Prospective Teachers’ and Teachers’ Professional Development through the Collaborative Mentoring Kaleidoscope

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Abstract

This study aimed to examine how a collaborative mentoring model (CMM), incorporating dyadic and tripartite conferences, influenced the mentees’ and school mentors’ professional development in a practicum in a teacher education program. A qualitative-evaluative case study was adopted to gather in-depth data for the comprehensive examination of the contributions of the model on the participants’ growth. A strategy of data and methodological triangulation was employed through semi-structured interviews, autobiographies and reflective journals to better understand the phenomenon under investigation and contribute to the trustworthiness of the study. Multiple data were analyzed through content analysis, putting emphasis on creating predetermined categories so as to promote the feasibility of the replication of the study. The findings triangulated revealed that participants found mentoring influential on the development of their personal and professional skills. The findings also displayed certain instructional and programmatic implications critical to be considered for the improvement of the mentoring process.

Introduction

Initial teacher education programs (ITEPs) have been gateways to the profession where prospective teachers, through gaining awareness and developing their personal and professional assets, experience the process of becoming a teacher (Caires & Almeida, 2005). Those programs are conceptualized around theoretical and practical experiences and widespread and rigorous supervised field work incorporating pedagogies that bridge theory and practice and set proactive dialogues with schools to promote and model effective teaching (Darling-Hammond, 2006). A critical phase that helps for the development of learning about teaching and teaching skills is through the collaboration among schools, universities and prospective teachers (Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006).

For the preparation of prospective teachers to the teaching profession, various collaboration or partnership models have been established in various countries: Professional Development Schools (PDSs) in the United States of America (Teitel, 2003), the collaboration between higher education institutions and schools as mandated in England and Wales (Furlong, Barton, Miles, Whiting, & Whitty, 2000), the Innovative Links Project in Australia (Sachs, 1997), and Faculty-School Partnership

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in Türkiye (Faculty-School Partnership Guidebook, 1998). Partnerships are deemed to be collaborative and practice-based, involving knowledge creation, coaching and mentoring (Chapman et al., 2003) which are the means for the prospective teachers’ growth.

Darling-Hammond (2006), stressing on supervised clinical work and proactive relationships with schools, reports that contemporary teacher programs need to promote teachers’ such skills that help them “continue to seek answers to difficult problems of teaching and learning and the skills to learn from practice (and from their colleagues) as well as to learn for practice” (Darling-Hammond, 2006, p. 305). Mentoring processes actualized at the micro level of partnerships (Kuter & Koç, 2009) play a critical role in developing prospective teachers’ instructional competencies and preparing them for the teaching post (Hobson, Harris, Buckner-Manley, & Smith, 2012). At this point, the quality of the professional support prospective teachers get for their own development is inextricably linked with the quality of the collaboration provided through mentoring processes (Kiraz, 2002).

**Conceptualizing Collaborative Mentoring**

Mentoring, considered as a contested notion, is characterized as three key archetypes: mentoring as supervision (helping novices to pass through apprenticeship), mentoring as support (traditional mentoring where a veteran teacher guides a mentee), and mentoring as collaborative self-development (professional development through collegial mentoring) (Kemmis, Heikkinen, Fransson, Aspfros, & Edwards-Groves, 2014). Collaborative mentoring - a developmental jointly constructed meaning making process (Stahl, 2003) - is an intellectual journey when one questions and internalizes what it is to be teacher through the active examination of instructional processes and proactively participate for the enhancement of personal and professional growth (Kochan & Trimble, 2000). Defined as a collaborative partnership (Perry, 2000), it is grounded on the transformation of participation into collective negotiation process (Kaartinen, 2009) incorporating team work and a relationship of mutual respect (Perry, 2000), collegiality, professional dialogue, peer appraisal, formative and summative appraisals, and reflective thinking (William, 1994), ‘focused dialogue about practice’ (Graham, 2006), and cultivation of key professional dispositions by creating a culture of collaboration (Campbell & Brummett, 2007). The aims of collaborative mentoring were reported so as to train prospective teachers, rejuvenate experienced teachers, and encourage professional effectiveness (Reiman, Head, & Thies-Sprinthall, 1992).

“Situated in practice and in a relationship with an experienced educator, mentoring has the potential to foster powerful teaching and to develop the dispositions and skills of continuous improvement” (Feiman-Nemser, 2001, p. 28). While mentees improve instructional assets, mentors can improve technical and guidance skills that will deepen their professional development as classroom teachers (Fletcher, 1998, p. 117). For the successful implementation of mentoring process, mentors need to have certain skills and assets: personal (emotional, befriending, encouragement), professional (system concerns, policies and procedures, roles and responsibilities, and community values), and instructional (observations and feedback, resource and material, classroom organization, management/disciplines, lesson planning) (Enz, 1992). To be able to talk about teacher knowledge, it is indispensable to focus on blending and actualizing pedagogical (the knowledge of the instructional method of the subject) and content knowledge (the knowledge of the subject concerned) for instruction (Shulman, 1986). In this regard, Cruickshank, Bainer and Metcalf (1995) also highlight the personal and professional attributes that shape teacher effectiveness. To enhance the quality of teacher preparation, emphasis is placed on equipping prospective teachers with the content and pedagogical knowledge and skills and assisting them in developing themselves through field experiences and clinical practices (NCATE, 2008).
Various models were proposed for collaboration in the culture of mentoring to promote trainees’ reflection on practice and deepen their understanding of professional growth (Freese, 1999; Parsons & Stephenson, 2005). Hudson (2004) proposes a model for mentoring based upon personal attributes mentor needs for dialogue, system requirements focusing on programs and policies, pedagogical knowledge of effective instructional practices, frameworks of efficient and successful practices, and reflection to enhance instruction. Richmond (2009) proposes a multi-layered supervision model, the use of which through individual, managerial and group supervisory mechanisms nurtures the development of creative practice. A practitioner centred reflective collaborative mentoring model serving as a catalyst for transforming hierarchical systems and forming a new culture of learning was proposed by Mullen (2000). A tripartite (among mentee and university and school mentor) and dyadic (between mentee and university/school mentor) relationship can take place during mentoring (Tang & Chow, 2007). Triadic supervision as a culture of collaboration gained momentum to endorse change in supervising interns (Rodgers & Keil, 2007) and fostered shared understanding, trust and respect for the work done (Tsui, Lopez-Real, Law, Tang, & Shum, 2001). Further, these tripartite conferences provided the means of professional development for both mentee and university mentor (Gimbert & Nolan, 2003) and school mentors (Hastings & Squires, 2002). Collaborative mentoring process was also realized in the form of pre-conferences, observation, and post-conferences between the mentee and school/university mentor to improve mentee’s development and the quality of ITEP (Shieveley & Poetter, 2002). While collaboration through post-observations provide a means of professional collaboration for both school mentors and mentees (Chalies, Ria, Bertone, Trohel, & Durand, 2004), communicating feedback through professional dialogues during post-observation conferences foster self-regulated learning and professional growth (Tang & Chow, 2007).

Numerous studies revealed the following issues in collaborative mentoring: mentors’ and mentees’ views on mentoring processes (Ekiz, 2006); the significance of the roles of mentors for the realization of the collaboration (Scheetz, Waters, Smeaton, & Lare, 2005) as critical friends, personal guides, counsellors (Fletcher, 1998) and valuing different perspectives and range of skills mentees brought to class (Simpson, Hastings, & Hill, 2007); the importance of engagement in continual reflection with the mentor (Smith, 1998), communicating feedback in post-observation conferences (Tang & Chow, 2007), exposing mentees to ample teaching opportunities (Simşek, Alkan, & Erdem, 2013), guidance and monitoring mentees’ growth (Maskan & Efe, 2011), time allocated for conferences (Kent, 2001), and the seminar given to mentors (Güzel, Cerit Beber, & Oral, 2010); the benefits mentors received from mentoring: learning from mentees through self-reflection and collaboration (Lopez-Real & Kwan, 2005) and the benefits mentees gained in instructional knowledge and efficacy (Chalies et al., 2004; Chiang, 2008; Lee & Feng, 2007) through post-observation conferences (Tang & Chow, 2007); the tensions mentors experienced due to unmanageable workloads and time constraint (Simpson et al., 2007); the challenges mentees encountered related to pedagogical content knowledge, social psychological factors and practical experiences (Taşdere, 2014) and insufficient mentors’ observations and their superficial feedback on mentees’ performance (Paker, 2008); mentees’ perceptions of own inefficiencies in managing class and using mother tongue while teaching (Özkılıç, Bilgin, & Kartal, 2008), and their concerns and stress (Çelik, 2008) in a triadic supervision model within a professional development school setting (Rodgers & Keil, 2007); and the causes of stress for all stakeholders taking part in practicum (Coşkun, 2013).

In North Cyprus, as far as practicum courses are considered, an agreed protocol or a common framework between the universities and the ministry of education has not been settled for the operation of practicum at ITEPs where prospective teachers are provided with hands-on experiences to practise pedagogical content knowledge previously studied in theoretical courses. Due to the
absence of a formalized partnership (Kuter & Koç, 2009), each ITEP realizes the process within its own realities. The findings of a preliminary study revealed the limitations related to the collaboration processes of the partnership in practicum at micro level (Kuter & Koç, 2009), between and/or among mentees, school mentors and university mentors. According to Yıldırım (2013), more empirical studies are required to understand teacher education processes and the impact of pedagogical preparation on mentees’ growth as teacher. What is more, substantial knowledge on the effect of mentors’ involvement in various programs on mentor effectiveness and on the professional growth of mentees is missing (Hobson, Ashby, Malderez, & Tomlinson, 2009, p. 213). In this regard, the major aim of this study is to explore how the interplay between collaborative mentoring and professional development processes at the micro level influences the professional growth of both mentees and school mentors. Thus, this examination would help evaluate the supervisory processes integrated in the collaborative mentoring from the standpoints of both parties. It is believed that the results of this study could shed light upon conceptualization of collaborative mentoring model in ITEP to facilitate the operation of practicum and advance the mentees’ and school mentors’ professional growth.

Method

In this study, a qualitative-evaluative case study was adopted since “a case study is particularly useful for evaluating programs when programs are unique, when an established program is implemented in a new setting.” (Balbach, 1999, p. 4). Pure qualitative strategy, considered a variation in program evaluation design, is employed in the form of naturalistic inquiry where the data collected qualitatively are analyzed through content analysis (Patton, 2002). In general, case studies are valuable methodological approaches in examining and describing the multifaceted and unfolding interfaces of events, relationships and other dynamics in a unique setting (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000) where the primary unit of analysis could be an individual, group, process, organization (Marshall & Rossman, 1999), or a program (Balbach, 1999; Patton, 2002).

Sites and Participants

The participants of the study constituted all mentees (eleven), enrolled in ELT (English Language Teaching) Practice Teaching, and almost all English teachers (school mentors), six of whom were teaching in School-A and five teaching in School-B. Out of the three big state secondary schools in Gazimağusa, two were selected purposively since, rather than making generalizations, it was critical to explore the mentoring processes comprehensively through information-rich cases, that could provide a lot about the issue through in-depth exploration (Patton, 2002). School-A is a state college conducting an entrance exam for the admission of students, while School-B is a normal state school with no entry exam requirements. Both sites are preferred by the families for the quality of education they give. In both sites, all eleven English teachers, whose years of job experience ranged between 3 and 22 and supervisory experiences ranged between 1 and 10 years, volunteered to act as mentors. While two of these teachers had MA degrees, four of them had Certificate for Overseas Teachers of English (COTE). All eleven mentees (ten females and one male), by considering the suitability of their academic timetables with the mentors’ teaching schedule, were assigned to the mentors at sites.

Implementation of the Collaborative Mentoring Model

The collaborative mentoring model (CMM) has been conceptualized in five phases for 10 weeks as shown in Figure 1. At the beginning of the program, a seminar on - mentors’ roles, cyclical process of mentoring, two-way and tripartite conferences - how to employ the model and guide mentees on lesson planning process was given to eleven school mentors (SMs). Right after, all eleven mentees (Ms) were placed at schools and allocated to SMs. After the completion of four hours of observations in a week, mentees were involved in four hours of mini teaching sessions and full
teaching sessions consecutively in order to have a greater degree of responsibility to regulate their own learning for the succeeding instructional processes (Tang & Chow, 2007).

**Figure 1. The Phases of Collaborative Mentoring Model**

During these in-class experiences, in order to get optimum benefit from classroom observations and practices, mentees were first involved in informal pre- and post-observation conferences which were followed with formal two-way and tripartite conferences. For all two-way conferences, they were required to visit both SMs and university mentor (UM) before and after all teaching experiences to share and discuss their instructional preparation and processes so that both mentors could track their strong and weak areas and provide guidance for their instructional improvement. Two of the full teaching experiences were evaluated by the SM and two by the UM on the basis of an appraisal form involving areas such as planning, personality, teacher talk, instructional processes and so forth. The final two teaching sessions, evaluated by the UM, were followed by tripartite conferences among the UM, SM, and mentee so as to involve mentees in a multi-perceptual reflective discourse to raise their awareness about instructional processes and to contribute to their growth.

**Data Collection Instruments and Procedure**

In the study multiple qualitative data sources were adopted since they enable to understand the multifaceted reality – multiple participant meanings (Creswell, 2003) in a milieu through descriptive data collection and inductive data analysis strategies, giving prominence on meaning and perspectives of the participants and emphasizing on process (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998). Focussing on individual lived experiences (Marshall & Rossman, 1999), at the end of the program, semi-structured interviews provided a setting where all participants expressed their own views of life, insights, and understandings of the lived experiences and events (Patton, 2002). These semi-structured interviews were realized through focussing on both collaborative dialogues in all conferences and professional developmental process. Post-lesson reflective journals facilitated mentees’ learning by involving them in reflective self-examination processes to improve their teaching (Thorpe, 2004) with a focus on the areas they consider themselves good and the areas they need further improvement. Besides, autobiographies provided “a unique process for each prospective teacher, and that the process involved the examination and transformation of existing knowledge and the adaptation of such knowledge, skills and attitudes to the professional situations at hand” (Beattie, 2000, p. 19). Approaching learning through autobiographies provides the basis of developing a unique way in
facilitating one’s learning process (Jaatinen, 2001). Pre- and post-autobiographies aimed mentees’ narration freely on their philosophy of teaching and learning and their strengths and weaknesses in teaching at the beginning and at the end of the program, respectively. Considering the view that reflection generating activities like writing journals and self-studies are critical in shaping professional behaviour (Jaeger, 2013), mentees’ involvement in introspective and retrospective reflection processes through post-lesson reflective journals and autobiographies provided invaluable means for data collection. Also, appraisal form completed by the school mentors for mentees’ teaching experiences was considered as a data collection tool since it incorporated the domains - lesson planning, personality, teacher talk, warm-up, presentation, feedback, classroom management - on the basis of which mentees were appraised. This form had sections where mentors commented on mentees’ strong, weak, and to be developed areas of teaching performance. In this regard, multiple qualitative data sources, by providing descriptive data in the subjects’ own words and facilitating the development of understandings on how they interpret their own direct experiences (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998), helped gather in-depth data for the comprehensive examination of the collaborative mentoring processes and their influence on mentees’ growth.

Data Analysis

Multiple data were analysed through content analysis, an approach to the analysis of documents and texts laying emphasis on creating predetermined categories so as to promote the feasibility of the replication of the study (Bryman, 2001). Its major aim is to simplify and classify the density of raw data into meaningful and manageable codes (Patton, 2002). Before the analysis, all data sources were separately arranged for transcriptions by coding both mentees’ and school mentors’ actual names. All mentees’ reflective reports written at the end of mini and full teaching sessions and pre- and post-autobiographical reports and interviews were analyzed around the themes determined before (lesson planning, personality, teacher talk, warm-up, presentation and so forth) and emerged through analysis (communication skills and content knowledge). The data from interviews started with two-way and three-way conferences which further revealed sub-themes related to the effectiveness and necessity of pre- and post-conferences, feedback and so forth. The analysis of all reports and interviews were realized through the tabulation of each data source on separate matrices around the areas mentees developed in the program and the areas they needed further development so as to facilitate transcript analysis for each data source (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The data for school mentors were analyzed separately. At the end, the data on separate matrices were merged on a single matrix to get the whole picture related to the evaluation of supervisory processes and their influence on participants’ development.

Trustworthiness

The credibility and objectivity of the findings was ensured through various strategies. First, the validation of the transcriptions by each participant ensured the criteria of trustworthiness (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In order to validate the truth of the data gathered, it is vital to take them back to the participants and refine them in the light of their reactions (Silverman, 2001). Next, that inquiry audits checked the coded transcribed data sheets helped to see the inaccurate and irrelevant segments in the analysis which raised dependability and confirmability of the data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In light of the aim of the study, the triangulation of the data gathered from different sources helped to crosscheck and verify the data drawn from diverse sources and get the whole picture holistically with the convergences and divergences (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Miles & Huberman, 1994). In this respect, the data and methodological triangulation (Denzin, 1978b as cited in Patton, 2002) contributed to the verification and credibility of the findings and helped better understand the phenomenon under investigation.
Findings

The qualitative data triangulated yielded invaluable findings related to the collaborative mentoring processes and the growth of mentees and school mentors within this process. That the dyadic and tripartite supervisory processes were worthy of consideration was reported from different perspectives.

Pre- and Post-conferences: ‘A must’ for Mentees’ Growth

The data drawn from interviews revealed valuable findings as regards the benefits of pre- and post-supervisory processes in the program. These processes were also found more effective than the ones employed in the previous years by the mentors. Almost all Ms and SMs considered these processes critical and effective for mentees growth from different aspects. One mentee (M7) particularly reported, “They [conferences] helped us a lot. They were very tiring but it was worth it ... since we are not a real teacher, we need to be prepared before teaching. After the teaching, everything is already gone.” Pre-conferences were chiefly considered necessary since they, through the guidance provided, raised mentees confidence (M1, M2 and M3), developed their lesson planning skills (M6, M9 and M10), promoted mentees’ awareness for the lesson (SM3), improved the quality of the lesson (M6, SM6 and SM8), improved mentees’ performance (SM2 and M10). M3, focussing on the effect of the pre-conferences, reported,

“I gained awareness about which activities and skills to place at which stage of planning. Now I can say that I feel more confident ... in the first I had difficulties in writing a lesson plan, but now I can write one in ten minutes.”

SM2 also reported,

“we actually made adjustments on the lesson plan in pre-meetings ... specific modifications and improvements ... this point is okay ... elaborate on this and before you start the point ... do these ... bring a poster ... that is we focussed on the weaknesses of the plan ... or you can give them hints about the students, mind this so that you will have no problems ... all these contribute to her performance.”

Besides, M6 highlighted the significance of pre-meetings in that these sessions raised mentees’ awareness and helped them make fewer mistakes during teaching.

On the other hand, post-conferences were deemed to be effective since they assisted mentees in gaining awareness of their weaknesses and show improvement. Some mentees considered post-conferences effective since those sessions promoted their self-reflection (M3 and M7), their awareness related to instructional process and weak areas (M4, M6, M7 and M8), and minimized the risk of failure of the subsequent lesson (M3 and M5). SM7 reported, “Through post-sessions, she [the mentee] gained awareness that a good lesson plan, flash cards and chocolates do not guarantee that she will have an effective lesson.” Some mentees also highlighted that post-conferences boosted their awareness related to their strong and weak aspects in teaching. M6 reported, “I wasn’t aware that I had poor tone of voice till being involved in post-sessions.” SM3 reported the importance of these sessions for the mentees’ growth in the following way:

“She had the opportunity to criticize herself ... not only the bad sides but also the good side ... Post meetings helped her have various experiences in different classes and helped her development.”

Besides, post-observation conferences were also deemed to be useful since mentees need a third eye for improving their teaching (M10).
Feedback Matters, but whose Feedback?

Almost half of the mentees underlined the significance of feedback they received from both SM and UM for their improvement. These two key persons were reported to have diverse roles during the supervisory process. M7 said, “I learned a lot from both. It is better to be informed from both sides. [UM] knows us well. [SM] knows students well. It is her class.” Except this, mentees had various reports as regards their preference related to the source of feedback. While SMs’ feedback was considered more trustworthy since mentees practise in her/his class (M7), UM’s feedback was deemed to be more constructive because it was more comprehensive (M2), more constructive in boosting mentees’ confidence since s/he was regarded more trustable (M1) and caring (M3). UM was also considered to promote mentees’ generation of ideas (M11).

However, more than half of the mentees raised the complaints related to the insufficient and impractical feedback given by SMs. M2 said, “She [SM] gave superfluous feedback, redundant criticism. These were not important to focus on.” Although some mentees highlighted how satisfied they felt and improved themselves with the UM’s feedback given, few of them did not find the UM’s feedback constructive during post-sessions since s/he was not involved in the first two observations. M9 reported, “She [UM] cannot tell me about my weak points. You need to be in the classroom situation, you really see what you could have done or couldn’t have done.”

Tripartite Conferences: The Sine qua non of Supervisory Process

Tripartite conferences were regarded as the most important part of the program by all participants since they assisted mentees in taking actions on their weak points. The open dialogue raised mentees’ awareness of their strengths and weaknesses (M8) and helped them to get multiple and constructive feedback on the convergent and divergent points at the same time (SM1 and SM4). While M6 regarded receiving feedback from different standpoints to be significant since it promotes mentees’ reflection, M9 considered it to be indispensable for her growth. However, a couple of cases were considered problematic: first, arranging a common time for these conferences was considered difficult by few mentees and school mentors. M9 said, “My mentors didn’t have time to do tripartite dialogue because they were so busy. My tutor had to go to another observation….my school mentor had another lesson to go to … we had to rush.” Next, SMs reported the significance of taking into consideration the mark they give for assessment of mentees during tripartite dialogues. SM5 said, “If you want my contribution, you need to consider my evaluation, even though the tutor’s percentage is higher.”

Ups and Downs in Mentees’ Professional Growth

The data triangulated showed that mentees had diverse experiences in various areas of their growth throughout the process.

Personal characteristics: The findings showed that, except few of them, almost half of the mentees started the program having excitement, nervousness and lack of confidence. The teaching experiences were considered influential in raising almost all mentees’ confidence in classroom teaching. Half of them reported their growth in becoming warmer and friendlier in the instructional process. That the mentees’ enthusiasm, creativity, patience and problem solving skills were developed was expressed by one mentee, respectively. M7 said, “I am more confident than before and trust myself in immediate creativity, giving appropriate answers to the pupils’ questions, testing and checking their understandings, and making learning and teaching more enjoyable.” Some SMs approved mentees growth in self-confidence. SM2 said, “After gaining confidence, she started speaking fluently.”
Warm-up and presentation stages: Mentees had diverse experiences in these sections of lesson. Nearly half of the mentees reported their acquisition of techniques in motivating pupils, while a number of them underlined their growth in contextualizing the teaching point at the beginning of the lesson. By creating a relaxed and cheerful environment, M3 created an effective instructional environment, she said, “Pupils were all active and willing to learn. I think warm-up stage is effective to make pupils motivate to the lesson … by focusing their attention and increasing the likelihood that new information is linked to existing knowledge”. M5, reporting her development in presenting materials, underlined that the wall chart and vegetable pictures she used encouraged pupils to talk about vegetables and promoted their participation. Besides, emphasising on the critical role of the UM on her development of materials, M2 remarked, “Before I didn’t know what to do in warm-up … greeting or lead-in? Now I do both.”

Planning of the instructional process: Mentees considered themselves developed in various areas of instructional planning. First, almost all mentees expressed their development in writing a lesson plan and organizing a board. The role of the UM on mentees’ growth of these assets was deemed to be immense. Focusing on the impact of the UM’s feedback on her instructional planning, M9 reported: “I divided the board into sections of five, writing a different category in each section. I made sure that the chart and the writings were big enough for the whole class to see and I left the chart on the board until the end of the activity because the pupils had to use the chart to write their dialogues.”

Further, during lesson planning process, more than half of the mentees became more aware of the ways of using a range of teaching methods and techniques for presentation, practice and skill development and employing appropriate teaching materials and aids suitable to the level of pupils. Only few mentees developed their time management skills. Focussing on her improvement on planning, M5 remarked, “I can plan my lesson using lots of appropriate activities at the appropriate level by thinking appropriate aims and realistic timing.” M3 also said, “When I finished activities it was time to break.” In contrast, few of them referred to the timing problems they encountered while reaching the aims and objectives of the lesson.

Giving feedback and instructions: A number of mentees expressed their gradual growth in using various correction techniques. M6 said, “I used to give the correct answers immediately but towards the end of my experience, I asked the questions again to encourage self-correction. I asked the other pupils to encourage peer-correction.” Underlining the significance of mentors’ feedback in her development of error correction techniques, M5 reported how critical it was to keep in touch with and visit both mentors. Further, nearly half of them expressed their development in giving clear, concise and purposeful instructions. One mentee, stressing on the significance of quality of instructions, stated, “giving clear instructions helps teacher save time on doing more productive work.” However, some mentees encountered problems in this area. Underlining the impact of clarity of instructions on pupils’ understanding of the task, M8 said, “as my instructions weren’t clear enough, the pupils couldn’t understand what they were going to do and the examples given should have been clearer in order not to make pupils feel confused.” Besides, few mentees developed themselves in giving reinforcement and checking comprehension, respectively. Reporting the constructive impact of praising on enhancing pupils’ motivation and participation, M9 remarked that despite her awareness of the importance of praising, she forgot to do it in class.
Communication skills: The findings showed that mentees developed their rapport with pupils by using their body language and gestures. Focussing on the significance of non-verbal techniques in teaching-learning situation, M10 said, “Through my experiences, I have learned how to use language and my facial expressions and body effectively to get attention.” By getting rid of her shyness and becoming more aware of what pupils like, one of the mentees gradually developed her communication skills. M5 also reported how she established getting rapport with the pupils after giving up her reservations and avoidance of going closer to pupils due to her excitement. M4 said, “Sometimes using body language or facial expressions are better than talking in the class about any topic.”

Teacher talk: The findings revealed contradictory viewpoints regarding mentees’ growth in using language. Nearly half of them reported their constant development in their use of voice. M10 said, “Every teaching I felt step by step improvement in using my voice. I worked on intonation, stress and being audible so as to be heard at the back of the class”, while SM10 reported, “we started from scratch concerning her voice, posture and so forth. She was very inexperienced. Even the student at the back couldn’t hear her. She developed amazingly.” However, half of the mentees and few SMs underlined that mentees need further development in their accurate use of voice in instructional process. Mentees reported their need of further development in language use. M4 remarked, “I should be careful about intonation. If I talk at the same level, pupils can get bored.” Another mentee underlined the need for further improvement in her “use of voice, intonations while talking to attract pupils’ attention and prevent a monotonous lesson” and “spelling and the pronunciation of some words”, respectively. Some mentees faced problems as regards whether to use Turkish or English in class. M3 said, “I didn’t want to use Turkish but my school mentor always told me that I had to use Turkish in class. I realized that pupils became confused, I used Turkish to make everything clear and fulfil my mentor’s wish”.

Classroom management: From the very beginning of the program mentees reported their problems in classroom management. While nearly half of them developed their class control, few of them reported their constant problems in ensuring authority. Focusing on her development in classroom management, M6 said, “I did eye contact, used my voice effectively towards the end of my experience to create authority.” While some of them stated that they developed themselves in dealing with problem behaviour by using various strategies, more than half of them reported that they need to improve themselves in this area because of these reasons: “when pupils talk too much, they confuse and make grammatical mistakes and write mistakes” (M2); “a good teacher should be able to control misbehaviour in the class” (M5); and “they need to have authority to make pupils respect them” (M9). In this course of time one mentee found the UM’s feedback critical for her growth in classroom management. Focussing on the role of formal teachings on the mentee’s growth, SM2 said, “they have huge impact on making the mentee to take the control of the class.” SM9, reflecting on her mentees’ problems in class, came to the conclusion that voice plays critical role in managing class.

Content knowledge: The skills that almost half of the mentees considered themselves developed in are reading and then listening. Very few of them reported their growth in writing and speaking skills and grammar and vocabulary teaching. Having stressed her prior fear in teaching grammar and reading and writing skills, M1 reported, “I gained awareness that I am much better in teaching reading and writing. I developed these as a result of conferences. This is overcoming the fear of confrontation.” M5 also reported her growth in teaching reading and listening skills as a result of extensive experiences in silent reading activities, pre-listening activities, post-listening activities, using tape in real class. However, few mentees reported their need for further development in teaching
writing, grammar and vocabulary teaching. M8 complained about the insufficient opportunities she had in teaching vocabulary and writing and said,

“I feel the necessity of teaching vocabulary ... teaching verbs, adjectives, words that belong to particular word family ... The only writing process I did was to make pupils write answers of certain questions related to reading texts and make them write some sentences about a topic they discussed in class.”

On the other hand, some SMs complained about mentees’ reluctance to teach grammar and their insistence and willingness on teaching reading skill. Few SMs, though, thought that it was easier for mentees to teach grammar and underlined the request of the UM on mentees to teach reading skill.

School Mentors’ Development of Pedagogical Skills

All of SMs, except one, reported their development in various areas as a result of mentoring in practice teaching. Almost all reported their refreshment of pedagogical knowledge, as M9 reported, “What is going on in new methods, new ways of teaching ... it is a kind of in-service training for us. You revise what you know, you renew yourself.” Besides, while almost half of them reported their increased awareness related to teaching materials employed by mentees, some of them found the teaching strategies and techniques used by mentees beneficial. SM2, stressing on her 25 years’ experience on the job, reported, “These mentees are exposed to improvements and changes in teaching. I am benefitting from the materials she has prepared.” Stressing her openness to self-development, SM6 emphasized, “I want to use any activity my mentee employs successfully. She taught passive voice using flash cards as a whole class activity. I liked it.” Next, that the mentees’ instructional processes helped SMs to question their teaching strategies was reported by almost half of them. SM2 underscored, “When I sit at the back of class to observe, I become aware of the points I wasn’t aware while I was in front of the class.” Another SM said “I question myself if I would do that if I were her. Would I stand by the table like her?” In addition to this, few SMs found lesson plans, tripartite conferences, and the use of English in these conferences valuable for their development. SM11 said, “I am gaining from meetings ... I enjoy learning about another person’s experience and feelings. It adds variety to my life experience in general.” Finally, that supervising a mentee promoted SM’s enthusiasm and motivation was reported by one teacher. SM9 said, “When I have a new student I feel motivated I become more energetic. They give us vitamin.” Another SM said the more I refresh myself in terms of methodology, the more enthusiastic I become. It seems that I am developing through reflection here.” It is interesting that the mentee of the SM, who stated that mentoring did not contribute to her growth, stressed how unconscious and incapables the SM was in providing professional help for her.
Discussion and Conclusion

A move towards conceptualizing ITEPs around ‘extensive and intensely supervised clinical work—tightly integrated with course work—that allows candidates to learn from expert practice in schools’ is deemed to be crucial (Darling-Hammond, 2006, p. 307). This is realized through successful internships for which collaboration is a key factor required (Wilmore & Bratlien, 2005). No single recipe exists leading to the success of mentoring which is a complex and context-bound phenomenon (Harrison, Lawson, & Wortley, 2005) and individual meaning making process promoted through the supervisory and monitoring processes (Maskan & Efe, 2011). While the collaborative mentoring model implemented through dyadic and tripartite supervisory processes throughout the program was deemed to be effective and essential for mentees’ growth from various angles, it was considered contributing to school mentors’ pedagogical development.

The findings of the study showed that mentoring dialogues played constructive roles on mentees’ instructional and professional development (Shieveley & Poetter, 2002). Pre- and post-conferences were thought to be critical from different viewpoints. The former promoted mentees’ lesson planning and preparation process, the latter enhanced their effective delivery of the lessons. Both university and school mentors played critical and constructive roles since both contribute to the mentees’ meaning making process from different but unique perspectives, acting as a third eye during observations. Both UM and SM enact complementary roles: UT can connect theory to practice and stimulate mentees’ self-evaluation and SM can play a role as frontline teacher with the expertise in instructional and curricular issues (Tsui et al., 2001). Next, tripartite conferences were considered the most significant and constructive part of the model as they provided mentees with multiple views on their performance and became a means for their growth (Gimbert & Nolan, 2003).

The findings also revealed mentees’ growth in pedagogical (Chalies et al., 2004) and content knowledge. The areas they displayed more improvement are planning lesson, overcoming nervousness and excitement, contextualizing teaching point, and employing various correction techniques. Mentees’ using voice, establishing rapport with pupils, using body language and gestures, dealing with problem behaviour, and employing four skills and teaching grammar-vocabulary were the areas they developed least. The feedback provided by both mentors was considered invaluable for their growth from different aspects. Providing ‘practical assistance and advice’ regarding what to do and how to do is critical in mentoring (Hobson, 2002) and when feedback is provided from a number of sources is more valuable (Brinko, 1993, p. 576). However, mentees reported their need to further develop themselves in achieving objectives, managing time, using voice and target language, ensuring authority in class, teaching writing, grammar and vocabulary. Considering this 10-week experience, it is critical to underline that exposing mentees to a wide range of teaching experiences (Şimşek et al., 2013) are fundamental for their growth. “Learning is a continuous process that is grounded in experience. Thus knowledge and skills gained in one situation become instruments of understanding and dealing with situations that follow” (Kohonen, 2001).

Collaborative mentoring contributes mentors to reflect on their pedagogical and instructional processes (Graham, 2006) and develop their technical skills (Fletcher, 1998). They, directly and indirectly, gain innovative ideas and strategies from mentees who are supervised by the university mentor (Lopez-Real & Kwan, 2005). Mentoring dialogues and observations acted as a catalyst for SMs’ development from various aspects: revitalizing their pedagogical knowledge, enhancing their consciousness related to techniques and in-class material, promoting their self-reflection, boosting their enthusiasm and motivation. However, lack of confidence on abilities in giving guidance can be a factor inhibiting SMs’ provision of guidance.
The issues that need further consideration for collaborative mentoring are as follows: the problems that the busy schedule of mentors and mentees create during two-way and tripartite conferences; the way how to assess mentees during tripartite conferences; providing more practical opportunities for mentees’ growth (Chiang, 2008; Şimşek et al., 2013) since growth is a cumulative experience. Teaching workload affects the quality of mentoring support (Lee & Feng, 2007; Simpson et al., 2007) and requires arranging time for pre- and post-sessions in observations (Kent, 2001) for the effective implementation of mentoring processes. Further, the superficial and poor quality of the school mentor’s feedback (Paker, 2008) inhibits mentees’ gaining awareness related to their performance. Thus, as a result, the collaborative mentoring processes might fail to give positive outputs related to mentees’ growth. According to Kiraz (2002), in order to contribute to mentees’ growth, it is critical to adopt contemporary (collegial) supervisory approach in which school mentors are considered to possess better skills in providing guidance for mentees’ growth.

The following suggestions have been developed for practice and further studies in relation to the research findings:

- In order to reduce mentees’ weaknesses in their teaching performance - like the problems in their use of voice, communication with the students, use of body language and mimics, and use of four skills, before mentees are involved in teaching practice at schools, they can be exposed to more instructional experiences through microteachings in their classes which will be supervised by the university mentors.
- Mentees’ teaching performance can be further developed by involving them in more teaching experiences during practice teaching at schools and providing them with the opportunities to get more feedback through dyadic and tripartite conferences.
- Based on the aim of the research, the study only incorporated mentees and school mentors to scrutinize how dyadic and tripartite supervisory processes embedded within the Collaborative Mentoring Model (CMM) contributed to the growth of both prospective teachers and school mentors, yet a further research can be conducted incorporating university mentors to get the whole picture from all dimensions.
- In order to see the implementation of CMM in the other fields of instruction, apart from English language teaching, it could be useful to conduct future studies in other teacher education programs as well.
References


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