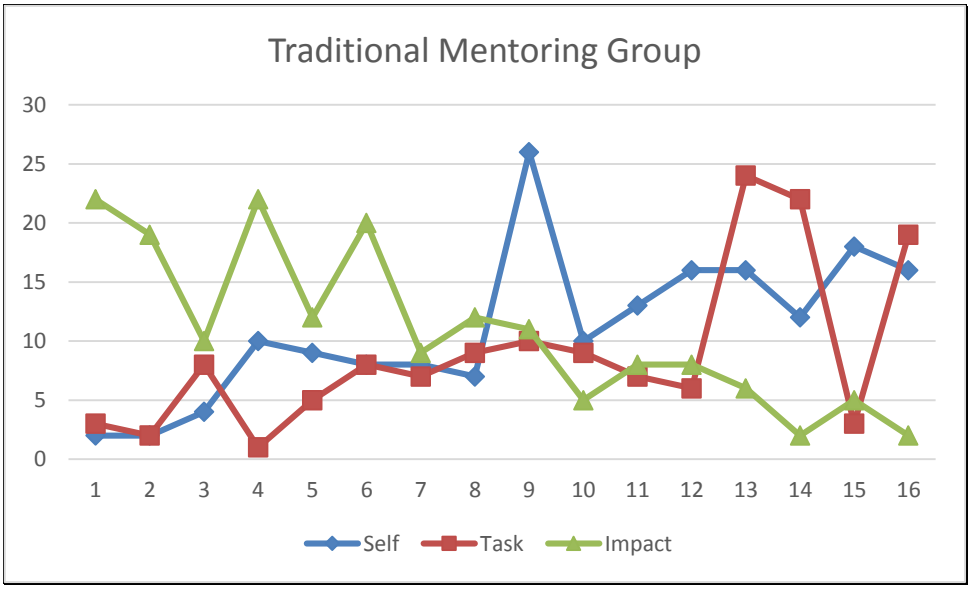


Figure 6. Number of references to concern subcategories by the TM group

In addition, the present study proved that there was a gradual increase in the number of references the participants in the TM group made to task concerns, which confirmed the statistically significant increase in their task concerns. Likewise, the TM group's reflections highlighted that the overall number of references to self- and task concerns distributed more evenly despite peaks at different times of practicum. For instance, the TM group featured to be predominantly occupied with self-concerns in the weeks 9 and 15 as these were the weeks for the supervisory observations, which was the same for the participants in the RPM group. The parallel distribution of references to

self- and task concerns as well as the concomitant significant changes going in the same direction, which was also true for the RPM group's self- and task concerns, implied an implicit relationship between self- and task concerns. More precisely, as the number of references to self- and task concerns increased/declined similarly and the significant changes (i.e. increase or decline) in self- and task concerns showed parallelism, one might argue that the factors aggravating and/or alleviating concerns in one subcategory affected the participants' concerns in the other subcategory. Excerpt 86 reflected insider views supporting possible relationships between self- and task concerns.

> "I thought that it would be very hard to control young learners and this was my biggest worry… When you are successful at controlling the class, teaching is very enjoyable, I think. So we need improve our classroom management in order to be successful teachers". (Excerpt 86- TM-P2)

Nevertheless, the present study pinpointed that the TM group reported the least number of reference to task concerns, which might have been due to the fact that just like those in the RPM group, the participants in the TM group had successfully completed all the methodology courses in the teacher education program they were enrolled in and felt assured of their instructional skills. Given the TM group's references to self-concerns, the present study unveiled that there was a remarkable increase in the number of references, which was congruent with the statistically significant increase in their mean scores following practicum. As mentioned above, the increase in the number of references to self-concerns coincided with the term during which they started teaching in practicum. Henceforth, one may conclude that the authentic teaching experiences in practicum made the participants in the TM group chiefly focus on self-survival.

As regards the issues within each subcategory, the participants in both groups converged in task- and impact concerns while the TM group differed from the RPM group in terms of the number of issues they referred to within the self-concerns subcategory. In contrast to ten issues in self-concerns of the RPM group, the participants in the TM group study expressed concern about seven issues. Fewer issues in the case of the TM group might be explained by the extra number of teaching practices and RPM protocols that the RPM group had throughout practicum. More specifically, the RPM group had more teaching practices than the TM group and thus, more chances to encounter different kinds of problems that may arise in a typical classroom. The extensive practices might have enabled the RPM group to have a more

realistic grasp of their concern and develop strategies to overcome them. Another noteworthy explanation about the difference between the two groups might be that although the number of the issues was higher in self-concerns and the same in task- and impact concerns, the RPM group as opposed to the TM group naturally had more space to disclose their concerns because they regularly had peer observation and peer conferences throughout practicum. With more space, the RPM group probably had more time to make in-depth analysis of their concerns, reflect on possible causes of their concerns and devise alternative solutions for those concerns together with a peer. The less space in the case of the TM group might signify that taking practicum within the TM trajectory, the participants in the TM group could not sufficiently focus on their concerns, which might have aggravated their perceived concerns at the end of practicum.

The qualitative data provided intriguing remarks that might help to explain the significant differences in the TM group's teaching concerns following practicum. With specific reference to the increase in the TM group's self-concerns, the participants' reflections revealed that teaching practices formed a turnaround that made them focus primarily on self-survival. Though they had spent the first term in the same classrooms on field observations, a feeling of vulnerability and confusion prevailed in their reflections on teaching in actual classrooms. Also, the participants in the TM group reported a dilemma between being authoritative and adopting the ideal teaching practices. Excerpts 87 illustrated possible challenges encountered by the TM group, which might have aggravated their self-concerns

> "I am always against being an old-fashioned and harsh teacher. But today, I was harsh towards the students sometimes. I couldn't give sense to my behaviors. How I can be such a teacher! I was trying to be the authority. I could collect myself very hard. I should try to handle this in the future". (Excerpt 87- TM-P1)

Moreover, the present study implied that the participants in the TM group expressed high concerns about the issue of creating a positive image as a teacher in the classroom. The TM group's reflections documented cases where the issue of positive image was so severe as to surpass the interest they showed in the students' learning. Closely associated with creating a positive image, the TM group's reflections also disclosed that the TM group expressed strong concern about ambiguity of their roles in the classroom compared to that of the cooperating teachers. That's is to say, the participants called for being viewed as a colleague, rather than a senior student, by the

cooperating teachers. Excerpt 88 demonstrated how the participants in the TM group grappled with getting affirmed as a teacher in the classroom, which probably further contributed to the increase in their self-concerns.

> "While I was teaching these words, I spoke in English. But some students said some words in Turkish as their equivalent. I responded in English and I said 'Yes. It is so in Turkish.' as a feedback. I paid attention to avoid using Turkish because I didn't want them to have any questions about my proficiency in English. I think this is very important for all English teachers". (Excerpt 88- TM-P9)

As to the increase in the TM group's task concerns, the present study pointed out that the participants in the TM group noted some sort of helplessness about some of the issues associated with the practicum school and number of students, which seemed to amplify their task concerns following practicum. The participants' reflections unraveled that encountering such problems as interruptions by the school administration or technical breakdowns fostered serious questions about successfully carrying out the roles and responsibilities of the ideal teacher. Similarly, the loneliness they expressed against the challenges of teaching in crowded classrooms during practicum featured to be another major factor possibly promoting their task concerns. Excerpt 89 documented the TM group's reflections on task-related issues restraining effective teaching.

> "I had problems due to the lack of the computer. I would make them listen to some songs and watch some videos. But I couldn't do these activities and my lesson became a disaster again because it was very difficult for me as a new teacher to find other activities instead of them. If I could implement them, my lesson would have been much more effective". (Excerpt 89- TM-P1)

The present study underlined that the participants in the TM group referred to their own inabilities in cases of problems pertaining to the fundamental teacher roles and responsibilities. For instance, their reflections proved that the TM group's concerns about time management stemmed from not only the limited time provided for teaching but their own ability to use the time effectively, which probably contributed to the increase in their task concerns following practicum. Furthermore, the TM group's reflections indicated that despite the inconveniences it caused, the participants in the TM group felt bound to follow the curriculum without any divergence, which in turn prevented them from going for additional options and paying due attention to student learning. Likewise, perceived failures of the activities they used in the classroom featured as another factor boosting the TM group's task concerns. Excerpt 90 reflected

the task-related issues which the participants in the TM group deemed to be within their capacity but could not sufficiently handle, which probably added to the increase in their task concerns.

> "The bell rang and I had to leave my activity and plan half-done again. I wasted so much time and energy trying to explain the last activity. I ran out of time and thus, finished the lesson without giving any homework" (Excerpt 90- TM-P9)

As for the TM group's references to impact concerns, the frequency analysis of references seemed to be at odds with the result of the statistical analysis. While the results revealed no significant changes in the TM group's impact concerns means following practicum, the content analysis of the qualitative data showed a noteworthy decline in the number of references the TM group made to the impact of teaching on student learning. Although they still reported high impact concerns means following practicum, the decline in the number references to impact concerns boiled down to mean that the practicum experiences caused the participants in the TM group to gradually elaborate less on student learning. Considering the statistically significant increase in self- and task concern means coupled with the drastic increase in the number of references to issues in these subcategories, one may conclude that particularly after they started teaching in actual classrooms, the participants in the TM group were primarily preoccupied with issues about self-survival and carrying out teaching tasks. The TM group's reflections confirmed this conclusion as there were a number of remarks unearthing the shift in their focus. Excerpt 91 shed light on how self- and task concerns incrementally replaced impact concerns and permeated the TM group's thinking during the practicum experiences.

> "During the lesson, the students insistently wanted to do the activities they loved. But I didn't allow this and took control of the activities at my hand. Thus, I managed to make the lesson not get out of my control, and only did the activities I had planned" (Excerpt 91- TM-P2)

4.5. Differences between Teaching Concerns of the RPM and TM groups

The present study conducted two separate Mann-Whitney U Tests in order to unravel if there were any statistically significant differences between teaching concerns of the RPM and TM groups prior to and following the practicum process. With regard to their concerns prior to practicum, the present study showed that before they started

practicum, there was no statistically significant difference between teaching concern means of the RPM and TM groups (U=40.500, p<.05) (See Table 10). This finding was intriguing in that although the subcategory in which they reported the highest concern was different, their overall concern means did not differ significantly. Nonetheless, this finding confirmed that the participants undertaking practicum with the RPM and TM models were homogenous in terms of their overall teaching concerns. The fact that the participants in both groups successfully completed most of the methodology courses and had the same number of micro teaching experiences in the program they were enrolled in might justify the lack of a statistically significant difference between the groups in terms of teaching concerns prior to practicum.

Table 10

Analysis of the pre-test concern means of the RPM and TM groups

Group	**N**	**Mean rank**	**Sum of ranks**	**U**	**p**
Control	10	9.55	95.50	40.500	.472
Study	10	11.45	114.50		

Following practicum, nevertheless, the concern means of the RPM and TM groups showed a statistically significant difference (U=.000, p<.01) (See Table 11). As mentioned above, the participants in the RPM group reported less teaching concerns whereas the participants in the TM group had higher teaching concerns at the end of practicum. Based on these findings, one may hypothesize that the experiences they had during practicum enabled the RPM group to more successfully handle their overall teaching concerns while they caused the TM group to express aggravated concerns.

Table 11

Analysis of the post-test concern means of the RPM and TM groups

Group	**n**	**Mean rank**	**Sum of ranks**	**U**	**p**
Control	10	15.50	155.00	.000	.000
Study	10	5.50	55.00		

The qualitative data gleaned from the participants shed further light on possible factors leading to the abovementioned significant difference between the RPM and TM groups following practicum. More precisely, the present study unraveled remarkable differences between the RPM and TM groups in terms of their perceptions of teaching concerns in accordance with the mentoring practices they were involved in during practicum. Reflections of the participants in the RPM group brought to the fore a five-

component practicum trajectory in comparison with a three-component practicum trajectory perceived by the TM group (See Figure 7). Depending on the practicum trajectory the participants undertook, these components consisted of teaching practices, observing the cooperating teachers, conferences with the cooperating teachers, peer observation and peer conference.

Apparently, the five components in the case of the RPM group and three-components in that of the TM group surfaced as the major resources to which the participants resorted so as to handle their teaching concerns throughout the practicum process. With a particular interest to delineate possible reasons underlying the aforementioned statistical differences between teaching concerns of the RPM and TM groups, the present study specifically attempted to highlight how the components of practicum might have affected the participants' concerns about teaching. Nevertheless, one should notice that all components of these practicum trajectories as perceived by both groups did not necessarily relate to each and every single issue within the three subcategories of teaching concerns. That is to say, not each and every component had the same degree of influence on all the issues within the teaching concern subcategories.

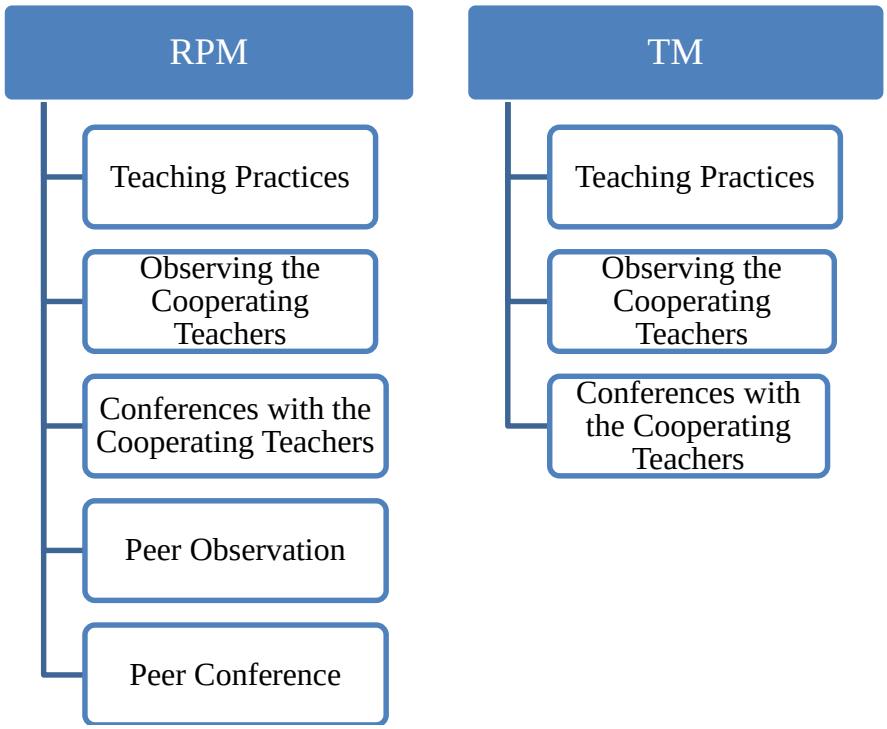


Figure 7. Perceived components of mentoring practices

4.5.1. Influence of Teaching Practices

Teaching practices were a major factor that affected teaching concerns of the

participants in both groups, since these experiences were the first and only opportunity to put the knowledge they gained at the university into practice before they were assigned as full-time teachers. Regarding teaching concerns of the RPM group, teaching practices seemed to mark a noticeable shift in the way the participants in the RPM group perceived their concerns and thus, formed a strong factor helping them handle their teaching concerns. With reference to self-concerns, for instance, the following dialogue recorded in a post-teaching conference clarified how their teaching practices gave the participants in the RPM group an opportunity to handle their concerns about the mentor:

> **RPM-P3:** …I think I could properly correct the student's mistakes this time. Also, I had the whole class repeat the words that were commonly mispronounced. I am sure they gained from the lesson in this sense. But more importantly, I hope this class improved the teacher's impression about me because I think I was quite successful today.
>
> **RPM-P4:** Certainly it did. I guess you could gain her trust because your performance was excellent today, she didn't say anything negative. I think she began to see that you could lead your classroom without her interference. (Excerpt 92)

Similarly, the present study highlighted that receiving positive feedback from the students about their teaching practices functioned to reassure the participants in the RPM group about their achievement, which played some role to alleviate their concerns about establishing positive relationships with the students. Furthermore, teaching practices served some function in attenuating their concerns about content knowledge. The participants in the RPM group claimed that through teaching practices, they were better able to foresee the points that would challenge the students and studied for these points before going into the classroom, which in turn prevented possible failures in responding to student questions. The participants also pinpointed the role of extensive teaching practices in relieving concerns about gaining recognition as a teacher. Excerpt 93 reflected the RPM group's views on teaching practices as a factor helping to overcome various self-related concerns.

> "In the first weeks of teaching practice, there were cases when they asked me some words, the meaning of which I forgot or simply did not know. These words were mostly not related to the unit I would normally teach that day. At the beginning, I would either say 'let me check' or 'I can't remember it now'. But as I

had more experiences with these cases, I began to predict which words would likely be unknown to the students or what kind of questions they were likely to ask". (Excerpt 93- RPM-1)

Moreover, teaching practices were a major point of reference for the RPM group in their efforts to overcome their biggest self-concern i.e. classroom management. The present study emphasized that teaching practices enabled the participants in the RPM group to notice the need for enriching their lessons with alternative strategies to prevent and handle management problems, particularly discipline problems. The participants' reflections unearthed that through the teaching practices, the participants in the RPM group had many opportunities to develop their own management strategies in contrast to the well-entrenched misassumptions about controlling the students, which might have enhanced the decline in the self-concerns following practicum. The participants argued that their concerns about self-related issues incrementally left the ground for interest in student preferences. Excerpt 94 pointed out the great progress the RPM group made in terms of tolerating classroom management issues, which they previously perceived as threats for their survival.

"My strength for this week was to see that noise should be tolerated depending on the nature of the activity. For instance, there was a lot of noise when I had them play a game. This was bothering me at the beginning. But I realized that I should not try to make them silent during a game activity because they were working in groups and trying produce something, which was more important than the noise". (Excerpt 94- RPM-P1)

As to the role teaching practices played in the RPM group's task concerns, the present study showed that teaching practices in practicum featured as a pivotal factor re-shaping their concerns about successfully performing their tasks as a teacher. Considering the RPM group's concerns about time management, the present study put forth that teaching practices enabled the participants in the RPM group to try out different strategies in order to manage the time effectively despite the unpredictable nature of the classroom. The RPM group's reflections clarified that teaching practices also provided opportunities to form an idea of how to handle concerns about the practicum school although the participants in the RPM group believed to have no role in preventing the issues such as technical inadequacies or interventions by the school-administration. In particular, the RPM group displayed a drastic shift in their perspective about the issue of schedule changes because following a few changes, they

tended to view teaching in different classes as a major source of gaining familiarity with different student profiles and experience in managing to survive in new classes. Furthermore, teaching practices seemed to be a key factor helping the RPM group to relieve their concerns about what activities and materials to utilize in the classroom. Excerpt 95 illustrated the influence of extensive teaching experiences on the decline in the RPM group's task concerns, which might have promoted the distinction between the RPM and TM groups in terms of their perceived concerns following practicum.

> "At the beginning, I had serious problems with time management. I was either finishing my activities earlier than I expected or the bell was ringing before I finished all of my activities. I had to try several things to solve this problem. But then, I realized that giving clear instructions was a key point because once I clearly told them what they would do, then you were half done. Also, I learned that it was important to consider the difficulty of activities in order to allot an appropriate amount of time for each activity. For example, when I gave little time for a difficult activity, the students would not be able do it on time and they would ask for extra time, which would negatively affect my plan". (Excerpt 95- RPM-P3)

The present study unraveled that the teaching practices were also a major component of the practicum process that positively influenced the impact concerns of the participants in the RPM group. More specifically, the teaching practices they had in practicum seemed to be an underlying reason for the gradual increase in their interest in whether they could positively affect the students' learning. The RPM group's reflections disclosed that teaching practices made the RPM group's concern about individual students grow stronger as the participants in the RPM group openly expressed empathy with some students who had learning difficulties. Consonant with their empathy with the students, the participants in the RPM group underlined that through teaching practices in actual classrooms, they perceived insufficiencies in their capacity to design their lessons in ways that would cater for all the students' interests. This provided a possible explanation for the increase in the impact concerns of the RPM group because perceived failures in addressing the students' interests appeared to be a factor profoundly aggravating their concerns about student learning. Excerpt 96 documented how teaching experiences further promoted the RPM group's impact concerns, which in turn might have discerned their concerns from those of the TM group following practicum.

> "The practicum showed me that while introducing a new topic or structure, I should provide as many examples as possible in order to have the students learn more effectively. In addition, noticing the changes in their mood was certainly another critical skill for being a good teacher. I mean I needed to be aware of whether the students were open to learning or bored with the lesson, and catch the moments that they were most ready for taking in what I taught. But these were all too difficult for me as a beginning teacher". (Excerpt 96- RPM-P1)

As for the influence of teaching practices on the TM group's teaching concerns, the present study illustrated that teaching practices appeared to be the strongest point of reference for the TM group in dealing with their teaching concerns. Yet, the TM group's reflections implied that the smaller number of teaching practices restricted the participants in the TM group in their struggle to handle their teaching concerns. Considering the increase in their self-concerns following practicum, the present study intriguingly indicated that teaching practices muddied the waters in their minds as the participants in the TM group reported controversial views on the contribution of teaching practices they had. On the one hand, they considered teaching practices a major source of gaining experience through the opportunity these practices provided to put their knowledge into practice and get a realistic idea of what they could do in real classrooms. The TM group's reflections purported that teaching practices helped the TM group make progress in some self-related issues such as establishing positive relationships with students, familiarizing themselves with the practices of teaching and bootstrapping their content knowledge. Excerpt 97 recounted the perceived benefits the participants in the TM group made of teaching practices.

> "I helped some students with their questions. My interactions with the students are getting better. I guess I feel more comfortable with them because when I am in charge, I can help them with the problems they have. This makes them trust me rather than viewing me as an ordinary teacher they see once a week". (Excerpt 97-TM-P7)

On the other hand, the participants in the TM group displayed hesitation about the adequacy of their teaching practices in terms of overcoming such predominant self-related issues as gaining recognition, authority and classroom management. The TM group's reflections underscored that the participants implicitly ascribed some role to the unpredictable and dynamic nature of the classroom as a possible factor stimulating their self-concerns. The TM group also argued that their naïve optimism about their teaching

capabilities caused them to encounter sound problems, particularly in controlling the classroom. Excerpt 98 highlighted how the TM group's hesitation about the adequacy of teaching practices stimulated their concerns about self as a teacher, which might have added to the difference between teaching concerns of the RPM and TM groups following practicum.

> "We saw that experience made the difference. Things we criticized in the teacher's classes in the first term turned out to be happening during our own classes. We needed to learn how to keep everything i.e. students, activities, materials, sitting plan etc. in balance. But we had only 10 weeks for all these. We also needed a lot of practice to develop our instant creativity and problem solving skills". (Excerpt 98- TM-P2)

As to the role of teaching practices in task concerns of the TM group, the content analysis of the qualitative data unearthed a parallelism between the TM and RPM groups' views on the role of teaching practices in handling issues related to the practicum school and the activities and materials they used. More precisely, the participants in the TM group, similar to those in the RPM group, viewed teaching practices as a major source of gaining hands-on experience about how to handle issues stemming from technical breakdowns, schedule changes and inappropriate selection of activities and materials to be used in their own classrooms. Regarding the other task-related issues, however, the present study yielded the inference that possible inconveniences the TM group encountered during teaching practices might have escalated their concerns about successfully carrying out the responsibilities of teaching. For instance, although time management featured as a major issue in their task-related concerns, the participants in the TM group ascribed a minor role to the teaching practices in terms of the good the practices made to relieve their concerns about completing their lessons in the pre-determined time. Similarly, the participants in the TM group interestingly purported that teaching in crowded classrooms amplified their need for relying on the curriculum and course book. Excerpt 99 instantiated possible factors aggravating the TM group's task concerns, which also gave insights into the difference between the TM and RPM group's concerns following practicum.

> "Giving appropriate time was a big obstacle for me because throughout the practicum, there was no lesson I could finish as I planned. As the classroom had an unpredictable environment, some activities took longer whereas some of them took shorter than I expected. In both cases, it would be a problem because I had to

improvise a new activity when it finished earlier than the normal time or find a way to make up for the delay when it finished later". (Excerpt 99- TM-P8)

Regarding the influence of teaching practices on impact concerns of the TM group, the present study confirmed that the teaching practices served to keep the TM group focused on facilitating the students' learning. Nonetheless, the qualitative data gleaned from the participants in the TM group perplexingly documented that some unexpected events stemming from their emphasis on student learning during their practices diverted the participants' attention back to some other issues, in particular to classroom management. To illustrate, the TM group's reflections made it explicit that the participants' emphasis on engaging all the students in learning turned out to be a factor endangering peace in the classroom and their authority during their teaching practices, which also shed light on possible reasons promoting the significant increase in the TM group's self-concerns at the end of the practicum process. Moreover, the present study revealed some frustrations the TM group experienced due to their attempts to engage individual students in learning. Excerpt 100 pointed out the references the participants in the TM group made to their teaching practices as multifaceted factors promoting their concerns, which partly justified the distinction between RPM and TM groups in terms of their teaching concerns following practicum.

"I had designed a game because even the introvert students liked playing games. It would be a very good activity especially for them. However, I could not figure out what I did wrong. When I started the game, they became overactive and went out of control. Thus, I had to stop the game as soon as possible. Although I was striving to have them learn something through playing, they just did not pay attention and preferred to talk each other. Maybe, I should not worry about doing entertaining activities for them, instead give them only worksheets and ask them to answer the questions on it, just like their teacher does". (Excerpt 100- TM-P2)

4.5.2. Influence of Observing the Cooperating Teachers

Observing the cooperating teachers was another factor that affected the participants' concerns because these observations were intended to let the participants not only see how the theoretical knowledge they learned at the university was put into practice by experienced teachers but also realize that even experienced teachers might encounter problems in their classes. In the present study, observing the cooperating

teachers seemed to be one of the controversial factors in terms of the contribution it made to the participants' efforts to handle their teaching concerns. The controversy about observing the cooperating teachers might be due to the differential amount of time spared for observations. As stated earlier, the participants in the RPM group spent a shorter amount of time i.e. the first four weeks of the first term on observing the cooperating teachers whereas the participants in the TM group had the whole first term for observing. Nevertheless, the present study found that irrespective of the amount of time for observations, the participants in both groups associated observing the cooperating teachers mainly with but not limited to two functions.

The first function was the accommodation aspect of observing the cooperating teachers. That is the participants in both groups asserted that the fundamental function of observing the cooperating teachers was one of enabling familiarity with and adapting to the students and how things worked in the classroom. As part of this function, observing the cooperating teachers also helped the participants to figure out the relationships among the teachers at the practicum school as well as the relationships between individual teachers and the school administration. The second major function attributed to observing the cooperating teachers referred to modeling classroom management, which constituted the biggest concern during the practicum. Put it simply, the participants reiterated that observing the experienced cooperating teachers gave them valuable insights into how to manage the classroom effectively because the cooperating teachers with many years of experience in teaching ideally had a lot to show them through their practices how to handle unexpected problems endangering effective classroom management. Excerpts 101-102 reflected the modeling function of observing the cooperating teachers, which might have factored into the changes in the participants' overall teaching concerns.

> "I learned from the teacher how I can control the classroom and what I should do for this. Instead of threatening the students by giving poor grades, she would warn them about the harm that they gave not only to themselves but also to their friends. I will use this approach when I become a teacher as it works well with some disruptive students". (Excerpt 101- RPM-P6)
>
> "Observing [the cooperating teacher's name] was beneficial for my ability to effectively manage the classroom. By observing her teaching, I saw what should or shouldn't be done in problematic cases and to what extent such problems as student misbehaviors and noise should be tolerated". (Excerpt 102- TM-P8)

With respect to self-concerns of the participants in the RPM group, observing the cooperating teachers provided them with some examples that encouraged the RPM group to reconsider their role as a teacher in the classroom. The present study signified that observing the cooperating teachers guided the RPM group about the framework of the relationship they should build with the students. Likewise, observing the cooperating teachers featured to be promising for handling the issue of gaining recognition. Furthermore, the RPM group's reflections clarified that despite some drawbacks pertaining to the teachers' practices such as being traditional, observing the cooperating teachers provided the participants in the RPM group with alternative solutions about how to maintain the control in the classroom. Excerpt 103 exemplified the perceived benefits of observing the cooperating teachers, which might have differentiated the concerns of the RPM group from those the TM group following practicum.

> "While observing the teacher, I was finding answers to some of the questions in my mind. The good side of observing her was seeing how she gained the students' respect. She was doing nothing new. But with so many years of teaching experience, she aptly made the students follow her in the classroom. Although there were some students disturbing her class, I got some tips about how to make such students listen to the lesson and do the activities by observing her teaching". (Excerpt 103- RPM-P2)

As to the role of observing the cooperating teachers in task concerns of the RPM group, the present study unraveled that observing the teaching practices of an experienced teacher served some function in enabling the participants in the RPM group to refine their own practices. The RPM group's reflections yielded references favoring for the contribution of observing the cooperating teachers in relieving their concerns about time management. Yet observing the cooperating teachers more prominently guided the RPM group about how to react against school-related issues, particularly in cases of technical breakdowns. Even though they made references to some traditional practices, the participants in the RPM group implied that they also benefitted from observing the cooperating teachers in preparing the activities and materials that would be appropriate for their classrooms. Excerpt 104 documented the role that observing the cooperating teachers played in helping the RPM group handle their task concerns, which partly explained the differential concern perceptions following practicum.

"Before I started teaching, I was thinking that I should prepare as many activities

> as possible. But I realized in her [the cooperating teacher's] lessons that too many activities would also cause problems because the teacher had to deal with lots of things apart from teaching within the limited teaching time. I realized that bringing too many activities was not a merit; rather, she had a few activities but completed them all by the end of the lesson". (Excerpt 104- RPM-P1)

As for the role of observing the cooperating teachers as a factor affecting impact concerns of the RPM group, the present study unveiled that observing the cooperating teachers had a relatively weak influence on relieving their concerns about the impact of teaching on student learning. The present study explicated that the concern stage of the cooperating teachers was of prominent importance. More specifically, the teachers who elaborated on concerns at lower concern stages provided little benefit to the participants for attenuating their impact concerns. Accordingly, the RPM group's reflections communicated disappointment with observing the teachers especially in concerns about designing lessons that would be tailored for the characteristic features of the students' developmental level as well as their diverse interests. Excerpt 105 hinted on the RPM group's dissatisfaction with observing the cooperating teachers due to the insufficient assistance it provided to cope with impact concerns.

> "While I was observing the teacher, I focused on how she would respond to the needs of the students. I knew it would be demanding for me to teach a foreign language to the students because their developmental level, perspectives and comprehension level were totally different for me. I was expecting that I would learn a lot from the teacher about how to simplify my language to their level and prevent the students from being bored. But honestly speaking, this didn't happen because she was merely doing exercises for TEOG". (Excerpt 105- RPM-P3)

With regard to observing the cooperating teachers, the participants in the TM differed from the RPM group as they spent the whole first term on observing the cooperating teachers and started teaching in the second term. Interestingly, the present study revealed that the participants in the TM group referred to some shortcomings pertaining to observing the cooperating teachers, which might have distinguished their perceptions of teaching concerns from those of the RPM group. Nonetheless, a noticeable finding was that despite the perceived shortcomings, some of which were also noted by the RPM group, none of the participants in the TM group regarded observing the cooperating teachers as futile. Rather, the present study clarified that the TM group deemed it essential to make the observations more functional because they

viewed observing the cooperating teachers as a major resource for them to gain ideas about how to handle various situations emerging in the classroom. The following excerpt instantiated the TM group's favor for observing qualified teacher practices:

> "Although [the cooperating teacher name] was a highly traditional teacher, observing her lessons was beneficial to show us how things in a real class tended to go… I believe observing experienced teachers is a kind of experience that we need more, since we have been theoretically educated to perform an ideal lesson in which everything goes perfectly. But the teacher who we will observe is more important because she needs to be more up-to-date and use more technology in the classroom" (Excerpt 106- TM-P8)

As to the role of observing the cooperating teachers in the TM group's self-concerns, the participants' reflections yielded worthwhile remarks that shed light on the changes in the TM group's concerns following practicum. The TM group's reflections surfaced to be critical of the cooperating teachers due to overuse of L1 in the classroom. The participants in the TM group claimed that observing the teachers mainly teach through L1, which contradicted the pedagogical knowledge they learned at the university, aggravated their confusion and worry about the issue of teaching through the target language. Likewise, the present study underlined the insufficiency of observing the cooperating teachers' practices in helping the TM group overcome their concerns about classroom management. The participants in the TM group iteratively maintained that classroom management formed the focus of their observations, since they expected to learn a great deal from the practices of a more experienced teacher. Yet they explicitly reported dissatisfaction with the observations in this regard, which might have caused their differential concerns following practicum. Excerpt 107 disclosed the TM group's views on observing the cooperating teachers as a factor supposed to promote their survival in the classroom.

> "The instructors at the faculty recommended us to use English in the classroom. But the teacher was teaching mostly in Turkish and thus, gave the impression that it would be better that way. Honestly, I am still hesitant, for instance, about how to make the introduction in English, or what I should do when the students do not understand my sentences in English". (Excerpt 107- TM-P9)

As with the role of observing the cooperating teacher in the development of task concerns of the TM group, the present study indicated that observing the teacher's practices fostered task-related concerns of the TM group while at the same time it

helped them gain some ideas about how to handle the task of teaching. Despite reporting positive influence of observations on their concerns about time management, the participants in the TM group premised that observing the cooperating teachers produced a counter-effect on their concerns about reliance on the curriculum and course book in that through observing the teacher's practices, they became better convinced of the need for true conformity with the curriculum and course book. In the same vein, the present study unraveled that observing cooperating teachers who allegedly used the same activities was of little assistance with the TM group's concerns about effective use of activities and materials. Excerpt 108 highlighted the TM group's complaints about observing the cooperating teachers, which might have triggered the different perceptions of the TM group about teaching concerns following practicum.

> "It didn't make sense to use only board and papers. I had already seen it for years when I was in the primary school or high school. It was necessary to engage the students in the context through more interesting activities, maybe listening to a song or watching a video. Unfortunately, I could not see these activities in the teacher's lessons". (Excerpt 108- TM-P8)

With respect to the role of observing the cooperating teachers in the TM group's impact concerns, the present study demonstrated that the participants in the TM group were highly critical about the cooperating teachers' practices. Their dissatisfaction with the observation of the teacher's practices might be explained by the fact that they necessarily made the observations in the first term of the practicum, a period during which the participants in the TM group had reported to be pre-occupied with the impact of teaching on the students' learning. The TM group's reflections on observing the cooperating teachers yielded complaints about the cooperating teachers' practices on the grounds that the teachers did not pay sufficient attention to enrich their lessons with extra activities that would facilitate student learning. Furthermore, the present study hinted that once the TM group started teaching, self-concerns began to suppress the pre-dominance of impact concerns, which were initially high probably due to a lack of authentic teaching experiences. Excerpt 109 pointed out the TM group's reflections on observing teaching practices in association with their impact concerns.

> "I realized that sitting at the back of the classroom and being in front of the blackboard were completely different and this difference became much more apparent in the second term. While I was making observations, I was focusing on a certain student and criticizing the teacher for not dealing with them individually.

> But when I started teaching, I realized how challenging it was to deal with 30 students individually. I had to keep so many mechanisms working at the same time. I was thinking about whether the students learned, how I could establish the control, what I should do with disruptive students, whether I should behave as a teacher or a friend. I had to struggle with all these questions". (Excerpt 109- TM-P5)

4.5.3. Influence of Conferences with the Cooperating Teachers

Conferences with the cooperating teachers appeared to have a contradictory influence on the significant difference between teaching concerns of the RPM and TM groups. Although having conferences with the cooperating teachers prior to and following teaching practices should ideally play a critical role in the pre-service teachers' professional development, the present study indicated that the participants were tentative in reporting advantages of conferencing with the cooperating teachers in terms of reliving their concerns. Put it simply, the participants in both groups purported that despite offering critical opportunities for receiving reflections on their teaching practices, the conferences with the cooperating teachers could not live up to the expectations of the participants because they were rare in frequency and random. However, one should notice that the participants in both groups paradoxically made little reference to the conferences with the supervisor as a factor helping to handle their concerns. Rather, they focused primarily on the conferences with the cooperating teachers probably due to a twice-a-year model of supervisory observations, in which the supervisor observed the participants twice throughout the practicum and held merely a short meeting with the participants following each observation.

Despite the tentative attitude about the conferences with the cooperating teachers, the present study showed that the conferences with the cooperating teachers still made up a somewhat potent component because the cooperating teachers' experience in teaching made these conferences a valuable resource for the participants in their struggle to find possible solutions for alleviating their teaching concerns. With specific reference to the RPM group's concern, the participants' reflections clarified that the conferences with the cooperating teachers obviously made the most contribution to the RPM group in self-concerns. The RPM group's reflections ascribed some role to the conferences with the cooperating teachers in the progress they made in alleviating

their concerns about the practices of teaching. More importantly, the participants in the RPM group distinguished between the conferences with the cooperating teachers and their peers in terms of their contributions to cope with the issue of classroom management. Evidently, the RPM group seemed to prioritize the former because of the teachers' experience in teaching. Excerpt 110 illustrated probable contributions of the conferences with the cooperating teachers to the RPM group's perceptions of teaching concerns following practicum.

> "I think [the cooperating teacher's name] helped me and my peer mostly in classroom management because she had had a lot of experiences with students who were behaving oddly and seen hundreds of students in her career. She helped us about how we should deal with them". (Excerpt 110- RPM-P10)

Regarding the influence of the conferences with the cooperating teachers on the task concerns of the RPM group, the present study revealed that though the RPM group perceived the teachers' suggestions to be necessarily based on experience rather than theory, they benefitted from discussing with the teacher particularly in terms of time management. Nevertheless, the participants' reflections intriguingly revealed no reference to the influence of the conferences with the cooperating teachers on their concerns about the issues pertaining to the practicum school or number of students in classrooms. Furthermore, the participants in the RPM group displayed negative attitudes towards the use of the conferences in reducing their concerns about activities and materials and reliance on the curriculum and course book. More precisely, they implied that the conferences with the cooperating teachers did not make much good in reducing their concerns about developing effective activities/materials and establishing a true match between the curriculum and their lesson plan. Excerpt 111 reported on the controversial views the participants in the RPM group had about the role of the conferences with the cooperating teachers in handling their task concerns.

> "The teacher did not care much about how we taught, the only path she recommended us to follow was the curriculum and the topics in the book. Though she appreciated our efforts to enrich our lessons, she thought that the course book would suffice for an effective teaching". (Excerpt 111- RPM-P2)

With regard to the influence of the conferences with the cooperating teachers on impact concerns of the RPM group, the present study reiterated the necessity of working with a cooperating teacher who had successfully coped with even the most advanced concerns in his/her own teaching. The present study found that the conferences further

aggravated the RPM group's impact concerns because the participants allegedly could not get satisfactory responses about how to promote student learning. Likewise, the participants in the RPM group reported that they sometimes had to ignore the cooperating teachers' suggestions due to their aggravated interest in maximizing the benefit the students could make of their teaching, which probably marked a difference in their teaching concerns compared to those of the TM group following practicum. Excerpt 112 informed about the influence of the conferences with the cooperating teachers on the RPM group's impact concerns.

> "I was doing my best to involve even the most disruptive students. Interestingly, the teacher warned me to focus more on the hardworking students. She seemed to pay more attention to pleasing them. However, I consciously ignored her warning because I did not want to lose anyone. I told her that they might be a little too active but they were also clever enough because they could correctly answer my questions. All they needed was a little patience and tolerance". (Excerpt 112-RPM-P3)

Considering the influence of conferences with the cooperating teachers on the TM group's concerns, the present study revealed that although the participants in the TM group had several issues, about which they reported to need help from a more knowledgeable and experienced teacher, they viewed the conferences with the cooperating teachers as far from being satisfactory. This finding was in congruence with the aforementioned drawbacks that the participants in the RPM group reported about the conferences with the cooperating teachers. Given the lack of satisfaction with the conferences, the present study unveiled that the participants in the TM group expressed skepticism about the function of the conferences with the cooperating teachers due to some factors related specifically to the cooperating teachers, which probably hindered the efficiency of these conferences. Firstly, the TM group emphasized that the conferences with the cooperating teachers were irregular. Moreover, they referred to the busy schedule of the cooperating teachers as a barrier to holding effective conferences with the teachers. Finally, the participants in the TM group seemed to be critical of conferences with the cooperating teachers because they needed more in-depth analysis of the weaknesses in their practices and practical suggestions to overcome them. Excerpt 113 documented the shortcomings the TM group reported about the conferences with the cooperating teachers

> "[The cooperating teacher's name] did her best to help me during the whole year.

> But the feedback she gave was a little too general. I mean she did not offer me alternatives about how I could improve the week sides of my teaching. Even when she did, she was offering old-fashioned strategies that were no longer favored in the current teaching methods. As this was the case, I had to search for possible solutions on the internet". (Excerpt 113- TM-P5)

Regarding the role of the conferences with the cooperating teachers in self-concerns of TM group, the present study made it explicit that the participants in the TM group unanimously held negative attitudes toward the efficiency of the conferences. The TM group's reflection underlined the discouragement that the conferences with the cooperating teachers caused in the TM group about their content knowledge. Additionally, the present study clarified that the conferences with the cooperating teachers seemed to aggravate the TM group's concerns about achieving authority and gaining recognition in the classroom. Given the biggest threat to their survival in the classroom, the participants in the TM group reported that classroom management was the issue pervading the conferences because questions about classroom management were at the forefront of their minds throughout the practicum experiences. Excerpt 114 noted the prevalence of self-related issues in the conferences the TM group held with the cooperating teachers, which might have boosted the difference in concerns perceptions of the TM and RPM groups.

> "There were few times we could talk with the teacher about our beliefs. But when we did, the topic was mostly the students in the classroom and how to handle them better. Instead of teaching/learning strategies, we mostly talked about the different faces we needed to put on to manage different classrooms because each classroom had different characteristics. Whereas we could tolerate disruptive student behaviors in one group, we needed to be relatively stricter in another group which needed more control during lesson". (Excerpt 114- TM-P8)

As for the role of the conferences with the cooperating teacher in task concerns of the TM group, the present study highlighted that the participants maintained their overall negative impression about the sufficiency of the conferences in helping them handle their concerns about teaching. That is the participants in the TM group criticized the conferences on the grounds that the conferences could not provide them with sufficient practical suggestions about how to tackle the issues about teaching. The present study unfolded that though the cooperating teachers might have been quite experienced and successful in their own practices, they preferred to give simplistic

responses to the TM group's questions about various issues pertinent to teacher roles and responsibilities. Besides, the present study found that the conferences with the cooperating teachers promoted strong obedience to the curriculum and course book. In the same vein, some of the participants in the TM group put forth that the feedback they received from the cooperating teachers discouraged them from using additional activities and materials. Excerpt 115 explicated the counter-effect of the conferences with the cooperating teachers on the TM group's concerns about various task-related issues.

> "I needed to teach in accordance with the curriculum because during our meetings, the teacher constantly warned me about preparing my lesson plans according to it. This was a pressure that I felt for the first time. As the teacher felt obliged to proceed according to the curriculum, she also asked me to obey it. That is why I was meticulously analyzing the book while I was preparing for the lessons and trying to find some videos, songs, games and other activities that would accord with the units in it" (Excerpt 115- TM-P7)

As regards the role of the conferences with the cooperating teachers in the development of impact concerns in the TM group, the present study showed that the participants in the TM group made few references to discussing with the teachers about their concerns about the impact of teaching practices on the students. This might be explained by the fact that they reported to have made few conferences with the cooperating teachers, and in cases when they did, other concerns, particularly those related to classroom management permeated the conferences. This finding confirmed the gradual decline in the number of references the TM group made to impact concerns throughout practicum. The present study pointed out that the few cases where the participants in the TM group referred to their impact concerns during the conferences mainly pertained to the issues of interest in individual students and use of the target language with the purpose of facilitating students' learning. Excerpt 116 summarized the discontent the TM group expressed about the feedback they received from the cooperating teachers, which might help to explain the distinct concern perceptions of the TM group following practicum.

> "I asked him [referring to the cooperating teacher] what I could do to attract the disruptive students' attention to the lesson because I did not want them to leave the classroom without learning something. He said that he also had problems with such students but using technology could be good with them because they were

digital natives and incorporating technology might attract their attention better". (Excerpt 116- TM-P1)

4.5.4. Influence of Peer Observation

Unlike the participants in the TM group, the participants in the RPM group additionally referred to peer observation as another component of practicum affecting their teaching concerns. Peer observation was proposed to enable the participants in the RPM group to both see how their peers managed to handle responsibilities of being a teacher and feel more comfortable by the presence of a peer as the observer in contrast to a more experienced teacher or supervisor. The present study pointed out that peer observation had a twofold influence on the RPM group's perceptions of teaching concerns. On the one hand, it gave the participants in the RPM group a chance to observe the teaching practices of a peer with a similar in/experience and knowledge level, which provided them with alternative ideas about how to cope with their own problems because most of the problems they encountered in the classroom were reported to be similar. On the other hand, peer observation freed the participants in the RPM group of the discomfort associated with being observed by the more experienced teachers or supervisors. Considering that observation by the teachers or supervisors was a factor prompting higher self-concerns in the participants, peer observations might have been influential in relieving the RPM group's teaching concerns following practicum. Excerpt 117 gave insights into the exclusive influence peer observations had on the RPM group's overall teaching concerns.

"By observing our teaching, we began to reason about what could be done about our problems based on a causal analysis of those problems, rather than merely thinking about what the problem was. I guess this was a specific contribution of working with a peer because we not only shared our problems but also what we could do about them. I mean thanks to peer observation, we saw that we had the same problems and thus, could easily help each other about how to handle them. In this way, we solved our problems and provided alternative options for the next practices". (Excerpt 117- RPM-P3)

With respect to the self-concerns of the RPM group, the present study disclosed that peer observation seemed to be a salient factor in communicating the participants that the problems affecting the peer on the stage would most likely arise in their own

practice, as well. Therefore, this knowledge might have yielded the relief that they were not alone in terms of their problems and could benefit from the strategies and techniques their peers employed to solve those problems. The RPM group's reflections outlined advantages of peer observations in a wide range of self-related issues including concerns about relationships with students, practice of teaching, gaining recognition and classroom management. Excerpt 118 exemplified the role of peer observation as a factor attenuating the RPM group's concerns, which might have contributed to the difference they displayed from the TM group's concerns following practicum.

> "In the practicum school, my biggest chance was to be able to watch how my partner taught in the classroom. I mean the atmosphere in real classrooms was different from what I had ever thought of. So, I was closely watching what she was doing in order to get some hints about what I could do in my own teaching. Similarly, she was watching my lessons and taking notes about my teaching. Especially her notes were beneficial for me because I was reading them after the lesson and seeing my mistakes". (Excerpt 118- RPM-P10)

Regarding the task concerns of the RPM group, the present study identified that the participants had more positive attitudes towards peer observations than observing the cooperating teachers. The present study clarified that the participants in the RPM group viewed the cooperating teachers' practices as restricted by responsibilities of being a formal teacher such as following the curriculum and carrying out non-instructional and administrative duties, which allegedly hindered the use of recent teaching methodologies and teaching strategies as well as extra activities and materials. Instead, present study pinpointed that with no such restriction, peers' practices more effectively modeled how to teach according to the theoretical knowledge they had gained at the university. The present study further found that as the participants readily compared the peers' performance with that of their own, they could come up with alternative solutions for the problems occupying their minds, which might have partly attenuated the worries they had about their own teaching practices. Though the qualitative data yielded no references to the benefit of observing the peers in terms of the issues related to the practicum and number of students, there were several remarks delineating the contributions of peer observations to concerns about time management and using effective activities and materials. Excerpt 119 documented the role of peer observation in alleviating task concerns, which partly accounted for the difference between teaching concerns of the RPM and TM group following practicum.

> "While observing his [i.e. referring to the peer] lessons, I was always comparing my lessons with his. I was getting surprised to see that he could finish all the activities in time. I noticed that he was strictly following the time he assigned for each activity. In contrast, I did not explicitly state any time limitation in my lessons. Although I would give extra time whenever students asked for it, sometimes much more than I planned, he distinguished between easy and difficult activities. After I noticed this, I began to give less time for easier activities. This proved to be time-saving because the students could indeed do some activities more easily". (Excerpt 119- RPM-P8)

As with the influence of peer observation on impact concerns of the RPM group, the present study indicated that observing the teaching practices of a peer served to elaborate the participants' attention more on the gains that their students could make from their own teaching practices. Evidently, the RPM group's reflections pinpointed that observing the peer's practices became an inspiration for the participants to show more interest in individual students. Similarly, the present study unraveled that peer observations provided additional ideas about how to tailor their own practices in line with diverse student interests. Excerpt 120 presented reflections on peer observation as a factor marking a sound influence on the RPM group's impact concerns.

> "I had some silent students who never participated in the lesson. You know they were like a locked box and it was challenging to open up that box and put some knowledge into it. I had some ideas in my mind and I already tried out some of them. But I could not see what exactly did not work with them in the mainstream of teaching. However, when I was observing my peer, I could more easily see what kind of activities would attract such students more and what encouraged them to actively participate in the activities". (Excerpt 120- RPM-P9)

4.5.5. Influence of Peer Conference

The other component of practicum specific to the RPM group, peer conference surfaced to be a prominent factor affecting the participants' concern development throughout the practicum process. Peer conferences gave the participants in the RPM group a chance to exchange opinions about their concerns obstructing effective performance in a stress-free environment. The present study indicated that peer conferences differed from those with the cooperating teachers in some remarkable

features. First and foremost, peer conferences were regular and systematic as the participants necessarily met prior to and following each teaching practice to share and reflect on their plans and teaching practices. The regularity and systematicity of these conferences were reported to make the exchange of reflections in these conferences an outstanding resource for the participants because the awareness that their plans and teaching practices would not be taken for granted enabled the participants to delve deeper into possible reasons and results of their concerns. More specifically, knowing that they would have conferences, in which they would discuss their plans and practices in depth and breadth, gave the participants a sense of security against the challenges of the early teaching practices.

Secondly, the peer conferences were marked by reciprocity, which required mutual contribution by both peers so as to help one another handle their teaching concerns. The reciprocal nature of the conferences inspired the participants to readily take on responsibility for their peers' development because there would certainly be a payoff for their own development in return for the efforts they would make for their peers. Moreover, the peer conferences in contrast to those with the cooperating teachers or supervisor were stress-free, since they were not part of any formal assessment of the participants' performance. Accordingly, the stress-free nature of the peer conferences promoted disclosure of teaching concerns to a great extent in that both ends of the discussion had no superiority over one another in terms of their knowledge and experience.

Closely associated with the issue of superiority, another major feature of the peer conferences pertained to the status attributed to the suggestions made by the peers. That is to say the suggestions made in peer conferences were not imposed as prescriptions, which in turn fostered flexibility in alternative strategies, techniques and practices because the participants were free to opt for implementing and/or overlooking their peers' suggestions. Moreover, the present study revealed that the critiques that the peers made of their performances during peer conferences were less likely to cause offence in the participants. Finally, the RPM group appreciated the peer conferences on the grounds that the discussions they made during peer conferences were mostly based on a theoretical background. To clarify, the participants reported that as pre-service teachers filled with the knowledge of the most recent teaching methodology, they could establish their discussions on more up-to-date theories of teaching, which might have enabled them to cope with the problems they encountered during the teaching practices more

aptly.

With regard to the role of peer conferences in the RPM group's self-concerns, the present study pointed out that the participants in the RPM group took the advantage of consulting somebody who suffered from problems similar to their own. The study unearthed that suggestions and feedback the peers exchanged during peer conferences helped them figure out how to tackle various self-related issues. More precisely, the participants in the RPM group reported on cases where peer conferences served to increase awareness about possible deficiencies, which arose during teaching practices but they failed to notice. As such, the present study asserted that peer conferences held not only following but also prior to the teaching practices provided opportunities to make more informed decisions in the classroom and take measures to prevent any embarrassment stemming from these deficiencies. Excerpt 121 illustrated the role of holding peer conference in helping the RPM group relieve issues about self-survival in the classroom.

> "Before we went to the practicum school, we had the opportunity to talk about how to use L2 in the classroom more effectively. My peer told me that I mostly used English which was good. But she warned me to use it correctly. Also, she recommended me to use my body language, gestures and mimics instead of Turkish when I had difficulty in explaining a word in English". (Excerpt 121-RPM-P1)

As for the influence of peer conferences on the RPM group's task concerns, the present study unveiled that the participants readily favored for peer conferences because these conferences provided more specific and realistic reflections on their teaching performance. The present study pinpointed that congruent with the statistically significant decline, peer conferences formed a major factor alleviating the RPM group's concerns about various issues related to teacher roles and responsibilities. In particular, the RPM group expressed explicit favor for peer conferences due to the support these conferences provided for handling their concerns about the efficiency of the activities and materials they used in the classroom. Excerpts 122-123 highlighted two dialogues in which the participants in the RPM group exchanged with their peers about task-related issues, which might possibly explain the different perceptions of teaching concerns in the RPM group following practicum.

> "**RPM-P5:** There were some words like 'measles' which they heard in the video for the first time. These caused confusion. You should have either introduced

them beforehand maybe with some visuals or should not have included them in the video.

RPM-P6: Yes, unfortunately there were some words they didn't know. Actually, I had checked the video before the lesson but I didn't realize them. For instance, I noticed 'painkiller' in the video and I paid attention to teach it before I started the video. But I missed 'measles' and 'broken leg'.

RPM-P5: They did not know what 'broken' meant.

RPM-P6: Yes, I just could not realize it.

RPM-P5: You should be more careful about the content of the materials you will use, especially when you will use ready-to-use activities such as those available on the internet. You should make sure that they suit your classroom because there may be some structures or vocabulary that your student do now know". (Excerpt 122)

"**RPM-P9:** Today, I want to start with the new unit. But before, I am planning to make a little revision of the last week for 15 minutes.

RPM-P10: A little revision in 15 minutes?

RPM-P9: It may be long, but I certainly want to revise the previous unit.

RPM-P10: 10 minutes will be better. Indeed, it will be more reasonable to reduce this time unless a problem arises. I think it will be better to reduce the warm-up period because its goal is just to revise and remind the students of the unit in the last lesson.

RPM-P9: So, I am planning to make a start with a revision.

RPM-P10: You should quickly make the revision and continue with the new unit. The shorter it is, the better it will be.

RPM-P9: In that case, I will have to tap a small number of topics in order not to extend 10 minutes.

RPM-P10: Absolutely. Instead of imposing too much knowledge at once, you should have them learn piecemeal. They will not learn by constantly repeating the same thing; rather, they need time for acquiring it. So, I think sparing 10 minutes to revision will be more reasonable". (Excerpt 123)

Moreover, the present study unveiled that peer conferences held high potential to explain the changes in impact concerns of the RPM group by giving the opportunity to be engaged in extended discussions with peers about how to make their lessons more beneficial for the students. The present study illustrated that through the discussions

they had during the conferences, the peers could draw their attention more to the impact their teaching could make on the students' learning. Supporting the significant increase in their impact concerns following practicum, the RPM group's reflections underlined that during peer conferences, the peers encouraged one another to design lessons that would address the students' interest and thus, promote student learning. Excerpt 124 demonstrated how holding peer conferences contributed to the RPM group's impact concerns.

> "Actually, the main purpose of making conferences was to teach a lesson that would be more effective for the students. Therefore, we mostly elaborated on what we should do to create an environment that would be conducive to the students' learning". (Excerpt 124- RPM-P1)

Eventually, verbatim transcriptions of peer conferences revealed cases in which a peer's reflections on a problem could yield multiple interpretations and thus, broadened the participants' perspective about solving the problem. The following dialogue hinted on the way conferences between peers with different foci fostered further discussions, which in turn enabled the participants to produce imaginative suggestions about making their teaching more fruitful for the students:

> "**RPM-P1:** When the students asked you a question, you responded individually. For example, when a student asks the meaning of a word, you should ask her to repeat her question loudly and give the response loudly so that everyone can hear the meaning. This will enable all those who do not know to learn the meaning of that word.
>
> **RPM-P2:** Yes, it will be more beneficial if they respond their friend's question.
>
> **RPM-P1:** No, I did not mean it. You will give the response but the students prefer to individually ask the word they do not know. Instead of this, you should ask them to ask it loudly and you should respond in a way to make it be heard by all the students. In this way, not only the student asking the word but all of them will learn the meaning.
>
> **RPM-P2:** That's a good idea, but what I mean is that there may be a student who knows the meaning and I can ask him/her to give the response so that it will not be too teacher-centered. When it is a student rather than the teacher who is giving the response, it will be better because there may be some shy students who feel embarrassed to ask me. They prefer not to ask any question in order not to show that they do not know. But when they see that a friend responds their questions,

they may ask their questions more comfortably and thus, learn more easily.

RPM-P1: Right, this may also be an effective option". (Excerpt 125)

4.6. Perceptions on Overall Practicum Process

The present study examined the participants' perceptions about the overall practicum process under the light of the differential components of the mentoring trajectories given in the previous section. Apparently, the components of mentoring each group mentioned surfaced as the factors shaping their perceptions about practicum experiences. The present study employed a holistic approach to present the participants' perceptions about the overall practicum process because there were major overlaps between the RPM and TM groups. However, one should notice that the present study also made specific references to the differences between the perceptions of RPM and TM groups about overall practicum. Figure 8 briefly summarizes the participants' perceptions on overall practicum process.

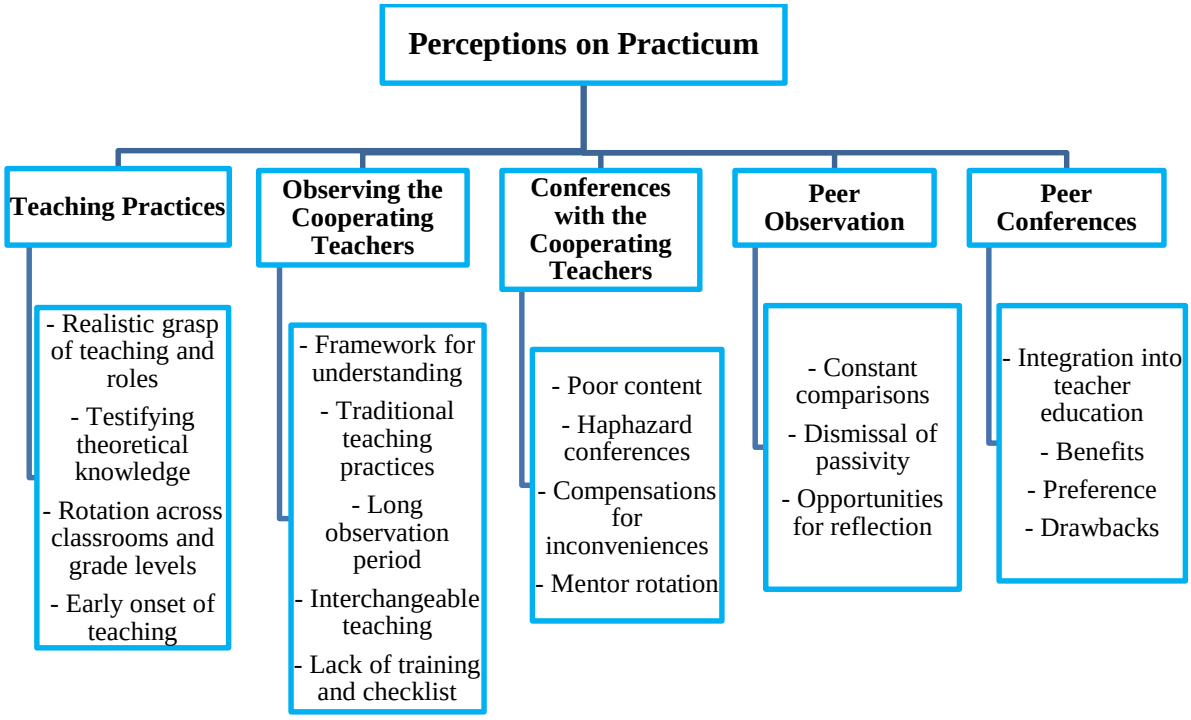


Figure 8. Perceptions on overall practicum process

4.6.1. Teaching Practices

The present study showed that as the first component of the practicum trajectories, teaching practices obviously formed a sound point of reference for the participants' development throughout the practicum process. Even though the

participants in the RPM group experienced a longer period of teaching, the participants in both groups unanimously stated that the teaching practices provided them with the opportunity to get a realistic grasp of teaching and the role of teacher in the classroom. As mentioned in the excerpts 126-127, the participants asserted that teaching practices gave hands-on experiences about seeing student behaviors through multi-perspectives and handling possible problems in the classroom.

> "Teaching in real classroom was useful as it gave me some ideas about multi-dimensions of student behaviors and what I might encounter in the future. Though I did not experience extreme events, I witnessed several inconveniences which I had never imagined before, and learned what I should do in those cases" (Excerpt 126- RPM-P10)

> "In real classrooms, I faced different reactions because the students would explicitly say things like 'we don't understand, we can't do this or we don't like it'. They showed their attitude in this way, and I had to refine my teaching according to these reactions. For example, there were cases where I was thinking that I taught very clearly, but the students gave quite different reactions. They had a different perspective and different cognitive level. And, adapting the lesson to their level was more challenging than I had thought. Thus, the practicum gave me first-hand experience about what I should consider while preparing a lesson plan". (Excerpt 127- TM-P5)

In addition, the participants stated that teaching practices in practicum enabled them to testify the theoretical knowledge they had learned at the university. The participants proposed that although they had mastered the theory about teaching, teaching practices in practicum offered the first systematic opportunity to integrate their knowledge into practice and see weaknesses/strengths of various instructional strategies and techniques. Excerpt 128-129 illustrated how teaching practices enhanced the participants' identity development through putting their theoretical knowledge into practice.

> "I had taken courses about various approaches to teaching, how we should teach and behave in the classroom. Also, I had taken classroom management as an elective course. I had learned several strategies such as making eye-contact and being silent in case of noise. In the practicum, I had the chance to implement these approaches and strategies into practice. Thus, the practicum helped me to enrich my teacher identity by giving me a chance to try out these approaches and

strategies". (Excerpt 128- RPM-P3)

"The practicum became a first step for me to be a teacher. I learned some tips about teaching. For example, I had taken material design course but could not apply it at the university. But in the practicum, I had a good chance to see whether I can prepare effective materials". (Excerpt 129- TM-P2)

As a major shortcoming of practicum pertaining to teaching practices, the present study showed that the participants in both groups compromised on the need for a systematic rotation in practicum. The participant unanimously argued that teaching in different classrooms would give them a remarkable opportunity to construct a more comprehensive conception of teaching. At first glance, their call for rotation in practicum signified a sound contradiction about their perceived concern about the frequent schedule changes in the practicum schools. The participants had previously reported that the changes in the weekly schedule, which in turn required a classroom change in most cases, was a factor aggravating their task-related concerns. However, an in-depth analysis of the participants' reflections on rotation revealed that what triggered their concern were the sudden changes in the schedule and the classroom they would teach in. Instead, the present study highlighted that the participants in both groups argued for periodically changing the classroom with the assumption that it would enable them to see different student profiles and make more informed decisions in the classroom. Another noticeable finding about their call for rotation was that the participants essentially mentioned a change across grade levels. Put it simply, they asserted that teaching across grade levels would certainly make the rotation more fruitful as this would give them more reliable insights about teaching students at different grade levels. Excerpts 130-131 projected the participants' call for systematic, well-structured rotations across classrooms and grade levels.

"If I start working at a primary school, I am sure it will be very different. I may have trouble again. Though the weekly program frequently changed during the practicum, I only taught at seventh grade level. They were more mature and cognitively more developed than young learners. I learned how I should teach them. But if I am assigned to a second grade-level, then I will need to change the way I teach. For example, I do not know what challenges I may encounter while teaching at that level. That is why I think my practicum experience was a bit deficient. I should have been given the chance to teach also in primary and high school levels". (Excerpt 130- RPM-P2)

> "Teaching in different classes can give me a chance to make comparisons between the classrooms. I can see whether an activity that works with young learners will work in elementary school or not, or whether controlling the young learners is easier than adolescents. Thus, it can help me be more flexible in the classrooms, which will be a positive contribution to my professional identity. Maybe, it would have been much useful if I had taught at a primary school for five weeks and an elementary school for the other five weeks". (Excerpt 131- TM-P7)

In terms of the participants' perceptions about the length of the teaching period they had during the practicum, the present study identified sound favor for an early onset of teaching practices. The participants, particularly those in the TM group argued that confining actual teaching practices to the second term of the practicum process was a strong limitation on their development, since they perceived a period of ten weeks allocated for teaching as insufficient to develop a functional conception of teaching. Excerpt 132 conveyed the underpinnings of a longer teaching period in practicum by starting teaching practices as early as possible.

> "I went to the practicum school once a week, taught one class and then, gave the turn to a friend. I did not know the students, their names, individual features, learning styles and personalities. As I went to the classroom only for a few weeks, it felt superficial. But if I had taught for a longer period, I would have known them better. I think, it would have been much more beneficial in this way because I could have adopted different methods and used different materials according to their individual preferences". (Excerpt 132- TM-P4)

Likewise, the participants in the RPM group who did spend a shorter time on observing the cooperating teachers and start practice-teaching in the first term viewed an early start with teaching as vital for further progress in practicum. Excerpt 133 highlighted the positive attitude the RPM group had and the advantages they cited about an early onset of teaching practices during practicum.

> "It was definitely advantageous for us to start teaching in the first term. I have friends who did not do any teaching in the first term. When they started teaching in the second term, they could not overcome their anxiety about it and were in no way comfortable with teaching for the first 2-3 weeks. The practicum was already a course lasting for a total 10 weeks in each term. As they spent the first few weeks with this anxiety, there was not much left for them. But it was just the opposite in our case. We taught for almost a full academic year. Thus, I believe

we made much more progress". (Excerpt 133- RPM-P1)

4.6.2. Observing the Cooperating Teachers

Observing the cooperating teachers has emerged to be a controversial component of the practicum trajectories undertaken by the participants in the RPM and TM groups. On the one hand, the participants showed considerable favor for observing the practices of an experienced teacher as this would draw a broad framework for understanding the dynamics of real classrooms and how they should carry out their own teaching practices. With respect to observing the cooperating teachers, a major difference between the RPM and TM groups was the time each group spent on observation. The participants in the RPM group observed the cooperating teachers during the first four weeks of the first term and then, they simultaneously had teaching practices and peer observations in the rest of the practicum process. However, the TM group spent the whole first term (i.e. a period of 10 weeks) merely on observing the cooperating teachers and then, started teaching practices in the second term. Interestingly, though, the participants in both groups shared similar opinions about their experiences with observing the cooperating teachers. Excerpts 134-135 reflected contributions of observing the cooperating teachers as perceived by the participants.

> "As a pre-service teacher, I had no previous teaching experience. That's why I needed to observe a more experienced teacher. It gave me an idea about what I should do or should not do in the classroom and how I should fix problems". (Excerpt 134- RPM-P3)

> "I think observing the teacher was beneficial for me before beginning actual teaching. I made observations about many things, for example, how to handle problematic students, how to teach a subject, what I should do in the classroom and how the relationship between the students and teacher should be. These were the advantages of observation for me". (Excerpt 135- TM-P4)

On the other hand, the participants expressed dissatisfaction with observing the teachers because they perceived the teachers' practices to be too traditional and thus, fall short of meeting their needs for observing effective practices. The present study showed that the participants in both groups also questioned the role of observing the cooperating teachers in their development. More specifically, they had doubts about possible contributions of their experiences with observing a cooperating teacher who

they thought had a less up-to-date perception of teaching. Excerpts 136-137 gave insights into the participants' perceived dissatisfaction with observing the cooperating teachers.

> "Observing the teacher was informative of course because she was an experienced teacher. But the problem was that she wanted to impose on me all her methods. She thought they were correct in terms of teaching. But I think some of them were classical like using too many repetition drills and translating the sentences into Turkish. These are not the ideal way of teaching effectively. Considering what I have learned at the university, there are better and new ways of teaching effectively". (Excerpt 136- RPM-P7)

> "Though my observations of the teacher taught me a lot of things about teaching English to young learners, I am not quite sure whether some of these things will help me make a decent teacher. For example, though the students were 10-11 year old, the teacher was trying to give grammar points in a deductive way, in which she used a lot of metalinguistic knowledge and explanations in Turkish. It was unrealistic to hope that the 10-11 year-old students would learn English grammar deductively because they didn't even know some of the corresponding grammar knowledge in their native language, either". (Excerpt 137- TM-P2)

However, the present study found that apart from the perceptions common to both groups, the TM group reported two further criticisms about observing the cooperating teachers. First and foremost, the participants in the TM group argued that sparing the whole first term to observing the cooperating teachers was a needlessly long period. In particular, they claimed that following the first few weeks of observation, observing the teachers felt too repetitive and boring for them because there was almost nothing new in his/her teaching practices, which in turn made no further contribution to the participants' development. Excerpt 138 revealed the TM group's criticism about spending the first term merely on observations.

> "To me, making observations for a full term was pointless. At the beginning, it was useful in terms of seeing how things should/ shouldn't go in the classroom. But then, I realized that the teacher was doing similar activities in every classroom. Also, passively observing the teacher didn't give any feedback on my own teaching because I was not on the driver seat yet". (Excerpt 138- TM-P1)

Alternatively, the participants in the TM group suggested that instead of spending the whole term by passively observing the teachers, they could have started

teaching in the first term. Yet they cautioned that they should start teaching interchangeably with the cooperating teachers until they felt ready to take the charge of teaching a full lesson. Excerpt 139 illustrated the TM group's suggestions about observing the cooperating teachers for a full term.

> "Making observations did not make much contribution in terms of my teaching skills. Teaching is not something that can be improved without doing. Actually, I could have started teaching from the very beginning. I mean I could have asked the teacher to change roles in a way that she would teach one week and I would teach the other week. Or she would teach one lesson and I would teach the other. In this way, it could have been better because I might not have felt ready to teach all the lessons at the beginning". (Excerpt 139- TM-P9)

Yet, one should notice that their suggestion about gradually increasing the time for teaching gave insights into the TM group's perception of their efficacy in teaching. Although they had completed the practicum process including all those observation and teaching practices, the participants in the TM group still called for a gradual increase in the amount of time they should teach, which hinted that they did not feel efficacious enough to take on the responsibility for teaching a full lesson yet.

The other criticism that the participants in the TM group made about observing the teachers related to a lack of training on how to make effective observations. Moreover, they hypothesized that having an observation checklist would make the observations more meaningful because making an overall observation of the teacher seemed to be too comprehensive a task to perform. Although the teacher education program they were enrolled in provided a practicum pack involving a generic observation checklist, the participants in the TM group seemed to ask for a more specific checklist better tailored to their practicum context. Excerpts 140-141 hinted on the participants' views about observing the cooperating teachers without training and a satisfactory observation checklist.

> "I did not feel like making effective observations. I thought that I could not observe the teacher's teaching style critically and carefully enough. I mean I was required to make observation but I did not know what effective observation was. Perhaps it would have been much better if I had received some training on what I should pay attention to while making observations". (Excerpt 140- TM-P3)
>
> "I had to observe everything through a very broad perspective. As I had to think them very broadly, I was more likely to be lost. Also, trying to observe everything

made me be divided between and among different events in the classroom, which might have caused misinterpretations. But if I had had an observation checklist, I would have known what to focus on much better". (Excerpt 141- TM-P4)

4.6.3. Conferences with the Cooperating Teachers

In the present study, the conferences with the cooperating teachers surfaced as the other controversial factor which could not fulfill expectations of the participants. Obviously, the participants in both groups attached pivotal importance to elicit the ideas and suggestions of an experienced teacher. Yet the participants explicitly expressed discontent about the role that the conferences played in their development. More specifically, they complained that the conferences with the cooperating teachers provided little guidance particularly about classroom management though classroom management was one of the most permeating concerns for them. They iteratively maintained that the conferences with the cooperating teachers were poor in content and not held on a systematic basis, which pinpointed a dire need to train cooperating teachers on how to effectively assist pre-service teachers with whom they would work throughout practicum.

Concerning the argument about the content of the conferences, the participants in both groups proposed that the cooperating teachers did not make in-depth analyses of their performance and thus, the suggestions s/he made felt to be too superficial or traditional. In particular, the participants' initial enthusiasm seemed to fade away for such reasons as insufficient or traditional suggestions and teachers' attempts to mold pre-service teachers into their own styles of teaching. Excerpts 142-143 shed light on the participants' views on conferences with the cooperating teachers.

"I asked for her help mostly about effective teaching. But after a few weeks, I realized that she was a little traditional. My own teaching style seemed to be more beneficial for the students, the students enjoyed it more. For example, I was paying attention to include role play activities and educational games in order to enrich my lesson. But she warned me about using these activities. She thought that I should do more serious things instead of playing games. She said it would be better to prepare the students for the high stakes tests". (Excerpt 142- RPM-P3)

"The teacher's experience is unquestionable, she has been teaching for 20 years. But she did not make much contribution to my teaching. For instance, she did not

guide me about what I should pay attention to or what other strategies I should use to make my teaching effective. Nor was there any attempt to try out something together by negotiating pros and cons of a strategy. Rather, our meetings were more like generic feedback sessions as she very broadly said 'it was good' or 'you were weak in management'. But she did not provide me with alternative ideas about how to fix it". (Excerpt 143- TM-P4)

Additionally, the participants in both groups criticized the conferences with the cooperating teachers because they did not have the conferences on a systematic basis. Rather, they argued that the conferences with the cooperating teachers were haphazard and thus, failed to make the contribution that the conferences were assumed to make to their development. The participants' reflections implied that busy schedule and heavy workload of the cooperating teachers was the major factor underlying the failure to schedule regular conferences. Excerpts 144-145 documented the perceived lack of regular conferences with the cooperating teachers.

"We discussed with the teacher but it was not regularly. Indeed, we had general discussions about the lessons. We talked about classroom management and how I should behave to the students. But it would have been much more useful if we also had talked about how to be more effective in terms of using different teaching strategies and techniques". (Excerpt 144-RPM-P5)

"If she made regular conferences with me, these would be beneficial for me. Indeed, I would learn the underlying reason of what she did while teaching, such as why she used those teaching techniques but not others. Also, I would learn about the ineffective aspects of my own practices. But she did not give detailed information because she was usually busy. She talked to me only in the breaks, which was very short. I think that talking with the teacher about those issues would influence my teaching life in the future. Maybe, I would not feel so novice. Unfortunately, she could not spare enough time to me". (Excerpt 145- TM-8)

However, the present study showed that the participants in the RPM and TM groups differed in how they attempted to compensate for the inconveniences caused by the perceived inefficiency of the conferences with the cooperating teachers. On the one hand, the participants in the RPM group implied that the conferences with their peers gained more importance as they could not get sufficient guidance from the cooperating teachers during the conferences. Excerpt 146 disclosed how the participants in the RPM group resorted to peer conferences so as to compensate for inconveniences associated

with the haphazard conferences with the cooperating teachers.

> "After a few discussions with him [i.e. the cooperating teacher], I roughly predicted what suggestion he would make. He had a traditional method, and I knew that I should teach differently from him. Thus, it felt needless to ask him for help unless there was an extraordinary situation. Perhaps that's why I got in closer contact with my peer. I mean I and my peer tried to solve one another's problems because we knew that we would not get much help from the teacher or more specifically, we would not get the kind of innovative/ non-traditional ideas we wished to get". (Excerpt 146- RPM-P4)

On the other hand, the participants in the TM group argued for more frequent conferences with the supervisor in order to make up for possible inconveniences. Interestingly though, the present study underlined that the participants in the TM group asked for more conferences with the supervisor not because the supervisor would be more accessible or they would feel more comfortable with the supervisor. Instead, they reasoned that the supervisor would hold a more up-to-date knowledge of recent methodologies and thus, be a better resource to fall back on for feedback about their performance and suggestions to resolve their struggles in practicum. Excerpt 147 unearthed the TM group's favor for more conferences with the supervisor as a way to make up for the perceived insufficiency of the conferences with the cooperating teachers.

> "Because the teacher had been teaching for several years and remained far from the developments in teaching methodology, she was a bit more traditional. That's why she was of little help to see our mistakes or deficiencies. Or she viewed some old-fashioned practices which were inappropriate according to the modern teaching approaches as appropriate. But I think if we had the opportunity to meet the supervisor more frequently, it would be more useful because he could inform us about our mistakes more precisely". (Excerpt 147- TM-P9)

Based on the differences in the participants' perceptions of how to compensate for the perceived insufficiency of the conferences with the cooperating teachers, the present study conveyed that peer conferences formed a viable alternative to promote pre-service teachers' confidence in their ability and knowledge to solve their own problems. Whereas the participants in the TM group called for further help from the supervisor to tell them about their shortcomings and what to do for them, the participants in the RPM group reported that they opted for collaborating with their peer

and took on the responsibility of detecting their own shortcomings and devising possible solutions for them.

Furthermore, the present study showed that another point distinguishing the RPM group from the TM group in terms of their perceptions of the conferences with the cooperating teachers was the RPM group's call for mentor rotation. That's the participants in the RPM group extended their call for rotation in practicum to embrace periodically changing the cooperating teachers with whom they worked throughout practicum. Differently from the participants in the TM group, the participants in the RPM group pointed out that changing the cooperating teachers at certain intervals would maximize the benefit they could make from practicum on the grounds that each teacher had different styles and working with more than one teacher could help them establish a more comprehensive conception of effective teaching. Excerpt 148 delineated the RPM group's suggestion about systematically changing the cooperating teachers throughout practicum.

> "Teachers have their own unique teaching styles and perspectives. They show difference in terms of their productivity, perceptions about the students, the techniques and materials they use and the suggestions they make. What one teacher offers me will be different from what another teacher offers. If we had changed the teachers on a regular basis, it would have been like producing honey from different flowers. Certainly, it would have provided richness in our exchange of opinions". (Excerpt 148- RPM-P10)

4.6.4. Peer Observation

One of the components specific to the practicum trajectory pursued by the RPM group, peer observation was a salient factor contributing to the participants' development throughout the practicum process. The fact that the present study separately elaborated on peer observation and peer conference did not mean to project these components as discrete or one as subordinate to the other. Rather they were complementary, and separate elaboration enabled to more precisely depict specific contributions of each component. Regarding the role of peer observation in pre-service teachers' development during practicum, the present study unearthed that peer observations served a major function to help the RPM group see not only the peer's strengths and weaknesses but also their own strengths and weaknesses because they

were constantly making comparisons between the peer's and their own teaching practices. Based on these observations, they drew practical inferences for their own teaching. Excerpt 149 mirrored the participants' views on comparing their teaching to that of the peers.

> "Observing my peer actually reflected how I looked in front of the board. For example, when she made a mistake, I was thinking I may have made a similar mistake. Thus, I was being more careful about it in my own lessons. But if I had only taught without observing her, I would not have realized my mistakes and thought that I was doing perfectly well". (Excerpt 149- RPM-P6)

In addition, the present study highlighted that the most distinctive contribution of peer observations was the dismissal of perceived passivity associated with making observation. Knowing that the observations they made in their peer's classroom would form the basis of the reflections they would make in the post-teaching conferences urged the participants to critically observe their peer and actively note down the strengths and weaknesses in his/her performance. Hence, one may postulate that this knowledge further contributed to the success of peer observations in activating pre-service teachers because it made them take on the responsibility of one another's development to some extent. The following excerpt clarified how peer observations helped to eliminate pre-service teachers' passivity during observations:

> "Observing my peer was beneficial because on the part of my peer, I could tell her deficiencies and offer alternative ideas and on my part, I made inferences about my own teaching based on her mistakes. Also, being observed by my peer was beneficial because I might have failed to realize my deficiencies but my peer would notice them and make me realize them. Thus, I would be more careful about them the following time. In this way, we helped each other improve our performance" (Excerpt 150- RPM-P6)

The present study also found that peer observations provided the participants in the RPM group with salient opportunities to think reflectively and devise alternative solutions for possible problems. The participants knew that the peer on the stage was inexperienced like themselves and thus, the problems s/he would encounter in teaching might also appear in their own classroom. As a result, the present study implied that peer observations necessarily made pre-service teacher put themselves into the shoe of the peer and reflect on the action s/he took against those problems as well as encouraging them to reason about alternative reactions. Excerpt 151 exemplified the

reflective stance the participants took on during peer observations.

> "The teacher (i.e. the cooperating teacher) had some fixed practices that he used in his classes. I mean he was thinking that teaching had to be that way. But I and my peer were thinking multi-dimensions of our activities. As we observed each other's practices, we were constantly searching for a,b,c plans for the problems in our practices. Observing what caused the problem in my peer's practice, I was thinking that it did not work this way and I should try it out in that way or I should make some modifications before I used it in my own teaching". (Excerpt 151-RPM-P7)

4.6.5. Peer Conference

As the other component of the practicum trajectory specific to the RPM group, peer conference featured to be another critical factor that affected the participants' overall development throughout the practicum process. The present study provided sound evidence about the argument that peer mentoring practices should be an integral part of teacher education programs because the discussions that the peers held during pre- and post-teaching conferences surfaced to make invaluable contributions to their professional development. An in-depth analysis of the participants' perceptions about peer conferences revealed that though guidance by an experienced teacher was an unquestionably strong source of reference for pre-service teachers, peer conferences also provided them considerable assistance with the problems they encountered during the practicum experiences. Therefore, the present study concluded that in addition to the conferences with the teacher and supervisor, peer conferences could serve as an invaluable resource feeding into pre-service teachers' development. Particularly in the paucity of social support from the cooperating teachers or supervisor, peer conferences might become a highly reliable compensation.

The present study also indicated that peer conferences served a major role to provide the RPM group with alternative suggestions at times of difficulty. Contrary to the skepticism about the use of suggestions that a pre-service teacher might make, the participants unanimously maintained that through discussions with their peers, they could produce several practical suggestions about various problems. In this regard, one may infer that having the opportunity of peer conferences during which they could discuss and ask for help about their problems gave the participants a feeling of relief

against the problems they encountered during the practicum. Excerpt 152 illustrated the RPM group's argument for integration of peer conferences into teacher education, particularly during practicum.

> "We have been educated in the same way, so we were free to comment about our mistakes and what we should or shouldn't do in the classroom considering the modern education approaches. But with the teacher, I have to follow what is told to me and do it exactly as she asks. In a classroom like that, I can't be myself. Rather, I would only be an imitation of the teacher because she did not seem to be open to try out something new or different. But with my peer, we were free to test which alternative methods would work in different situations and thus, we learned a lot. We tried to find our weaknesses, suggested alternative ways to fix them and succeeded to teach lessons that conformed to the modern education approaches". (Excerpt 152- RPM-P8)

Furthermore, the present study found that peer conferences as a distinctive feature of the RPM trajectory provided the participants with considerable social, psychological and professional support throughout the practicum process. In particular, the participants reported that the peer conferences protected them from loneliness against possible problems, refreshed their motivation and provided alternative solutions for the problems they grappled with throughout the practicum process. Consequently, the present study contradicted the criticism that as pre-service teachers, the peer pairs were relatively inexperienced in teaching and thus, might not provide sufficient assistance to one another. The following excerpt clearly projected the progress the participants in the RPM group made through peer conferences:

> "In the last few weeks of the practicum, I start not to find any problem in our classes. We are becoming real teachers, I think. We have that self-confidence from now on because we have had many teaching experiences now. Like fighting in many fronts, we have focused on several aspects of our teaching during the conferences and made progress in most of them. After we participated in each other's classes, we discussed our teaching and talked about not only our good sides but also bad sides. We also talked about different matters of teaching in the class, which gave us different insights about how to behave about those matters" (Excerpt 153- RPM-P10)

The present study also revealed that a significant contribution of peer conferences was that the discussions held with the peer during the conferences

increased the participants' awareness about their practices. In other words, the participants in the RPM group emphasized that the discussions with the peers enabled them to get a more precise understanding of their own teaching performance because these discussions mainly included in-depth reflections of their teaching practices and thus, helped them realize things they missed while teaching in the classroom. Excerpt 154 showed how peer conferences fostered the participants' awareness about teaching in actual classrooms.

> "Week by week, I felt more and more confident by learning my weaknesses and strengths about my teaching. If you know more about yourself, you can be more aware of what you should do or shouldn't do. This makes your lessons better and makes you feel more confident. I think the meetings with my peer filled in this gap because we told each other what the good parts of our lessons were as well as the deficient parts". (Excerpt 154- RPM-P3)

In the same vein, the present study conveyed that peer conferences were beneficial for improving the participants' knowledge of teaching methodology. As stated above, peer conferences essentially engaged the RPM group in a mutual exchange of opinions about how to teach effectively. The participants asserted that they needed to refer to their methodological knowledge in order to justify their opinions. In so doing, they resorted to the internet, the notes they had taken in the methodology courses and the books they had read in those courses, which in turn polished their methodological knowledge about teaching. Excerpt 155 pointed to the benefits of peer conferences in improving the participants' methodological knowledge base.

> "I had to review my theoretical knowledge about different issues. I mean we had learned a lot of strategies in the methodology courses but honestly, I had forgotten some of them. But the conferences made me remember them in a short time because I felt obliged to frequently repeat them. For example, my peer would ask me for suggestions about her problems such as what to do with a mischievous student who did not want to listen to her. As the terms I would use and the suggestions I would make in those cases were really important, I had to revise my notes or search for them on the internet in order to tell her something useful. In this way, the conferences helped me a great deal to remember the knowledge I had learned". (Excerpt 155- RPM-P1)

An interesting finding about peer conferences was a noticeable preference the RPM group expressed for the conferences they had with their peers over those

conferences with the cooperating teachers. The present study showed that among others (See Figure 9), one of the fundamental reasons underlying the participants' positive attitudes towards the peer conferences was the consistency in holding the conferences. That is the opportunity to meet the peers before and after each teaching practice formed a strong part of their favor for peer conferences. Moreover, the present study unraveled that the participants soon established their own patterns for peer conferences. They started with sharing their plans for the day, exchanged views on the plans by focusing on strengths and weaknesses in them, reflected on their practices, determined a goal for the following lesson and made suggestions about that goal. Excerpt 156 reflected positive influences of having regular peer conferences on the participants' instructional improvement.

> "Every week, we had different problems in our teaching. But again, we found solutions by talking to each other and telling where we made mistakes. By that way, we came to the next lesson being aware of our mistakes and tried not to do them again. So, talking about our plans and telling each other which part we should fix was really important for us to have more effective lessons and help the students and each other more". (Excerpt 156- RPM-P3)

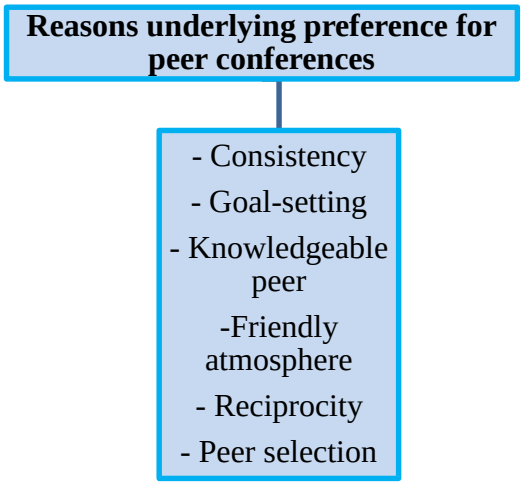


Figure 9. Reasons underlying the RPM group's preference for peer conferences

Another major reason for the participants' favor for the peer conferences was the opportunity to set their own goals for each week in practicum, which enabled the participants to proceed in accordance with their own needs or interests. Instead of requiring the participants to focus on a pre-determined goal imposed by the cooperating teachers or supervisor, the present study gave them autonomy to determine their own

goals. Apparently, this positively affected the participants' concern and efficacy development, since they had flexibility to decide on when and how long they should work on a self-determined goal until they felt ready to proceed to another goal. In addition, holding the conferences under the light of a certain goal made the participants' early teaching experiences more systematic because the participants discussed specifically about their goal, which further required them to implement practices that would essentially confer with that goal. Excerpt 157 reported on the role of deciding own goals instead of imposed goals on the efficiency of peer conferences.

> "As we had a certain goal for each week, we needed to find solutions merely about that goal. With a certain goal in our mind, we could make more purposeful criticisms in order to improve ourselves because having a certain goal helped us to more easily overcome our problems. In contrast, if we had no specific goal, we would have to focus on everything at once, which would not give us specific ideas about what to do in the classroom. Thus, both our conferences and teaching would be haphazard". (Excerpt 157- RPM-P8)

Similarly, holding conferences with a peer who knew everything about their lesson was another reason why the participants enthusiastically argued for peer conferences. The participants highlighted that compared to the cooperating teachers or supervisor, the peers knew their plans, why and how they intended to implement an activity, the reason underlying their practices in the classroom and their developmental goal for that lesson. Therefore, the reflections and criticisms that the peers made were more informed and played a more critical role in their overall development. Excerpt 158 stressed the importance of working with a knowledgeable peer in peer conferences.

> "Emotions and cognitions are also important in teaching. For instance, when the teacher criticized me about one of my activities, she did it without knowing what I had thought and planned while I was preparing it. This would be unfair because we had very little time to meet her. In most cases, we could not meet her before the lesson. And after the lesson, she would make a few generic comments, which took only a few minutes. Yet I had more time to meet my peer thanks to the peer conferences". (Excerpt 158- RPM-P1)

The present study also identified the friendly atmosphere of peer conferences as another reason underlying the RPM group's preference. The participants expressed that they felt more comfortable to disclose their opinions and questions during peer conferences because they were aware that the peer was a friend who essentially

intended to offer them help against the challenges of practicum rather than making any assessment about them. Accordingly, the present study implied that positive the atmosphere in peer conferences encouraged pre-service teachers to discuss and evaluate various dimensions of their development, which might have fostered the benefits they could make from the practicum experiences. Excerpt 159 reflected the RPM group's views on the friendly atmosphere in peer conferences.

> "I could not share everything with the teacher as I had to be more formal while talking with her. But there was no need for formality with my peer. Talking with my peer was more intimate, and I could express my opinions more comfortably. We could freely talk about how we should teach something and what would make our lesson more effective. Talking to my peer was also more effective because we were both open to criticism". (Excerpt 159- RPM-P5)

More importantly, the present study unearthed that one of the most favorable reasons undergirding the participants' preference for peer conferences was the reciprocity in the very nature of these conferences. The participants in the RPM group noted that in contrast to the conferences with an experienced teacher or supervisor, they mutually reflected on and made suggestions about one another's performance. Through such reciprocity, they were not only receiving help in order to improve themselves but also offering help to improve their peer's performance. On the one hand reciprocity strengthened the collaboration between the peers because the more efforts they made for the peer would bring in further support by the peer. On the other hand, it supplemented their sense of confidence in themselves because they could use their knowledge to help the peer improve his/her performance. Excerpt 160 expressed the participants' views on the reciprocal nature of peer conferences.

> "We had to be very careful during the lessons because we knew that we would reflect on one another's teaching after the lessons. Maybe, that's why peer mentoring system worked better than being alone with the teacher. I mean my relationship with my peer was more interactive, and we were always involved in a mutual exchange. I learned something from him and he learned from me. But the teacher was a little more rigid because she was a bit prejudiced and expected us to follow her recommendations. She would not care about our reflections on her teaching". (Excerpt 160- RPM-10)

The other reason underlying the participants' satisfaction with peer conferences was the opportunity to select the peers with whom they would work throughout

practicum. The present study hypothesized that peer selection was a crucial factor for the success of all the peer mentoring practices because asking pre-service teachers to work with somebody who they did not know or like might cause serious problems. Selection of the peers gained utmost importance particularly with peer conferences because the peers had to spend time together, reciprocally evaluate their practices and make suggestions in order to improve one another's performance. As a consequence, the present study underlined that selecting the peer with whom they could comfortably work surfaced to be pre-conditional for successfully carrying out all these responsibilities. Excerpt 161 mirrored the RPM group's favor for peer selection as a factor adding to the success of peer conferences.

> "If we had had the conferences with a different person, we might have had too much trouble. Also, if our attitudes towards each other were not positive, we would not have had the conferences willingly. We would not have felt free to give feedback or make criticisms. And thus, peer mentoring might not have been effective this much. As the purpose of the conferences is to realize our deficiencies and improve our teaching, selecting the person with whom we will exchange feedback is an indispensable component of the conferences". (Excerpt 161- RPM-P8)

Nonetheless, the present study found two major drawbacks associated with peer conferences; namely, arranging an appropriate time for the conferences and perceived insufficiency of the support the conferences supplied for classroom management. Firstly, the present study unearthed that a possible limitation on peer conferences might simply be scheduling the conferences, especially when the peers had additional responsibilities. To prevent any inconvenience about scheduling peer conferences, the participants in the RPM group suggested that the peers should be given the opportunity to select their own partner because this would let them select somebody with a compatible schedule. Excerpt 162 highlighted the issue of available time as a shortcoming of scheduling peer conferences.

> "It was difficult to schedule the meetings because we both had to study for KPSS [i.e. the public personnel selection test] and we did not have much free time. Attending to the courses at the university, studying for the exam and going to the practicum at the same time were really tough". (Excerpt 162- RPM-P5)

Secondly, the present study illustrated that the support peer discussions supplied about classroom management was not satisfactory at times. More precisely, peer

conferences sometimes fell short of generating alternative suggestions that would solve pre-service teachers' classroom management problems encountered in practicum experiences. Yet one should notice that all the cases where the RPM group perceived peer conferences to be insufficient pertained to their assumed possibility of encountering extreme discipline problems, about which a peer with similar inexperience would probably be of little or no help. Excerpt 163 provided an example of the assumed cases of extreme classroom management problems, in which the participants thought peer conferences would provide insufficient support.

> "We both did not know how we should react in case of an extraordinary problem about management. We would be confused in such a case. It would have been better if there had been somebody with more experience. Indeed, I needed a more experienced person in terms of classroom management because an experienced person would have encountered such problems perhaps a hundred times". (Excerpt 163- RPM-P5)

More interestingly, the present study pointed out that some of the participants expressing skepticism about efficiency of peer conferences in handling possible extreme problems intriguingly admitted that even the experienced cooperating teachers would not be of much help in such incidents. Excerpt 164 exemplified the participants' perceived helplessness in terms of extreme classroom management issues regardless of whether they get assistance from the cooperating teachers or peers.

> "Honestly, we could not sufficiently guide one another in terms of classroom management. Yet, I should also say that even if the teacher had been there, it would not have made much difference. How much do you think we could expect of her? She would again have told us her own experiences and some traditional ideas". (Excerpt 164- RPM-P3)

Henceforth, the present study ascertained that the dissatisfaction with peer conferences in providing support for classroom management should be tentatively handled due to the participants' over-concern about classroom management on the one hand and no actual occurrence of such extreme incidents on the other hand. As stated earlier, classroom management was found to be the area in which the participants reported the highest concern. Considering that they expressed even stronger dissatisfaction with the support the cooperating teachers provided, the present study concluded that the participants' over-concern about classroom management might have led to dissatisfaction with the support they received about classroom management,

irrespective of the quality of the support or the person providing it. Furthermore, absence of any extreme incident that the participants assumed might occur in their practices may alternatively suggest that the dissatisfaction with peer conferences about classroom management was based on hearsay concerns about classroom management rather than actual experiences with it. Finally, another explanation for the perceived insufficiency of peer conferences in helping pre-service teachers with classroom management may be a probable misconception of the participants about solving classroom management issues. Given their reflections about the role of peer conferences in classroom management, the participants in the RPM group might have expected to get a conclusive and all-encompassing prescription that would free them from all classroom management issues at once.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

5.1. Introduction

This chapter presents a detailed discussion of the findings outlined in the previous chapter. In so doing, the discussion chapter follows the order of the research questions guiding the present study.

5.2. Changes in Teacher Efficacy Beliefs

Teacher efficacy beliefs research has sparked exclusive interest among teacher educators ever since its advent. Despite much debate about its definition and measurement, research on teacher efficacy beliefs has unanimously underscored the need for studying efficacy beliefs, particularly in pre-service education years, since this is the period during which teacher efficacy beliefs are more malleable (Charalambaos et al., 2008; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990; Woolfolk Hoy & Murphy, 2001). Once established, efficacy beliefs hardly render themselves for change unless somewhat conflicting situations occur and provoke confusion ensued by reevaluation of efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1997). Emphasizing the vitality of pre-service education years for the development of teacher efficacy beliefs, Enochs and Riggs (1990) enlisted that certain components of PTE such as peer teaching, practicum experiences and micro-teaching activities followed by self-evaluation would make positive influences on pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs development. Likewise, several researchers (Bandura, 1999; Beauchamps, et al., 2014; Viel-Ruma et al., 2010) ascertained that designing professional development programs providing (pre-service) teachers with autonomy and opportunity to select among activities of different kinds would play a crucial role in developing strong efficacy beliefs. Also, engaging teachers in teaching activities in various contexts as a way of enabling them to make more informed task analysis and competence assessments would contribute to their efficacy beliefs (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). To this end, the present study probed into possible impacts of taking practicum with the RPM and TM trajectories on pre-service ELT teachers' efficacy beliefs.

The present study revealed significant changes in the perceived efficacy beliefs of the RPM and TM groups. The bunch of multifaceted experiences they had during practicum seemed to make a considerable impact on their efficacy development. In particular, different experiences they had as a result of their differential practicum trajectories discerned the efficacy development of the RPM group from that of the TM group. The difference stemming from taking practicum within RPM versus TM trajectories confirmed several researchers' (Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Ghaith & Shaaban, 1999; Viel-Ruma et al., 2010) call for intervention programs that would bring about positive changes in teacher efficacy beliefs. Gist and Mitchell (1992) highlighted the role of intervention programs as they argued that designing intervention programs which would engage people in activities fostering their efficacy beliefs was vital because a change in efficacy beliefs might signal a change in performance. Based on this argument, the present study predicted that compared to the participants in the TM group, the participants having their practicum within the RPM trajectory might display better performance once employed as full-time teachers.

Similarly, the present study indicated a statistically significant increase in the efficacy beliefs of the RPM group following the practicum process, which conformed previous research (Charalambaos et al, 2008; Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008; Yeung & Watkins, 2000) conducted with pre-service teachers. With specific focus on the context of practicum placement, Knoblauch and Woolfolk Hoy (2008) found that irrespective of rural, suburban or urban placement, the practicum process promoted a significant increase in pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs. Further contributing to the findings of the present study, Yeung and Watkins (2000) specified that student teaching was a potent factor fostering pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs. The present study also documented that the increase in the efficacy scores of the RPM group lingered in all the dimensions of efficacy, including efficacy in student engagement, instructional strategies and classroom management. This finding corroborated previous research (Atay, 2007; Lin & Gorrell, 2001; Ozder, 2011) reporting increases in different dimensions of teacher efficacy beliefs as a result of the practicum process. Investigating the efficacy beliefs development of pre-service EFL teachers, Atay (2007) elucidated that teaching practices during practicum led to a statistically significant increase in pre-service teachers' efficacy in student engagement while there was also an increase, though insignificant, in their efficacy in classroom management. Similar to the perceived efficacy scores of the RPM group in the present study, Ozder (2011)

concurred that having completed all the course work and teaching practices, the pre-service teachers in his study reported to feel most efficacious in classroom management. Additionally, the increase the RPM group's efficacy in instructional strategies confirmed findings of previous studies (Charalambaos et al., 2008; Oh, 2011) which reported that taking the teaching practices and methods courses contributed to pre-service teachers' efficacy in instructional strategies.

In contrast to the positive changes in the RPM group's self-reported efficacy beliefs, the present study showed a statistically significant decline in efficacy beliefs of the TM group following the practicum process. The present study deemed that the decline in the efficacy scores of the TM group might be attributable to the traditional practicum trajectory they had. Within this trajectory, the TM group spent the first term on mere observations of the cooperating teachers and the second term on teaching practices ensued by allegedly haphazard conferences with the cooperating teachers and supervisor. Accordingly, the decline in the TM group's efficacy beliefs partly connoted with Capa Aydın and Woolfolk Hoy's (2005) study, in which pre-service teachers who had more teaching experiences but weak relationships with mentors and less support from others appeared to have lower efficacy beliefs. Taking into account the argument that without sufficient information from various sources including mastery experiences, realistic feedback from others and observing good role models, positive changes in efficacy beliefs would be unrealistic (Moseley et al., 2003), the present study put forth that the decline in the TM group's efficacy beliefs was in no way surprising. More interestingly, some other studies (Savran Gencer & Çakıroğlu, 2007; Yılmaz & Huyugüzel Çavaş, 2008) conducted with pre-service teachers majoring in different fields revealed that the practicum experiences within the TM trajectory used in the Turkish higher education context was not a significant factor affecting pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs. Therefore, the present study underlined that a reconsideration of the current mentoring model used in the Turkish higher education context would prove beneficial. More precisely, the RPM model used in the present study could be a viable, though not all-inclusive by itself, option to ensure strong efficacy development in pre-service teachers.

As to the changes in the TM group's beliefs in the three dimensions of efficacy, the present study indicated controversial results, which added credence to the argument that teacher efficacy beliefs were not uniform, rather task- and context-specific (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). The decline in the TM group's efficacy

beliefs was sustained in their efficacy in student engagement and classroom management, which partially confirmed Pendergast et al.'s (2011) study showing a significant decline in all the dimensions of pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs following the practicum experiences. In accordance with Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2007) suggestion that ensuring student engagement might be too advanced a task for pre-service teachers, the present study asserted that demands of teaching actual students in practicum might have prompted the decline in the TM group's initial optimism about successfully motivating and engaging the students in learning. Likewise, the present study showed that the participants in the TM group reported the lowest efficacy in classroom management at the end of practicum. Evidently, engagement in actual teaching practices during practicum provided the participants' with a more realistic grasp of various dynamics governing classroom management, which Gavora (2010) viewed as one of the most challenging task confronting teachers. Therefore, the present study hypothesized that claiming to have received little support from the cooperating teachers and supervisor against these dynamics, the participants in the TM group might have developed feelings of helplessness, which probably undermined their efficacy beliefs in classroom management.

However, the present study intriguingly unearthed a statistically significant increase in the TM group's efficacy beliefs in instructional strategies. More specifically, instructional strategies featured to be the dimension, in which the participants in the TM group felt the most efficacious at the end of practicum. This finding conformed previous studies (Chacon, 2005; Eslami & Fatahi, 2008), in which pre-service teachers reported the highest efficacy in instructional strategies comprising implementing various strategies, providing sufficient explanations and making effective student assessments. The present study concluded that the increase in the TM group's efficacy in instructional strategies might be attributed to various factors including their confidence in their knowledge of the most recent teaching methodologies and observation of their students' learning as a result of their teaching practices.

5.3. Comparisons between Efficacy Beliefs of the RPM and TM Groups

A noticeable finding distinguishing the participants in the RPM group from those in the TM group was the area to which they paid the most attention throughout the

practicum process. The analysis of the qualitative data in the present study unearthed that the participants in the RPM group with extensive teaching practices and peer work focused primarily on classroom management. This accorded with the reasoning that classroom management was one of the most predominant factor occupying the pre-service teachers' minds during practicum (Pigge & Marso, 1997; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). Similarly, Ross and Bruce (2007) found a statistically significant increase in teachers' classroom management efficacy beliefs as a result of participation in a professional development program, which enabled Ross and Bruce (2007) to surmise that efficacy in student engagement and instructional strategies were subsidiary to efficacy in classroom management. Nonetheless, the participants in the TM group made the most reference to instructional strategies, which was perhaps one of the most fundamental factors underlying the significant increase in their efficacy in instructional strategies following the practicum process. The present study assumed that grappling with the highly demanding task of classroom management in the perceived paucity of social support from the cooperating teachers and supervisor, the participants in the TM group might have deliberately preferred to focus on improving their instructional skills because this was the dimension in which they felt most confident.

The present study fell back on Tschannen-Moran et al.'s (1998) Integrated Model deriving primarily from Bandura's (1977) SCT in order to interpret the findings about the participants' efficacy development. As mentioned above, the Integrated Model assumed that teachers should simultaneously perform two interrelated functions (Henson, 2001a, 2002) in order to construct a realistic efficacy judgment. In the task analysis, teachers should consider the constraints and resources in a given context for performing a specific teaching task while at the same time, they should make competence assessment by considering their own capabilities and deficiencies to carry out the teaching task. According to the model, the four major sources of efficacy information including mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social/verbal persuasion and physiological and emotional arousals play a pivotal role in performing both functions.

In the present study, the participants in both groups had teaching practices, observations and conferences with the cooperating teachers and supervisor while the RPM group additionally had peer observations and peer conferences as well as more extensive teaching practices. Several studies (Atay, 2007; Bandura, 1977; Huinker & Madison, 1997) found mastery experiences to be the strongest source of information for

making judgments about efficacy beliefs. However, the present study partially supported these studies because it yielded differential results regarding the source(s) of efficacy information that seemed to be the most beneficial for the participants in each group. The study made it clear that social/verbal persuasion was by far the strongest source of information for the RPM group while mastery experiences provided the most information for the TM group. In addition, the participants in the RPM group referred to mastery experiences as the second major source and vicarious experiences as a supplementary source of efficacy information while the participants in the TM group referred to vicarious experiences as the second major source of efficacy information. The present study also conveyed that physiological and emotional arousals were the least informative efficacy source for both groups. Given that the RPM and TM groups had different practicum trajectories yielding differential amounts of access to each source, an analysis of their practicum experiences might provide more parsimonious explanations for the differences in efficacy development of both groups.

5.3.1. Mastery Experiences

As an important component of the practicum process, mastery experiences might help to explain the differences reported in efficacy beliefs of the RPM and TM groups following the practicum process. Several researchers' (Bandura 1982; Charalambaos et al., 2008; Mulholland & Wallace, 2001) argued that mastery experiences were the most influential source of efficacy. Similarly, the present study revealed that though both groups were enrolled in the same PTE program and placed in similar practicum schools, the RPM group having more hands-on teaching practices reported a statistically significant increase in their efficacy beliefs. In contrast, the TM group with a limited number of teaching practices showed a significant decrease in their efficacy beliefs. The increased number of mastery experiences might have given the RPM group direct feedback about their performance in actual classrooms and probably boosted their efficacy beliefs, which corroborated Bandura's (1977) argument that mastery experiences provided information about performance in more enriched ways. Connoting with several researchers' (Chacon, 2005; Soodak & Podell, 1996; Wheatley, 2005; Yeung & Watkins, 2000) call for more meaningful practices for optimal development of efficacy beliefs, the present study, therefore, deduced that enabling pre-service teachers to start teaching practices coupled with observations, in particular peer observations,

beginning from the first term of the practicum period might prove much more fruitful.

Furthermore, the increase in the RPM group's efficacy beliefs partially confirmed Tschannen-Moran et al.'s (1998) argument that achievement in a demanding task with little support increased efficacy beliefs. The participants in the RPM group compared to those in the TM group had more mastery experiences and thus, more time to try different alternatives to cope with challenges emerging in the classroom and refine their teaching accordingly. Despite considerable lack of mastery experiences before practicum, the participants in the RPM group might have been further assured of their teaching capabilities upon seeing positive evidence of their practices in actual classrooms. Therefore, the present study echoed the findings of previous studies (Atay, 2007; Huinker & Madison, 1997; Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005) which showed that teaching practices and seeing the positive outcomes of their practices substantially contributed to pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs. Likewise, the present study accorded with Ross and Gray's (2006) contention that achievement in a teaching task promotes expectations of achievement in similar tasks in the future because observing the positive evidence of their practices might have strengthened the RPM group's belief in their teaching capabilities.

Conversely, the decline in the TM group's efficacy beliefs at the end of practicum conformed with previous researchers (Pendergast et al., 2011; Ross, 1998; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998) referring to a reality shock associated with mastery experiences during early encounters with teaching in actual classrooms. More specifically, the participants in the TM group viewed mastery experiences as the main source of efficacy information during practicum, which paralleled the findings of similar studies (Atay, 2007; Charalambaos et al., 2008; Huinker & Madison, 1997; Poulou, 2007) conducted with pre-service teachers having their early teaching practices. Nonetheless, the present study indicated that taking practicum in the traditional trajectory seemed to function as a sink-or-swim model because the participants in the TM group reported to have felt helpless in the classroom. Obviously, the observations and teaching practices in practicum required socialization into a radically different environment (Hoy and Woolfolk, 1990) at a period during which pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs were still in flux. However, lack of previous experiences in the new environment coupled with relatively limited support by the cooperating teachers and supervisor might have made the TM group question their efficacy beliefs. Comparing the mastery experiences the participants in the RPM and TM groups had in terms of the

changes in their efficacy beliefs, the present study pointed out that having less authentic teaching experiences might have led to the decline in the TM group's efficacy beliefs. Attending to Guskey's (1985) suggestion that prominent changes in teachers' beliefs required time and extensive support until they saw positive student outcomes, the study implied that the TM trajectory provided the participants in the TM group with too limited teaching experiences and time to see the success of their teaching experiences. Such limitations probably caused the TM group to feel vulnerable and inept to handle possible difficulties they encountered in the classroom. Accordingly, the decline in the efficacy beliefs of the TM group reinforced the contention (Mulholland & Wallace, 2001; Ross, 1998) that in the radically different environment of actual teaching, pre-service teachers might experience a sense of reality shock, as a result of which their efficacy beliefs would drop dramatically.

Consistent with the argument about reality shock, the present study identified moderately high efficacy scores in both groups at the beginning of the practicum process. It was worthwhile to note that despite the huge lack of hands-on experience in actual teaching practices, the participants in both groups expressed strong confidence in their efficacy beliefs before they took practicum. Apparently, this finding was not surprising as much research (Hebert, Lee & Williamson, 1998; Mulholland & Wallace, 2001; Pendergast et al., 2011) has reported similar results. Mulholland and Wallace (2001) asserted that the development of over-optimistic beliefs in pre-service teachers resulted from the failure of pre-service education programs in providing the optimal conditions viable for constructing realistic efficacy beliefs. Witcher et al. (2002) maintained that though they might be well-aware of classroom procedures, pre-service teachers had a weak understanding of various factors affecting student learning; that's why, they (ibid.) posited, pre-service teachers' initial optimism about the impact of teaching on student learning would fade once they were placed in actual teaching settings. Similar to the decline in the TM group's efficacy beliefs in the present study, Pendergast et al. (2011) found that gaining practical experiences led to a remarkable decrease in the overall efficacy means of the pre-service teachers participating in their study. Therefore, the present study concluded that the early optimistic beliefs which were not grounded in authentic experiences might have partly formed the basis of the decline in efficacy beliefs of the TM group, since they might have encountered drastic disparities between the idealized conditions presented at the PTE and actual classrooms.

5.3.2. Vicarious Experiences

The present study also revealed that the vicarious experiences they had throughout the practicum process might help to explain the changes in efficacy beliefs of the RPM and TM groups to some extent. Though several researchers (Bandura, 1997; Zimmerman, 1995) regarded vicarious experiences as particularly viable for teachers with little prior experiences, the present study clarified that vicarious experiences had differential influences on efficacy beliefs of the participants in each group, which probably stemmed from the different practicum trajectories they undertook. As stated above, vicarious experiences were the third source of information contributing to the RPM group's efficacy development while they appeared to be the second strongest source affecting the changes in the TM group's efficacy beliefs. Differential influences notwithstanding, the present study confirmed previous research (Capa Aydın & Woolfolk Hoy, 2005; Phan & Locke, 2015; Poulou, 2007) which defined the role of vicarious experiences as a supplementary source of efficacy information. The supplementary role of vicarious experiences might be better understood considering that the information people derive from vicarious experiences is based only on what they observe, rather than experiencing it firsthand, which implies that vicarious experiences alone should be a less reliable source of efficacy information (Bandura 1977, 1982). Nevertheless, vicarious experiences coupled with other sources hold some potential to enable pre-service teachers make realistic efficacy judgments as they project the impression in pre-service teachers that "if others can do it, they should be able to do it as well" (Huinker & Madison, 1997: 123).

Regarding possible contributions of vicarious experiences to the increase in the RPM group's efficacy beliefs, the present study revealed that though they appeared to hold the third position as a source of efficacy information following social/verbal persuasion and mastery experiences, vicarious experiences played a salient role to affirm RPM group's efficacy beliefs. Yet one should notice that the vicarious experiences of the RPM group differed from those of the TM group in that the participants in the RPM group systematically observed their peers' teaching practices throughout the practicum process apart from observing the cooperating teachers for the first four weeks. In spite of the comparatively shorter observation of the practices of the cooperating teachers, the participants in the RPM group documented that the cooperating teachers' practices did not show much difference from the practices of their

own elementary or high school teachers who had taught English through traditional approaches. The traditionalist impression of the cooperating teachers' practices coupled with the shorter observation period might explain why the present study found that regarding vicarious experiences, the participants in the RPM group reported gains mostly from observing their peers' practices, rather than the cooperating teachers' practices. This finding concurred with Ross and Bruce's (2007) contention that observing credible peers' success in bringing about positive student outcomes would boost up teacher efficacy beliefs.

A further finding about vicarious experiences of the RPM group was that despite little exposure to the teaching practices of the cooperating teachers, the participants in the RPM group made few complaints about observing their peers' practices more than the cooperating teachers' practices. This finding had a twofold interpretation. On the one hand, little complaints about observing the cooperating teachers for the initial four-week period connoted with the supplementary role of vicarious experiences as a source of efficacy information. As vicarious experiences alone did not directly affect efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1982; 1997), the participants in the RPM group might not have viewed observing their peer's practices more than those of the cooperating teachers as a major drawback. On the other hand, the finding that the RPM group made little complaints about observing the cooperating teachers' practices was in tune with several researchers' (Bandura, 1994; Tschannen- Moran et al., 1998; Woolflok Hoy, 2000) argument that vicarious experiences would be more influential when there was a close match between the model and observer in terms of their characteristics, abilities and teaching philosophies. In the same vein, the participants in the RPM group made little complaints about less exposure to the cooperating teachers' practices because they might have felt satisfied with observing their peers, with whom they probably perceived a closer identification. Henceforth, the present study deemed that observing the success of a peer with whom they identified more closely than an experienced cooperating teacher might have convinced the participants in the RPM group of the possibility of success in their own teaching practices, which in turn became a strong factor promoting their efficacy beliefs. Considering the argument that failures of the model might not necessarily diminish efficacy beliefs (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998), one might reason that even failures of the peer might have had positive influences on the RPM group's efficacy development. To clarify, possible failures of the peer would give them cues about what problems might occur in the classroom and what could be done to handle

those problems. In this way, observing failures of the peers might have enabled the RPM group to avoid similar problems in their own teaching practices and thus, indirectly prevent any negative experience that would debilitate their efficacy beliefs.

However, the comparatively stronger role that vicarious experiences assumedly played in the changes in efficacy beliefs of the TM group merited tentative consideration because relatively limited social/verbal persuasion from the cooperating teachers might have led vicarious experiences to surface as the second most informative source of efficacy for the TM group. With respect to their vicarious experiences, the participants in the TM group referred only to the cooperating teachers' practices although they had the opportunity, but not necessarily required, to observe the practices of other pre-service teachers with whom they were assigned to the same cooperating teacher during practicum. Similar to the participants in the RPM group, the participants in the TM group compromisingly reported that the cooperating teachers' practices diverged from ideal teaching practices favored by the recent teaching methodologies they had learned at the university. The perceived divergence between the practices of the cooperating teachers and their own ideal practices (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007; Woolfolk Hoy, 2000) might have instilled self-doubts in the TM group, which partly led to the decline in their efficacy beliefs at the end of practicum. Furthermore, the perceived divergence between the cooperating teachers' practices and the participants' ideal practices brought to the fore the abovementioned need for a close identification between the model and observer.

As several researchers (Bandura, 1997; Capa Aydın & Woolfolk Hoy, 2005; Phan & Locke, 2015) put forth, vicarious experiences would be of little assistance when the model did not compare well with the observer. Suffering from the dissimilarity with the cooperating teachers, the participants in the TM group might have failed to answer possible questions in their minds about how to handle demands of actual teaching once they were steering the classroom, which possibly limited the benefit they could have made from vicarious experiences during practicum. This failure might have contributed to the decline in the efficacy beliefs of the TM group. Unlike the participants in the RPM group who seemed to compensate for possible inconveniences of such dissimilarity with the cooperating teachers by peer observations, the participants in the TM group did not necessarily benefit from observing the practices of another person who would display closer identification with their ideal practices. Therefore, one can conclude that having the practicum within the TM trajectory might have restricted the

pre-service teachers' efficacy development because the participants in the TM group had only the practices of the cooperating teachers who they claimed to adopt traditional teaching methods and strategies to compare with their own teaching performances. Alternatively, the present study in consistence with the relevant literature (Wertheim & Leyser, 2002; Phan & Locke, 2015) suggested two options to retaliate inconveniences stemming from possible weak identifications between the model and observer and strengthen positive influence of vicarious experiences on the development of efficacy beliefs. Firstly, teacher education programs should pay special attention to placing pre-service teachers with cooperating teachers who adopt effective teaching behaviors and keep abreast of the most recent teaching methodologies (Wertheim & Leyser, 2002). Secondly, teacher education programs should multiply the models in order to give pre-service teachers opportunity to observe different teaching practices (Phan & Locke, 2015) in various ways such as engaging pre-service teachers in peer observation.

5.3.3. Social/Verbal Persuasion

Another major efficacy source that might have prominently influenced efficacy beliefs of the participants in the present study was social/verbal persuasion. In the present study, the participants in both groups basically referred to the cooperating teachers and supervisor as possible sources of social/verbal persuasion while the RPM group additionally mentioned their peers. Yet, one should notice that the participants in both groups explicitly displayed dissatisfaction with the social/verbal persuasion they assumedly received from the cooperating teachers and supervisor. In contrast, the RPM group reported to have enjoyed substantial social/verbal persuasion from their peers.

On the one hand, the findings of the RPM group in the present study disconfirmed previous studies (Atay, 2007; Huinker & Madison, 1997; Poulou, 2007) in that the participants in the RPM group pointed to the predominant influence of social/verbal persuasion on their efficacy beliefs development. Apparently, the RPM group's reliance on social/verbal from peers connoted with Bandura's (1997) contention that though mastery experiences might be the strongest source of information, several other factors including the amount of effort expended, the amount of external aid received, the conditions under which teachers perform and the way they interpret and recall these experiences might affect the influence each source exerted on efficacy beliefs. Given that the participants in the RPM group were engaged in close cooperation

with their peers in the form of regular peer observations and peer conferences throughout the whole practicum process, the present study deemed it natural that social/verbal persuasion seemed to play such a predominant role in the development of their efficacy beliefs including all the dimensions of efficacy. There were also some other studies (Oh, 2011; Phan & Locke, 2015), though few in number, supporting the predominance of social/verbal persuasion in teachers' efficacy development. In their study with Vietnamese EFL teachers, Phan and Locke (2015) found that social/verbal persuasion was the most influential source of efficacy because the teachers in their study prioritized students' verbal and nonverbal feedback on their performance as the main indicator of their effectiveness. Hence, they (2015) postulated that students' feedback, rather than mastery experiences, mediated the teachers' interpretations of their performance and thus, functioned to increase or diminish teacher efficacy beliefs. Similarly, Oh (2011) concluded that considering efficacy beliefs in classroom management, social/verbal persuasion apart from some other factors such as capabilities and motivation featured as a strong source of information for the development of pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs.

The participants in the TM group, on the other hand, viewed social/verbal persuasion as a rather weak source of efficacy information, which was consistent with findings of previous studies (Poulou, 2007; Yeung & Watkins, 2000). Several researchers (Bandura, 1997; Goddard et al, 2000, 2004) emphasized that social/verbal persuasion alone might not suffice to produce enduring efficacy beliefs but it might be a potent source increasing or diminishing efficacy when supplemented with other sources of efficacy information. Likewise, the purpose of social/verbal persuasion was not necessarily to increase efficacy beliefs, rather to ameliorate one's appraisal of his/her capabilities (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003). With this regard, the present study speculated that the decline in efficacy beliefs of the TM group might partly be due to a lack of social/verbal persuasion in practicum because a lack of feedback and social support in such a critical period in their professional development might have fostered serious doubts about their efficacy. Such a speculation concurred with Bandura's (1989) suggestion that social sources of efficacy information would play a prominent role in early phases of efficacy development because of highly unstable personal preferences and standards.

In the same vein, other researchers (Knoblauch & Woolfolk Hoy, 2008; Ross & Bruce, 2007; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007) confirmed the speculation in

the present study as they showed that social/verbal persuasion would be more viable in initial phases of teaching. Beginning teachers with grave lack of mastery experiences would need more support from others who they perceived to be credible and expert. Additionally, some researchers (Milner & Woolfolk Hoy, 2003; Poulou, 2007) suggested that lack of social/verbal persuasion signified an unsupportive environment, which was hardly conducive for the development of strong efficacy beliefs because such an environment would render little exchange of feedback and constructive criticism between colleagues. The same suggestion might have held true for the TM group in the present study. As the participants in the TM group reported to have little social/verbal persuasion from the cooperating teachers and supervisor, they might have felt considerably insecure in such an unsupportive practicum environment. Henceforth, one may deduce that this feeling of insecurity during their initial steps into teaching practices probably constituted a major obstacle undermining the TM group's efficacy beliefs at the end of the practicum process.

Closely associated with social/verbal persuasion as a source of efficacy information, the present study shed light on a salient problem in the current mentoring model used in Turkish PTE programs. Though reflections and specific feedback from cooperating teachers and supervisor is an unquestionably promising source for pre-service teachers (Tshcannen-Moran et al., 1998), the participants in this study brought to the fore that lack of sufficient interaction with the cooperating teachers and supervisor was one of the biggest drawbacks pertaining to the practicum experiences they had undertaken. The participants from both groups unanimously stated that they had few opportunities to discuss with the cooperating teachers and supervisor about their teaching performances. Even in cases where they did, these discussions were rather limited in that they were quite shallow and fell short of providing informative feedback as to how the pre-service teachers could improve their teaching. Rather, these discussions comprised generic positive comments given by the cooperating teachers or evaluative criticisms given by the supervisor. This finding confirmed previous studies (Charalambaos, et al., 2008; Paese & Zinkgraf, 1991; Phan & Locke, 2015; Yeung & Watkins, 2000) as they consistently pointed to a lack of sufficient feedback and social support that would help pre-service teachers' notice their mistakes and ultimately refine their teaching practices during practicum.

In line with the findings of the present study, Yeung and Watkins (2000) deemed that the lack of sufficient guidance and support by the cooperating teachers diminished

possible contributions that teaching practices might have made to pre-service teachers' development. Similarly, Phan and Locke's (2015) study showed that the teachers participating in their study were highly critical of the supervisors from the university due to the supervisors' failure to make informative comments on their performance. Henceforth, the present study assumed that considering the role of social/verbal persuasion, the different practicum trajectories might have resulted in different consequences regarding the participants' efficacy development. This assumption was especially true for the participants in the TM group. Although the participants in the RPM group similarly criticized the lack of social/verbal persuasion, their reflections on peer conferences they had throughout practicum revealed that peer conferences served a major function to compensate for the dearth of feedback and reflections from the cooperating teachers and supervisor. The peer conferences apparently not only prevented a decline in the RPM group's efficacy beliefs in general but also fostered their confidence in the influence of their own teaching on student learning. In the case of the TM group, however, the only opportunity to get social/verbal persuasion was the anticipated conferences with the cooperating teachers and supervisor. Considering that these conferences did not perform a satisfactory function, the participants in the TM group might have suffered from loneliness against the challenges of observation and teaching during practicum, which in turn might have paved the way for the decline in their efficacy beliefs.

Another noticeable finding about social/verbal persuasion was the explicit distinction the participants made between social/verbal persuasion from the cooperating teachers and supervisor in terms of the potential influence they would exert on pre-service teachers' efficacy development. The participants in both RPM and TM groups asserted that the cooperating teachers ideally held a more potent role to play in their development because the cooperating teachers spent more time with them and thus, were more familiar with their specific weaknesses and strengths. In contrast, the supervisor made merely two visits ensued by brief conferences throughout the whole academic year, which were hardly useful for improving their performance because these visits mainly targeted at making summative judgments about their progress. This finding was congruent with similar studies (Charalambaos et al., 2008; Li & Zhang, 2000; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007) which questioned the contribution that two supervisory observations ensued by mini conferences would make to pre-service teachers' development. Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy aptly captured the

question about the role of supervisors in pre-service teachers' development as they asserted that "[t]he perfunctory twice-a-year visit from administrators with a preprinted evaluation form evidently does not provide enough feedback to shape a teacher's belief about his or her capability" (2007, p. 954). Moreover, the RPM and TM groups' reflections on the role of cooperating teachers and supervisors added credence to previous studies (Beacham, Thomson & Misulis, 1992; Yeung & Watkins, 2000) in that the cooperating teachers and supervisors surfaced to be simply too busy to give the participants due support about the problems they encountered during practicum.

Given that the participants, particularly those in the TM group, conveyed serious dissatisfaction with the anticipated role of social/verbal persuasion by the cooperating teachers and supervisor, the present study put forth two suggestions that might mark a salient imprint on pre-service teachers' efficacy development during the practicum. Firstly, the findings in the present study reiterated several researchers' (Siwatu, 2007; Volkman et al., 1992; Wertheim & Leyser, 2002) call for training cooperating teachers and supervisors on how to effectively provide realistic and informative feedback about pre-service teachers' teaching practices. With such training, the cooperating teachers and supervisors could help pre-service teachers notice possible factors hindering successful practice and handle challenges of actual teaching in the practicum schools. Highlighting the alarming lack of training the stakeholders of practicum on mentoring pre-service teachers, Siwatu (2007) specified that the characteristics of sufficiently informative feedback included being "performance-, motivational-, attributional-, and strategy-oriented" (p. 1098). Thusly, the present study underscored that provision of such high-quality social/verbal persuasion might enable development of strong teacher efficacy beliefs. Second and more importantly, the present study unraveled that although both groups mentioned severe lack of social/verbal persuasion by the cooperating teachers and supervisor, it was only the TM group reporting a significant decrease in their efficacy beliefs. Considering that regular peer conferences possibly circumvented the deficiencies of haphazard conferences with the cooperating teachers and supervisor as well as fostering the increase in the RPM group's efficacy beliefs, the present study advocated that engaging pre-service teachers in RPM practices during practicum might bring in promising consequences for successfully instilling potent and enduring efficacy beliefs in pre-service teachers.

5.3.4. Physiological and Emotional Arousals

Regarding the role of physiological and emotional arousals, reflections of the participants in both groups compromisingly showed that physiological and emotional arousals were the least informative source having an influence on the differences between efficacy beliefs of the RPM and TM groups. Obviously, several researchers (Bandura, 1997; Ross & Bruce, 2007; Tschannen-Moran et al, 1998) emphasized that the mere intensity of physiological and emotional arousals would not suffice to exert a strong influence on efficacy beliefs. Instead, the way one perceived and interpreted these arousals would determine the extent they might affect possible increases or declines in efficacy beliefs. In the same vein, the present study suggested that even though various physiological and emotional arousals such as stress related to classroom management and enthusiasm with their students' learning likely emerged during practicum, the participants in the RPM and TM groups might not have paid sufficient attention to such arousals. That's probably why physiological and emotional arousals did not surface as a strong source of information influencing the changes in the participants' efficacy beliefs at the end of practicum. This suggestion corroborated the plethora of research (Atay, 2007; Mulholland & Wallace, 2001; Poulou, 2007) which reported insignificant relationships between the arousals and pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs.

Eventually, the differential changes in the efficacy beliefs of the RPM and TM groups invited further probing into how the participants in both groups might have interpreted the considerably weak influence of physiological and emotional arousals on their efficacy development. Despite the likely occurrences of physiological and emotional arousals in teaching practices of both groups, the present study revealed that the participants in the RPM group managed to report higher efficacy partly because of the peer work they were engaged in throughout practicum. More precisely, the friendly and warm environment of peer conferences might have enabled the RPM group to make more realistic task analyses and competence assessments, readily disclose possible tensions in their practices and resolve them with the help of their peers, which possibly enhanced the increase in their efficacy beliefs. Similarly, observing their peer equipped with the knowledge of the most recent teaching methodologies implement teaching practices and handle problems likely to occur in their own practices might have further strengthened the efficacy beliefs of the RPM group. In the case of the TM group, however, physiological and emotional arousals might have gone unnoticed because they reported to have had few opportunities to discuss with the cooperating teachers and

supervisor about the issues influencing their teaching practices. Moreover, observing merely the practices of the cooperating teachers with whom they reported weak identification probably induced ignorance of the problems underlying negative arousals now that the participants in the TM group appeared to be suspicious of the use of observing the allegedly traditional practices of the cooperating teachers in resolving those problems. As a reasonable amount of arousals might prove beneficial through provoking more efforts (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998), the present study assumed that the relatively weak influence of the physiological and emotional arousals on the participants' efficacy development might have discouraged the TM group from making more efforts, which possibly contributed to the cultivation of self-doubts in their efficacy as a result of practicum experiences.

5.4. Changes in Teaching Concerns

As for the concern development of pre-service teachers during practicum, the present study revealed noticeable findings that would contribute to the current literature on teaching concerns. The study showed that the participants in both groups simultaneously worried about self-, task and impact concerns from the beginning to the end of their one-year school placement. That's they held all the three types of concerns at the same time, which was in tune with previous research (Capel, 1998b; Guillaume & Rudney, 1993). The participants' simultaneous concerns about issues of different concern categories supported Watzke's (2007) emphasis on an ongoing conception of concerns development. Watzke (ibid.) purported that rather than discerning certain concerns as those to be resolved immediately, concerns of different types can decrease or increase at different times.

Moreover, the present study provided results contradicting the sequential development hypothesis (Fuller, 1969; Fuller & Bown, 1975). While the participants in the RPM group surfaced to follow the chronological sequence predicted in Fuller's model, they held moderate/high concerns in all the concern types. Similarly, the participants in the TM group seemed to follow a reversed sequence as they reported highest concerns about impact of teaching at the beginning of practicum and then, moved towards a focus on self-concerns in the course of time. These findings gave credence to Conway and Clark's (2003) argument that pre-service teachers could focus on concerns of different categories without necessarily resolving concerns of lower

stages. These findings also supplemented the call for reconsideration of concerns stages as broad guidelines rather than hierarchical steps to be taken for professionalism (Hardy, 1996; Veenmann, 1984). Henceforth, the present study suggested that a linear conception of concerns development might confine pre-service teacher development because it might mislead pre-service teachers to merely pay attention to concerns of lower stages and postpone concerns of more mature categories until gaining a certain amount of experience. Instead, teacher educators should recognize the concurrent occurrence of different concerns types and engage pre-service teachers in various activities that will help them realize and resolve concerns of all three categories at the same time.

As stated earlier, the present study utilized the participants' own terminology to determine specific issues that would be subsumed in each concerns subcategory. Although there were some issues specific to the participants and educational context here, the present study found issues that showed major consistency with those reported in previous research (Behets, 1990; Guillaume & Rudney, 1993; Smith, Corkery, Buckley & Calvert, 2013). It was noticeable, however, that the issues showing similarity with those in previous research belonged mostly to low concerns categories. For instance, Smith et al. (2013) classified secondary school pre-service teachers' concerns in seven categories. Of these, such concerns as classroom management, acceptance as a teacher/building rapport with students and underestimating the role of teacher were all low concerns and similar to the issues included in self-concerns category in the present study. Likewise, three of the five main sources of concerns identified in Behet's (1990) study comprised control, organization and time, which corresponded to the issues in self and task concerns categories in the present study. These similarities in concerns across research paved the way for the conclusion that certain low-level concerns might be characteristic of all pre-service teachers and affect them irrespective of their contexts.

Besides, Fuller (1969) underscored that dearth of certain concerns among pre-service teachers substantiated the consistency of findings in teaching concerns research. The present study contributed to this consistency in that the results pointed to a dearth of references to such concerns as those about instructional methodology and student assessment. The dearth of references to these concerns might be attributable to the participants' avoidance from the embarrassment of identification with these concerns because they were issues embedded in the very core of their prospective job. An

alternative explanation might be an actual lack of concerns about these concerns. Having successfully completed the course work in their teacher education program, the participants in the present study might have felt confident about instructional issues and might not have referred to them because they might actually not perceive them as concerns affecting their performance.

5.4.1. Self-Concerns throughout Practicum

The present study indicated that except for the three issues reported specifically by the RPM group, the participants in both groups basically referred to similar issues in each concern subcategory. With respect to their self-concerns, the participants expressed the highest concerns about classroom management. This was congruent with previous studies (Capel, 1997; Phelps, 1991; Stair, Warner & Moore, 2012), which presented classroom management as the main challenge for pre-service teachers. Bray and Hall (1995) stated that concerns about classroom management were a major hindrance for achieving maximum teaching potential as these concerns kept pre-service teachers' minds busy throughout practicum. In the same vein, the participants in the present study referred to classroom management concerns even in the final week of practicum.

The participants' persistence on concerns about classroom management throughout early teaching practices might be due to the highly theoretical nature of teaching education program they were enrolled in. Many studies (Celep, 2002; Giallo & Little, 2003; Maskan, 2007) illustrated that pre-service teachers felt ill-prepared about effective classroom management because they blamed their teacher education programs to be disconnected from realities of teaching in actual classrooms. In the present study, high concerns about classroom management might also stem from the participants' insufficient repertoire of techniques to handle unexpected events which would endanger effective classroom management (Fuller, 1970; Sarıçoban, 2009). Another reason which might help to explain the participants' high classroom management concerns might merely be their perception of classroom management. Since pre-service teachers may have a narrow perception of classroom management confined to student misbehaviors (Cabaroğlu, 2012), the participants might have expressed high concerns about any interruption that occurred in the classroom. To eliminate such narrow perceptions about classroom management, Bogess et al. (1985) pointed to the role of supervisors in

practicum and argued that supervisors should help pre-service teachers correctly interpret student actions. Other researchers (Bray & Hall, 1995; Maskan, 2007) suggested that teacher education programs should offer an additional course specifically addressing effective classroom management, which might facilitate reduction and resolution of concerns about classroom management. Therefore, the present study specified that inclusion of a classroom management course concurrent with practicum could pay substantial service in helping pre-service teachers learn and keep updated about effective classroom management techniques and thereby, successfully handle their concerns about classroom management.

Regarding pre-service teachers' misperceptions about classroom management, the present study verified that the participants had some amount of confusion about what they actually meant by classroom management. While classroom management was a comprehensive term encompassing order, student engagement and cooperation (Emmer & Stough, 2001), the participants in this study appeared to equate classroom management to their attempts in enforcing authority and discipline in the classroom. This finding confirmed Goh and Matthews' (2011) study, in which pre-service teachers failed to distinguish between classroom management and discipline and narrowly used classroom management to refer to discipline problems they encountered in their teaching practices. Veenmann (1984) put forth that discipline was also an ambiguous term for what formed good discipline might be quite subjective and called for a better clarification between classroom management and discipline. Accordingly, the present study labelled another major self-concern affecting the participants during practicum as authority.

Although emphasis on authority was a characteristic of traditional behaviorist approaches (Bromfield, 2006), the participants in this study occasionally reported that enforcing their authority, particularly in cases of student misbehaviors, was a crucial factor affecting their teaching performance, which supported findings of previous studies (Chan & Leung, 1998; Lotter, 2004; McDonald & Elias, 1983). Intriguingly, Kyriacou and Stephens (1999) unearthed that teaching practices aggravated pre-service teachers concerns about their authority, since the participants in their study surfaced to become strict disciplinarians following teaching practicum. Likewise, several other researchers (Ayers, 2004; McBride et al, 1986) postulated that concerns about authority coupled with classroom management persisted even after considerable experience in teaching. Examining concerns of Hong Kong pre-service teachers, Chan and Leung

(1998) reasoned that lack of experiences, inadequate content knowledge and insufficient mastery of teaching skills might be the main factors underlying pre-service teachers' concerns about enforcing their authority and discipline in the classroom. In the light of this argument, one may conclude that the participants in the present study reported high concerns about enforcing their authority because they merely lacked experience in teaching in actual classrooms or noticed insufficiencies in their knowledge of content and teaching skills.

The present study made it clear that being observed was another major issue triggering self-concerns of the participants. This replicated findings of a large number of studies (de Baz & El Weher, 2008; Fuller, Parsons, Watkins, 1974; Mau, 1997) which reiterated that receiving a favorable evaluation of their teaching from the observation of supervisors was a potent source of concerns for pre-service teachers. Obviously, concerns about being observed featured to be inevitable as observation together with evaluation and assessment was essential for accountability of pre-service teachers' teaching practices (Capel, 1997). Some studies (Bogess, McBride & Griffey, 1985; Çelik, 2008) reported a decline in pre-service teachers' concerns about being observed and evaluated, which was explained by the presumption that the more time pre-service teachers spent under observation, the more comfortable they felt with the presence of the supervisor and cooperating teachers. However, the participants in this study were observed only twice throughout practicum and that's why they might not have gained familiarity with being observed and expressed high concerns about it. Also, a non-graded evaluation model rather than a graded one might help to reduce pre-service teachers' concerns about being observed and evaluated (MacDonald, 1993). In particular, a non-graded evaluation might encourage pre-service teachers to perceive being observed as a source of practical feedback for their professional development rather than a threat to their performance and success in practicum. Additionally, the present study suggested that regular peer observations might be instrumental in familiarizing pre-service teachers with the idea of being observed.

Intriguingly, the present study unearthed a distinction between concerns about observation by the supervisor and cooperating teachers because the participants, particularly those in the RPM group, did not perceive being observed by the cooperating teachers as a factor affecting the ultimate assessment of their performance. More precisely, the participants seemed to differentiate between being observed by the supervisor and cooperating teachers in terms of the reason underlying their concerns.

They expressed concerns about being observed by the supervisor because this would directly determine whether they would pass or fail in practicum. In contrast, their concerns about being observed by the cooperating teachers did not derive from the fear of receiving negative assessment from the teachers, rather from their fear that teachers could intervene in their teaching and ask for modifications in their original plans. The distinction that the participants perceived about undesired interventions of the cooperating teachers reaffirmed previous calls for training cooperating teachers to adopt a collaborative supervisory approach. Instead of directive interventions disturbing pre-service teachers' performance, cooperating teachers should receive training on how to collaborate with pre-service teachers to foster their performance and handle their concerns more successfully (McJunkin, Justen, Strickland & Justen, 1998; Morton, Vesco, Williams & Awender, 1997).

In the same vein, the participants in the RPM group made specific references to controversial contributions of the cooperating teachers to their self-concerns, which made it a factor sound enough to be classified as a separate issue labelled 'mentor'. On the one hand, the participants in the RPM group favored for having a cooperating teacher during practicum. They clearly reflected that with recourse to the cooperating teachers, they could have better communicated their authority to the students and thus, minimize possible student misbehaviors in the classroom. This echoed Capel's (1998b) argument about the protection that the cooperating teachers provided in practicum. In a study conducted with newly qualified teachers, Capel (1998b) found out that deprived of the help from a cooperating teacher, the participants in her study reported markedly high concerns about discipline problems in the first year of their teaching. She (ibid.) speculated that having the cooperating teacher as a significant other to turn to for help at times of difficulty might have given the teachers a sense of protection against classroom and behavior management issues during practicum, which could also justify the RPM group's favor for having cooperating teachers.

On the other hand, the participants in the RPM group illustrated that having a cooperating teacher negatively influenced their concerns about self as a teacher. Contrary to the perceived role of the cooperating teachers as an asset facilitating pre-service teachers' professional development, the participants in the RPM group unequivocally stated that the cooperating teachers frequently interfered with their practices, which hindered their efforts to put their plans into practice. This might have projected sound hesitations about the efficiency of their lessons and aggravated their

concerns about self-adequacy as a teacher. The RPM group's concerns about the cooperating teachers were well-established in previous studies (Conway & Clark, 2003; Hardy, 1996; Lotter, 2004; Mau, 1997). Verifying the RPM group's reflections, Fuller and Case (1969) documented that for pre-service teachers, cooperating teachers would vastly complicate teaching practices, particularly in terms of discipline, due to the clashes between aims of the pre-service teachers and cooperating teachers. They (ibid.) surmised that while the cooperating teachers focused on success, the pre-service teachers needed opportunities to experiment and learn from their failures. Similarly, Hardy (1996) concurred that pre-service teachers' concerns aggravated when the cooperating teachers showed reluctance to allow them flexibility to put their own plans into practice. He (ibid.) added that a further inconvenience promoting concerns about the cooperating teachers derived from the teachers' failure to provide pre-service teachers with sufficient assistance against challenges they encountered in the classroom.

Gaining recognition emerged as another prominent self-concern threatening the participants' survival in practicum. Like many studies (Kyriacou & Stephens, 1999; Pillen, Den Brok & Beijard, 2013; Wong, 2009 lit142), the present study evinced that pre-service teachers crucially needed recognition as a real teacher by both their students and the staff in the practicum school. Gaining recognition as an autonomous teacher was of vital importance for pre-service teachers to experience and experiment various teacher roles more realistically. Kyriacou and Stephens (1999) enlisted four factors affecting pre-service teachers' concerns about not being regarded as real teachers, which broadly converged with the reasons the participants in the present study stated for their concerns about gaining recognition. They (ibid.) projected that spending much time in the classroom merely as a non-participant observer, taking on incidental teaching roles, the dilemma between imitating the cooperating teachers or enforcing their own teaching style, and interventions by the cooperating teachers impaired pre-service teachers' recognition as a full-fledged professional. Based on these reasons, the present study outlined that affiliating pre-service teachers with more active roles even in the observation semester and offering more systematic teaching practices might improve pre-service teachers' position in the classroom. Also, giving pre-service teachers more flexibility to try out their own teaching styles and reducing undesired interventions of the cooperating teachers might equally reduce their concerns about gaining due recognition.

Closely associated with the concerns about gaining recognition, relationships

with students surfaced as another issue prompting high self-related concerns. The present study demonstrated that establishing and maintaining positive relationships with the students had paramount influence on the participants throughout practicum. Echoing the findings in the present study, Griffin-Jeansonne and Caliste (1984) confirmed that for the teachers participating in their study, concerns about being liked by students were so severe that the teachers frequently conceded to be manipulated by their students. Although several researchers (Brekelmans, Wubbels & Den Brok, 2002; Stoughton, 2007) underscored that positive relationships between teachers and students could considerably impact student learning and motivation, the findings in the present study spoke to a lack of sufficient time for the participants to establish such relationships with their students. The participants' reflections implied that visiting the practicum school only once a week undermined their attempts to be accepted and liked by their students, which might have aroused their concerns about relationships with students. Investigating teaching concerns of early childhood pre-service teachers in a Turkish context, Cevher-Kalburan (2014) suggested that pre-service teachers should spend more time in practicum schools in order to achieve more positive relationships with the students. Paying heed to this suggestion as well as the participants' reflections, the present study asserted that allotting more time dispersed over different days of the week might offer pre-service teachers worthwhile opportunities to mitigate their concerns about relationships with the students. At the time the present study was conducted, pre-service teachers visited the practicum school once a week for four hours in the observation semester and five hours in the practice teaching semester. Instead, the present study pinpointed that it might be a better option to allot more time to spend in the practicum schools and distribute their visits to the schools over more than one day a week so that pre-service teachers could get on with their students more intimately and alleviate their concerns about relationships with the students.

More interestingly, the present study extended the finding about pre-service teachers' concerns about relationships in that the participants in the RPM group also reported concerns about relationships between students. To clarify, the participants in the RPM group who had spent more time actively teaching and observing in the classroom explicitly stated that mediating student-student relationships was a big challenge they encountered in practicum practices. A detailed review of teaching concerns research available to the researcher revealed no reference to concerns about student-student relationships. Yet the present study surmised that the participants in the

RPM group might have gained increased awareness about the necessity of successfully mediating the relationships between and among their students as possible breakdowns in student-student relationships could have negative consequences for overall teaching and learning practices in the classroom. Hence, the present study underlined that the RPM group's emphasis on student-student relationships as a perceived concern affecting their survival in practicum certainly merited further investigation.

The present study unveiled that the practice of teaching was also a major source of self-concerns. The study highlighted that as they encountered specifics of teaching actual classrooms for the first time, the participants expressed substantial discomfort with the cases in which they felt obliged to diverge from the theory they had learned at the university due to practical considerations. This finding connoted with previous studies (Hardy, 1996; Smith & Lev-Ari, 2005) which revealed that perceived gaps between theory and practices aroused pre-service teachers' concerns in practicum. Furthermore, the participants in the RPM group unanimously referred to lack of experience as another issue prompting higher self-concerns. It was surprising to note that despite having more teaching practices throughout practicum, the participants in the RPM group emphasized their lack of experience as an impediment to effective performance. Confirming the RPM group's emphasis on lack of experience, Kyriacou and Stephens (1999) illustrated that having insufficient preparatory teaching practices was a major concern for the pre-service teachers participating in their study. Similarly, Chan and Leung (1998) proclaimed that during practicum and teacher education courses, lack of experience with realities and practicalities of actual teaching could significantly diminish pre-service teachers' confidence and optimism. Hence, the present study specified that there might be no better prescription than increasing the number of actual teaching experiences to remedy pre-service teachers' concerns about not only the practice of teaching but also lack of experience. With more time spent on actual teaching, pre-service teachers might gain hands-on experiences with ways of dealing with various expected or unexpected events occurring in the classroom and operationalizing their knowledge of theory to survive these events (Bogess et al, 1985).

Besides, the present study pinpointed that the last self-related issue was content knowledge. Congruent with previous studies (Goh & Matthews, 2011; Moore, 2003; Ong, Ros, Azlian, Sharnti & Ho, 2004), the participants in the present study seemed to be highly concerned about their mastery of the subject matter although they were to get a full-time teaching position in real schools in a few months. Perplexingly, they reported

a noticeable lack of confidence in teaching various grammatical structures and language skills satisfactorily. A salient finding which demanded further elaboration was that using the target language for teaching obviously constituted the most frequently-referred aspect of the participants' concerns about content knowledge. Similarly, Goh and Matthews (2011) unraveled that pre-service teachers who would use English to teach were specifically concerned about their proficiency in the target language. Based on the participants' concerns about teaching in the medium of English, the present study proposed that teaching concerns were subject-specific i.e. there might be certain areas of challenge that would characteristically concern the neophytes in each field of specialization. It is, therefore, of grave importance that teacher education programs should identify these areas of exclusive challenge and provide additional support about them so that pre-service teachers could more easily master these challenges. Once pre-service teachers gain the ability to understand and explain these subject-specific areas aggravating their concerns about their adequacy as a teacher, they may feel more secure and perform better in the classroom (Fuller & Case, 1969).

5.4.2. Task Concerns throughout Practicum

The present study indicated that the task-related issues received the least reference compared to self- and impact-related issues throughout practicum. This was congruent with previous studies (Capel, 1998a; Wendt & Bain, 1989), which found task concerns to be the least concern-provoking for pre-service teachers. Campbell and Thompson (2007) explicated that mastery of pedagogical content knowledge and optimism about their teaching ability might be the chief reasons underlying low task concerns in pre-service teachers. Similarly, the present study hinted that the participants' low reference to task concerns might have resulted from their optimism about their ability to perform teacher roles and responsibilities. As they had successfully fulfilled the course work before taking practicum, the participants might have felt assured of their pedagogical knowledge and teaching skills, and referred to task concerns less than self and impact concerns. With respect to task-related issues that concerned the participants, the present study reinforced Boz's (2008) assertion that some issues were typical of teaching in a Turkish context. Consistent with the major task-related issues identified in the present study, Boz (ibid.) articulated that such issues as oversized classrooms, substantial interruptions by the school administration and

inflexible curriculum could exacerbate task concerns of all teachers planning to teach in a Turkish school because these were main characteristics of most schools in Turkey.

The present study illustrated that of the five major task-related issues, time management was by far the most worrisome for the participants. In accordance with previous studies (Fritz & Miller, 2003; McCann, Johannesen & Ricca, 2005; Murray-Harvey, Silins & Saebel, 1999), the participants in this study clarified that they lacked sufficient time to implement all the activities they had planned. Furthermore, they signified that part of the reason for their concerns was their own ability to manage the time effectively, which pointed to a "need to learn how to "pace" a lesson" (McDonald & Elias, 1983, p.18). Considering the participants' concerns about not only limited time for teaching but also lack of ability to manage the limited yet precious time, the present study concluded that it might be essential to place more emphasis on time management in teacher education programs. One way to do this might be through providing training on effective time management strategies. Reporting no significant difference between experienced and novice teachers, Melnick and Meister (2008) postulated that teacher education programs should prioritize helping teachers to learn strategies to manage the time effectively, since finding time for preparation, teaching and reflection presented a tremendous challenge even for experienced teachers. Also, the present study suggested that teacher education programs should introduce ways of creating a balance among perceived sections of a lesson (i.e. warm-up, presentation, practice, production and conclusion) and sparing due time to each section so that pre-service teachers could complete all their plans within the pre-determined time.

The present study unearthed that the practicum school itself amplified task concerns to a certain degree. Under the roof term practicum school, the participants referred to a bunch of issues including insufficient technical infrastructure, special days/events in the school, frequent schedule changes and interventions by the administration. In particular, the participants worried about breakdowns in technical devices in that it would hardly be possible for them to modify their plans or improvise an alternative that could present an immediate solution for the problem. Previous studies (Boz, 2008; Kyriacou & Stephens, 1999; Lotter, 2004) confirmed the participants' concerns about such unexpected situations in the practicum schools. Investigating pre-service teachers' concerns over a year-long teacher education program, Lotter (2004) documented that special and unexpected classroom events appeared to be one of the main causes of increased concerns during practicum. She (ibid.) maintained that

flexibility in planning might be a viable panacea for reducing these concerns. Likewise, Kyriacou and Stephens (1999) emphasized that when pre-service teachers were on the stage, administrative interruptions of any sort should be avoided as interruptions would damage pre-service teachers' control in the classroom and perceptions of self as a professional. Accordingly, the present study recommended that teacher education programs should attach great importance to the selection of practicum schools to which pre-service teachers would be placed for observation and student teaching semesters. Selection of well-established school which would have sound technical facilities, staff and administration sensitive to needs and concerns of pre-service teachers, and little unexpected circumstances like schedule changes and special celebrations might offer vital opportunities to help pre-service teachers reduce their concerns and support their overall professional development.

In the same vein, the present study highlighted that the number of students in the classrooms also aggravated task concerns during practicum. The participants reflected that working with too many students significantly obstructed effective performance. Several researchers (Bogess et al., 1985; Çakmak, 2008; Young, 2012) reiterated that working in crowded classrooms became an increasingly important concern to pre-service teachers after they spent some time in real classrooms. Notwithstanding, the present study identified some sort of learned helplessness pertaining to the participants' concerns about the number of students in the classrooms. The participants' reflections intriguingly unfolded that as they taught in different classrooms owing to schedule changes in the practicum schools, the participants began to view having too many students as an inevitable reality of classrooms. One might easily suggest to place pre-service teachers in specially designed classes where there would be no more than 20-25 students so that they would not have to bother about teaching in crowded classrooms. However, previous studies (Capel, 1998b; Mulholland & Wallace, 2001) underlined that practicum situations far from realities of actual classrooms might be of little, if any, help to pre-service teachers' development and cause drastic problems once they started teaching. Consequently, the present study signified that rather than an unrealistic, vacuum-like placement, it might be more beneficial to place pre-service teachers in authentic classrooms so that they could face realities of actual teaching early in their career and develop their own strategies to succeed in teaching despite the challenges of these realities. Though this might signal a tough beginning for pre-service teachers, it might be more conducive for a successful professional development in the long run.

The present study demonstrated that another pre-dominant issue prompting task concerns was over-reliance on curriculum and course book. The participants considered it essential to follow the plan designated in the curriculum and cover all activities given in the course book. Quite a few studies (Conway & Clark, 2003; de Baz & El Weher, 2008; Mok, 2005) pointed out that discrepancies between the plan in the curriculum and practices in the classroom aroused pre-service teachers' worry about their teaching skills. Conway and Clark (2003) indicated that pre-service teachers' concerns about curriculum could yield positive outcomes, since their engrossment in the curriculum encouraged pre-service teachers to focus on ways of extending their capacity to provide rich curricular opportunities. Nonetheless, the findings in the present study ran counter to Conway and Clark's (ibid.) assumption since the participants' concerns about curriculum and course book featured as a notable impediment to their creativity. Despite noticing some inconveniences, the participants felt obliged to adjust their lessons to rigidly fit with the curriculum and course book. The present study estimated that this perceived obligation might have derived from the pre-service teachers' aims which conflicted with those of the cooperating teachers (Fuller & Case, 1969). There were several comments implying that while the participants struggled to learn how to teach, the cooperating teachers prioritized keeping up with the curriculum and units in the course book. As a result, the present study advocated that to help pre-service teachers reduce their concerns about reliance on curriculum and course book, there was a great role for cooperating teachers and supervisors to play. Instead of inflexibly imposing the curriculum and course book, they should tolerate and perhaps encourage pre-service teachers' divergences as long as these divergences still served the learning objectives (Bogess et al., 1985). Given that a true conformity with initial plans might not always be possible in practice, cooperating teachers and supervisors should essentially grant the pre-service teachers freedom to readily use their creativity and make necessary modifications in their plans whenever a need arises.

In the present study, the last prominent task-related issue was concerns about activities and materials. It appeared that finding and designing appropriate activities and materials was an overwhelming task to be achieved in practicum. In accordance with previous studies (Çelik, 2008; Goh & Matthews, 2011; Watzke, 2007), the participants in this study worried that they had had only limited materials and aids to undertake the challenging task of teaching. Furthermore, they clearly conveyed dissatisfaction with the instructional activities and materials they had prepared for their classes. Studying

with Turkish pre-service ELT teachers, Çelik (2008) verified that it was a big challenge for pre-service teachers to develop functional materials in practicum. Yet the participants in this study also reported high concerns about the activities and materials provided by the Ministry of Education. More precisely, they criticized the web-based programs imposed by the Ministry on the grounds that these programs partly contradicted their theoretical knowledge learned at the university and objectives set for their own professional development. The present study hinted that intense concerns about activities and materials might chiefly be attributable to unrealistically high expectations the participants had had about practicum. Due to sheer inexperience with teaching in real classrooms, the participants might have assumed that they would find or be provided with numerous materials which could make teaching easily manageable for them. Therefore, the present study hypothesized that pre-service teachers might need more opportunities to develop and implement their own activities and materials for their teaching practices. Increased experience with activity and material development might help pre-service teachers form reliable ideas about what would and would not work in real classrooms, which would in turn alleviate their concerns about activities and materials.

5.4.3. Impact Concerns throughout Practicum

The present study pointed out that worries about positively contributing to student learning proved to occupy the participants' minds from the very beginning of practicum. Given concerns about impacting student learning signaled effective teaching (Borich, 1992; Fuller, 1970), it was promising to note that the participants showed interest in whether they could leave an imprint on their students. The present study implicated that early focus on impact concerns might have stemmed from a mere feeling of empathy with the students. Having spent most of their lives as students, the participants might have closely identified with their students' needs and reported deep concerns about promoting student learning (George, 1974; Parsons & Fuller, 1972).

Apparently, the participants' impact concerns lingered throughout practicum despite fluctuations in the volume of perceived issues. This finding added credence to previous studies (George, Borich & Fuller, 1974; Pigge & Marso, 1986; Smith & Sanche, 1992) which conveyed that impact concerns were high and relatively constant in all stages of teacher education and practicum. Pigge and Marso (1986, 1997)

cautioned that pre-occupation with impact concerns throughout practicum should be interpreted tentatively. They (1986) argued that although pre-service teachers showed deep interest in influencing student learning early in practicum, they could not act upon these concerns before resolving less mature concerns. In this regard, considerable emphasis the participants in this study placed on impact concerns throughout practicum might mean that they actually worried about fostering their students' learning since the beginning of practicum but perceived it crucial to deal first with more immediate self and task concerns.

The present study highlighted that explicit references to student learning affected the participants to a far greater extent than the other issues within impact concerns, which was consistent with previous studies (Lotter, 2004; Mok, 2005; Watzke, 2007). More specifically, the participants referred to addressing student mistakes, fostering student comprehension and using different activity types as paramount challenges aggravating their concerns about student learning. The present study speculated that insufficient command of activities and unfavorable contextual factors might help to explain the participants' concerns about student learning. Put it simply, the participants might have felt highly concerned about student learning partly because they had not yet gained a reliable command of employing various teaching activities to ensure student learning (Burden, 1982). Moreover, teaching in a classroom, in which they thought mostly traditional approaches were used, might have blurred the participants' confidence in their success in contributing to student learning because the students might not have gained from the participants' more up-to-date teaching styles (Hall, 1979). Therefore, the present study concluded that it was of paramount importance to match pre-service teachers with cooperating teachers who would not only use but also encourage pre-service teachers to use more student-centered approaches in the classroom (Dunn & Rakes, 2010). It might also be fruitful if the cooperating teachers facilitated pre-service teachers' attempts to use different activity types as a way of maximizing student gains in their teaching practices.

Perplexingly, the present study unraveled that interest in individual students was one of the foremost issues aggravating impact concerns during practicum. The participants were apprehensive about whether they could identify their students' needs including personal problems and provide sufficient support to meet these needs. As part of their concerns about individual students, the participants paid specific attention to recognizing needs of unmotivated or mischievous students and delivering lessons that

would promote their learning. Çelik (2008) asserted that it was quite surprising to notice pre-service teachers' keen interest in individual students' needs and worries such as emotional problems despite the relatively short time they spent in the practicum schools. Yet many studies (Baum & McMurray-Schwarz, 2004; Capel, 2001; Mau, 1997) confirmed that pre-service teachers became highly apprehensive about recognizing and dealing with various problems of the students during practicum. Mau (1997) pinpointed that pre-service teachers became concerned about challenging unmotivated students and ensuring if these students got what they needed, which signaled a shift in their concerns at the end of practicum. Likewise, Baum and McMurray-Schwarz (2004) illustrated that pre-service teachers' concerns about individual students could at times go extreme as the participants in their study expressed deep concerns about being required to meet even some basic needs of the students such as feeding and cleaning.

By the same token, the present study clearly indicated that students' developmental period formed a massive part of the participants' impact concerns. The need to determine and consider the students' cognitive, social and affective needs seemed to trigger the participants' tension during practicum. A large number of studies (Behets, 1990; Çakmak, 2008; Goh & Matthews, 2011) well-established the difficulty pre-service teachers perceived about fine-tuning their teaching practices according to the students' developmental level. Behets (1990) documented that providing activities which would appropriately match the students' skill level was one of the biggest issues challenging pre-service teachers in practicum. Examining teacher education and professional identity perceptions of 97 pre-service teachers from various fields of specialization, Ezer, Gilat and Sagee (2010) denoted that substantial attention to the students' unique needs was an inevitable aspect of teacher professional identity. They (ibid.) further underlined the need to communicate pre-service teachers that they should ideally take into consideration cognitive and affective differences between the students while designing their lessons. Consequently, the present study suggested that teacher education programs should vastly shed light on characteristic features and needs of different developmental levels. Relying on increased awareness about these characteristics, pre-service teachers could aptly recognize strengths and weaknesses of the specific group they were to teach in practicum and design their practices accordingly.

In the present study, the participants also expressed considerable concerns about student interests. As evinced in previous studies (Anhalt & Perez, 2013; Veenman,

1984; Watzke, 2007), the participants feared that they would not be able to cope with differences deriving from diverse student interests. Anhalt and Perez (2013) maintained that the most salient concern for K-8 teachers pertained to finding methods and techniques that would tap all students' interests and engage them in learning. The participants in the present study similarly reflected that they had deep concerns about failing to deliver lessons that would appeal to diverse interests and preferences of their students. McDonald and Elias (1983) premised that a lack of understanding the students could underlie teachers' concerns about embracing diverse student interests. Due to this lack of understanding, teachers would fail to adapt their lessons to individual differences, err in conveniently addressing their students and evidently continue to have high concerns about their students (McDonald & Elias, 1983). A possible suggestion to alleviate pre-service teachers' concerns about student interests might require that depending on students' interests and preferences, pre-service teachers should enrich their teaching practices through employing methods, techniques and activities of different types. Although it has proven to be difficult (Veenman, 1984), varying activity types might help pre-service teachers accommodate diverse student interests and keep almost all students focused on learning practices.

The present study found that the last issue amplifying impact concerns referred to use of the target language in teaching practices. Intriguingly, the present study identified a remarkable difference in the way the participants justified their concerns about the target language over time. Apparently, the participants worried about their own adequacy to teach through the target language in early practices, which related to their content knowledge as a part of self-concerns. In subsequent practices during practicum, however, they seemed to associate their concerns about using the target language with their emphasis on student learning. The perceived distinction in the underpinnings of concerns about the target language connoted with many researchers' (Capel, 2001; Conway & Clark, 2003; Guillaume & Rudney, 1993) argument about shifts in the nature of concerns over time. Guillaume and Rudney (1993) proposed that beside the emphasis on each concern category, the nature of concerns changed as pre-service teachers gained more experiences and developed as teachers. Henceforth, the present study deduced that the shift in the participants' concerns about using the target language represented the growing sophistication in their understanding of teaching as well as the stronger emphasis they placed on student learning.

5.5. Comparisons between Teaching Concerns of the RPM and TM Groups

Despite the abovementioned similarities in terms of the issues the RPM and TM groups referred to in each concerns category, the present study demonstrated that there were statistically significant differences between the concerns development of both groups throughout practicum. Findings about the statistical changes contradicted previous studies (Capel, 1998a; Fuller, Parsons & Watkins, 1974) reporting no significant difference in pre-service teachers' concerns. To clarify, the participants in the RPM and TM groups featured to be homogenous at the beginning of practicum as overall concerns levels of both groups were moderate. This finding supported the results of previous studies (Ngidi & Sibaya, 2003; Wendt & Bain, 1989; Behets, 1990).

However, the overall concerns means of the RPM and TM groups differed significantly following practicum. Whereas there was a significant decline in the RPM group's overall concerns means, the TM group's overall concerns means increased sharply. The different mentoring practices they were engaged in during practicum might have been the chief reason accounting for the differences in overall concerns means of both groups. The significant difference in overall concerns means in accordance with the specific mentoring practices of the RPM and TM groups confirmed that teaching concerns were context-specific rather than universal (Campbell & Thompson, 2007; Guillaume & Rudney, 1993; Watzke, 2007). More precisely, the specific experiences they were engaged in marked a significant difference on pre-service teachers' concerns. The decline in the RPM group's overall concerns means was particularly promising in terms of pre-service teachers' progression from less mature to highly advanced concerns. The significant differences between the teaching concerns of the RPM and TM groups implied that if engaged in appropriate mentoring practices, pre-service teachers could more easily handle self and task concerns and pay utmost attention to impact concerns, which signaled higher effectiveness and maturation in teaching (Borich, 1992).

Regarding the changes in teaching concerns of the RPM group, the present study found a statistically significant decline in overall concerns means following practicum. There were also statistically significant changes in the concerns subcategories. With reference to the RPM group's self-concerns, the present study showed a significant decline at the end of practicum. The decline in their self-concerns might have been related to the peer work and teaching practices they had during practicum. Boz (2008)

postulated that practicum placements in which pre-service teachers observed significant others' teaching strategies and particularly classroom management skills might prove an invaluable source to resolve their self-concerns. Considering that they observed not only the cooperating teachers but also their peers, the participants in the RPM group might have gained ideas about how to deal with their self-related issues. In particular, observing a peer handle issues underlying self-concerns might have well-convinced the RPM group that just like their peers, they could have what it would take to resolve those issues.

The actual teaching practices might have further facilitated the decline in the RPM group's self-concerns. Bogess et al. (1985) asserted that there could be no replacement to hands-on teaching experiences for improving management skills, which formed the top-ranking self-related issue in the present study. Consonant with this assertion, extensive teaching practices the RPM group had during practicum might have been instrumental in reducing their self-concerns at the end of practicum. Furthermore, the conferences they systematically had with their peers both prior to and following each teaching practice might have also enabled the RPM group to realistically identify their inadequacies as a teacher and reflect on how best to overcome them.

In the same vein, the present study pinpointed a statistically significant decline in task concerns of the RPM group following practicum, which was congruent with previous studies (Capel, 1998a; Wendt & Bain, 1989). Although the participants in the RPM group expressed concerns about some task-related issues viewed as typical to teaching in Turkish schools (Boz, 2008), they reported to feel much more comfortable with them following practicum. The present study hinted that vast teaching practices might have promoted the decline in the RPM group's task concerns as they had quite a few opportunities to put their theoretical knowledge into practice. With increased awareness about what instructional techniques and methods would or would not work in real classrooms, the RPM group might have felt more confident about their teaching skills (Burden, 1982).

The present study also shed light on the role of observing the cooperating teachers as a possible factor affecting the RPM group's task concerns. The RPM group's reflections implied that though there were mostly traditional practices, observing the cooperating teachers might have been influential on reducing the RPM group's task concerns, particularly those about school-related issues. Apparently, the RPM group's reflections about the role of cooperating teachers substantiated the

argument that if cooperating teachers sufficiently aided pre-service teachers during practicum, there would be a considerable reduction in concerns about various teaching tasks (Mau, 1997). Likewise, the present study unveiled that peer conferences served notable functions to alleviate the RPM group's task concerns. In-depth discussions in peer conferences about their performance provided realistic feedback about their deficiencies and specified ways to tackle them, which might have made the RPM group more relaxed about task-related issues. More importantly, the opportunity for selecting and pursuing their own goals rather than those imposed by the cooperating teachers or supervisor might have been a major contributor to the decline in the RPM group's task concerns. It featured to have encouraged the RPM group to focus on what actually hindered successful practice in the classroom.

Contrary to the decline in self- and task concerns, the present study illustrated that there was a significant increase in the RPM group's impact concerns over time. In accordance with previous studies (Bray & Hall, 1995; Dadlez, 1998), the RPM group ranked highest impact concerns at the end of practicum. The increase in impact concerns predicted that the RPM group's concerns matured with experience, which supported Fuller's concerns model (Fuller, 1969; Fuller & Bown, 1975). It also confirmed that the RPM group was likely to be more effective teachers when they completed practicum (Borich, 1992).

The present study unearthed that teaching practices and engagement in RPM protocols were the two chief factors giving rise to the increase in the RPM group's impact concerns in practicum. The participants' reflections clarified that with more teaching practices, the RPM group became predominantly focused on student learning as they recognized inadequacies in living up to diverse needs and interests of unmotivated and weak students. Additionally, the peer observations might have promoted the RPM group's concerns about contributing to student learning because they provided much inspiration about engaging all the students in learning activities. Similarly, the present study asserted that peer conferences might have triggered the increase in impact concerns because ample opportunities to exchange about their experiences in practicum might have fostered reflections on how to make their lessons more beneficial for students.

However, the present study confirmed Fuller's (1970) argument that selection of cooperating teachers who had already mastered the most advanced concerns would play a critical role in alleviating pre-service teachers' concerns. The participants in the RPM

group criticized that their cooperating teachers could not offer practical tips about how to shape their lessons in order to better contribute to student learning. Nor could they perform effective practices that would enable the participants to observe how experienced teachers accommodated diverse student interests and appealed to all students. Therefore, the present study inferred that the RPM group could have made more progress in their impact concerns if they had worked with cooperating teachers who had successfully resolved their own problems with promoting student learning.

As with the concerns of the TM group, the present study unveiled that there was a statistically significant increase in their overall concerns means following practicum. This finding challenged Capel's (2001) study, in which pre-service teachers reported less concerns as they spent more time in practicum. It was interesting to note that the participants in the TM group expressed more concerns as they supposedly gained more familiarity with the specifics of what it would like to teach in actual classrooms. The present study revealed that validating the significant increase in overall concerns, the participants in TM group also had significantly higher self-concerns following practicum. Consistent with previous studies (Hardy, 1996; Lotter, 2004), the present study highlighted that the participants in TM group had muddied waters in their minds about their perceptions of self as teacher following practicum.

The TM group's reflections showed that teaching practices might have played a major role in amplifying the TM group's self-concerns because the participants expressed stronger hesitation about their adequacy in teaching practices. The remarkable increase in their references to self-concerns with the onset of actual teaching practices seemed to confirm their hesitation. Considering the discontent the TM group expressed about starting practice-teaching only in the second term, the present study affirmed that success in teaching practices might be a key component affecting pre-service teachers' self-concerns in practicum (Pigge & Marso, 1986; 1997). Furthermore, the present study pinpointed that observing the cooperating teachers might also help to explain the significant increase in the TM group's self-concerns. The participants' reflections implied that observing teachers' practices which apparently contradicted the theoretical knowledge they had learned at the university aggravated the TM group's worry about self-related issues. Of particular interest was the TM group's dissatisfaction with observing the so-called outdated strategies of the cooperating teachers in handling classroom management and discipline issues, which formed the largest part of the participants' self-concerns. To compensate for such dissatisfaction, the present study

purported that providing more opportunities for actual teaching might prove more beneficial because gaining hands-on teaching experience holds a sound potential to reduce self-concerns (Cho, Kim, Svinicki & Decker, 2011). Engagement in peer work might also be a viable alternative for reducing self-concerns, as it did in the case of the RPM group.

In accordance with self-concerns, the present study demonstrated that there was also a statistically significant increase in task concerns of the TM group. Confirming previous studies conducted with Turkish pre-service teachers (Boz, 2008; Boz & Boz, 2010; Çubukçu & Dönmez, 2011), the present study suggested that taking practicum experiences with the TM model currently used in higher education in Turkey gave rise to higher task-related concerns. The TM group's reflections gave invaluable insights into possible reasons underlying the increase in their task concerns. First and foremost, the participants explicated that although teaching practices were the strongest source of understanding the nuts and bolts of the teaching task, the limited opportunities for teaching undermined their struggle to resolve basic task-related issues such as how to achieve effective time management in crowded classrooms. This required a restructuring of the current mentoring model by offering more teaching opportunities. The present study asserted that an ideal option to increase the number of authentic teaching practices might be an earlier start with actual teaching in practicum placements, just like the RPM group did. More precisely, providing early opportunities for teaching could "create important teaching moments as well as provide preservice teachers to assess their own assumptions and address concerns in light of new experiences" (Campbell & Thompson, 2007, p. 173). Several other researchers (Bray & Hall, 1995; Derosier & Soslau, 2014; Reupert & Woodcock, 2010) reiterated that extensive teaching practices could substantially reduce pre-service teachers' concerns in practicum.

Additionally, the present study imparted that observing the cooperating teachers might have been counterproductive on the TM group's task concerns in that the teachers' practice communicated a need for perfect conformity with the curriculum and course book. Similarly, the TM group's reflections yielded intense complaints that the conferences with the cooperating teachers failed to fulfill their expectations because the cooperating teachers made little practical suggestions about how to resolve their task-related issues. Given the explicit influence the cooperating teachers can have on pre-service teachers (Yamashita, 1991), the insufficient guidance by the cooperating

teachers as well as their emphasis on following the curriculum might have been influential on the acute increase in the TM group's task concerns. As a consequence, the present study corroborated that cooperating teachers should necessarily provide sufficient guidance about different teaching methods and flexibility for pre-service teachers to try out their own ideas and methods to cope with heightened task concerns (Connor & Kilmer, 2001; Fuller, 1967; Parsons & Fuller, 1974). Also, the present study suggested that supervisors should take on more active role by providing further professional support to help pre-service teachers handle task concerns. If pre-service teachers start their teaching career with intense task concerns, they might not only fail to proceed to more mature concerns but also face the risk of reverting back to immature concerns (Christou, Eliophotou-Menon & Philippou, 2004).

However, the present study unearthed that there was a slight and insignificant decline in impact concerns of the TM group. Yet their impact concerns means were still high following practicum, which validated the previous finding (Lamote & Engels, 2010; Pigge & Marso, 1997) that impact concerns among pre-service teachers remained high and relatively constant. Perplexingly, though, the TM group's reflections revealed a steady decline in their references to impact-related issues specifically in the practice-teaching semester. That's in contrast to high impact concerns scores prior to and following practicum, the TM group seemed to focus less on impact concerns after they started teaching in actual classrooms. This contradiction between the perceived impact concerns scores on the TCC questionnaire and actual references in the qualitative data might be associated with the assertion that without undertaking actual teaching experiences, pre-service teachers' concerns would be "based mostly on hearsay" (Fuller, 1970, p. 18). Echoing the findings about the TM group's concerns, several studies (Butler & Smith, 1989; Capel, 2001; Swennen, Jörg & Korthagen, 2004) underlined that the idealized views in the absence of teaching experiences were replaced with predominant emphasis on self-concerns when pre-service teachers realized they were about to teach.

Another explanation for the contradiction might be a social desirability of concerns about students (Parsons & Fuller, 1974). That is to say the participants in the TM group might have displayed high impact concerns on the TCC probably because they perceived it socially desirable to show interest in student learning. Nonetheless, this explanation ran short of validity because their reflections yielded several remarks which represented altruistic worry about various issues potentially hindering student

learning. Instead, the present study assumed that a more realistic explanation for the contradiction between the TM group's perceived impact concerns scores and references to impact concerns in the qualitative data pertained to the priority of resolving certain concerns before attending to the others. Congruent with previous studies (Parsons & Fuller, 1974; Pigge & Marso, 1986, 1997), the present study presumed that due to sound concerns about themselves surfacing in the qualitative data particularly during teaching practices, the participants in the TM group might not have had sufficient opportunities to act on their more mature concerns about students. Consequently, the present study concluded that it was gravely important to provide sufficient opportunities for actual teaching practices and time for reflecting on these practices so as to successfully master low-order concerns and progress to more mature concerns.

5.6. Perceptions on Overall Practicum Process

With respect to the participants' perceptions of the overall practicum process, the present study reinforced the assertion that practicum was one of the critical components of effective teacher education (Oosterheert & Vermunt, 2003; Smith & Lev-Ari, 2005). The pre-service teachers in both groups unanimously stated that they gained practical insights about themselves as teachers, their role in actual classroom environments and how to manage various dynamics of such environments to produce positive learning outcomes not only for their students but for themselves. In particular, the present study highlighted that specific experiences offered in practicum played differential roles in realizing perceived contributions that taking practicum might make to pre-service teachers' personal and professional development. Put it simply, an experience with widespread recognition for its contributions (such as observing the cooperating teachers) might indeed prove to be an obstacle if not carried out properly. On the contrary, another less common but well-structured experience (such as peer work) might appear to be a sound supplement for cultivating in pre-service teachers optimistic views about their nascent professional identities. Therefore, the present study underlined that engaging pre-service teachers in as varied experiences as possible during practicum could be conducive for growing effective practitioners who could collaborate to critically reflect on their performances, identify and address weaknesses in their teaching practices and volunteer for further work to improve their teaching effectiveness.

5.6.1. Perceptions on Teaching Practices

The present study unearthed that despite the differences in the number of actual practices the RPM and TM groups had, teaching practices constituted a bedrock for the development of both groups throughout practicum. This finding echoed previous studies (Beck & Kosnick, 2002; Wilson, 2006) unveiling that a salient part of teacher education, teaching practices were highly valued by pre-service teachers. The present study specified that hands-on experiences pre-service teachers had during practicum enabled them a realistic grasp of teaching and their role as a teacher in the classroom through familiarizing them with multidimensional student behaviors and classroom events. Viewing provision of authentic hands-on experiences as the main objective of practicum, Ulvik and Smith (2011) proposed that it was essential for pre-service teachers to gain hands-on experiences as it would not be easy to operate on others' practical knowledge. Investigating insider perceptions about practicum, they (ibid.) found that apart from the overall development from the first to second practicum placement, the pre-service teachers in their study showed higher confidence, which they partly attributed to the growing amount of experiences their participants had in classroom teaching. Reporting on early findings of a long-term research project on the contributions of practicum, Haigh, Pinder and McDonald (2006) similarly maintained that authentic teaching practices in practicum helped pre-service teachers develop their own teaching styles.

As part of positive attitude towards teaching practices, the present study revealed that teaching practices in practicum were a significant resource for pre-service teachers to testify their theoretical knowledge. Through teaching experiences, the participants enjoyed practical opportunities to see which aspects of their theoretical knowledge they could easily integrate into classroom teaching and how they should make changes to refine the stumbling aspects. Elaborating on the role of peer observations in practicum, Jenkins, Garn and Jenkins (2005) also reported that teaching practices facilitated the transfer of theory to practice. Moreover, the finding about testifying theoretical knowledge in the classroom contributed to the recent calls for more hands-on experiences in teacher education programs in order for better preparing pre-service teachers for realities of actual teaching (Dreyer, 1998; Yost, Sentner & Forlenza-Bailety, 2000). Yost et al. (2000) argued that teaching practices would enable pre-

service teachers to create meaningful connections between the theoretical foundations of teaching learned at the university and actual teaching. Dreyer (1998) furthered the argument by stating that more opportunities for hands-on teaching practices fostered pre-service teachers' integration of university education into classroom settings. Considering that pre-service teachers mostly feel ensured of their theoretical knowledge and teaching skills (Nguyen & Baldauf, 2010), one can assert that teaching practices in practicum allow pre-service teachers to experiment with their knowledge learned at the university along with convincing them of the importance of supplementing their teaching practices with these theoretical foundations.

Besides, the present study intriguingly pinpointed a need for periodic rotation regarding teaching practices in practicum. The study placed a premium on periodically changing the classroom and grade levels in which pre-service teachers taught so that they could gain in-depth awareness about various student profiles and make more informed decisions in their teaching. Although common wisdom can readily support such rotations, intensive attention must be paid to practical implications of adopting such a rotational approach in practicum. One the one hand, changing the classrooms as well as grade levels will undoubtedly enhance pre-service teachers' teaching persona because it will promote their familiarity with working in different classroom contexts with students of diverse backgrounds, needs and interests. On the other hand, a taken-for-granted approach to rotations in which pre-service teachers change classrooms too frequently or unsystematically may aggravate pre-service teachers' frustration about teaching.

Previous research (Goodwyn, 1997; Foster, 1999) yielded similar reflections about enabling changes through practicum. Goodwyn (1997) premised that even though placing pre-service teachers in as many different classrooms as possible in a certain period of time might bear the risk of drowning, it could offer a full-fledged immersion into actual teaching. Likewise, Foster (1999) compared the initial practicum placements of pre-service teachers in UK and France. He (ibid.) identified that the French pre-service teachers who worked with a limited number of classrooms with certain age groups showed strong preference for the varied placements of their English counterparts who worked with different age groups in different contexts. Based on this finding, Foster (ibid.) postulated that while working with the same or a small number of classes for the whole practicum period gave pre-service teachers a deep understanding of teaching and learning process, wider opportunities to teach different age groups and

different classrooms would make more profound contributions to pre-service teachers' professional development. Henceforth, the present study premised that as long as rotations were carefully structured and properly conducted, attending to the participants' unanimous suggestion about systematic rotation across classrooms and grade levels could be a worthwhile alternative to improve the quality of teaching practices in practicum.

As with the ideal time to start teaching practices, the present study clarified that the earlier pre-service teachers started practice-teaching in practicum, the better it would be for their effectiveness. Confirming the argument for an earlier start, Goodwyn (1997) put forth that effective practicum required giving the floor to pre-service teachers because they had listened enough about teaching, and meaningful learning could only be possible through positive hands-on experiences rather than merely listening to mentors or supervisors. Many other studies (Campbell-Evans & Maloney, 1997; Hudson & Nguyen, 2008) also reported that extending the observation period to a whole semester would put strong limitations on the effectiveness of practicum. Instead, earlier and more opportunities for teaching practices could profoundly supplement pre-service teachers' understanding their role as a teacher as well as the strengths and weaknesses in their teaching practices. Engaging pre-service teachers in teaching practices from the first day of practicum rather than projecting a 'observation for a while and then practice' model, Campbell-Evans and Maloney (1997) disclosed that early engagement in teaching practices promoted pre-service teachers' sense of collaboration and empowerment while it also facilitated gaining recognition as a teacher and establishing positive relationships with their students. Therefore, the present study posited that contrary to the current mentoring practices in Turkey, requiring pre-service teachers to teach as early as possible might considerably contribute to pre-service teachers' confidence in their instructional capabilities and foster their development of a more thorough understanding of the teaching profession through practicum.

5.6.2. Perceptions on Observing the Cooperating Teachers

With regard to observing the cooperating teachers, the present study revealed controversial findings about how pre-service teachers perceived the observation experiences during practicum. The study clarified that different amount of time spent on observing the cooperating teachers notwithstanding, the participants in both groups

expressed favor for observing the practices of experienced teachers as this would give insights about how to carry out their own teaching practices and manage various dynamics of the classroom successfully. Anderson, Barksdale and Hite (2005) confirmed this finding as they emphasized that observing the cooperating teachers positively influenced pre-service teachers' practices through enabling them develop and integrate effective teaching practices modeled by the cooperating teachers. Yet the present study indicated that the initial favor for cooperating teacher observations seemed to fade away due to the participants' perception that the cooperating teachers mostly operated with too traditional practices, which in turn gave rise to overall dissatisfaction with the observations. Based on this finding, the present study underscored the role of selecting and recruiting appropriate cooperating teachers who could provide models of good professional practice. Although previous studies (McDaugall & Beattie, 1997; Thomas, 2000) identified a dramatic lack of cooperating teachers who could be good role models for pre-service teachers, the results in the present study confirmed that success in practicum was largely a function of working with good role models. If due attention is not paid to selecting and recruiting such good models, it is highly likely that the practicum will not make the expected contributions to pre-service teachers' professional development; rather, it may unfortunately serve to foster traditional standards and methods of teaching (Feiman-Nemser, Parker & Zeichner, 1993; Foster, 1999).

Similarly, the present study challenged the current practicum system in which observation and teaching practices formed two discrete units and pre-service teachers spent the first half of practicum on observing the cooperating teachers while they got engaged in actual teaching only in the second half. The study clearly criticized that passively observing the cooperating teachers for a whole semester without any hands-on teaching experience was impractical because it deprived pre-service teachers of opportunities to gain more practical experiences through actively being on the stage and developing an authentic understanding of actual teaching and their role as a teacher. Extending the criticism in the present study about mere observation for a whole semester, Boreen, Johnson, Niday and Potts (2009) put forward that teachers had already spent thousands of hours on observation by the time they started teaching, which implied elimination of extended observations for pre-service teachers. To help resolve possible drawbacks arising from passively observing experienced teachers, Foster (1999) recommended that the cooperating teachers serve as a fellow enquirer and

encourage pre-service teachers to develop their own teaching styles through reflectively questioning conventional norms and practices. Moreover, a broad range of studies (Arends & Rigazio-Digilio, 2000; Boreen et al., 2009; Little, 1990) communicated a need for gradually familiarizing pre-service teachers with teaching with the assertion that an abrupt entry into teaching might prove counter-productive for pre-service teachers. Little (1990) posited that engaging teachers in joint teaching with the cooperating teachers could relieve drawbacks of an early start. Moreover, Arends and Rigazio-Digilio (2000) maintained that teaching assignments in less stressful environments with less problematic students might signal a more comfortable start for pre-service teachers. As a result, the present study suggested a gradual transition model, in which pre-service teachers together with the cooperating teachers began teaching as early as possible and gradually took on more responsibilities until they felt ready for individually taking charge of a full lesson. Through this model, teacher education programs may ensure an early and gentle entry into actual teaching practices and eliminate pre-service teachers' questions about the good in observing the cooperating teachers for a long time in practicum.

The other criticism the present study conveyed about observing the cooperating teachers in practicum pointed to a lack of training on what to observe and how to observe effectively. The present study highlighted that although pre-service teachers observed the cooperating teachers for a whole semester, they did not know what to do to make the best of the observation period. Additionally, they lacked familiarity with the goals of observation and an observation checklist on which to establish their observations. Paying heed to Anderson et al.'s (2005) suggestions, the present study presumed that along with providing training on effective observation techniques, involving pre-service teachers in a combination of guided and unguided observations may be a viable alternative to increase their gains from the observations. In their study of pre-service teachers' observations in an early field experience, Anderson et al. (2005) stated that guided and unguided observations formed two ends of a continuum. While pre-service teachers would focus on any element attracting their interest in the unguided observations, they would pay attention to a specific element in the guided ones. Besides, the present study documented that providing observation tools which would broadly reflect the goals of observation and overall practicum might help to make the observations more meaningful for pre-service teachers (Jenkins et al., 2005).

5.6.3. Perceptions on Conferences with the Cooperating Teachers

Considering the conferences with the cooperating teachers, the present study revealed intriguing findings. The participants viewed the briefing and debriefing conferences to be of pivotal importance for their development because they would ideally share their plans with the cooperating teachers, reflect on and receive the teachers' feedback about their own performance, and ask for the teachers' suggestions. This was in tune with the well-documented argument that the cooperating teachers with the suggestions and feedback they offered during these conferences formed a sound resource for learning about effective teaching and thus, were a key contributor to PTE (Butt, 1994; Calderhead & Shorrock, 1997; Forbes, 2004; Goodwyn, 1997). Butt (1994) added that insights and mentoring the cooperating teachers provided during the complex practicum process was a salient complement to the teaching and supervision provided by the university supervisors.

However, the present study also indicated that despite the optimism about their contributions, the conferences with the cooperating teachers provided the participants with only limited guidance basically due to two reasons, which featured more like criticisms about the conferences. On the one hand, the cooperating teachers failed to make in-depth analysis of the pre-service teachers' performance and provided taken-for-granted suggestions for improvement. As evidenced in the literature (Gold, 1996; Hardy, 1999; McNamara, 1995), this lack of professional guidance was obviously far from responding to the participants' unanimous call for reflective feedback and input from the cooperating teachers to develop a deeper understanding of effective teaching. One might associate this lack of satisfactory guidance by the cooperating teachers with the largely neglected issue of mentor training. As the current mentoring system in Turkey did not necessarily involve the cooperating teachers in training about effective mentoring, the cooperating teachers in the present study might not have been aware of the goals and principles of how best to collaborate with pre-service teachers to foster their professional development during practicum. That's why the present study just like numerous other studies (Foster, 1999; Örsdemir-Panpallı, 2016; Weiss & Weiss, 1999) recommended that teacher education programs provide a mentor training which would ably inform the cooperating teachers of the goals and procedures of practicum and techniques and strategies to effectively help pre-service teachers develop their professional identity. Such training should also emphasize instilling in the cooperating

teachers a sense of commitment and interest to support the development of pre-service teachers.

On the other hand, the conferences appeared to be rather infrequent and haphazard now that the cooperating teachers hardly availed themselves for the conferences with the pre-service teachers. In line with previous studies (Beck & Kosnick, 2000; Boreen et al, 2009; Chubbuck, Clift, Allard, & Quinlan, 2001), this finding pointed to the necessity for scheduling regular conferences in order to prevent any adverse effect that a lack of sufficient contact with the cooperating teachers might bring about in pre-service teachers' development. Nonetheless, an additional point that merited further consideration related to the content of conferences alongside the frequency and duration. That is although it was essential to meet on a regular basis, extending the time for meeting the cooperating teachers per se would not be sufficient to promote the efficiency of practicum (Allen, Russell & Maetzke, 1997; Evertson & Smithey, 2000; Kyle, Moore & Sanders, 1999). Rather, the present study pinpointed that it was equally important for the cooperating teachers to engage in reflective dialogue with pre-service teachers and provide clear guidance aimed at fostering pre-service teachers' professional development.

Interestingly though, the present study yielded alternative choices that the pre-service teachers suggested to partly compensate for the inconveniences associated with the conferences with the cooperating teachers. The study unearthed that for the participants in the RPM group, peer conferences constituted a supplementary mechanism strong enough to provide satisfactory guidance to solve their problems. The RPM groups' emphasis on peer support verified McCarthy and Youens' (2005) qualitative study, in which pre-service teachers compared the role of their peers and the cooperating teachers and university supervisor in their development, with a particular focus on subject knowledge. They (ibid.) found out that pre-service teachers clearly preferred peer support as they perceived the cooperating teachers and university supervisor as an infrequent and less useful source of support.

In contrast to the RPM group, the participants in the TM group unanimously required more opportunities to meet the university supervisor. Beck and Kosnick's (2000) study may help to account for the TM group's argument for more conferences with the university supervisor as they (ibid.) identified that pre-service teachers viewed the university supervisor to be more helpful and accessible than the cooperating teachers. Another explanation might be that in contrast to the well-established role of

the cooperating teachers as a critical contributor to pre-service teachers' development (Borko & Mayfield, 1995; Clarke, Triggs & Nielsen, 2014), the participants in the present study might have assigned more credibility to the university supervisor than the cooperating teachers. This was probably because the participants viewed the university supervisor as a stronger source of reference with more up-to-date professional knowledge. Also, the fact that pre-service teachers ask for more supervisor efforts in teacher education programs (Göker, 2006) might provide further insight into the TM group's argument for more opportunities to meet the university supervisor. Given the differences between the RPM and TM groups, the present study tentatively concluded that the TM model currently used in Turkey, inadvertently or not, ingrained in pre-service teachers a sense of dependence by boosting up their reliance on others, particularly the university supervisor. Conversely, engagement in RPM featured to promote pre-service teachers' confidence in their own capacities as well as improving their ability to collaborate with others in order for achieving more effective performance.

As the other alternative to compensate for possible inconveniences associated with the conferences with the cooperating teachers, the present study extended its call for rotation in practicum as it suggested that teacher education programs allow pre-service teachers to change the cooperating teachers with whom they worked at certain intervals. As there can be no ideal mentor who can provide all the guidance and assistance that each and every pre-service teacher needs, it sounds plausible to enable flexible pairings during practicum. The opportunity to change the cooperating teachers without giving offence to either end of the mentoring relationship can at times be a must, particularly in cases where the relationship seems unproductive (Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1999). Furthermore, such a rotation can help pre-service teachers develop a more comprehensive conception of effective teaching through exposing them to professional ideas and perspectives of as many cooperating teachers as possible. In this regard, a possible reason why this call for mentor rotation was made specifically by the RPM might be the peer work they were engaged in. That's they worked not only with the cooperating teachers but also with their peers and thus, personally noticed additional contributions of reflectively interacting with more than one colleague to their professional identity development throughout practicum.

5.6.4. Perceptions on Peer Observation

The present study conveyed that there was an overwhelmingly positive attitude towards observing and being observed by a peer in practicum. One of the two components specific to the RPM trajectory, peer observation enabled the participants to see the strengths and weaknesses in a peer's teaching practices, which in turn improved not only the practices of the peer being observed but those of the observing peer. This finding verified the conception of peer observation as a major opportunity for learning about teaching in that it prompted valuable insights into different instructional strategies and new ideas to improve teaching effectiveness (Huston & Weaver, 2008; Neubert & Stover, 1994; Vacilotto & Cummings, 2007). Given that teachers might not always have the opportunity to do observation in the professional life despite perceived benefits in it (Zwart et al., 2009), the present study asserted that it would be promising to engage pre-service teachers in peer observation so as to provide them with an effective means of handling complexities of learning to teach in practicum. An additional benefit of peer observations might be the elimination of the risk of exceptional lessons commonly encountered in the traditional cooperating teacher or supervisor observations. That is pre-service teachers may plan an exceptionally good lesson for the supervisor or cooperating teacher observation due to their concerns about being evaluated, and this may then create a misleadingly positive impression of their performance in the cooperating teachers' or supervisors' minds (Zwart et al., 2008). However, peer observations spread the observation experiences over the whole practicum with an emphasis on improvement, rather than evaluation, of the pre-service teachers' effectiveness as a teacher. Moreover, Zwart et al. (2008) specified that along with a shift in perceptions of observation, peer observation could prove a sound tool for learning to teach as it enabled teachers to try out alternative ways of teaching in the presence of a peer and get his/her feedback about these trials.

With particular reference to the conception of peer observation as an opportunity for learning, the present study placed a premium on the comparisons the observing peers made between their own teaching and that of the observed. Consistent with findings of several studies (Forbes, 2004; Joyce & Showers, 1995), the pre-service teachers in this study seemed to keep their own practices at the forefront of their minds during peer observation because they frequently compared what they observed in their peers' teaching to their own practices and tried to learn from the peers' struggles and achievements in teaching. The prevalence of comparisons accorded with the argument that peer observations provided pre-service teachers with valuable time and space for

making in-depth analyses of what they observed and how they could improve their own teaching on the basis of these analyses (Jenkins et al. 2005; Jenkins & Veal, 2002). Furthermore, Anderson et al. (2005) stated that peer observation enhanced professional development because it enabled pre-service teachers to actually face and solve their own problems while they thought on possible suggestions to help peers resolve their struggles. Similarly, the present study unearthed that due to their awareness about the likelihood of encountering similar problems, pre-service teachers were involved in reflective thought about producing alternative suggestions to solve the problems observed in their peers' teaching. As a result, the present study contended that peer observations might motivate pre-service teachers to think flexibly during lesson planning and be open to changing their instructional practices whenever necessary.

The most prominent contribution of peer observations, as the present study revealed, was the elimination of the perceived passivity of pre-service teachers while making observations in practicum. Apparently, merely observing others teach as a passive recipient would make little contribution to pre-service teachers' professional development (Ben-Peretz & Rumney, 1991). The present study showed that peer observations necessarily required pre-service teachers to take an active stance through critically observing and taking notes for reflections in subsequent debriefing conferences. The active role pre-service teachers undertook during peer observations represented perfect match with Le Cornu's (2008) conception of recently shifting roles of pre-service teachers as "pro-active learners, empathic and skilled communicators, emotionally strong and resilient" (p. 12). Also, the present study demonstrated that during peer observations, pre-service teachers seemed to feel obliged to put themselves in the shoe of their peers and reflect on the peers' reactions against the cases emerging in the classroom as well as considering possible measures to prevent any negative consequence. Several studies (Bowman & McCormick, 2000; Kurtts & Levin, 2000; Mallette et al., 1999) confirmed this finding as they revealed that peer work enabled pre-service teachers to act as pro-active and reflective learners willing to collaborate with others. Based on these findings, the present study deduced that peer observations might help to cultivate a strong sense of empowerment and collaboration among pre-service teachers to take active role in not only their own but also their peers' development.

5.6.5. Perceptions on Peer Conference

The present study delineated that peer conferences provided worthwhile social, psychological and professional support well-tailored to pre-service teachers' specific context of teaching. This accorded with McCarthy and Youens' (2005) finding that as an underused resource, peer conferences provided valuable interactive and context-specific support. Moreover, the present study highlighted that peer conferences promoted pre-service teachers' motivation and search for alternative solutions to the problems they encountered. Given the notorious conception of practicum as a lonely struggle characterized with lack of support (Neubert & Stover, 1994; Wang & Odell, 2002), peer conferences surfaced to be instrumental in reducing pre-service teachers' loneliness during the painstaking endeavor of learning to teach. The present study also elucidated that peer conferences were inherently rewarding as they communicated pre-service teachers that the problems and concerns they grappled with were not unique to their own teaching and could be resolved through their peers' support and assistance. Hence, the present study added to the contention that peer conferences could be a critical support mechanism, especially in cases where relationships between mentor and mentees were stumbling (Prince et al., 2010).

In the same vein, the present study illustrated that peer conferences offered additional contributions to the participants' learning in practicum. Peer conferences enabled pre-service teachers to develop a more thorough understanding of their performance on the basis of reflections exchanged during these conferences. Hornberger (2002) in part justified this finding as he advocated that peer conferences facilitated the development of an in-depth analysis and understanding of teaching because discussions in peer conferences encouraged critical reflections on not only strengths but also weaknesses. Likewise, explaining observations and experiences to a peer required engagement with knowledge at a higher level of consciousness (Huston & Weaver, 2008), which might have promoted deeper understanding of teaching/ learning practices in practicum. As part of contributions to the development of a deeper understanding, several studies (Jenkins & Veal, 2002; Vacilotto & Cummings, 2007) also documented that through the reflective discussions, peer conferences helped pre-service teachers to realize critical incidents that would otherwise go unnoticed. Similarly, the present study affirmed that peer conferences increased pre-service teachers' awareness about many events which they had missed to realize while grappling with the challenges and anxiety of initial teaching experiences in the classroom.

Besides, the present study ascertained that peer conferences had a profound

impact on the participants' development of methodological knowledge. A large number of studies (Hasbrouck, 1997; Jenkins et al., 2005; Lee & Choi, 2013) reported gains in pre-service teachers' knowledge about instructional strategies, techniques and approaches as a result of engagement in peer conferences. However, what made the findings in the present study especially valuable was the insight it provided into exactly how peer conferences enabled pre-service teachers improve their knowledge of methodology. The present study unveiled that the need to justify their discussions and suggestions in peer conferences encouraged pre-service teachers to refer to the knowledge of effective teaching methodology they had learned at the methodology courses. In so doing, they resorted to various resources including internet, their previous notes from the methodology courses and books on methodology. Therefore, the present study inferred that all these efforts improved the pre-service teachers' knowledge base about instructional methodology as well as promoting recall of previous knowledge (Neubert & Stover, 1994).

Moreover, the present study identified noticeable preference for holding conferences with someone of equal knowledge and experience. A large number of studies validated this finding by reporting high pre-service teacher satisfaction with peer conferences (Göker, 2006; Zwart et al., 2008) and a desire to continue to use it in their professional career (Britton & Anderson, 2010; Jenkins, 2002). Underlying the pre-service teachers' positive attitude towards peer conferences, the present study noted various reasons. One of the most salient reasons contributing to the perceived value of peer conferences was consistency of the conferences. The present study pointed out that considered a proxy for the success of peer paired placements (Neubert & Stover, 1994; Walsh, Elmslie & Tayler, 2002), regularly scheduled peer conferences prior to and following each teaching practice gave pre-service teachers ample time and opportunities to meet their peers to discuss, share opinions and exchange feedback on their performance. Previous studies (Vidmar, 2006; Walsh & Elmslie, 2005) also cited regular peer conferences as a primary benefit of peer mentoring, since these conferences yielded several positive outcomes such as promoting positive instructional changes, fostering overall success of peers and improving effectiveness of practicum. Assuming that mere reliance on insufficient guidance and support the cooperating teachers and supervisors offered in the relatively rare conferences they held with pre-service teachers would do a major disservice (Bowman & McCormick, 2000; Thobega & Miller, 2008), the present study recommended that teacher education programs should emphasize

regularly scheduled peer conferences for successful practicum.

The present study showed that setting own goals for practicum practices was another sound factor for the participants' preference for peer conferences. Similar to findings of several other studies (Chubbuck et al., 2001; Huston & Weaver, 2008; Parker et al., 2014), selecting their own goals instead of any pre-determined or generalized goals featured to be an essential and remarkably beneficial aspect of effective mentoring experiences. In effect, working with an externally selected focus would urge pre-service teachers to closely follow pedagogical approaches of the cooperating teachers without questioning or trying out new ways of teaching (Beck & Kosnick, 2000), which would then constitute a grave constraint on pre-service teachers' development. Yet, the present study conveyed that giving pre-service teachers freedom of selecting their own goals enabled them to work on issues of individual need or interest, which would in turn improve their effectiveness as a teacher. More importantly, Parker et al. (2014) specified that merely having frequent conferences would not suffice for effective peer mentoring; instead, selecting goals that would contribute to the development of both peers and commitment to achieve the goals were also equally important. Nevertheless, a critical point to take into consideration might be that enabling pre-service teachers to select their own goals would in no way free the cooperating teachers and university supervisors of their responsibilities to guide and support pre-service teachers. Rather, the cooperating teachers and university supervisors should ensure that pre-service teachers select goals that are observable and achievable (Donegan et al., 2000) and provide suggestions about alternative ways of achieving these goals.

The present study clarified that the friendly atmosphere in peer conferences was also major contributor to the participants' preference for peer conferences. Peer conferences provided a safe forum for disclosing opinions and exchanging feedback about their performance. Quite a few studies (Brittion & Anderson, 2010; McCarthy & Youens, 2005; Slater & Simmons, 2001) confirmed that the relatively stress-free and non-evaluative environment in peer conferences was a key factor stimulating pre-service teachers to engage in critical dialogue and review their opinions and practices together with a peer. Encouraged by the companionship embedded in the very nature of peer conferences, pre-service teachers could easily ask questions that they would normally not ask to the cooperating teachers or university supervisor for the fear of negative evaluation (McCarthy & Youens, 2005). Moreover, the present study

ascertained that peer conferences gave pre-service teachers the comfort to discuss not only positive but also negative aspects of their teaching practices. This might have given them the impetus for positive changes in their practices now that instructional change towards improvement would flourish through reflective dialogues in a non-evaluative environment (Donegan et al., 2000; Huston & Weaver, 2008).

Closely associated with the friendly atmosphere, the opportunity to select the peers in RPM practices surfaced to be another crucial element contributing to the participants' preference for peer conferences. The present study explicitly indicated that a 'forced marriage' would act as a great constraint on peer conference, which required voluntarily scheduling time to reciprocally evaluate and promote one another's effectiveness as a teacher. Numerous studies (Jenkins, 2002; Parker et al., 2014; Wynn & Kromrey, 2000) underscored the vitality of the opportunity to select peers for the success of RPM practices. However, a more critical stance to the issue of peer selection unearthed a severe lack of agreement on matching peers with similarities or differences as both would offer unique benefits and drawbacks. Vacilotto and Cummings (2007) prioritized an emphasis on differences on the ground that matching pre-service teachers with different backgrounds and experiences would enrich peers' learning by complementing each other's weaknesses. Conversely, researchers (Lu, 2010; Nguyen & Baldauf, 2010; Topping, 2005) arguing for matching peers with similarities purported that dissatisfaction arising from working with a partner of different personality, need, goal and interest would create insurmountable barriers between peers and thus, undermine the effectiveness of RPM. Instead, the present study posited that giving pre-service teachers the authority to select the peer with whom they would work with would enhance their satisfaction with the RPM practices and overall success in practicum (Parker et al., 2014; Walsh et al., 2002). Similarly, the present study pinpointed that working with a peer who had vast knowledge about one's plans, activities and causes underlying his/her classroom actions was another major reason favoring peer conferences. Working with such knowledgeable peers might have contributed to the perceived value of peer conferences because it engendered shared learning and joint construction of meaning, which Le Cornu and Ewing (2008) considered a prerequisite for true reciprocal learning relationships.

As a priori for RPM practices, reciprocity was the other salient reason underlying the participants' preference for peer conferences. The present study made it clear that the notion of reciprocity was the hallmark of all RPM practices and enriched

pre-service teachers' learning in practicum. In the absence of true reciprocity, one side would always be giving and the other merely receiving, which would take the peer relationship nowhere beyond the traditional model of transmitting knowledge from the wise one to the less experienced partner (Le Cornu, 2005). The present study further indicated that engaging pre-service teachers in both roles of mentor and mentee promoted collaboration as they not only received but also provided support for mutual improvement as a teacher. This was consistent with previous studies (Hendrickson, Sroka & Gable, 1988; Jewett & Macphee, 2012; Le Cornu, 2005), which reported mutual benefits for both peers arising from the two-way interactions of giving and receiving support in peer conferences. Shedding light on the role of reciprocity in establishing collaboration between peers, Le Cornu (2005) explicated that the notion of reciprocity fostered a sense of empathy and responsibility for peers' learning apart from one's own learning. Similarly, the present study evinced that reciprocity enhanced pre-service teachers' confidence in their own capacity as they were able to assist their peers on the basis of their own knowledge and skills. Studying peer relationships in various career areas, Kram and Isabella (1985) confirmed that reciprocity crucially contributed to peers' competence and expertise as well as their professional identity development.

The abovementioned contributions and preference for peer conferences notwithstanding, the present study conveyed that peer conferences were not risk-free as they presented some drawbacks requiring specific consideration. One of the two major drawbacks associated with peer conferences related to finding mutually appropriate time for the conferences. That is to say, it was challenging for pre-service teachers to arrange time to hold the conferences partly due to their heavy workload and other responsibilities in the final year of their teacher education program. Apparently, time commitment was quite a common drawback, which several studies (Forbes, 2004; Heirsfield et al., 2008; Kurtts & Levin, 2000) documented to act as a barrier to effective functioning of the RPM practices.

Luckily though, the present study unraveled some insider suggestions that could possibly help to overcome the issue about time commitment for peer conferences. Firstly, pre-service teachers arranged to engage in RPM in practicum should enjoy the opportunity to select their peer who should preferably be compatible in terms of coursework schedule and proximity (Britton & Anderson, 2010). Also, they might negotiate with the cooperating teachers and university supervisor about flexibility in the practicum program because this would facilitate their endeavor to find mutually

appropriate time for peer conferences (Lu, 2010). The present study premised that further negotiation could be about the way pre-service teachers' hold the conferences. That's pre-service teachers should have the freedom to choose how they hold the conferences (Le Cornu, 2005). Although a certain amount of face-to-face contact is vital, pre-service teachers can alternatively hold peer conferences through virtual communication technologies and phone calls (Hooker, 2014; Le Cornu, Mayer & White, 2000). Considering the demanding nature of all briefing, observation and debriefing activities embedded in RPM practices (Foster, 1999; Ovens, 2004), another viable suggestion to ease the time constraints of peer conferences might be to reduce pre-service teachers' workload in other courses that run concurrent with the practicum period.

The other drawback, as the present study revealed, was the perceived lack of support from their peers, particularly for classroom management. This finding consisted with previous studies (Kurtts & Levin, 2000; Neubert & Stover, 1994) which showed that peer conferences fell short of meeting expectations about peer support and guidance for some reasons including peers' lack of confidence or professional knowledge to give feedback. Nonetheless, the participants' dissatisfaction with peer conferences due to insufficient support about classroom management was undoubtedly no surprise. As stated earlier, a vast amount of research (Forbes, 2004; Jenkins & Veal, 2002; Valencic & Vogrinc, 2007) identified classroom management as the pre-dominant concern not only for pre-service but also novice and even experienced teachers. Likewise, Anderson et al. (2005) found that during their observations of the cooperating teachers, pre-service teachers engaged in peer relationships focused mostly on how the cooperating teachers achieved classroom management. More importantly, the present study cautioned that although it was still a salient finding, the participants' dissatisfaction with peer conferences required tentative elaboration because the participants partaking in peer conferences reported no actual instance of extreme management problems, for which they assumed the peers' support would not suffice to suggest a practical solution.

The present study assumed that a possible reason underlying the participants' dissatisfaction with peer conferences might be that being new to the RPM practices as well as actual teaching practices, the participants might have recognized a need for an authority to make the ultimate comment and thus, reported dissatisfaction with peer conferences. Several studies (Forbes, 2004; Henning, Weidner & Jones, 2006; Swafford, Maltsberger, Button, & Furgerson, 1997) confirmed this stance as they

conveyed that despite harboring relatively positive attitudes towards working with peers, teachers perceived additional value to get affirmation from a more experienced peer. Moreover, part of the reason for pre-service teachers' dissatisfaction with peer conferences might be attributable to PTE programs. As Lu (2010) has formulated, teacher education programs might be deficient in cultivating in pre-service teachers certain features including confidence in their knowledge and skills, and RPM merely brings such deficiencies to the fore. To compensate for such deficiencies, however, the present study suggested that teacher education programs offer a methodology course concurrently with practicum so that pre-service teachers could find a platform to disclose frustrations and seek for resolutions for their struggles in practicum (Bowman & McCormick, 2000; Lu, 2010).

Under the light of all the above-mentioned pros and cons of peer conferences, the present study clearly suggested that regular peer conference should be an integral part of teacher education as its benefits far-outweighed the perceived drawbacks of scheduling appropriate time and insufficient assistance in terms of classroom management (Jenkins et al., 2005). Numerous studies (Britton & Anderson, 2010; Göker, 2006; Nguyen, 2013) reiterated this suggestion as they unanimously conveyed that peer conference was highly instrumental in minimizing pre-service teachers' loneliness and frustration against the challenges of actual teaching in practicum. Peer conference also engendered mutual collaboration, experimentation with new ways of teaching, critical reflection and constructive feedback as aspects of pre-service teachers' overall professional development (Jenkins & Veal, 2002; Kurtts & Levin, 2000; Vacilotto & Cummings, 2007). Finally, the present study underlined that given the well-documented paucity of support from the cooperating teachers and university supervisor due to their heavy workload and time restrictions (Bowman & McCormick, 2000; Hasbrouck 1997), peer conference would form an effective support mechanism helping pre-service teachers to undertake more productive practicum experiences.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

6.1. Introduction

This chapter recaps the overall findings in the light of the discussion made in the previous chapter. The first section summarizes specific conclusions the present study has drawn about teacher efficacy beliefs and teaching concerns development throughout practicum. Moreover, it gives insights into the implementation of RPM in practicum. The other section outlines possible implications the present study has yielded as well as the recommendations for further study.

6.2. Conclusions

The present study revealed significant changes in the efficacy beliefs of the RPM and TM groups as a result of their experiences in practicum. However, it was worth noticing that the changes were not uniform for both groups i.e. the RPM and TM groups showed significant differences depending on the practicum trajectories through which each group undertook the practicum experiences. Whereas the RPM group reported a significant increase, there was a statistically significant decline in the TM group's overall efficacy. The significantly positive changes in the RPM group's efficacy beliefs in contrast to the negative changes in the TM group confirmed that carefully structured intervention programs which prioritized pre-service teachers' needs, goals and concerns would yield positive results in efficacy development during practicum placements. The results underlined that engaging pre-service teachers' in such programs at a stage where their efficacy beliefs were still malleable might imply better performance for their professional life because positive changes in efficacy beliefs were sound predictors of better performance (Gist & Mitchell, 1992).

Additionally, the controversial changes in the efficacy beliefs of each group were similarly sustained in the dimensions of efficacy. More specifically, the RPM group's efficacy in student engagement, instructional strategies and classroom management significantly increased as a result of practicum experiences within the RPM model. Conversely, the TM group showed a statistically significant decrease in

their efficacy in student engagement and classroom management. The only dimension in which the TM group reported a significant increase was their efficacy in instructional practices, which was to a large extent attributable to their confidence in their knowledge of methodology and joy of observing the students' learning as a result of their teaching practices.

The decline in efficacy beliefs of the TM group reinforced the well-documented 'reality shock' scenario associated with initial teaching experiences. The initial optimism of the TM group seemed to fade away as they grappled with the demands of actual teaching, which was largely due to the limited number of teaching experiences and relatively little access to other sources of information such as the cooperating teachers and university supervisor within the traditional model of practicum placements. Similarly, the decline in efficacy beliefs of the TM group might have been related to discrepancies between the idealized conditions in teacher education programs and actual classrooms. Although the pre-service teachers initially had an idealized view of teaching, the challenges they encountered in the classroom might have undermined their efficacy beliefs. Considering the major differences between the perceived efficacy beliefs of the RPM and TM groups as well as within group differences, the present study also surmised that efficacy beliefs were task- and context-specific (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998) and thus, involving pre-service teachers in different activity types in different contexts might result in enhanced efficacy beliefs.

In line with the Integrated Model suggested by Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998), the present study unearthed considerable differences between the RPM and TM groups regarding the sources of information they resorted to for judgments about their efficacy. That's different activities embedded in different practicum trajectories influenced the amount of access pre-service teachers had to various sources of efficacy information during practicum. This in part contrasted Bandura's (1997) emphasis on mastery experiences as the strongest source of efficacy information. Although mastery experiences constituted a salient source for both the RPM and TM groups, the present study ascertained that various other factors including the amount and quality of social support from significant others, observations of good role models and interpretations of emotional arousals were instrumental in determining the influence each source exerted on pre-service teachers' judgments about their efficacy. Accordingly, the RPM group made specific references to social/verbal persuasion as the main source of efficacy information whereas the TM group referred primarily to mastery experiences, which

assigned certain role to the type of practicum trajectory in shaping the pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs. A tentative conclusion about the TM group's emphasis on mastery experiences might relate to the unanimous complaints about a lack of sufficient support and guidance as well as a lack of good role models in the traditional practicum placements. Put it differently, mastery experiences might have featured as the most reliable source of efficacy information for the TM group because they iteratively reported a lack of sufficient support and guidance from the cooperating teachers and supervisors besides observing mostly traditional practices of the cooperating teachers regarded as role models.

With respect to the RPM group's favor for social/verbal persuasion as the strongest source of efficacy information, the present study purported that incorporation of additional factors (such as peer work in the case of this study) would enhance pre-service teachers' development of more positive efficacy beliefs about themselves as a teacher. Particularly during practicum placements where pre-service teachers had limited mastery experiences, support from social sources could make valuable contributions to handling pre-service teachers' sense of vulnerability and promoting their efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1989; Ross & Bruce, 2007). Furthermore, the present study clarified that apart from the quantity, the quality of social support was of crucial importance. Although it was important to provide pre-service teachers' with as much feedback and reflection as possible from different resources including the cooperating teachers, university supervisor and peers, it was equally vital that such feedback and reflection be nonrestrictive and constructive for development of more positive efficacy beliefs during practicum. Nevertheless, the present study intriguingly unearthed a major distinction between the cooperating teachers and university supervisor regarding their role as a source of social/verbal persuasion in pre-service teachers' efficacy development during practicum. Previous research (Borko & Mayfield, 1995; Clarke, Triggs & Nielsen, 2014) placed substantial emphasis on the role of the cooperating teachers over that of the university supervisor. Accordingly, the present study highlighted that once performing the ideal role expected of them, the cooperating teachers would prove relatively more informative than the university supervisor since they spent more time with pre-service teachers and had much more awareness about them whereas the university supervisor traditionally observed and met pre-service teachers only twice a year.

In the same vein, the present study unraveled that vicarious experiences formed

a prominent supplementary source affecting pre-service teachers' judgments about their efficacy. Despite the limitations including low reliability due to no hands-on experience and functioning only in combination with other sources, vicarious experiences did surface as a major source informing pre-service teachers about their efficacy as a teacher. However, the present study put forward that satisfaction with vicarious experiences was a direct function of the effectiveness of model(s) to be observed and the match between the observer and the one to be observed. In other words, the model(s) should display effective teaching practices, which would comply with the ideal practices of pre-service teachers rather than mere repetitions of traditional practices. Also, the model(s) should closely match with pre-service teachers' needs, goals and abilities as the participants in the present study reported considerable satisfaction with observing peers with similar strengths and weaknesses. Last but not the least, the present study demonstrated that physiological and emotional arousals proved the least informative source probably because arousals exerted influence on teacher efficacy beliefs only through the way pre-service teachers interpreted the arousals (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Based on these findings, the present study concluded that it was prerequisite to enhance pre-service teachers' efficacy development during practicum through intervention programs providing multiple sources of efficacy information. To this end, RPM featured to be a sound alternative to TM practices for various reasons. On the one hand, it provided pre-service teachers with extensive mastery experiences in the form of teaching practices. On the other hand, it offered considerable social/verbal persuasion deriving from regular pre- and post-conferences with peers. On the still other hand, it engaged pre-service teachers in vicarious experiences through observing peers with similar needs and interests along with cooperation with a peer of equal power to share their physiological and emotional arousals.

Regarding pre-service teachers' concern development throughout practicum, the present study ascertained that pre-service teachers concurrently held concerns of all 3 types (i.e. self, task and impact). This supplemented the call for reconsidering concern stages as broad guidelines rather than hierarchical stages (Hardy, 1996). Except for 3 issues exclusive to the self-concerns of the RPM group, the present study illustrated that pre-service teachers mainly referred to similar concerns regardless of the mentoring model within which they took practicum. The issues the present study revealed in each concern category showed that some concerns, particularly those in lower concern stages

including classroom management, recognition as a teacher and building rapport with students, were characteristic to all pre-service teachers. Thusly, the present study underlined that it might be reasonable to initially identify and address these characteristic concerns for a more fruitful concern development in practicum.

Of the issues within self-concern category, classroom management featured as the issue which concerned pre-service teachers the most throughout practicum. Intriguingly, though, the present study premised that pre-service teachers were in a deep confusion about the boundaries of classroom management. They basically equated classroom management to handling student misbehaviors and enforcing their authority to ensure discipline in the classroom. This confusion required shedding light on how comprehensive a term classroom management was in order to enable pre-service teachers to discern that student misbehaviors and discipline formed a fraction of the broad term classroom management (Goh & Matthews, 2011). While being observed was also a major concern for pre-service teachers, the present study unearthed that pre-service teachers made a distinction between concerns about observation by the cooperating teachers and supervisor. Being observed by the supervisor aggravated pre-service teachers' self-concerns because of their fear of negative evaluation and assessment. The present study assumed that instead of the perfunctory twice-a-year model, more frequent visits by the university supervisor might help pre-service teachers feel more comfortable about supervisory observations. As for observations by the cooperating teachers, pre-service teachers' concern stemmed from a fear of interferences the cooperating teachers could make to their teaching practices. The present study emphasized that increasing the cooperating teachers' awareness about possible detriments of their interferences on pre-service teachers might at least help to minimize such worries.

Relationships between students and teachers play a critical role in achieving teaching/learning objectives (Brekelmans et al., 2002). Accordingly, the present study indicated that gaining recognition as a teacher and establishing positive relationships with students constituted strong sources of self-concerns during practicum. The concerns about gaining recognition and relationships with students might have derived from a lack of sufficient time in the practicum school because it might be too idealistic to expect pre-service teachers to gain the students' favor and acceptance as a full-fledged teacher through the visits they paid to the school only once a week for a few hours. Likewise, the participants in the RPM group also stated concerns about the

relationships between students themselves. The present study deemed that empowering pre-service teachers with the extended teaching practices and active observations in the classroom might have promoted their awareness about the role of mediating student relationships as a factor affecting teaching/learning practices in the classroom. Therefore, the present study maintained that pros and cons of concerns about mediating relationships between students themselves merited further consideration as an additional outcome of RPM practices.

Moreover, practice of teaching per se surfaced as a paramount issue affecting pre-service teachers' self-concerns during practicum. More surprisingly, the participants who enjoyed more teaching practices worried specifically about their lack of hands-on experience in teaching. The present study unraveled that the time spent in practicum schools, particularly in actual teaching practices made pre-service teachers notice the gaps between theory and actual teaching. However, the present study supported that there might be no better suggestion than providing more hands-on practices to help pre-service teachers develop a functional understanding of how to abridge these gaps in their own classrooms (Bogess et al., 1985). Additionally, content knowledge was a pre-dominant issue aggravating pre-service teachers' self-concerns. The fact that the ELT pre-service teachers in the present study paradoxically worried about teaching certain grammatical structures and language skills yielded the conclusion that teaching concerns were subject-specific. Hence, the present study assumed that it might be essential for teacher education programs to probe into and address these subject-specific challenges to supplement pre-service teachers' progression towards more mature concerns.

The present study unearthed that task concerns were the least concern-inducing category throughout practicum, which was partly attributable to pre-service teachers' mastery of pedagogical content knowledge and confidence in their teaching skills (Campbell & Thompson, 2007). Although the present study identified five major issues as relevant to the task of teaching, the present study confirmed that some issues were typical of teaching in a Turkish context (Boz, 2008). This finding further corroborated that teaching concerns were context-specific and thus, required specific treatment in accordance with the exclusive conditions under which pre-service teachers would perform. Of the five major task concerns identified in the present study, time management was obviously the issue about which pre-service teachers felt most apprehensive. However, the present study specified that the reason for concerns about

time management was not only insufficient time for teaching but also pre-service teachers' own lack of ability to effectively use the time.

Furthermore, the practicum school itself appeared to be a major issue exacerbating task concerns during practicum. In particular, factors like insufficient technical infrastructure, special days/events, schedule changes and administrative interruptions in the practicum schools aggravated the challenge of teaching. These factors formed insurmountable hindrances for pre-service teachers on the ground that with relative lack of experience in teaching, they could hardly modify their plans or improvise alternatives to cope with these hindrances. The present study cautioned that placements in schools where such hindrances were common could undermine the gains pre-service teachers would make from practicum experiences. Similarly, the number of students in the classroom was also a prominent task concern for pre-service teachers. Though common wisdom might suggest placing pre-service teachers in specifically designed classrooms, the present study denoted that placements in authentic classrooms could prove more functional to help them develop practical strategies to handle challenges of actual teaching early in their career (Capel, 1998b).

Interest in implementing curriculum might positively affect pre-service teachers by focusing their attention on alternative curricular opportunities (Conway & Clark, 2003). In the present study, however, over-reliance on curriculum and course book merely amplified task concerns. The participants' reflections illustrated that the cooperating teachers' emphasis on keeping up with the curriculum might have been a chief reason urging pre-service teachers to rigidly fit with the curriculum. Instead, the present study purported that it could be more conducive for successfully handling task concerns if the cooperating teachers allowed pre-service teachers more creativity and flexibility to make modifications in the curriculum and course book activities as long as they served overall learning objectives. By the same token, the present study found activities and materials as the other issue aggravating pre-service teachers' task concerns in practicum. In essence, finding and designing functional activities and materials featured to be a well-entrenched challenge for pre-service teachers (Çelik, 2008; Watzke, 2007). Hence, the present study posited that ample opportunities to design and implement their own activities early in material design courses of PTE programs could give pre-service teachers practical insights about which activities and materials would work in actual classrooms and how they could make up for the non-functioning ones.

With respect to impact concerns, the participants in the present study reported genuine concerns about positively influencing student learning from the onset of practicum though there were fluctuations in the intensity of their concerns throughout the process. As impact concerns were predictors of effective teaching (Borich, 1992; Fuller, 1970), it was worthwhile to realize that pre-service teachers unanimously referred to student learning as a predominant concern. More surprisingly, the present study unearthed that despite spending a relatively limited time in the practicum school, pre-service teachers expressed sound concerns about identifying and addressing diverse interests and needs of individual students in order to ensure maximal student gains from their teaching. Similarly, the present study clarified that pre-service teachers perceived it concern-provoking to recognize cognitive, social and affective needs of different age groups and refine their teaching in accordance with the specifics of the developmental level their students were in.

By the same token, pre-service teachers seemed to be pre-occupied with delivering lessons that would appeal to all students because they overwhelmingly worried about diverse student interests. The present study hypothesized that it was of vital importance to promote pre-service teachers' awareness about varying their teaching methods, techniques and activities as a way to accommodate diverse student interests in their lessons (Anhalt & Peretz, 2013), which could in turn alleviate their concerns about student interests. Last but not the least, the pre-service teachers in the present study reported a shift in their justification of their concerns about using the target language. Whereas they initially ascribed their concerns about target language use to their own inadequacy in teaching through the target language, the participants subsequently reported concerns about target language due to their worry that the students would not be able understand instruction in the medium of the target language. The shift in their justifications signified a growing sophistication in pre-service teachers' concerns as a result of practicum experiences. Hence, the present study confirmed that teaching concerns were not stable; rather, shifts could occur in the nature of teaching concerns with more time and practices in the field (Capel, 2001; Guillaume & Rudney, 1993).

In contrast to the major overlaps in terms of the issues they reported in each concern category, pre-service teachers in the RPM and TM groups showed statistically significant differences in their concern development. While there was statistically significant decline in overall concern means of the RPM group, there was a significant

increase in the TM group at the end of practicum. Perplexingly, the increase in TM group's overall concern means signaled that the more experience they gained in actual classrooms, the more concerned they became. The present study suggested that reliable progress in handling concerns was not just about providing experience and time in the field; instead, it would require improving the quality of the experiences and time in order to successfully handle lower concerns and develop more mature concerns. In this regard, pre-service teachers in the RPM group actively observed one other's teaching and systematically exchanged views and critical reflections on how to improve their teaching besides the teaching practices, mere observations of the cooperating teachers and haphazard conferences with the cooperating teachers common to both groups. Therefore, the present study proved that engrossment in RPM protocols offered valuable alternatives to ensure a smooth progress towards more mature concerns and overall professional development.

With specific reference to the changes in teaching concerns categories, there was a statistically significant decline in the RPM group's self-concerns contrary to the significant increase in the TM group. The present study attributed the difference between the self-concerns of the two groups to the difference in the nature of teaching and mentoring practices they were engaged in during practicum. As there could be no replacement to hands-on experiences (Bogess et al., 1985), the extended teaching practices might have enabled the RPM group to gain more confidence in themselves whereas a mere lack of sufficient teaching experiences might have aggravated the TM group's hesitation about their adequacy as a teacher. Likewise, the opportunity to observe a peer handle similar issues might have further convinced the RPM group of their own ability to have what it would take to resolve self-related issues. In contrast, merely observing the cooperating teachers' practices which allegedly contradicted recent teaching methodologies might have exacerbated the TM group's questions about their capacity to be effective teachers. Also, regular peer conferences in the case of the RPM group in contrast to the haphazard conferences the TM group had with the cooperating teachers might have helped to realistically identify possible sources of self-inadequacies and devise strategies to make up for them.

With recourse to task concerns, the RPM group reported a statistically significant decline whereas the TM group had significantly higher concerns at the end of practicum. The present study reasoned that extended teaching practices might be a chief reason underlying the significant differences. Put it simply, extended teaching

practices might have increased the RPM group's awareness about which instructional methods and techniques would work in the classroom whereas limited teaching opportunities might have undermined the TM group's struggle to resolve their task-related issues. Additionally, observing the cooperating teachers' practices might have been another factor triggering the increase in the TM group's task concerns in that the teachers' practices conveyed strong conformity with certain types of practices and helplessness against contextual hindrances such as lack of technical facilities and administrative interruptions. Moreover, peer conferences with the opportunity for setting own goals might have helped the RPM group elaborate specifically on issues restricting their teaching performance whereas limited practical suggestions the conferences with the cooperating teachers provided might have fallen short of responding the TM group's questions about various teaching tasks.

As to the other concern category, there was a significant increase in impact concerns of the RPM group while there was no significant change in the TM group. With relatively high impact concerns in both groups at the end of practicum, the present study confirmed the inference that impact concerns would remain high and constant in all stages of teacher education (Pigge & Marso, 1986). Regarding the significant increase in the RPM group's impact concerns, extended teaching practices might have promoted pre-service teachers' interest in planning lessons that would satisfactorily live up to diverse student needs and interests. Peer observations might have also promoted the growth in impact concerns through cultivating inspiration for engaging all the students in learning including the so-called poor or unmotivated learners. Furthermore, the regular conferences the RPM group had with their peers might have prompted in-depth discussions about how to make the lessons more beneficial for the students. However, the invariantly high impact concerns in contrast to the significant increases in self and task concerns of the TM group connoted with the presumption that without hands-on experiences, pre-service teachers' concerns would be idealized (Fuller, 1970; Capel, 2001) and thus, give limited insights into their progression as a professional. As a consequence, the present study premised that different mentoring practices in practicum would contribute to pre-service teacher's concerns development differently. While those taking practicum through TM model started with higher impact concerns and reverted to lower concerns in the course of time, the RPM group explicitly revealed a progress towards more mature concerns most probably as a result of the RPM practices they had throughout practicum. Finally, the present study elucidated that lack

of sufficient support from the cooperating teachers who had mastered highly advanced concerns might have been a serious constraint restricting progress the pre-service teachers in both groups could have made in terms of handling impact concerns during practicum.

With regard to pre-service teachers' perceptions about practicum, the present study emphasized basically three components as key factors including teaching practices, observations and pre-/post-teaching conferences. Teaching practices were by far the most critical component for constructing an effective teacher identity. They featured as the hallmark of professional development through empowering pre-service teachers to get an authentic understanding of teaching and teacher role, establish their teaching styles and integrate theoretical knowledge into practice. The present study specified that teaching practices in different classrooms and grade levels could promote pre-service teachers' familiarity with various student profiles and contextual factors and thus, alleviate possible frustrations they would feel in cases of unexpected classroom events. Likewise, the present study highlighted that an earlier onset of teaching practices in practicum could markedly present more opportunities for pre-service teachers to realize their strengths and weaknesses and develop strategies to improve their effectiveness as a teacher.

Considering the observations during practicum, the present study discerned radically different perceptions about observing the cooperating teachers and observing peers. Pre-service teachers' initial favor for observing an experienced teacher to get insights about how to manage various classroom dynamics in their own teaching gradually waned due to seemingly traditional practices the cooperating teachers implemented in their classrooms. The dissatisfaction with observing the cooperating teachers clearly pointed to the need for matching pre-service teachers with mentors who should essentially be models of good practice (Foster, 1999). Apparently, lack of an observation checklist and training on effective observation strategies surfaced as factors amplifying pre-service teachers' dissatisfaction with observing the cooperating teachers. Moreover, there were severe criticisms about the TM model owing to the division of practicum into two discrete units as observation and teaching. Pre-service teachers perceived it as impractical to spend a whole term merely on observing the cooperating teachers and then proceed to teaching practices in the second term of practicum. Given the thousands of hours pre-service teachers had spent on observing teacher practices before practicum (Boreen et al., 2009), the present study recommended restructuring the

TM model in a way to require less observations of the cooperating teachers and gradually more hands-on experiences in collaboration with the cooperating teachers.

Conversely, the present study revealed an overwhelmingly positive attitude towards peer observation. A unique benefit of peer observation was the opportunity to make comparisons between one's own and peers' teaching practices (Forbes, 2004), which enabled pre-service teachers to get insights about different instructional strategies and new ideas for improving their teaching. Thusly, peer observation seemed to hold a sound potential to spark reflective thought because of the likelihood that in their own teaching practices, pre-service teachers could encounter problems similar to those arising in their peers' teaching. Furthermore, peer observation spread over the whole practicum period emphasized improvement over evaluation and minimized the misleadingly positive impressions deriving from exceptional lessons commonly encountered in supervisory observations in the TM model (Zwart et al., 2008). Nevertheless, the present study unearthed that the premium contribution of peer observation lay in the elimination of perceived passivity of pre-service teachers during observations. In contrast to observing the cooperating teachers, peer observation necessitated pre-service teachers to critically observe the peers and actively take notes as their observation provided input for the reflections they would subsequently make on the peers' performance. The active role peers undertook during peer observation connoted with more recent perception of pre-service teachers as proactive learners rather than mere recipients of knowledge (Le Cornu, 2008).

As with the third component of practicum, pre-/post conferences formed a prominent resource feeding into pre-service teachers' professional development. Yet the present study revealed drastically different perceptions about the conferences based on the person with whom pre-service teachers held the conferences. Regarding the conferences with the cooperating teachers, pre-service teachers attached pivotal importance to the conferences for ideally sharing their plans, reflecting on their performance and receiving feedback and suggestions for their improvement. Despite the optimism about their contributions, the present study intriguingly found that the conferences with the cooperating teachers provided only limited guidance and support. The study hinted that the perceived lack of satisfactory guidance and support in conferences with the cooperating teachers fundamentally stemmed from two reasons including failure of the cooperating teachers in making in-depth analysis of pre-service teachers' performance and the infrequent and haphazard nature of the conferences. As a

result, the present study strongly concurred with the calls for mentor training (Weiss & Weiss, 1999) and ensuring regular conferences between the cooperating teachers and pre-service teachers (Beck & Kosnick, 2000).

With respect to peer conferences, however, the present study pointed to a remarkable preference among pre-service teachers who took practicum within the RPM model. The present study identified several reasons for the overt preference for peer conferences including consistency, setting own goals, friendly atmosphere, opportunity to select the peers, working with knowledgeable peers, and reciprocity. The present study elucidated that peer conferences functioned as a critical support mechanism providing substantial social, psychological and professional support enhancing pre-service teachers' development in practicum. Reflective dialogues with peers during regular peer conferences ensured a better understanding of teaching as they enabled deeper engagement with knowledge and notification of critical events that would otherwise go unnoticed (Jenkins & Veal, 2002). However, the present study formulated two perceived drawbacks associated with peer conferences; namely, the difficulty in scheduling mutually appropriate time for the conferences and unsatisfactory peer support in classroom management. The perceived drawbacks notwithstanding, the present study postulated that peer conferences would be a viable support mechanism in the paucity of sufficient support from the cooperating teachers and university supervisor (Jenkins et al., 2005; Prince et al., 2010).

6.3. Implications

Teacher efficacy beliefs are malleable in early phases of teaching and once established, they are unlikely to change unless some adverse situations trigger confusion and reevaluation of efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1997; Woolfolk Hoy & Murphy, 2001). In particular, the practicum period, during which pre-service teachers have their initial contact with actual classrooms through observations and hands-on teaching practices, offers invaluable opportunities to develop a realistic understanding of teaching/learning. The present study suggested that in this period, it was vital to increase the number of sources from which pre-service teachers would elicit enriched information and make more informed judgments about their efficacy beliefs. To this end, engaging pre-service teachers in varied activity types in different contexts surfaced as a critical factor to help them make successful task analysis and competence assessment. Similarly, engagement

in various activity types in different contexts would do a great service to help pre-service teachers realize and resolve concerns of all three types at the same time because the present study well-documented concurrent occurrence of different concern types. It would also encourage pre-service teachers to experiment with different teaching techniques and strategies and gain hands-on experience about what aspects of their theoretical knowledge would work in actual classrooms and what would not. The present study revealed that thanks to its relatively stress-free climate and substantial support from someone of equal status, RPM could be a viable model promoting such experimentation. Instead of confining pre-service teachers to the practices of TM model, which is already staggering due to various criticisms including highly hierarchical structure and lack of due support (Le Cornu, 2005), it might be more profitable to supplement TM with RPM practices so as to enhance pre-service teachers' efficacy development.

Guskey (1985) purported that it would take considerable time and support to make changes in one's efficacy beliefs. The TM model currently used in PTE in Turkey, however, provided limited opportunities for teaching practices and relatively less support from significant others. In this model, pre-service teachers obviously did not have enough time to see influence of their teaching on students and evaluate their effectiveness as a teacher. Therefore, the TM model seemed to fall short of effectively supporting pre-service teachers' efficacy development in practicum. Instead, the present study proposed that it was essential to incorporate alternative mentoring models that would give pre-service teachers ample time and opportunities for teaching, reflecting on their performance and receiving suggestions for improving their effectiveness. With this in mind, RPM practices in the present study engaged pre-service teachers in actual teaching practices and regular peer conferences beginning from the initial weeks of practicum, which enabled pre-service teachers to construct more positive efficacy beliefs. However, the present study cautioned that a top-down requirement to start teaching from the first day of practicum would certainly have its own risks (Little, 1990). As a result, the present study suggested that a gradual transition model, in which pre-service teachers should initially begin teaching in collaboration with the cooperating teachers and gradually take on more responsibilities before individually teaching full lessons, might be more promising to make the best of teaching practices.

The present study specified that an earlier onset with teaching practices in practicum might also offer invaluable opportunities to help pre-service teachers achieve

a smoother progression from lower concerns to more mature concerns about teaching. Considering the depth of concerns about the practice of teaching itself, the present study put forth that increasing the number of teaching practices might be the best solution to promote pre-service teachers' awareness about various classroom events and possible strategies to resolve unexpected problems. More importantly, the present study projected widespread criticisms about the TM model in that teaching practices confined to the second term of practicum provided only fractional understanding of how the decisions pre-service teachers made based on their theoretical knowledge and previous experiences could resolve the problems they encountered in teaching practices. Apparently, there was a dire need for more hands-on practices giving pre-service teachers practical insights about how well their decisions fitted their purpose and what else they should do to improve their performance. Hence, the present study pinpointed that the RPM model might prove an effective support mechanism to fill in this huge gap in the TM trajectory through an earlier start with teaching in practicum (Benedetti & Reed, 1998).

An interesting suggestion to contribute to the critical role teaching practices would play in pre-service teachers' development referred to adoption of a rotation model. The present study evinced that teacher education programs might design practicum placements in a way to allow periodically changing the classroom in which pre-service teachers would teach. Furthering the concept of rotation, changes might also engage pre-service teachers in teaching at different grade levels. One the one hand, such rotations in teaching practices might profoundly contribute to pre-service teachers' concerns development as they could facilitate development of personal strategies to handle challenges of teaching students of different age groups. On the other hand, these rotations might reinforce pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs because success in teaching various classrooms could promote pre-service teachers' confidence in their teaching skills. Consequently, one can assume that once due attention is paid, a rotation model of teaching practices across classrooms and grade levels might signal stronger overall professional development during practicum.

Emphasizing the role of collaborative work in pre-service teachers' development in practicum, the present study pinpointed that the quality as well as quantity of social support and assistance was of primary consideration for successful efficacy beliefs development in practicum. Given that support targeted at individual goals and interests would better meet pre-service teachers' needs (McCarthy & Youens, 2005), the regular

conferences with peers provided substantial context-specific feedback that delineated each peer's strengths and weaknesses and ways to make up for the weaknesses. Likewise, the notification that peer feedback was by no means formulated as prescriptions but rather as suggestions increased pre-service teachers' likelihood of picking up those suggestions. The present study posited that PTE programs incorporate peer work to ensure reciprocal exchange of sufficient, context-specific support in practicum. More importantly, RPM featured to be a cost-effective model because such peer work did not consume the highly stuffed schedule of the cooperating teachers and university supervisor or require additional institutional resources (i.e. time, money etc.) for training. Besides, the present study affirmed that peer work embedded in the very nature of the RPM model could enable PTE programs to go a long way to reduce pre-service teachers' dissatisfaction with practicum simply because of the well-known lack of interaction with the cooperating teachers and university supervisor (Charalambaos et al., 2008; Phan & Locke, 2015). Apparently, regular peer conferences held before and after each teaching practice made stronger contributions to pre-service teachers' efficacy development than did the conferences with the cooperating teachers, which were typically reported to be quite haphazard and poor in content, or the mini conferences with the university supervisor.

In addition to peer conferences, the present study yielded some alternative options that could help to make the conferences with the cooperating teachers and university supervisor more functional for pre-service teachers' development. Considering the widespread dissatisfaction with the guidance and support the conferences provided, the present study postulated that mentor training programs should be designed to inform the cooperating teachers about the goals, procedures and principles of effective mentoring (Örsdemir-Panpallı, 2016; Weiss & Weiss, 1999). Likewise, the present study asserted that enabling mentor rotation, particularly in cases of unproductive relationships between the cooperating teachers and pre-service teachers, could offer sound opportunities to support pre-service teachers' development in practicum. As each teacher has his/her own teaching style, changing the cooperating teacher at certain intervals without giving offence to either side of the relationships might give pre-service teachers a more comprehensive conception of teaching and thus, better guide them to handle various concerns they have about teaching. Given the TM group's unanimous call for more opportunities to meet the university supervisor, the present study also posited that more active involvement of the supervisor through

frequent conferences with pre-service teachers might function as a worthwhile compensation for perceived inconveniences of the conferences with the cooperating teachers.

Observing others teach per se provides a supplementary source for efficacy development as it provides no hands-on experience (Bandura 1977, 1982). However, the present study yielded specific suggestions to strengthen the impact of observing others' practices on pre-service teachers' own practices and efficacy beliefs. Firstly, the present study unearthed that although they would spend a full term on observing others in practicum, pre-service teachers gravely lacked knowledge of what to observe and how to observe effectively. Therefore, the present study asserted that providing training on effective observation techniques could serve a major function in reducing pre-service teachers' concerns about observations. Similarly, it might prove equally beneficial to provide pre-service teachers with an observation checklist that would aptly mirror the goals of practicum, specific context of the practicum school and overall teaching philosophy of their teacher education program. Yet the present study cautioned that the observation checklist should only broadly formulate what to observe, since too specific a checklist might focus pre-service teachers' attention on certain aspects of teaching and restrict their development. Furthermore, the present study highlighted that effectiveness of the model to be observed was a key factor determining the extent to which observation would contribute to the efficacy beliefs of the observer (Feiman-Nemser et al. 1993; McDaugall & Beattie, 1997). This implied that PTE programs should pay substantial attention to selecting cooperating teachers who implemented 'ideal' teaching practices, which in the case of this study referred to practices successfully representing the latest teaching methods and approaches.

Another suggestion the present study made emphasized ensuring a close match between the role model (i.e. the cooperating teachers in practicum) and pre-service teachers. Put it simply, PTE programs should place pre-service teachers with cooperating teachers who they could closely identify with in terms of personality, interests and philosophy of teaching. Considering that a close match between mentors and mentees was one of the biggest hindrances for effective mentoring (Ehrich, Hansford & Tennent, 2004; Long, 1994), the present study extended its suggestion about mentor rotation. The study advocated that enabling pre-service teachers to work with more than one cooperating teachers might be a noticeable solution. Regarding the issue of the match between the model being observed and observer, the present study

further premised that peer observations as a major component of the RPM model might be an equally promising solution. As pre-service teachers were more likely to have common interests, goals and concerns with a peer of equal status than an experienced teacher, they could more closely identify with the success and struggles of the peers and thus, form more realistic efficacy beliefs. More importantly, the present study emphasized the integration of peer observations into practicum because it held sound potential to reduce the perceived passivity of the observer during observations. With the awareness that peer observations would give the necessary input for the upcoming peer conference, the observer would feel obliged to critically observe his/her peers' teaching and note down strengths and weaknesses as well as reflectively contemplating on ways to fix the weaknesses.

As for being observed, the present study identified aggravated concerns basically stemming from the act of being observed by an authority. In the first place, the present study highlighted a drastic distinction between observations by the cooperating teachers and university supervisor. Pre-service teachers seemed to emphasize the supervisor's observations over those of the cooperating teachers because of their concerns about getting a favorable assessment out of the supervisor's observations. Such a fragmented view of observation could unfortunately undermine possible gains that pre-service teachers could make from observations. The present study argued that some role might be assigned to the cooperating teachers' observations in the overall evaluation and assessment of pre-service teachers' achievement in practicum. This role could help pre-service teachers recognize that the cooperating teachers' observations are important because they formed the basis of suggestions the teachers would make for the neophytes' improvement.

Nonetheless, the distinction pre-service teachers made between being observed by the cooperating teachers and university supervisor was worth noticing in that the underlying reasons for the distinction offered sound implications for alleviating pre-service teachers' concerns about being observed. Pre-service teachers expressed concerns about being observed by the cooperating teachers due to their worries about the teachers' interventions while they were still on the stage grappling with the challenges of teaching actual classrooms. The present study necessitated that mentor training programs emphasizing collaborative mentoring approaches should be offered in order to create in the cooperating teachers awareness about negative consequences of these undesired interventions on pre-service teachers' performance and concerns

development. Regarding concerns about being observed by the university supervisor, however, pre-service teachers worried about creating a negative impression in the supervisor and thus, failing to receive a passing mark. Apparently, being observed by the university supervisor was also concern-provoking because it occurred only twice throughout the whole practicum year. The present study suggested that an alternative supervisory observation model with a non-graded evaluation might substantially reduce pre-service teachers' concerns about being observed by the university supervisor. At the same time, increasing the length and number of supervisory observations could be beneficial (MacDonald, Baker & Stewart, 1995). It might contribute to pre-service teachers' conception of supervisory observations as a source of practical feedback for improvement in contrast to viewing them as a menace disturbing the peace in their classrooms. Furthermore, the present study pointed out that peer observation might be a worthwhile enhancement for reducing pre-service teachers' concerns about being observed. More precisely, frequent observations by a peer of equal power and authority would not only have no formal bearings on the assessment of their ultimate success or failure in practicum but also eliminate worries about undesired interventions.

Additionally, the present study pointed to a need for reconsidering the content of PTE programs. Given the overwhelming concerns about classroom management, the present study asserted that it could be promising to offer a classroom management course that would run concurrently with practicum. However, it is of paramount importance that this course should allow pre-service teachers to share the problems they encountered in actual classrooms and develop own solutions through discussions with peers and teacher educators instead of being spoon-fed with generic suggestions. Likewise, the present study presumed that more active university supervisor involvement might serve a worthwhile function to resolve pre-service teachers' misconception about classroom management. With more support from the supervisor, pre-service teachers could make more accurate interpretations about the comprehensive issue of classroom management, rather than viewing it as the mere act of handling student misbehaviors and enforcing discipline. Another suggestion to improve teacher education programs required increased emphasis on effective time management. As pre-service teachers reported concerns not only about little time for teaching but their own ability, the present study conveyed that specific reference to effective time management strategies might have profound impact on supplementing pre-service teachers' progress towards more mature concerns. Finally, the present study underlined that inclusion of a

course/training on characteristic features of different age groups might prove instrumental in ensuring more effective PTE programs. Although ELT teachers in Turkey has equal possibility to work in primary, elementary and high schools, PTE programs offer no specialization in one of these radically different groups nor give pre-service teachers a chance to prefer one over the others. Therefore, the present study corroborated that an additional course/training which would shed particular light on identifying and addressing cognitive, social and affective needs of different age groups in accordance with their developmental levels might be essentially informative about handling teaching concerns.

Relationships between teachers and students undoubtedly form a critical factor affecting the success of teaching/learning practices (Brekelmans et al, 2002). The present study revealed that pre-service teachers placed great emphasis on the relationships in the classroom as they reported high concerns about not only their relationships with the students and being recognized as a teacher but also mediating the relationships among the students themselves. Nevertheless, the traditional practice of visiting the practicum school once a week and for a few hours surfaced as a major constraint on establishing positive relationships and gaining due recognition as a teacher. Alternatively, the present study hypothesized that extending pre-service teachers' visits to more than one day a week might enable more time in the classroom. Presumably, more frequent visits could promote mutual familiarity between the students and pre-service teachers and facilitate the students' acceptance of the latter as individual teachers.

Finally, the present study contributed to the teaching concerns literature as it corroborated that teaching concerns were subject-specific. Based on the perplexingly high concerns about teaching certain grammatical structures and language skills among pre-service ELT teachers, the present study necessitated that teacher education programs should determine possible challenges exclusive to pre-service teachers' subject of specialization and provide vast support specifically tailored to handle these challenges. In the same vein, the present study clarified that the context of teaching considerably affected the concerns pre-service teachers expressed about teaching. With recourse to Boz's (2008) argument about concerns typical to teaching in a Turkish context, the present study placed major emphasis on the selection of practicum schools. Selecting well-established schools with a sound technical infrastructure and little schedule changes or administrative interruptions might prominently contribute to pre-

service teachers' efforts to handle concerns about the challenging task of teaching.

REFERENCES

Acheson, K. A. & Gall, M. D. (1997). *Techniques in the clinical supervision of teachers: Preservice and insevice applications* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Wiley & Sons.

Ackland, A. (1991). A review of the peer coaching literature. *Journal of Staff Development, 12*(1), 22-26

Ajzen, I. (2002). Perceived Behavioral Control, Self-Efficacy, Locus of Control, and the Theory of Planned Behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 32*(4), 665-683.

Akbari, R., & Allvar, N. K. (2010). L2 Teacher characteristics as predictors of students' achievement outcomes. *The Electronic Journal for English as a Second Language, 13*(4), 1-22.

Akgün, A., Gönen, S. & Aydın, M. (2007). İlköğretim fen ve matematik öğretmenliği öğrencilerinin kaygı düzeylerinin bazı değişkenlere göre incelenmesi. *Elektronik Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi, 6*(20), 283-299.

Aldan Karademir, Ç. (2013). *The effect of pre-service teachers' inquiry and critical thinking skills on teacher self efficacy levels.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation: Adnan Menderes Unversity, Aydın.

Allen, T. D., Russell, J. A. & Maetzke, S. (1997). Formal peer mentoring: Factors related to protégés' satisfaction and willingness to mentor other. *Group and Organization Management, 22*, 488-507.

Allinder, R. (1994). The relationship between efficacy and the instructional practices of special education teachers and consultants. *Teacher Education and Special Education, 17*, 86-95.

Alpan, B. G. Özer, A., Erdamar, K. G. & Subaşı, G. (2014). The development of a student teacher concerns scale. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 54, 151-170.

Ambrosetti, A. & Dekkers, J. (2010). The interconnectedness of the roles of mentors and mentees in pre-service teacher education mentoring relationship. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 35*(6), 42-55.

Anderson, N. A., Barksdale, M. A. & Hite, C. E. (2005). Preservice teachers' observations of cooperating teachers and peers while participating in an early field experience. *Teacher Education Quarterly, 32*(4), 97-117.

Anderson, R., Greene, M. & Loewen, P. (1988). Relationships among teachers' and students' thinking skills, sense of efficacy, and student achievement. *The Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 34*(2), 148-165.

Angelique, H., Kyle, K. & Taylor, E. (2002). Mentors and muses: New strategies for academic success. *Innovative Higher Education, 26*(3), 195-209.

Anhalt, C. O. & Perez, M. E. R. (2013). K-8 teachers' concerns about teaching Lationa/a students. *Journal of Urban Mathematics Education, 6*(2), 42-62.

Arends, R. I. & Rigazio-Digilio, A. J. (2000). Beginning teacher induction: Research and examples of contemporary practices. Paper presented at the *Annual Meeting of the Japan-United Stated Teacher Education Consortium*, Tokyo.

Armor, D., Conry-Oseguera, P., Cox, M., King, N., McDonnell, L., Pascal, A., Pauly, E. & Zellman, G. (1976). *Analysis of the school preferred reading program in selected los angeles minority schools* (Rep. No. R-2007-LAUSD). Santa Monica, CA: RAND. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 130243).

Arsal, Z. (2014). Microteaching and pre-service teachers' sense of self-efficacy in teaching. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 37*(4), 453-464.

Ashton, P. (1985). Motivation and the teacher's sense of efficacy. In C. Ames & R. Ames (Eds.), *Research on Motivation in Education: Vol. 2. The Classroom Milieu* (pp. 141-174). Orlando, FL: Academic Press.

Ashton, P., Buhr, D. & Crocker, L. (1984). Teachers' sense of efficacy: a self- or norm-referenced construct?, *Florida Journal of Educational Research, 26*(1), 29-41.

Ashton, P. & Webb, R. (1986). *Making a difference: teachers' sense of efficacy and student achievement*. New York: Longman.

Askvig, B. A. & Grant, L. (1999). Peer coaching training manual: Lecture and slides. ERIC Doc. No: ED458771. Retrieved from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED458771.pdf on 22.06.2017.

Aslan, A. (2012). The effect of concern levels on professional development of teachers. *Journal of Educational and Instructional Studies in the World, 2*(4), 160-167.

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. (1999). *Mentoring to improve schools*. Alexandria, VA: ASDC.

Atay, D. (2007). Beginning teacher efficacy and the practicum in an EFL context. *Teacher Development, 11*(2), 203-219.

Ayers, W. (2001). *To teach: The journey of a teacher*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Baltacı Göktalay, S. & Cangur, S. (2008). Assessing the reliability and validity of the Turkish version of the stages of concern questionnaire. *Euarsian Journal of Educational Research*, *33*, 57-72.

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: towards a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, *84*(2), 191-215.

Bandura, A. (1982). Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. *American Psychologist, 37*(2),122-147.

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: a social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ. Prentice Hall.

Bandura, A. (1989). Social cognitive theory. In R. Vasta (Ed.), *Annals of Child Development. Vol. 6. Six Theories of Child Development* (pp. 1-60). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. *Educational Psychologist, 28*(2), 117-148.

Bandura, A. (1994). Self-eficacy. In V. S. Ramachaudran (Ed.), *Enyclopedia of Human Behavior, 4*, 71-81. New York: Academic Press. (Reprinted in H. Friedman (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Mental Health*. San Diego: Academic Press, 1998).

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: the exercise of control*. New York: W. H. Freeman.

Bandura, A. (1999). Social cognitive theory: an agentic perspective. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology, 2*, 21-41.

Baum, A. C. & McMurray-Schwarz, P. (2004). Preservice teachers' beliefs about family involvement for teacher education. *Early Childhood Education Journal, 32*(1), 57-61.

Beacham, B. G., Thomson, W. S. & Misulis, K. E. (1992). A university and public school collaborative approach to preparing elementary teachers. ERIC Doc: ED357021. Retrived from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED357021.pdf on 05.04.2016.

Beauchamps, L., Klassen, R., Parsons, J., Durksen, T. & Taylor, L. (2014). Exploring the development of teacher efficacy through professional learning experiences: Final report. Retrieved from http://www.teachers.ab.ca/SiteCollectionDocuments/ATA/Publications/Professional-Development/PD-86-29%20teacher%20efficacy%20final%20report%20SM.pdf on 05.04.2016.

Beck, C. & Kosnick, C. (2000). Associate teachers in pre-service education: Clarifying

and enhancing their role. *Journal of Education for Teaching: International Research and Pedagogy*, *26*(3), 207-224.

Beck, C. & Kosnick, C. (2002). Components of a good practicum placement: Student teacher perceptions. *Teacher Education Quarterly, 29*(2), 81-98.

Beckers, J. M. (1996). Peer coaching for improvement of teaching and learning. Retrieved from http://teachersnetwork.org/tnli/research/growth/becker.htm on 09.09.2014.

Behets, D. (1990). Concerns of preservice physical education teachers. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education, 10*(1), 66-75.

Benedetti, T. A. & Reed, M. K. (1998). Supervising student teachers using peer coaching. Paper presented at the *Annual Meeting of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics* (76th), Washington, DC.

Ben-Peretz, M. & Rumney, S. (1991). Professional thinking in guided practice. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 7*, 517-530.

Berman, P. & McLaughlin, M. W. (1978). *Federal programs supporting educational change: Vol. III. Factors Affecting Implementation and Continuation (Rep. No. R-1589/8-HEW).* Santa Monica, CA: RAND.

Berman, P., McLaughlin, M. W., Bass, G., Pauly, E. & Zellman, G. (1977). *Federal programs supporting educational change: vol. vii. factors affecting implementation and continuation* (Rep. No. R-1589/7-HEW). Santa Monica, CA: RAND. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 140432).

Bogess, T. E., McBride, R. E. & Griffey, D. C. (1985). The concerns of physical education student teachers: A developmental view. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education, 4*, 202-211.

Boreen, J., Johnson, M. K., Niday, D. & Potts, J. (2009). *Mentoring beginning teachers: Guiding, Reflecting, Coaching*. Portland: Stenhouse Publishers.

Borich, G. D. (1992). *Effective teaching methods* (2nd Ed.). Columbus, OH: Macmillan.

Borich, G. D. (2000). *Effective teaching methods* (4th Ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill/Prentice Hall.

Borich, G. D. & Tombari, M. L. (1997). *Educational psychology: A contemporary approach* (2nd Ed.). New York, NY: Longman.

Borko, H. & Mayfield, V. (1995). The roles of the cooperating teacher and university supervisor in learning to teach. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 11*(5), 501-518.

Bowman, C. L. & McCormick, S. (2000). Comparison of peer coaching versus traditional supervision effects. *The Journal of Educational Research, 93*(4), 256-561.

Boz, Y. (2008). Turkish student teachers' concerns about teaching. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 31*(4), 367-377.

Boz, Y. & Boz, N. (2010). The nature of the relationship between teaching concerns and sense of efficacy. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 33*(3), 279-291.

Bray, J. & Hall, S. (1995). A comparison of teacher concerns for the nontraditional student teacher and the traditional student teacher. *Retrieved from http://eric.ed.gov/?id = ED390844*.

Brekelmans, M., Wubbels, T. & Den Brok, P. (2002). Teacher experience and the teacher-student relationship in the classroom environment. In S. C. Goh & M. S. Khine (Eds.), *Studies in Educational Learning Environments: An International Perspective*. Singapore: World Scientific.

Britton, L. R. & Anderson, K. A. (2010). Peer coaching and pre-service teachers: Examining an underutilised concept. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 26*, 306-314.

Bromfield, C. (2006). PGCE secondary trainee teachers and effective behaviour management: An evaluation and commentary. *Support for Learning, 21*(4), 188-193.

Brouwers, A. & Tomic, W. (2000). A longitudinal study of teacher burnout and perceived self-efficacy in classroom management. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 16*, 239-253.

Brouwers, A. & Tomic, W. (2001). The factorial validity of scores on the teacher interpersonal self-efficacy scale. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 61*(3), 433-445.

Buhendwa, F. M. (1996). Stages of concerns in preservice teacher development: Instrument reliability and validity in a small private liberal arts college. Paper presented at *the Conference of the National Center on Postsecondary Learning, University Park*.

Bullough, R. V. (1997). Becoming a teacher: Self and the social location of teacher education. In B. J. Biddle, T. L. Good. & I. F. Goodson (Eds.), *The international handbooks of teachers and teaching* (pp. 79-134). Dordrecht, Netherlands: Kluwer.

Burden, P. R. (1982). Developmental supervision: Reducing teacher stress at different career stages. Paper presented at *the Annual Meeting of the Association of Teacher Educators*, Phoenix, AZ.

Burden, P. R. (1990). Teacher development. In R. Houston, M. Haberman & J. Sikula (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 311-328). New York: Macmillan.

Burn, K. Hagger, H. & Mutton, T. (2003). The complex development of student-teachers' thinking. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, 9(4), 309-331.

Butler, E. D. & Smith, D. L. (1989). A study of factors associated with fifth year-teacher interns' concerns, problems and stress. Paper presented at the *Annual Meeting of the American Education Research Association*, San Francisco.

Butt, G. (1994). The role of the higher education tutor. In A. Williams (Ed.), *Perspectives on Partnership: Secondary Initial Teacher Training*. London: Falmer Press.

Cabaroğlu, N. (2012). Prospective EFL teachers' perceptions of classroom management and misbehavior. *Çukurova University Faculty of Education Journal, 41*(1), 117-132).

Cabi, E. & Yalçınalp, S. (2013). Occupational anxiety scale for prospective teachers: A study on validity and reliability. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 44*, 85-96.

Calderhead, J. & Shorrock, S. (1997). *Understanding Teacher Education*. London: Falmer Press.

Campbell, J. (1996). A comparison of teacher efficacy for pre and in-service teachers in Scotland and America. *Education, 117*(1), 2-11.

Campbell, M. R. & Thompson, L. K. (2007). Perceived concerns of pre-service music education teachers: A cross-sectional study. *Journal of Research in Music Education, 55*(2), 162-176.

Campbell-Evans, G. & Maloney, C. (1997). An alternative practicum curriculum: Exploring roles and relationships. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 25*(1), 35-52.

Cantrell, P., Young, S. & Moore, A. (2003). Factors affecting science teaching efficacy of preservice elementary teachers. *Journal of Science Teacher Education, 14*(3), 177-192.

Capa Aydın, Y. Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2005). What predicts student teacher self-efficacy?

Academic Exchange Quarterly, *9*(4), 123-127.

Capel, S. A. (1997). Changes in Students' Anxieties and Concerns after Their First and Second Teaching Practices. *Educational Research, 39*(2), 211-228.

Capel, (1998a). A Longitudinal Study of the Stage of Development or Concern of Secondary PE Students. *European Journal of Physical Education, 3*(2), 185-199.

Capel, S. (1998b). The transition from student teacher to newly qualified teacher: Some findings. *Journal of In-Service Education, 24*(3), 393-412.

Capel, S. (2001). Secondary Students' Development as Teachers over the Course of a PGCE Year. *Educational Research, 43*(3), 247-261.

Caprara, G. V., Barbaranelli, C., Borgogni, L. & Steca, P. (2003). Efficacy beliefs as determinants of teachers' job satisfaction. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 95*, 821-832.

Caprara, G. V., Barbaranelli, C., Steca, P. & Malone, P. S. (2006). Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs as determinants of job satisfaction and students' academic achievement: A study at the school level. *Journal of School Psychology, 44*, 473-490.

Carroll, D. (2005). Learning through interactive talk: A school-based mentor teacher study group as a context for professional learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 21*(5), 457-473.

Carter, M. & Francis, R. (2001). Mentoring and beginning teachers' workplace learning. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 29*(3), 249-262.

Celep, C. (2002). *Sınıf yönetimi ve disiplini*. Ankara: Anı Yayıncılık.

Cerit, Y. (2010). Teacher efficacy scale: the study of validity and reliability and preservice classroom teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. *Journal of Theory and Practice in Education, 6*(1), 68-85.

Cevher- Kalburan, N. (2014). Early childhood pre-service teachers' concerns and solutions to overcome them (the case of Pamukkale University). *South African Journal of Education, 34*(1), 1-18.

Ceylandağ, F. R. (2009). *Teacher self-efficacy beliefs toward measurement and evaluation process.* Unpublished MA thesis: Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Chacon, C. T. (2005). Teachers' perceived efficacy among English as a foreign language teachers in middle schools in Venezuela. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 21*, 257-272.

Chan, D. W. (2008). General, collective, and domain-specific teacher self-efficacy among Chinese prospective and in-service teachers in Hong Kong. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 24*, 1057-1069.

Chan, K-W. (2004). Teacher professional development: In-service teachers' motives, perceptions and concerns about teaching. *Hong Kong Teachers' Centre Journal, 3*, 56-71.

Chan, K.-W. & Leung, M.-T. (1998). Hong Kong preservice teachers' focus of concerns and confidence to teach- A perspective of teacher development. Paper presented at *the Australian Association for Research in Education,* Adelaide.

Charalambaos, C. Y., Philippou, G. N. & Kyriakides, L. (2008). Tracing the development of preservice teachers' efficacy beliefs in teaching mathematics during fieldwork. *Educational Studies in Mathematics, 67*(2), 125-142.

Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory: A practical guide through qualitative analysis*. London: Sage.

Cheung, H. Y. (2008). Teacher efficacy: A comparative study of Hong Kong and Shanghai primary school teachers. *The Australian Educational Researcher, 35*(1), 103-123.

Cho, Y.J., Kim, M., Svinicki M. D. & Decker, M. L. (2011). Exploring teaching concerns and characteristics of graduate teaching assistants. *Teaching in Higher Education, 16*(3), 267-279.

Christou, C., Eliophotou-Menon, M. & Philippou, G. (2004). Teachers' concerns regarding the adoption of a new mathematics curriculum: An application of CBAM. *Educational Studies in Mathematics, 57*(2), 157-176.

Chubbuck, S. M., Clift, R. T., Allard, J. & Quinlan, J. (2001). Playing it safe as a novice teacher: Implications for programs for new teachers. *Journal of Teacher Education, 52*(5), 365-376.

Clarke, A., Triggs, V. & Nielsen, W. (2014). Cooperating teacher participation in teacher education: A review of the literature. *Review of Educational Research, 84*(2), 163-202.

Cochran-Smith, M. & Paris, C. L. (1995). Mentor and mentoring: Did Homer have it right. In J. Smyth (Ed.), *Critical discourses on teacher development* (pp. 181-202). London, UK: Cassell.

Cogan, M. (1973). *Clinical Supervision.* Boston, MA: Houhgton Mifflin.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison K. (2007). *Research methods in education* (6th ed.)

New York, NY: Routledge.

Coladarci, T. (1992). Teachers' sense of efficacy and commitment to teaching. *The Journal of Experimental Education, 60*(4), 323-337.

Coladarci, T. & Breton, W. (1997). Teacher efficacy, supervision, and the special education resource-room teacher. *Journal of Educational Research, 90,* 230-239.

Connor, K. R. & Kilmer, N. (2001). Elementary and secondary cooperating teacher effectiveness: Is there a difference?. Paper presented at *the Annual Meeting of the Midwestern Educational Research Association*, Chicago, USA.

Conway, P. F. & Clark, C. M. (2003). The journey inward and outward: A re-examination of Fuller's concerns-based model of teacher development. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 19*, 465-482.

Costa, A. & Garmston, R. (1992). Cognitive coaching: A strategy for reflective teaching. In *Teacher support specialist instructional handbook* (pp. 91-96). Winterville, GA: Georgia RESA.

Costa, A. L. & Garmston, R. (2002). *Cognitive coaching: A foundation for Renaissance Schools*. Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon Publishers, Inc.

Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4th ed.). Boston: Pearson.

Crowther, D. T. & Cannon, J. R. (1998). How much is enough? Preparing elementary science teachers through science practicums. Paper presented at the *Annual Meeting of the Association for Education of Teachers of Science*, Minneapolis, MN.

Çakmak, M. (2008). Concerns about teaching process: Student teachers' perspectives. *Educational Research Quarterly, 31*(3), 57-77.

Çakmak, Ö. & Hevedanlı, M. (2004). Biyoloji öğretmen adaylarının kaygılarını etkileyen etmenler. Paper presented at *XIII. Ulusal Eğitim Bilimleri Kurultayı,* Turkey.

Çapa, Y. J., Çakıroğlu, J. & Sarıkaya, H. (2005). The development and validation of a Turkish version of the Teachers' sense of efficacy scale. *Education and Science, 30 (137),* 74-81.

Çelik, M. (2008). Pre-service EFL teachers' reported concerns and stress for practicum in Turkey. *Education and Science, 33*(150), 97-109.

Çubukçu, Z. & Dönmez, A. (2011). The examination of the professional anxiety levels of teacher candidates. *Journal of Theory and Practice in Education, 7*(1), 3-25.

Dadlez, S. L. (1998). *A comparison of secondary professional development school and traditional teacher education graduates: Analysis of professional concerns and perceived problems*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation: University of California, Riverside.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2006). Constructing 21st-century teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education, 57*(3), 300-314.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2010). Teacher education and the American future. *Journal of Teacher Education, 61*(1-2), 35-47.

Darwin, A. (2000). Critical reflections on mentoring in work settings. *Adult Education Quarterly, 50*, 197-211.

de Baz, T. & El Weher, M. (2008). The effect of a practicum program at the Hashemite University on the concerns of student teachers. *Educational Sciences, 35*(2), 469-478.

Dellinger, A. B., Bobbett, J. J. Olivier, D. F. & Ellett, C. D. (2008). Measuring teachers' self-efficacy beliefs: development and use of the TEBS-Self. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 24*, 751-766.

Dembo, M. H. & Gibson, S. (1985). Teachers' sense of efficacy: an important factor in school improvement. *Elementary School Journal, 86*, 173-184.

Derosier, S. & Soslau, E. (2014). Teacher candidates speak out: Exploring concerns related to pupil learning and efficacy when learning to teach. *Education, 134*(4), 488-496.

Devos, G., Bouckenooghe, N., Engels, N., Hotton, G. & Aelterman, A. (2007). An assessment of well-being of principals in Flemish primary schools. *Journal of Educational Administration, 45*(1), 33-61.

Donegan, M. M., Ostrosky, M. M. & Fowler, S. A. (2000). Peer coaching: Teachers supporting teachers. *Young Exceptional Children, 3*(9), 9-16.

Dreyer, J. (1998). The use of mentors (experienced teachers) as school-based experts to assist student and beginning teachers. *South African Journal of Education, 18*, 109-112.

D'Rozario, V. & Wong, A. F. L. (1996). A study of practicum-related stresses in a sample of first year student teachers in Singapore. Paper presented at *the Joint ERA/AARE Conference*, Singapore.

Dunn, K. E. & Rakes, G. C. (2010). Producing caring qualified teachers: An exploration of the influence of pre-service teacher concerns on learner-centeredness.

Teaching and Teacher Education, 26, 516-521.

Dursun, S. & Karagün, E. (2012). Assessment of occupational anxiety levels of preservice teachers: A research on the students in their final year at the school of physical education and sports at Kocaeli University. *Kocaeli University Journal of Social Sciences, 24*, 93-112.

Ehrich, L. C., Hansford, B. & Tennent, L. (2004). Formal mentoring programs in education and other profession: A review of the literature. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 40*(4), 518-540.

Ekizler, F (2013). *The relationship between teaching concerns and self-efficacy levels of pre-and in-service EFL teachers.* Unpublished MA thesis: Pamukkale University, Denizli.

Emmer, E. T. & Hickman, J. (1991). Teacher efficacy in classroom management and discipline. *Educational & Psychological Measurement, 51*(3), 755-766.

Emmer, E. T. & Stough, L. M. (2001). Classroom management: A critical part of educational psychology, with implications for teacher education. *Educational Psychologist, 36*(2), 103-112.

Enochs, L. G. & Riggs, I. M. (1990). Further development of an elementary science teaching efficacy belief instrument: A preservice elementary scale. *School Science & Mathematics, 90, 694-706.*

Eslami, Z. R. & Fatahi, A. (2008). Teachers' sense of self-efficacy, English proficiency, and instructional strategies: a study of nonnative EFL teachers in Iran. *TESL-EJ, 11*(4), 1-19.

Evans, E. & Tribble, M. (1986). Perceived teaching problems, self-efficacy, and commitment to teaching among preservice teachers. *Journal of Educational Research, 80*(2), 81-85.

Evers, W. J., Brouwers, A. & Tomic, W. (2002). Burnout and self-efficacy: A study on teachers' beliefs when implementing an innovative educational system in the Netherlands. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 72,* 227-243.

Evertson, C. & Smithey, M. (2000). Mentoring effects on protégés' classroom practice: An experiential field study. *Journal of Educational Research, 93*(5), 294-304.

Ezer, H., Gilat, I. & Sagee, R. (2010). Perception of teacher education and professional identity among novice teachers. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 33*(4), 391-404.

Ezzy, D. (2002). *Qualitative analysis: Practice and innovation*. London: Routledge.

Featherstone, D., Munby, H. & Russell, T. (Eds) (1997). *Finding a Voice while Learning to Teach*. London: Falmer Press.

Feiman-Nemser, S. (2001). From preparation to practice: Designing a continuum to strengthen and sustain teaching. *Teachers College Record, 103*, 1013-1055.

Feiman-Nemser, S., Parker, M. & Zeichner, K. (1993). Are mentor teachers teacher educators?. In D. McIntyre, H. Hagga, & M. Wilken (Eds.), *Mentoring: Perspectives on school-based teacher education*, (pp. 147-165). London: Kogan Paul.

Flick, U. (1998). *An introduction to qualitative research*. London: Sage.

Fraenkel, J. R. & Wallen, N. E. (2009). *How to design and evaluate research in education* (7th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Higher Education.

Flores, M. A. (2001). Person and context in becoming a new teachers. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 27*, 135-148.

Forbes, C. T. (2004). Peer mentoring in the development of beginning secondary science teachers: Three case studies. *Mentoring and Tutoring: Partnership in Learning, 12*(2), 219-239.

Forte, A. M. & Flores, M. A. (2014). Teacher collaboration and professional development in the workplace: A study of Portuguese teachers. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 37*(1), 91-105.

Foster, R. (1999). School-based initial teacher training in England and France: Trainee teachers' perspectives compared. *Mentoring and Tutoring: Partnership in Learning, 7*(2), 131-143.

Fritz, C. A. & Miller, G. S. (2003). Concerns expressed by student teachers in agriculture. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 44*(3), 47-53.

Fuller, F. F. (1967). Intensive individualization of teacher preparation. Retrieved from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED011603.pdf on 07.26.2016.

Fuller, F. F. (1969). Concerns of teachers: A developmental conceptualization. *American Educational Resource Journal, 6*(2), 207-226.

Fuller, F. F. (1970). Personalized education for teachers: An introduction for teacher educators. Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, Texas University, Austin. *ERIC Doc. No: ED 048105.*

Fuller, F. & Bown, D. (1975). Becoming a teacher. In K. Ryan (Ed.), *Teacher education* (pp. 25-52). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Fuller, F. & Case, C. (1969). Concerns of Teachers. A manual for teacher educators:

Increasing teacher satisfaction with professional preparation by considering teachers' concerns when planning preservice and inservice education. *Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, Texas University, Austin.* Retrieved from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED040143.pdf on 07.25.2016.

Fuller, F. F., Parsons, J. S. & Watkins, J. E. (1974). Concerns of teachers: Research and Reconceptualization. *Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, Texas University, Austin.* Retrieved from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED091439.pdf on 07.27.2016.

Fuller, F. F., Peck, R. F., Bown, O. H., Menaker, S. L., White, M. M. & Veldman, D. F. (1969) Effects of personalized feedback during teacher preparation on teacher personality and teaching behavior. ERIC Doc. No: ED028148.

Furlong, J. & Maynard, T. (1995). *Mentoring student teachers.* London: Routledge.

Galbraith, P. & Anstrom, K. (1995). Peer coaching: An effective staff development model for educators of linguistically and culturally diverse students. *Directions in Language and Education, 1*(3), 1-7.

Gareis, C. R. & Grant, L. W. (2014). The efficacy of training cooperating teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 39*, 77-88.

Garmston, R. J. (1987). How administrators support peer coaching. *Educational Leadership, 44*(5), 18-26.

Garmston, R., Linder, C. & Whitaker, J. (1993). Reflections on cognitive coaching. *Educational Leadership, 51*(2), 57-61.

Gençtürk, A. & Memiş, A. (2010). An investigation of primary school teachers' teacher efficacy and job satisfaction in terms of demographic factors. *Elementary Education Online, 9*(3), 1037-1054.

George, A. (1978). *Measuring self, task, and impact concerns: A manual for use of the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire*. Austin, TX: The University of Texas at Austin Research and Development Center for Teacher Education.

George, A. (1974). *Analysis of five hypothesized factors on the Teacher Concerns Checklist, Form B*. Austin: The Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, The University of Texas at Austin.

George, A., Borich, G. D. & Fuller, F. F. (1974). Progress report on research on the teacher concerns checklist. Austin: The Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, The University of Texas at Austin

Ghaith, G. & Shaaban, K. (1999). The relationship between perceptions of teaching

concerns, teacher efficacy, and selected teacher characteristics. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 15*, 487-496.

Ghaith, G. & Yaith, H. (1997). Relationships among experience, teacher efficacy, and attitudes toward the implementation of instructional innovation. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 13*(4), 451-458.

Gibson, S. & Dembo, M. H. (1984). Teacher efficacy: A construct validation. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 76*(4), 569-582.

Giallo, R. & Little, E. (2003). Classroom behaviour problems: The relationship between preparedness, classroom experiences, and self-efficacy in graduate and student teachers. *Australian Journal of Educational and Developmental Psychology, 3*, 21-34.

Gist, M. E. & Mitchell, T. R. (1992). Self-efficacy: A theoretical analysis of its determinants and malleability. *The Academy of Management Review, 17*(2), 183-211.

Glickman, C. D., Gordon, S. P. & Ross-Gordon, J. M. (2001). *Supervision and Instructional leadership* (5th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Goddard, R. D., Hoy, W. K. & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2000). Collective teacher efficacy: Its meaning, measure, and impact on student achievement. *American Educational Research Journal, 37*(2), 479-507.

Goddard, R. D., Hoy, W. K. & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2004). Collective efficacy beliefs: Theoretical developments, empirical evidence, and future directions. *Educational Researcher, 33*(3), 3-13.

Goh, P. S. & Matthews, B. (2011). Listening to the concerns of students teachers in Malaysia during teaching practice. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 36*(3), 92-102.

Goktalay-Baltacı, S. & Cangur, S. (2008). Assessing the reliability and validity of the Turkish version of the stages of concern questionnaire. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 33, 55-72.

Gold, Y. (1996). Beginning teacher support: Attrition, mentoring and induction. In J. Sikula, T. J. Buttery, & E. Guyton (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teacher education*, (pp. 548-593). New York: Macmillan.

Goodwyn, A. (1997). *Developing English teachers: The role of mentorship in a reflective profession.* Buckingham: Open University Press.

Goos, M., Gailbraith, P. & Renshaw, P. (2002). Socially mediated metacognition:

Creating collaborative zones of proximal development in small group problem solving. *Educational Studies in Mathematics, 49*, 193-223.

Gorrell, J. & Capron, E. W. (1988). Effects of instructional type and feedback on prospective teachers self-efficacy beliefs. *Journal of Experimental Education, 56*, 120-123.

Gorrell, J. & Hwang, Y. S. (1995). A study of efficacy beliefs among preservice teachers in Korea. *Journal of Research and Development in Education, 28*, 101-105.

Göker, S. D. (2006). Impact of peer coaching on self-efficacy and instructional skills in TEFL teacher education. *System, 34*, 239-254.

Gray, P. S. Williamson, J. B., Karp, D. A. & Dalphin, J. R. (2007). *The research imagination: An introduction to qualitative and quantitative methods*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Grenfell, M. (1996). Bourdieu and initial teacher education- a post-structuralist approach. *British Educational Research Journal, 22*, 287-303.

Griffin-Jeansonne, C. & Caliste, E. R. (1984). Pupil perceptions of teachers as a function of teacher concerns. *Education, 104*(3), 250-257.

Grossman, P. L., Wilson, S. M. & Shulman, L. S. (1989). Teachers of substance: Subject matter knowledge for teaching. In M. C. Reynolds (Ed.), *Knowledge base for beginning teacher* (pp. 23-36). Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Guillaume, A. M. & Rudney, G. L. (1993). Student teachers' growth toward independence: An analysis of their changing concerns. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 9*, 65-80.

Guskey, T. R. (1985). Staff development and teacher change. *Educational Leadership, 42*(7), 57-60.

Guskey, T. R. (1987). Teacher efficacy, self-concept, and attitudes toward the implementation of mastery learning. Paper presented at the *Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association,* Washington, DC.

Guskey, T. R. & Passaro, P. (1993). Teacher efficacy: A study of construct dimensions. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Atlanta, GA, April 11-16, 1993.

Gür, G. (2008). *A study on the predictors of teachers' sense of efficacy beliefs.* Unpublished MA thesis: Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Haigh, M., Pinder, H. & McDonald, L. (2006). Practicum's contribution to students'

learning to teach. Paper presented at the *British Educational Research Association Annual Conference*, Coventry, UK. Retrieved from http://www.leeds.ac.uk/educol/documents/160597.htm on 08.05.2017.

Hall, G. E. (1979). The concerns-based approach to facilitating change. *Educational Horizons, 57*(4), 202-208.

Hall, G. E. & George, A. A. (1979). Stages of concern about the innovation: The concept, initial verification and some implications. Research and Development Center for Teacher Education. *ERIC Doc. No: ED 187716*.

Hall, G. E., George, A. A. & Rutherford, W. L. (1977). Measuring stages of concern about the innovation: A manual for use of the SoC questionnaire. The Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, The University of Texas, Austin. *Eric Doc. No: ED 147342*.

Hardy, C. (1994). The concerns of two groups of physical education pre-service teachers during their teacher education year. *Bulletin of Physical Education, 30*(1), 55-61.

Hardy, C. (1995). Types of teaching problems experienced by pre-service teachers during their predominantly school-based teaching year. *British Journal of Physical Education, 26*(4), 21-24.

Hardy, C. (1996). Trainees' concerns, experiences and needs: Implications for mentoring in physical education. In M. Mick (Ed.), *Mentoring in Physical Education: Issues and Insights*, (pp. 59-72), London: Falmer Press.

Hardy, C. A. (1999). Perceptions of physical education beginning teachers' first year of teaching: Are we doing enough to prevent early attrition?. *Teacher Development, 3*(1), 109-127.

Hargraves, D. H. (2001). A capital theory school effectiveness and improvement. *British Educational Research Journal, 27*(4), 487-503.

Harry, B., Sturges, K. M. & Klingner, J. K. (2005). Mapping the process: An exemplar of process and challenge in grounded theory analysis. *Educational Researcher, 34*(2), 3-13.

Hartsuyker, L. (2007). Top of the class: Report on the inquiry into teacher education. (Report of the House of Representatives Standing Committee on Education and Vocational Training). Retrieved from http://trove.nla.gov.au/work/26512195?selectedversion=NBD41303919 on 08.06.2017.

Hasbrouck, J. E. (1997). Mediated peer coaching for training preservice teachers. *The Journal of Special Education, 31*(2), 251-271.

Haser, C. (2010). Learning to teach in the national curriculum context. *European Journal of Teachers Education, 33*(3), 293-307.

Hawkey, K. (1995). Learning from peers: The experience of student teachers in school-based teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education, 46*(3).

Hebert, E., Lee, A. & Williamson, L. (1998). Teachers' and teacher education students' sense of efficacy: Quantitative and qualitative comparisons. *Journal of Research and Development in Education, 31*, 214-225.

Heirsfield, A. M., Walker, S., Walsh, K. & Wilss, L. (2008). Peer mentoring for first year teacher education students: The mentors' experience. *Mentoring and Tutoring: Partnership in Learning, 16*(2), 109-124.

Hendrickson, J. M., Sroka, K. & Gable, R. A. (1988). Peer coaching: A specific approach for improving teacher performance and trainee competence. Paper presented at the *Annual Florida Sraff Development Leadership Conference*, Florida.

Henning, J. M., Weidner, T. G. & Jones, J. (2006). Peer-assisted learning in athletic training clinical setting. *Athletic Training Education Journal, 41*(1), 10-108.

Henson, R. K. (2001a). Teacher self-efficacy: Substantive implications and measurement dilemmas. Paper presented at the *Annual Meeting of the Educational Research Exchange*, College Station, TX, 01.26.2001.

Henson, R. K. (2001b). Relationships between preservice teachers' self-efficacy, task analysis, and classroom management beliefs. Paper presented at the *Annual Meeting of the Southwest Educational Research Association*, New Orleans, LA.

Henson, R. K. (2001c). The effects of participation in teacher research on teacher efficacy. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 17*, 819-836.

Henson, R. K. (2002). From adolescent angst to adulthood: Substantive implications and measurement dilemmas in the development of teacher efficacy research. *Educational Psychologist, 37*(3), 137-150.

Henson, R. K., Kogan, L. R. & Vacha-Haase, T. (2001). A reliability generalization study of the teacher efficacy scale and related instruments. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 61*(3), 404-420.

Hobson, A. J., Ashby, P., Malderez, A. & Tomlinson, P. D. (2009). Mentoring beginning teachers: What we know and what we don't. *Teaching and Teacher*

Education, 25, 207-216.

Holbeche, L. (1996). Peer mentoring: The challenges and opportunities. *Career Development International, 1*, 24-27.

Hooker, T. (2014). The benefits of peer coaching as a support system for early childhood education students. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring, 12*(1), 109-122.

Hornberger, B., Askvig, B. & Arrayan, K. (2002). *Follow-up of online instruction: Effectiveness of peer coaching seminar course. Prism project technical report*. (Report No. PRISM-3). North Dakota Center for Persons with Disabilities, Minot. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 475859).

Housego, B. E. J. (1992). Monitoring student teacher feelings of preparedness to teach, personal teaching efficacy and teaching efficacy in a new secondary teacher education program. *The Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 38*, 49-64.

Hoy, W. K. & Woolfolk, A. E. (1990). Socialization of student teachers. *American Educational Research Journal, 27*, 279-300.

Hoy, W. K. & Woolfolk, A. E. (1993). Teachers' sense of efficacy and the organizational health of schools. *The Elementary School Journal, 93*(4), 355-372.

Hudson, P. & Nguyen, T. M. H. (2008). What do preservice EFL teachers expect from their mentors?. In *Proceedings of AARE Conference: Changing Climates: Education for Sustainable Futures*. Retrieved from http://www.aare.edu.au/data/publications/2008/hud08144.pdf on 09.05.2017.

Huinker, D. A. & Madison, S. K. (1997). Preparing efficacious elementary teachers in science and mathematics: The influence of methods courses. *Journal of Science Teacher Education, 8*(2), 107-126.

Huston, T. & Weaver, C. L. (2008). Peer coaching: Professional development for experienced faculty. *Innovative Higher Education, 33*(5), 5-20.

Ingersoll, R. (2001). Teacher turnover and teacher shortages: An organizational analysis. *American Educational Research Journal, 38*(3), 499-534.

Ingersoll, R. & Kralik, J. (2004). *The impact of mentoring on teacher retention: What the research says*. Denver, CO: Education Commission of the States. Retrieved from https://www.gse.upenn.edu/pdf/rmi/ECS-RMI-2004.pdf on 06.06.2017.

İnce, B. H. (2016). The perceptions of pre-service ELT teachers on different modes of peer feedback and its relation to teacher efficacy. Unpublished doctoral

dissertation: Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

James, A. I., Smith, P. K. & Radford, L. (2014). Becoming grown-ups: A qualitative study of the experiences of peer mentors. *Pastoral Care in Education: An International Journal of Personal, Social and Emotional Development, 32*(2), 104-115.

Jenkins, J. M. (2002). Peer coaching for preservice teachers in a field setting. *Journal of Sport Pedagogy, 8*, 20-37.

Jenkins, J. M., Garn, A. & Jenkins, P. (2005). Preservice teacher observations in peer coaching. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education, 24*, 2-23.

Jenkins, J. M. & Veal, M. L. (2002). Preservice teachers' PCK development during peer coaching. *Journal do Teaching in Physical Education, 22,* 49-68.

Jewett, P. & Macphee, D. (2012). Adding collaborative peer coaching to our teaching identities. *The Reading Teacher, 66*(2), 105-110.

Joyce, B. & Showers, B. (1980). Improving inservice training: The messages of research. Educational Leadership, 37(5), 379-385.

Joyce, B. & Showers, B. (1988). *Student Achievement through Staff Development.* White Plains, NY: Longman.

Joyce, B. R. & Showers, B. (1995). *Student achievement through staff development: Fundamentals of school renewal* (2nd ed.). White Plains, NY: Longman.

Joyce, B. & Showers, B. (2002). *Student Achievement through Staff Development*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Karabacak, M. S. (2014). The opinions of high school teachers in Ankara province in relation to teacher autonomy and teacher self-efficacy. Unpublished MA thesis: Ankara University, Ankara.

Karge, B. D., Sandlin, R. A. & Young, B. K. (1993). Analysis of beginning teacher concern data to restructure preservice teacher education. Paper presented at *the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association*, Atlanta, USA.

Katz, L. G. (1972). Developmental stages of preschool teachers. *ERIC Doc. No: ED 057922.*

Kayaoğlu, M. N., Kobul, M. K. & Erbay, Ş. (2013). Prospective teacher concerns: A comparative study of departments of English language teaching and language and literature. *Journal of History Culture and Art Research, 2*(2), 262-275.

Kimav, A. U. (2010). *An exploration of burnout and individual and collective teacher*

efficacy in a Turkish state university. Unpublished MA thesis: Bilkent University, Ankara.

Klassen, R. M., Bong, M., Usher, E. L., Chong, W. H., Huan, V. S. Wong, I. Y. & Georgiou, T. (2009). Exploring the validity of a teachers' self efficacy scale in five countries. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 34*(1), 67-76.

Klassen, R. M. & Chiu, M. M. (2010). Effects on teachers' self-efficacy and job satisfaction: Teacher gender, years of experience, and job stress. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 102*(3), 741-756.

Knoblauch, D. & Woolkfolk Hoy, A. (2008). "Maybe I can teach those kids." The influence of contextual factors on student teachers' efficacy beliefs. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 24*, 166-179.

Köse, İ. A. (2007). *Investigating construct validity of teachers' sense of efficacy scale across common groups.* Unpublished MA thesis: Ankara University, Ankara.

Kragler, S. & Nierenberg, I. (1999). Three junior field experiences: A comparison of student perceptions. *The Teacher Educator, 35*(1), 41-56.

Kram, K. E. & Isabella, L. A. (1985). The role of peer relationships in career development. *The Academy of Management Journal, 28*(1), 110-132.

Kurtts, S. A. & Levin, B. B. (2000). Using peer coaching with preservice teachers to develop reflective practice and collegial support. *Teaching Education, 11*(3), 297-310.

Kuru-Gönen, S. I. (2013). *A study on reflective reciprocal peer coaching: An application in pre-service English language teaching context.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation: Anadolu University, Eskişehir.

Külekçi, G. (2011). A study on pre-service English teachers' self-efficacy beliefs depending on some variables. *International Online Journal of Educational Sciences, 3*(1), 245-260.

Kyle, D., Moore, G. & Sanders, J. (1999). The role of the mentor teacher: Insights, challenges, and implications. *Peabody Journal of Education, 74*(3-4), 109-122.

Kyriacou, C. & Stephens, P. (1999). Student teachers' concerns during teaching practice. *Evaluation & Research in Education, 13*(1), 18-31.

Lamote, C. & Engels, N. (2010). The development of student: Teachers' professional identity. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 33*(1), 3-18.

Le Cornu, R. (2005). Peer mentoring: Engaging pre-service teachers in mentoring one another. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning, 13*(3), 355-366.

Le Cornu, R. (2008). The changing role of the 'student teacher' in professional experience. Paper presented at the *Australian Association for Research in Education Conference*, Brisbane.

Le Cornu, R. & Ewing, R. (2008). Reconceptualizing professional experiences in pre-service teacher education… reconstructing the past to embrace the future. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 24*(7), 1799-1812.

Le Cornu, R., Mayer, D. & White, B. (2000). ICT in the practicum in preservice teacher education. Paper presented at the *European Council for Educational Research Conference, Edinburgh.*

Lee, O. & Choi, E. (2013). Utilizing peer coaching to facilitate pre-service physical education teachers' reflection. *Asia-Pacific Educational Research, 22*(2), 147-154.

Lee, V. E., Dedrick, R. F., & Smith, J. B. (1991). The effect of the social organization of schools on teachers' efficacy and satisfaction. *Sociology of Education, 64*(3), 190-208.

Levine, A. (2006). *Educating school teachers*. New York, NY: The Education Schools Project.

Levine, M. (2002). Why invest in professional development schools?. *Educational Leadership, 6*, 65-68.

Li, S., Sun, H. & Zheng, X. (2011). A case study on design of teacher peer-coaching activities supported by a Web 2.0 community. In R. Kwan, J. Fong, L. Kwok & J. Lam (Eds.), *Hybrid Learning: ICHL 2011* (pp. 40-50), Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer.

Li, X. & Zhang, M. (2000). Effects of early field experiences on preservice teachers' efficacy beliefs: A pilot study. Paper presented at the *Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association*, New Orleans, LA, April 24-28, 2000.

Lin, H.-L. & Gorrell, J. (1997). Pre-service teachers' efficacy beliefs in Taiwan. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Mid-South Educational Research Association, Memphis, TN,.

Lin, H.-L. & Gorrell, J. (2001). Exploratory analysis of pre-service teacher efficacy in Taiwan. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 17*, 623-635.

Lin, H.-L., Gorrell, J. & Taylor, J. (2002). Influence of culture and education on U.S. and Taiwan preservice teachers' efficacy beliefs. *The Journal of Educational*

Research, 96(1), 37-46.

Lindgren, U. (2005). Experiences of beginning teachers in a school-based mentoring program in Sweden. *Educational Studies, 31*(3), 251-263.

Little, J. W. (1990). The mentor phenomenon and the social organization of teaching. *Review of Research in Education, 16*, 297-351.

Livingston, C. & Borko, H. (1989). Expert-novice differences in teaching: A cognitive analysis and implications for teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education, 40*(4), 36-42.

Long, J. (1997). The dark side of mentoring. *Australian Educational Research, 24*, 115-133.

Lotter, C. (2004). Preservice science teachers' concerns through classroom observation and student teaching: Special focus on inquiry teaching. *Science Educator, 13*(1), 29-38.

Lu, H. L. (2010). Research on peer coaching in preservice teacher education: A review of literature. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 26*, 748-753.

Luszczynska, A. & Schwarzer, R. (2005). Social cognitive theory. In M. Conner& P. Norman (Eds.), *Predicting Health Behavior* (2nd Ed.) (pp. 127-169). New York, NY: Open University Press.

MacDonald, C. (1993). Coping with stress during the teaching practicum: The student teacher's perspective. *The Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 39*(4), 407-418.

MacDonald, C. J., Baker, D. & Stewart, S. R. (1995). Student teachers in the classrooms: Associate teachers' perspectives. *McGill Journal of Education, 30*(1), 73-95.

Malderez, A. & Bodoczky, C. (1999). *Mentor courses: A resource book for teacher-trainer.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mallette, B., Maheady, L., & Harper, G. F. (1999). The effects of reciprocal peer coaching on preservice general educators' instruction of students with special learning needs. *Teacher Education and Special Education*, 22(4), 201-216.

Marso, R. N. & Pigge, F. L. (1994). Outstanding teachers' concerns about teaching at four stages of career development. Paper presented at *the Annual Conference of the Association of Teacher Educators*, Atlanta, USA.

Martin, N. K., Sass, D. A. & Schmitt, T. A. (2012). Teacher efficacy in student engagement, instructional management, student stressors, and burnout: A

theoretical model using in-class variables to predict teachers' intent-to-leave. *Teaching & Teacher Education, 28*, 546-559.

Maskan, A. K. (2007). Preservice science and math teachers' difficulties in disruptive behavior and class management. *International Journal of Educational Reform, 16*(4), 336-349.

Mau, R. Y. (1997). Concerns of student teachers: Implications for improving the practicum. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 25*(1), 53-65.

McAllister, E. A. & Neubert, G. A. (1995). *New teachers helping new teachers: Preservice peer coaching.* Bloomington, IN: EDINFO Press.

McBride, R. E., Boggess, T. E. & Griffey, D. C. (1986). Concerns of inservice physical education teachers as compared with Fuller's concern model. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education, 5*, 149-156.

McCann, T. T., Johannesen, L. R. & Ricca, B. (2005). Responding to new teachers' concerns. *Educational Leadership, 62*(8) 30-34.

McCarthy, S. & Youens, B. (2005). Strategies used by science student teachers for subject knowledge development: A focus on peer support. *Research in Science and Technological Education, 23*(2), 149-162.

McDaugall, M. & Beattie, R. S. (1997). Peer mentoring at work: The nature and outcomes of non-hierarchical developmental relationships. *Management Learning, 28*(4), 423-437.

McDonald, F. J. & Elias, P. (1983). The transition into teaching: The problems of beginning teachers and programs to solve them. Retrieved from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED257777.pdf on 07.28.2016.

McIntyre, D., Byrd, D. & Foxx, S. (1996). Field and laboratory experiences. In J. Sikula, T. Buttery & E. Guyton (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 171-193). New York, NY: Macmillian.

McIntyre, D. & Hagger, H. (1996). *Mentors in schools: Developing the profession of teaching*. London: David Fulton.

McJunkin, M. A., Justen, J. F., Strickland, H. & Justen, S. (1998). Supervisory styles preferred by student teachers. *The Clearing House, 71*, 248-250.

McNamara, D. (1995). The influence of student teachers' tutors and mentors upon their classroom practice: An exploratory study. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 11*(1), 51-61.

Meek, G. A. & Behets, D. (1999). Physical education teachers' concerns towards

teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 15*, 497-505.

Meister, D. G. & Jenks, C. (2000). Making the transition from preservice to inservice teaching: Beginning teachers' reflections. *Action in Teacher Education, 22*(3), 1-11.

Melnick, S. A. & Meister, D. G. (2008). A comparison of beginning and experienced teachers' concerns. *Education Research Quarterly, 31*(3), 40-56.

Miles, M. B. & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M. & Saldana, J. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Milner, H. R. & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2003). A case study of an African American teacher's self-efficacy, stereotype threat and persistence. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 19*, 263-276.

Mok, Y. F. (2002). Teacher growth: The formation and pursuit of personal values. *Interchange, 33*(2), 115-138.

Mok, Y. F. (2005). Teacher concerns and teacher life stages. *Research in Education, 73*, 53-72.

Moore, R. (2003). Reexamining the field experiences of preservice teachers. *Journal of Teacher Education, 54*31-42.

Moore, W. P. & Esselman, M. E. (1992). Teacher efficacy, empowerment, and a focused instructional climate: Does student achievement benefit?. Paper presented at the *Annual Conference of The American Educational Research Association*, San Francisco, CA.

Morton, L. L., Vesco, R., Williams, N. H. & Awender, M. A. (1997). Student teacher anxieties related to class management, pedagogy, evaluation, and staff relations. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 67*, 69-89.

Moseley, C., Reinke, K. & Bookout, V. (2003). The effect of teacher outdoor environmental education on elementary preservice teachers' self-efficacy. *Journal of Elementary Science Education, 15*(1), 1-14.

Mulholland, J. & Wallace, J. (2001). Teacher induction and elementary science teaching: Enhancing self-efficacy. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 17*, 243-261.

Mundt, J. (1991). The induction year- A naturalistic study of beginning secondary teachers of agriculture in Idaho. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 32*(1), 18-23.

Murray-Harvey, R. (1999). How teacher education students cope with practicum concerns. Paper presented at *the Colloquium in Field Based Education Flinders University,* Adelaide.

Murray-Harvey, R., Silins, H. & Saebel, J. (1999). A cross-cultural comparison of student concerns in the teaching practicum. *International Educational Journal, 11*(1), 32-44.

Murray-Harvey, R., Slee, P. T., Lawson, M. J., Silins, H., Banfield, G. & Russell, A. (2000). Under stress: The concerns and coping strategies of teacher education students. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 23*(1), 19-35.

Neubert, G. A. & Stover, L. T. (1994). *Peer Coaching in Teacher Education* (Fastback 371). Bloomington: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation. ERIC Doc No: ED 378140. Retrieved from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED378140.pdf on 05.04.2017.

Ngidi, D. P. & Sibaya, P. T. (2003). Student teachers anxieties related to practice teaching. *South African Journal of Education, 23*(1), 18-22.

Nguyen, H. T. M. (2013). Peer mentoring: A way forward for supporting preservice EFL teachers psychosocially during the practicum. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 38*(7), 31-44.

Nguyen, H. T. M. & Baldauf, R. B. Jr. (2010). Effective peer mentoring for EFL pre-service teachers' instructional practicum practice. *The Asian EFL Journal, 12*(3), 40-61.

Nolan, J. F. & Hillkirk, K. (1991). The effects of a reflective coaching project for veteran teachers. *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision, 7*(1), 62-76.

O'Connell, R. F. (1994). The first year of teaching: It's not what they expected. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 10*(2), 205-217.

Odell, S. J. (1992). Teacher mentoring and teacher retention. *Journal of Teacher Education, 43*(3), 200-204

Oh, S. (2011). Preservice teachers' sense of efficacy and its sources. *Psychology, 2*(3), 235-240.

Okan, Z. & Yıldırım, R. (2004). Some reflections on learning from early school experience. *International Journal of Educational Development, 24*, 603-616.

Ong, S. K., Ros, A. S., Azlian, A. A., Sharnti, K. & Ho, L. C. (2004). Trainee teachers' perceptions of the school practicum. Paper presented at the *Conference of the National Seminar on English Language Teaching*, Bangi, Malaysia.

Oosterheert, I. E. & Vermunt, J. D. (2003). Regulating knowledge growth in learning to teach: The role of dynamic sources. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice, 9*(2), 157-173.

Ortaçtepe, D. (2006). *The relationship between teacher efficacy and professional development within the scope of an in-service teacher education program.* Unpublished MA thesis: Boğaziçi University, İstanbul.

Ovens, A. (2004). Using peer coaching and action research to structure the practicum: An analysis of student teacher perceptions. *Journal of Physical Education New Zealand, 37*(1), 45-60.

Ozder, H. (2011). Self-efficacy beliefs of novice teachers and their performance in the classroom. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 36*(5), 1-15.

Örsdemir-Panpallı, E. (2016). *Becoming a mentor: An action research on enhancing an EFL teacher's mentoring skills in Turkey*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation: Çukurova University, Adana.

Özçallı, S. (2007). *Possible effects of in-service education on EFL teachers' professional development in terms of teacher efficacy and reflective thinking.* Unpublished MA thesis: Boğaziçi University, İstanbul.

Özdemir, M. (2012). *Mentor and supervisor support on the teacher self-efficacy beliefs of English pre-service teachers.* Unpublished MA thesis: Mersin University, Mersin.

Özerkan, E. (2007). *The relationship between the teacher self-efficacy and the students social studies self-concept.* Unpublished MA thesis: Trakya University, Edirne.

Öztürk, M. & Yıldırım, A. (2013). Adaptation challenges of novice teachers. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education, 28*(1), 294-307.

Paese, P. C. & Zinkgraf, S. (1991). The effect of student teaching on teacher efficacy and teacher stress. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education, 10*, 307-315.

Paris, L. (2010). Reciprocal mentoring residencies… Better transitions to teaching. *Australian Journal of Teache*r *Education,* 35(3), 14-26.

Parker, P., Douglas, T. H. & Kram, K. E. (2008). Peer coaching: A relational process for accelerating career learning. *Academy of Management Learning and Education, 7*(4), 487-503.

Parker, P., Kram, K. E. & Douglas, T. H. (2014). Peer coaching: An untapped resource for development. *Organizational Dynamics, 43*, 122-129.

Parsons, J. S. & Fuller, F. F. (1974). Concerns of teachers: Recent research on two

assessment instruments. Paper presented at *the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (59th)*, Chicago, USA.

Pendergast, D., Garvis, S. & Keogh, J. (2011). Pre-service student-teacher self-efficacy beliefs: An insight into the making of teachers. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 36*(12), 46-58.

Phan, N. T. T. & Locke, T. (2015). Sources of self-efficacy of Vietnamese EFL teachers: A qualitative study. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 52*, 73-82.

Phelps, P. H. (1991). Helping teachers excel as classroom managers. *The Clearing House: A Journal of Educational Strategies, 64*(4), 241-242.

Pierce, T. & Miller, S. P. (1994). Using peer coaching in preservice practica. *Teacher Education and Special Education, 17*, 215-223.

Pietsch, M. & Williamson, J. (2005). "I felt like a teacher today": Beginning teachers and professional identity. Paper presented at *the* 33rd Annual Australian Teacher Education Association Conference, Queensland.

Pigge, F. L. & Marso, R. N. (1986). Relationships between student characteristics and changes in attitudes, concerns, anxieties and confidence about teaching during teacher preparation. Paper presented at *the* Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (70th), San Francisco, USA.

Pigge, F. L. & Marso, R. N. (1987). Relationships between student characteristics and changes in attitudes, concerns, anxieties and confidence about teaching during teacher preparation. *Journal of Educational Research, 81*(2), 109-115.

Pigge, F. L. & Marso, R. N. (1997). A seven year longitudinal multi-factor assessment of teaching concerns development through preparation and early years of teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 13*(2), 225-235.

Pillen, M. T., Den Brok, P. J. & Beijaard, D. (2013). Profiles and change in beginning teachers' Professional identity. *Teaching & Teacher Education, 34*, 86-97.

Podell, D. M. & Soodak, L. C. (1993). Teacher efficacy and bias in special education referrals. *Journal of Educational Research, 86*(4), 247-253.

Pomeroy, R. (1993). Mentorship training: The current picture. *Mentoring, 1*(2), 9-14.

Portner, H. (2003). *Mentoring new teachers*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Poulou, M. (2007). Personal teaching efficacy and its sources: Student teachers' perceptions. *Educational Psychology: An International Journal of Experimental Educational Psychology*, *27*(2), 191-218.

Prince, T., Snowden, E. & Matthews, B. (2010). Utilising peer coaching as a tool to

improve student-teacher confidence and support the development of classroom practice. *Literacy Information and Computer Education Journal, 1*(1), 45-51.

Putnam, R. & Borko, H. (1997). Teacher learning: Implications of new views of cognition. In B. J. Biddle, T. L. Good & I. F. Goodson (Eds.), *International handbook of teachers and teaching* (pp. 1223-1269). Dordrecht: Kluwer.

Rakıcıoğlu-Söylemez, A. Ş. (2012). *An exploratory case study of pre-service EFL teachers' sense of efficacy beliefs and perceptions of mentoring practices during practice teaching*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation: Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Rakıcıoğlu, A. Ş. (2005). *The relationship between epistemological beliefs and teacher-efficacy beliefs of English language teaching trainees*. Unpublished MA thesis: Abant İzzet Baysal University, Bolu.

Ralph, E. (1993). Sensitive, sensible practicum supervision: A contextual application in Saskatchewan. *The Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 39*, 283-296.

Ralph, E. (1994). Enhancing the supervision of beginning teachers: A Canadian initiative. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 10*(27), 785-203.

Ralph, E. G. (2004). Interns' and cooperating teachers' concerns during the extended practicum. *The Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 50*(4), 411-429.

Ramey-Gassert, L. Shroyer, M. G. & Staver, J. R. (1996). A qualitative study of factors influencing science teaching self-efficacy of elementary level teachers. *Science Education*, 80, 283-315.

Raudenbush, S., Rowan, B. & Cheong, Y. (1992). Contextual effects on the self-perceived efficacy of high school teachers. *Sociology of Education, 65*, 150-167.

Reeves, C. K. & Kazelskis, R. (1985). Concerns of preservice and inservice teachers. *Journal of Educational Research, 78*, 267-271.

Reupert, A. & Woodcock, S. (2010). Success and near misses: Pre-service teachers' use, confidence and success in various classroom management strategies. *Teaching & Teacher Education, 26*, 1261-1268.

Rhodes, C. & Beneicke, S. (2002). Coaching, mentoring and peer-networking: Challenges for the management of teacher professional development in schools. *Journal of In-Service Education, 28*(2), 297-310.

Richards, J. C. & Ho, B. (1998). Reflective thinking through journal writing. In J. C. Richards (Ed.), *Beyond Training* (pp. 153-170). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richardson, V. & Placier, A. (2001). Teacher change. In V. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (4th Ed.). Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association.

Richter, D., Kunter, M., Lüdtke, O., Klusmann, U., Anders, Y. & Baumert, J. (2013). How different mentoring approaches affect beginning teachers' development in the first years of practice. *Teacher and Teacher Education, 36*, 166-177.

Riggs, I. & Enochs, L. (1990). Toward the development an elementary teachers' science teaching efficacy belief instrument. *Science Education, 74*(6), 625-638.

Romi, S. & Leyser, Y. (2006). Exploring inclusion preservice training needs: A study of variables associated with attitudes and self-efficacy beliefs. *European Journal of Special Needs Education, 21*(1), 85-105.

Rose, G. L. (2003). Enhancement of mentor selection using the ideal mentor scale. *Research in Higher Education, 44*, 473-496.

Ross, J. A. (1994). The impact of an inservice to promote cooperative learning on the stability of teacher efficacy. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 10*, 381-394.

Ross, J. A. (1998). The antecedents and consequences of teacher efficacy. In J. Brophy (Ed.), *Research on Teaching* (Vol.7, 49-74). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Ross, J. A. & Bruce, C. (2007). Professional development effects on teacher efficacy: Results of randomized field trial. *The Journal of Educational Research, 101*(1), 50-60.

Ross, J. A., Cousins, J. B. & Gadalla, T. (1996). Within-teacher predictors of teacher efficacy. *Teaching & Teacher Education, 12*(4), 385-400.

Ross, J. A. & Gray, P. (2006). Transformational leadership and teacher commitment to organizational values: The mediating effects of collective teacher efficacy. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement: An International Journal of Research, Policy and Practice, 17*(2), 179-199.

Rotter, J. B. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Psychological Monographs, 80*, 1-28.

Ruohotie-Lyhty, M. (2013). Struggling for a professional identity: Two newly qualified language teachers' identity narratives during the first years at work. *Teaching & Teacher Education, 30*, 120-129.

Rutherford, W. L. & Hall, G. (1990). Concerns of teachers: Revisiting the original theory after twenty years. Paper presented at *the American Educational Research Association* (AERA), Boston, USA.

Saldana, J. (2009). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Sanford, K. & Hopper, T. (2000). Mentoring, not monitoring: Mediating a whole school model in pre-service teachers. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 46*(2), 149-166.

Saracaloğlu, A. S. & Dinçer, B. (2009). A study on correlation between self-efficacy and academic motivation of prospective teachers. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 1*, 320-325.

Sarıçoban, A. (2007). Views of practicum teachers and student-teachers on school experience and practicum courses. Paper presented at *the Gazi University 1st National Congress in Foreign Language Teaching*, Turkey.

Sarıçoban, A. (2009). Pre-service ELT teachers' concerns about student teaching through classroom observations. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, 1*, 703-707.

Savaşçı- Açıkalın, F. (2014). A study of pre-service teachers' science teaching efficacy beliefs during the elementary science laboratory course. *Procedia- Social and Behavioral Sciences, 141*, 221-226.

Savran Gencer, A. & Çakıroğlu, J. (2007). Turkish preservice science teachers' efficacy beliefs regarding science teaching and their beliefs about classroom management. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 23*, 664-675.

Schön, D. A. (1983). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

(1987). *Educating the reflective practitioner: Toward a new design for teaching and learning in the professions.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

(1991). *The reflective turn: Case studies in and on educational practice*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Schuck, S., Aubusson, P. & Buchanan, J. (2008). Enhancing teacher education practice through professional learning conversations. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 31*(2), 215-227.

Schwarzer, R. & Hallum, S. (2008). Perceived teacher self-efficacy as a predictor of job stress and burnout: Mediation analyses. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 57*, 152-171.

Seibert, S. E. Kraimer, M. L. & Liden, R. C. (2001). A social capital theory of career success. *Academy of Management Journal, 44*, 219-237.

Sezer, A. (2010). Turkish geography student teachers' concerns towards the teaching profession. *Educational Research and Reviews, 5*(12), 788-793.

Shams, M. & Law, S. (2012). Peer coaching framework: An exploratory technique. *The Coaching Psychologist, 8*(1), 46-49.

Showers, B. & Joyce, B. (1996). The evolution of peer coaching. *Educational Leadership, 53*(6) 12-16.

Sinclair, C. (2003). Mentoring online about mentoring: Possibilities and practice, *Mentoring & Tutoring, 11*(1), 79-94.

Siwatu, K. O. (2011). Preservice teachers' sense of preparedness ad self-efficacy to teach in America's urban and suburban schools: Does context matter?. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 27*, 357-365.

Slater C. L. & Simmons, D. L. (2001). The design and implementation of a peer coaching program. *American Secondary Education, 29*(3), 67-76.

Smith, A. (2007). Mentoring for experienced school principals: Professional learning in a safe place. *Mentoring and Tutoring, 15*(3), 277-291.

Smith, D. J. & Sanche, R. P. (1992). Saskathewan interns' concerns at three stages of a four-month practicum. *The Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 38*(2), 121-132.

Smith, D. J. & Sanche, R. P. (1993). Interns' personally expressed concerns: A need to extend the Fuller Model? *Action in Teacher Education*, 15(1), 36-41.

Smith, K. (2003). So, what about the professional development of teacher educators?. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 26*, 201-215.

Smith, K. & Lev-Ari, L. (2005). The place of the practicum in pre-service teacher education: The voice of the students. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 33*(3), 289-302.

Smith, L. F., Corkery, G., Buckley, J. & Calvert, A. (2013). Changes in secondary school preservice teachers' concerns about teaching in New Zealand. *Journal of Teacher Education, 64*(1), 60-74.

Smith, T. & Ingersoll, R. (2004). What are the effects of induction and mentoring on beginning teacher turnover? *American Educational Research Journal*, 41(3), 681-714.

Soodak, L. C. & Podell, D. M. (1993). Teacher efficacy and student problems as factors in special education referral. *The Journal of Special Education, 22*, 66-81.

Soodak, L. C. & Podell, D. M. (1996). Teacher efficacy: Toward the understanding of a

multi-faceted construct. *Teaching & Teacher Education, 12*(4), 401-411.

Soodak, L. C. & Podell, D. M. (1997). Efficacy and experience: perceptions of efficacy among preservice and practicing teachers. *Journal of Research and Development in Education, 30*(4), 214-221.

Spector, J. E. (1990). Efficacy for teaching in preservice teachers. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Education Research Association, Boston.

Stair, K. S., Warner, W. J. & Moore, G. E. (2012). Identifying concerns of preservice and in-service teachers in agricultural education. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 53*(2), 153-164.

Stajkovic, A. D. & Luthans, F. (2003). Social cognitive theory and self-efficacy: Implications for motivation theory and practice. In L. W. Porter, G. A. Bigley & R. M. Steers (Eds), *Motivation and Work Behavior* (pp. 126-140). Boston: McGraw-Hill Irwin.

Stein, M. K., Smith, M. S. & Silver, E. A. (1999). The development of professional developers: Learning to assist teachers in new settings in new ways. *Harvard Educational Review, 69*(3), 237-269.

Stoughton, E. H. (2007). "How will I get them to behave?": Pre-service teachers reflect on classroom management. *Teaching & Teacher Education, 23,* 1024-1037.

Stroot, S. A., Fowlkes, J., Langholz, J., Paxton, S., Stedman, P., Steffes, L. & Valtman, A. (1999). Impact of a collaborative peer assistance and review model on entry-year teachers in a large urban school setting. *Journal of Teacher Education, 50*(1), 27-41.

Sumsion, J. & Thomas, P. (1999). Managing student teacher stress associated with the practicum. *Journal of Early Childhood Teacher Education, 20*(3), 327-336.

Swafford, J., Maltsberger, A., Button, K. & Furgerson, P. (1997). Peer coaching for facilitating effective literacy instruction. In C. K. Kinzer, K. A. Hinchman & D. J. Leu (Eds.), *Inquiries in Literacy Theory and Practice*. Chicago: National Reading Conference.

Swennen, A, Jörg, T. & Korthagen, F. (2004). Studying student teachers' concerns, combining image-based and more traditional research techniques. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 27*(3), 265-283.

Şaban, A., Korkmaz, İ. & Akbaşlı, S. (2004). The Professional concerns of preservice teachers. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research, 17*, 198-209.

ten Dam, G. T. M. & Blom, S. (2006). Learning through participation: The potential of

school-based teacher education for developing a professional identity. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 22*, 647-660.

Teltik, H. (2009). *The determination of teacher self-efficacy perception between job satisfaction and burnout level correlations for preschool teachers.* Unpublished MA thesis: Marmara University, İstanbul.

Thobega, M. & Miller, G. (2008). Perceptions of supervision practices by agricultural education student teachers. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 49*(3), 65-75.

Thomas, A. P. (2000). Mentoring in the middle: The effectiveness of a school-based peer mentoring program. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Virginia, Virginia, United States.

Thornberger, R. & Charmaz, K. (2011). Grounded theory. In S. D. Lapan, M. T. Quartaroli & F. J. Riemer (Eds.), *Qualitative Research: An introduction to methods and designs* (pp. 41-67). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Topping, K. (2005). Trends in peer learning. *Educational Psychology, 25*(6), 631-645.

Topping, K. & Ehly, S. (1998). Introduction to peer assisted learning. In K. Topping & S. Ehly (Eds.), *Peer Assisted Learning* (pp. 1-23). London: Lawrance Erlbaum and Associates.

Torres, A. (2012). "Hello, goodbye!": Exploring the phenomena of leaving early. *Journal of Educational Change, 13*(1), 117-154.

Trubowitz, S. & Robins, M. P. (2003). *The good teacher mentor: Setting the standard for support and success.* New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Tschannen-Moran, M. & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 17*, 783-805.

Tschannen-Moran, M. & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2002). The influence of resources and support on teachers' efficacy beliefs. Paper Presented at the *Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association*, New Orleans, LA.

Tschannen-Moran, M. & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2007). The differential antecedents of self-efficacy beliefs of novice and experienced teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 23*, 944-956.

Tschannen-Moran, M., Woolfolk Hoy, A. & Hoy, W. K. (1998). Teacher efficacy: Its meaning and measure. *Review of Educational Research, 68*(2), 202-248.

Ulvik, M. & Smith, K. (2011). What characterises a good practicum in teacher education?. *Education Inquiry, 2*(3), 517-536.

Ünaldı, Ü. E. & Alaz, A. (2008). Coğrafya öğretmenliğinde okuyan öğretmen

adaylarının mesleki kaygı düzeylerinin bazı değişkenler açısından incelenmesi. *Selçuk Üniversitesi Ahmet Keleşoğlu Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 26*, 1-13.

Vacilotto, S. & Cummings, R. (2007). Peer coaching TEFL/TESL programmes. *ELT Journal, 61*(2), 153-160.

Valencic, M. & Vogrinc, J. (2007). A mentor's aid in developing the competences of teacher trainees. *Educational Studies, 33*(4), 373-384.

Vasquez, C. (2004). "Very carefully managed": Advice and suggestions in post-observation meetings. *Linguistics and Education, 15*, 33-58.

Veenman, S. (1984). Perceived problems of beginning teachers. *Review of Educational Research, 54*(2), 143-178.

Vidmar, D. J. (2006). Reflective peer coaching: Crafting collaborative self-assessment in teaching. *Research Strategies, 20*, 135-148.

Viel-Ruma, K., Houchins, D., Jolivette, K. & Benson, G. (2010). Efficacy beliefs of special educators: The relationships among collective efficacy, teacher self-efficacy, and job satisfaction. *Teacher Education and Special Education, 33*(3), 225-233.

Volkman, B., Scheffler, A. J. & Dana, M. E. (1992). Enhancing preservice teachers' self-efficacy through a field-based program of reflective practice. Paper presented at the *Annual Meeting of the Mid-South Educational Research Association*, Knoxville, TN, November 11-13, 1992.

Vrijnsen-de Corte, M. C. W. M., den Brok, P. J. P. & Kamp, M. J. M. (2013). Measuring teachers' and student teachers' perceptions of practice-based research in PDS and non-PDS settings. *Teaching and Teaher Education, 36*, 178-188.

Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Vygotsky, L. (1981). The genesis of higher mental functions. In J. V. Wertsch (Ed.), *The concept of activity in Soviet psychology* (pp. 144-188). Armonk, NY: Sharpe.

Waddell, D. L. & Dunn, N. (2005). Peer coaching: The next step in staff development. *The Journal do Continuing Education in Nursing, 36*(2), 84-89.

Walsh, K. & Elmslie, L. (2005). Practicum pairs: An alternative for first field experience in early childhood teacher education. *Asia Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 33*(1), 5-21.

Walsh, K., Elmslie, L. & Tayler, C. (2002) Pairs on practicum (trial): Early childhood students collaborate with peers in preschool/kindergarten. Paper presented at the

Australian Association for Research in Education (AARE) Conference, Brisbane, Queensland, December 1-5, 2002.

Wang, J. & Odell, S. J. (2002). Mentored learning to teach according to standards-based reform: A critical review. *Review of Educational Research, 72*(3), 481-546.

Watzke, J. L. (2007). Longitudinal research on beginning teacher development: Complexity as a challenge to concerns-based stage theory. *Teacher & Teacher Education, 23*, 106-122.

Weber, R. P. (1990). *Basic content analysis* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Weiss, E. M. & Weiss, S. G. (1999). Beginning teacher induction. ERIC Digest Doc: ED436487. Retrieved from https://www.ericdigests.org/2000-3/induction.htm on 05.17.2017.

Wendt, J. C. & Bain, L. L. (1989). Concerns of preservice and inservice physical educators. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Educati*on, 8, 177-180.

Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice: Learning meaning and identity*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wertheim, C. & Leyser, Y. (2002). Efficacy beliefs, background, variables, and differentiated instruction of Israeli prospective teachers. *The Journal Educational Research, 96*(1), 54-63.

Wheatley, K. F. (2005). The case for reconceptualizing teacher efficacy research. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 21*, 747-766.

Wilson, E. K. (2006). The impact of an alternative model of student teacher supervision: Views of the participants. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 22*, 22-31.

Witcher, L. A., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Collins, K. M. T., Witcher, A. E., Minor, L. C. & James, T. L. (2002). Relationship between teacher efficacy and beliefs about education among preservice teachers. Paper presented at the *Annual Meeting of the Mid-South Educational Research Association (29th)*, Chattanooga, TN, November 8-9, 2002.

Wong, I. Y. F. (2009). Toward an agenda for helping the beginning teacher: Perceptions of concerns and best help strategies. Retrieved from http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.214.8872&rep=rep1&type=pdf on 05.05.2017.

Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2000). Changes in teacher efficacy during the early years of teaching. Paper presented at the *Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association*, New Orleans, LA.

Woolfolk, A. E. & Hoy, W. K. (1990). Prospective teachers' sense of efficacy and beliefs about control. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 82*, 81-91.

Woolfolk, A. E., Rosoff, B. & Hoy, W. K. (1990). Teachers' sense of efficacy and their beliefs about managing students. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 6*, 137-148.

Woolfolk Hoy, A. & Spero, R. B. (2005). Changes in teacher efficacy during the early years of teaching: A comparison of four measures. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 21*, 343-356.

Wynn, M. & Kromrey, J. (2000). Paired peer placement with peer coaching to enhance prospective teachers' professional growth in early field experience. *Action in Teacher Education, 22*(2A), 73-83.

Yalçın-Arslan, F. & Ilin, G. (2013). Effects of peer coaching for the classroom management skills of teachers. *Journal of Theory and Practice in Education*, 9(1), 43-59.

Yalçın-Arslan, F. (2014). *An investigation into student-teacher concerns: Probable changes caused by methodology classes and teaching practice.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation: Çukurova University, Adana.

Yamashita, S. (1991). Student teacher assessment of cooperating teacher supervision. Paper presented at the *American Association of Teacher Educators*, New Orleans, LA.

Yatağanbaba, E. (2015). An investigation into concerns of English instructors at Turkish universities. *International Journal of English Language Education, 3*(1), 20-39.

Yaylı, D. & Hasırcı, S. (2009). Concerns of Prospective Teachers of Turkish on Teaching. *The Journal of International Social Research, 2*(9), 520-525.

Yeung, K. W. & Watkins, D. (2000). Hong Kong student teachers' personal construction of teaching efficacy. *Educational Psychology: An International Journal of Experimental Educational Psychology, 20*(2), 213-235.

Yılmaz, H. & Huyugüzel Çavaş, P. (2008). The effect of the teaching practice on pre-service elementary teachers' science teaching efficacy and classroom management beliefs. *Eurasia Journal of Mathematics, Science & Technology Education, 4*(1), 45-54.

York-Barr, J., Sommers, W. A., Ghere, G. S. & Montie, J. (2001). *Reflective Practice to Improve Schools: An Action Guide for Educators*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Young, S. (2012). Concerns of preservice physical education teachers participating in an early field experience. *The Physical Educator, 69*, 119-135.

Zachary, L. J. (2002). The role of teacher as mentor. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education, 93*, 27-38.

Zeichner, K. M. (1980). Myths and realities: Field-based experiences in preservice teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education, 31*, 45-55.

Zeichner, K. (2010). Rethinking the connections between campus courses and field experiences in college- and university-based teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education,* 61(1-2), 89-99.

Zeichner, K. M. & Liston, D. P. (1987). Teaching student teachers to reflect. *Harvard Educational Review, 57*(1), 23-48.

Zimmerman, B. J. (1995). Self-efficacy and educational development. In A. Bandura (Ed.), *Self-Efficacy in Changing Societies* (pp. 202-231). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Zwart, R. C., Wubbels, T., Bergen, T. C. M., & Bolhuis, S. (2007). Experienced teacher learning within the context of reciprocal peer coaching. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice,* 13(2), 165-187.

Zwart, R. C., Wubbels, T., Bergen, T., & Bolhuis, S. (2009). Which characteristics of a reciprocal peer coahing context affect teacher learning as perceived bu teachers and their students?. *Journal of Teacher Education,*60(3), 243-257.

Zwart, R.C., Wubbels, T., Bulhois, S. & Bergen, T. (2008). Teacher learning through reciprocal peer coaching: An analysis of activity sequences. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 24*, 982-1002.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

Permission Letter

05.10.2014

ÇUKUROVA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ ANABİLİM DALI BAŞKANLIĞI

Danışmanı bulunduğum 2012933042 no'lu doktora öğrencim Seyit Ahmet Çapan'ın "Reciprocal Peer Mentoring in Pre-Service ELT Practicum in terms of Teaching Concerns and Teacher Efficacy Beliefs" başlıklı doktora tez çalışması çerçevesinde Anabilim dalınız okul deneyimi ve staj uygulaması derslerini alan dördüncü sınıf öğrencileriyle 2014-2015 eğitim-öğretim yılında araştırma yapabilmesi için ekte sunulan veri toplama araçları dikkate alınarak gerekli izinlerin sağlanması ve sözkonusu öğrencilere çalışmaya ilişkin duyuru yapılması hususunda gereğini saygılarımla arz ederim.

Doç.Dr. Hasan BEDİR

EK:
EK-1: Uygulanacak Anket Örnekleri (2 Sayfa)

APPENDIX 2

Consent Form

Dear participant,

The researcher invites you to participate in a study on pre-service ELT teachers' concern development and their perceptions of self-efficacy throughout practicum. This study is designed to investigate your concern and self-efficacy development as you are engaged in reciprocal peer mentoring (RPM) activities in your practicum experiences. The reason why you, as prospective teachers of English, are requested to partake in this study is the fact that this study focuses on whether RPM has any role to play in helping preservice teachers handle their concerns related to teaching practices and improve their self-efficacy levels. Throughout the study, you will be asked to have weekly pre- and post-conferences with a peer, write reflective journals, participate in individual and group interviews, and fill in some questionnaires.

Once accepting to participate in the study, you certainly have the chance to withdraw at any point. The researcher assures you that the results of the study may only be published for scientific reasons. But no information about your identity will be disclosed unless you give permission. Apparently, there is no risk in participating in this study. Also, your participation in the study will not have any impact on your assessment scores in any of the courses you take. But the results may be beneficial as the study may provide you with valuable experiences of collaborating with a peer during the practicum and develop a more realistic professional identity.

The researcher would be happy to reply if you have any further questions about the study. The researcher can be contacted via e-mail at sacapan@cu.edu.tr.

Sincerely Yours,

Res.Asst. S.Ahmet ÇAPAN
English Language Teaching Department,
Çukurova University

By signing in below, you will admit that you have understood the text above, voluntarily participate in the study described above and give your consent for the data obtained to be used for scientific purposes.

Participant' Name:……..

Signature:……...

Date:……..

APPENDIX 3

Teacher Concerns Checklist (Borich, 2000)

This checklist explores what teachers are concerned about at different stages of their careers. There are no right or wrong answers, because each teacher has his or her own concerns. Following are statements of concern you might have. Read each statement and ask yourself: WHEN I THINK ABOUT TEACHING, AM I CONCERNED ABOUT THIS?

If you are not concerned, or the statement does not apply, write *1* in the box.
If you are a little concerned, write *2* in the box.
If you are moderately concerned, write *3* in the box.
If you are very concerned, write *4* in the box.
If you are totally preoccupied with the concern, write *5* in the box.

When I think about teaching, am I concerned about this?		1	2	3	4	5
1	Insufficient clerical help for teachers.					
2	Whether the students respect me.					
3	Too many extra duties and responsibilities.					
4	Doing well when I am observed.					
5	Helping students to value learning.					
6	Insufficient time for rest and class preparation.					
7	Not enough assistance from specialized teachers.					
8	Managing time efficiently.					
9	Losing the respect of my peers.					
10	Not enough time for grading and testing.					
11	The inflexibility of the curriculum.					
12	Too many standards and regulations set for teachers.					
13	My ability to prepare adequate lesson plans.					
14	Having my inadequacies become known to other teachers.					
15	Increasing students' feelings of accomplishment.					
16	The rigid instructional routine.					
17	Diagnosing student learning problems.					
18	What the principal may think if there is too much noise in my classroom.					
19	Whether each student is reaching his or her potential.					
20	Obtaining a favorable evaluation of my teaching.					
21	Having too many students in a class.					
22	Recognizing the social and emotional needs of students.					
23	Challenging unmotivated students.					
24	Losing the respect of my students.					
25	Lack of public support for schools.					
26	My ability to maintain the appropriate degree of class control.					
27	Not having sufficient time to plan.					
28	Getting students to behave.					
29	Understanding why certain students make slow progress.					
30	Having an embarrassing incident occur in my classroom for which I might be judged responsible.					
31	Not being able to cope with troublemakers in my classroom.					
32	That my peers may think I'm not doing an adequate job.					
33	My ability to work with disruptive students.					
34	Understanding ways in which student health and nutrition problems can affect learning.					
35	Appearing competent to parents.					
36	Meeting the needs of different kinds of students.					
37	Seeking alternative ways to ensure that students learn the subject matter.					
38	Understanding the psychological and cultural differences that can affect my students' behavior.					
39	Adapting myself to the needs of different students.					
40	The large number of administrative interruptions.					

41	Guiding students towards intellectual and emotional growth.					
42	Working with too many students each day.					
43	Whether students can apply what they learn.					
44	Teaching effectively when another teacher is present.					
45	Understanding what factors motivate students to learn.					

APPENDIX 4

Teacher Sense of Efficacy Beliefs Scale

		How much can you do?								
This questionnaire is designed to help us gain a better understanding of the kinds of things that create difficulties for teachers in their school activities. Please indicate your opinion about each of the statements below. Your answers are confidential.		Nothing		Very Little		Some Influence		Quite A Bit		A Great Deal
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?									
2	How much can you do to help your students think critically?									
3	How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?									
4	How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?									
5	To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behavior?									
6	How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?									
7	How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?									
8	How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly?									
9	How much can you do to help your students value learning?									
10	How much can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught?									
11	To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?									
12	How much can you do to foster student creativity?									
13	How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?									
14	How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing?									
15	How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?									
16	How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?									
17	How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students?									
18	How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?									
19	How well can you keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson?									
20	To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?									
21	How well can you respond to defiant students?									

22	How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?									
23	How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?									
24	How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?									

APPENDIX 5

Template for Reflective Journals (TM Version)

Practicum Report Form **Week No:**		
Objective	**3 strengths**	**3 weaknesses/ suggestions**
Reflections: Please, specify your views about the experiences you had in the practicum school today.		

APPENDIX 6

Template for Reflective Journals (RPM Version)

Practicum Report Form (Part 1)
Week No:
Role: Mentee

Objective	3 strengths	3 weaknesses/ suggestions

Reflections: Please, specify your views about the teaching experiences you had in the practicum school today.

Practicum Report Form (Part 2)
Week No:
Role: Mentee

Objective	3 strengths	3 weaknesses/ suggestions

Reflections: Please, specify your views about the mentoring function(s) you performed about your peer's performance today.

Overall Reflections: Please, specify your views about overall RPM experiences you had in the practicum school today.

APPENDIX 7

Open-Ended Concern Questionnaire

(Before practicum)

You will participate in the practicum, in which you will observe school-based teachers and be observed by them and gain hands-on experiences about teaching actual students in the classroom. Please, feel free to disclose your views about the following question.

- What are your concerns/worries/fears about teaching, particularly in practicum schools? Please, specify any concern/worry/fear in detail by (if possible) giving examples.″

(After practicum)

You have successfully completed the practicum, in which you have gained several teaching and observation experiences as well as briefing/debriefing conferences. While answering the following question, please consider all these experiences that you have gained throughout practicum.

- What are your concerns/ worries/ fears about teaching in actual classrooms? Please, specify any concerns/ worries/ fears in detail by giving examples from your experiences during practicum.

APPENDIX 8

Interim Group Interview Questions*

1- How did things go in the practicum school during the fall semester?
2- Did you talk with your school-based teacher about your beliefs and opinions about teaching/learning, students and overall schooling in your meetings? If yes, was there any conflict between your own views and your school based teachers' views about teaching and learning?
3- Did you receive any assistance, feedback and reflection from your school-based teacher throughout the first semester? If yes, in what areas? Was it satisfactory?
4- Considering your experiences in the first term, what aspect(s) of teaching do you think may challenge you while you are teaching in the classroom?
5- What aspect(s) of teaching do you think you will be the most successful in while you are teaching in the classroom?
6- What did RPM practices mean to you?
7- What do you think were strengths and weaknesses of RPM practices depending on your experiences with RPM throughout the semester?

***** The questions written in bold were answered only by the participants in the RPM group.

APPENDIX 9

Individual Interview Questions

A- Questions for the TM Group:

1- What do you think were the most difficult or unfavorable aspects of practicum? What could be done to overcome these aspects?
2- Which aspects of your teaching do you think were strong and weak in dealing with actual classrooms?
3- Which aspects of your teaching do you think improved the most and least as a result of the practicum experiences?
4- How would you evaluate the mentoring you have received during practicum in terms of
   a. the professional, emotional and psychological support it provided
   b. the opportunity it provided to improve your teaching skills
   c. changes it caused in your practices and perceptions of teaching?
5- Considering your initial assumptions about practicum and mentoring at the beginning of practicum, are you satisfied with the overall practicum process?
6- What suggestions would you make to improve the quality of the mentoring that pre-service ELT teachers receive in practicum?

B- Questions for the RPM Group:

1- What do you think were the most difficult or unfavorable aspects of practicum? What could be done to overcome these aspects?
2- Which aspects of your teaching do you think were strong and weak in dealing with actual classrooms?
3- Which aspects of your teaching do you think improved the most and least as a result of the practicum experiences?
4- How would you compare and contrast the RPM practices and traditional mentoring in terms of
   a. the professional, emotional and psychological support it provided
   b. the opportunity it provided to improve your teaching skills
   c. changes it caused in your practices and perceptions of teaching?
5- What did you like the most and least about engagement in the RPM practices?

6- Considering your initial assumptions about practicum and mentoring at the beginning of practicum, are you satisfied with practicum experiences characterized by the RPM practices?
7- What suggestions would you make to improve the quality of the mentoring that pre-service ELT teachers receive in practicum?

CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Name & Surname: Seyit Ahmet ÇAPAN

Date/Place of Birth: 1987/ Turkey

Correspondence: sacapan05@gmail.com

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

2012-2017	**Ph.D.**	Çukurova University, Institute of Social Sciences, English Language Teaching Department, Turkey
2010-2012	**MA**	Necmettin Erbakan University, Institute of Educational Sciences, English Language Teaching Department, Turkey
2005-2009	**BA**	Hacettepe University, Faculty of Education, English Language Teaching Department, Turkey

WORK EXPERIENCE

2015-	**Research Assistant**	Bozok University, Faculty of Education, English Language Teaching Department, Turkey
2013-2015	**Research Assistant**	Çukurova University, Faculty of Education, English Language Teaching Department, Turkey
2011-2012	**Research Assistant**	Selçuk University, Faculty of Education, English Language Teaching Department, Turkey
2010-2011	**Instructor**	Gaziantep University, School of Foreign Languages, Turkey